

THE NEW LARNED HISTORY

FOR READY REFERENCE
READING AND RESEARCH

VOLUME VII

<i>Original Edition—5 volumes</i>	<i>1893-4</i>
<i>Second Edition—original edition revised, with supplemental volume</i>	<i>1901</i>
<i>Third Edition—as second, with second supple- mental volume</i>	<i>1910</i>
<i>Complete Revision—12 volumes</i>	<i>1922-3</i>



SEA BATTLE BETWEEN THE ENGLISH AND THE DUTCH, JUNE, 1666

An encounter at North Foreland which lasted four days. The Dutch fleet was under the command of De Ruyter and Van Tromp, the English under Monk and Prince Rupert. Both fleets were badly shattered.

(After painting by Willem Van de Velde, in the Ryks Museum, Amsterdam)

THE NEW LARNED HISTORY

FOR READY REFERENCE
READING AND RESEARCH

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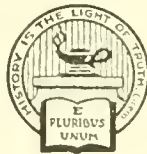
J. N. LARNED

NOW COMPLETELY REVISED, ENLARGED AND BROUGHT UP TO DATE

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

IN 12 VOLUMES

VOL. VII.—LYLY TO NORI



SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS
C. A. NICHOLS PUBLISHING COMPANY

BUSINESS FOUNDED 1851

1923

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J. J. Little & Ives Company, New York City, U. S. A.
Composition, Plates & Presswork

C. S. Hammond & Co., New York City U. S. A.
Map engravings and printing

Zabel Brothers Company, Philadelphia, U. S. A.
Lithographs—Maps

J. F. Tapley Company, Long Island City, U. S. A.
Binding

Matthews-Northrup Works, Buffalo, U. S. A.
Colored Frontispieces

Tileston & Hollingsworth Co., Boston, U. S. A.
Paper

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Annex
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[EDITOR'S NOTE: These four colored maps show the political evolution of the Near East, from the death of Alexander the Great in 323 B.C. to the establishment of Roman supremacy in the first century before Christ. The first map of the series reveals the empire of Alexander at its greatest extent, while the three succeeding maps indicate the progressive break-up of that territory until the decisive intervention of Rome at the time of Sulla and Pompey.]

2. MEXICAN WAR, 1846-1848 See MEXICO: 1847

3. MEXICO (colored) See MEXICO

4. MONGOLIAN EMPIRES, CENTRAL ASIA, 1330 (colored) See MONGOLIA

[EDITOR'S NOTE: This map portrays the disintegration of the vast empire of Jenghiz and Kublai Khan about one generation after the visit of Marco Polo. It will be noted that nearly all of eastern Europe and a large part of India were still ruled by the descendants of the Mongol conquerors. The inset map gives a clear view of southwestern Asia on the eve of the career of Timur or Tamerlane.]

5. NETHERLANDS AND BELGIUM (colored) See NETHERLANDS

[EDITOR'S NOTE: This modern political map of the Low Countries includes not only kingdoms of the Netherlands and Belgium, but also the grand duchy of Luxemburg. The two small districts around Malmedy and Eupen, which Belgium secured from Germany at the end of the World War, can be seen east of Liège and south of Aachen.]

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COLORED FRONTISPIECE

SEA BATTLE BETWEEN THE ENGLISH AND DUTCH, JUNE, 1666.

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LYLY, Lilly, or Lylic, John (1553-1606), English writer. See **DRAMA: 1558-1592**; **ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1530-1660**.

LYMAN M. LAW, American vessel. It was sunk by a German submarine, 1917. See **U. S. A.: 1917** (February-April).

LYMNE. See **PORTUS LEMANIS**.

LYMPHATIC CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD. See **MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th century: Discovery of the lymphatic circulation**.

LYNCH, Thomas (1749-1779), American patriot. See **U. S. A.: 1765: Stamp Act Congress; 1776** (July); **Text of Declaration of Independence**.

LYNCH LAW: Origin in the United States.—Change in the meaning of the term.—Record of lynching to 1914.—"It is generally supposed that the custom or practice of lynching in this country had its origin in the method of punishment used by a Virginian farmer named Lynch, who during the Revolutionary War sought in this way to maintain order in his community or section,—hence, Lynch's Law, and Lynch law, from which comes the word 'lynching.' In the beginning, however, the term seldom, if ever, conveyed the meaning 'to put to death'; nor does it appear that Negroes were lynched even so often as whites. The methods of punishment in the majority of cases consisted of riding the victim on a rail, beating or whipping him, and often of giving him a coat of tar and feathers. Moreover, it does not appear that lynching in any form was very common in the early history of the country. Indeed, in 1830 a writer in the *Southern Literary Messenger* began a brief article on the subject with the following: 'Forty years ago the practice of wreaking private vengeance or of inflicting summary or illegal punishment for crime actual or pretended which has been glossed over by the name of Lynch law was hardly known except in sparse, frontier settlements beyond the reach of courts and legal proceedings.' Newspapers, periodicals, and other literature of the time show,—as the years pass,—an interesting change in the meaning of the term Lynch law. As the practice of lynching increased, the methods of the executors of this law became more severe, and it grew more often to mean 'a putting to death.' Possibly the change in meaning was partly due to the fact that lynching came to be a favorite means of punishment for abolitionists, their Negro dupes, and for both Negroes and whites who might be found guilty of unusual or shocking crimes. The change from the mild to the severer meaning of the term was gradual. From 1830 to 1840 it seldom meant 'to put to death'; from 1850 to 1860 it very often had that meaning, and by 1870, or 1875,—this became the most exclusive interpretation of 'lynching.' . . . Beginning in 1885, *The Chicago Daily Tribune* has kept a record of lynchings to the present time. . . . The following statistics which are based upon the records of the

Chicago Daily Tribune are compiled by periods; excepting the last which is for four years, these periods were taken almost indiscriminately for two years together, beginning with 1885 and 1886. In the United States there were 314: 150 whites, 140 Negroes, and 6 Chinamen; 62 in the North, 252 in the South. Of those lynched in the South, 144 were Negroes. . . . [In 1892 and 1893] the whole number [of lynchings] for the country was 436: 309 Negroes, 110 whites, 5 Mexicans, and 8 Indians; 53 lynchings in the North, 287 Negroes in the South."—W. H. Collins, *Truth about lynching, and the negro in the south*, pp. 9-11, 48-50.—Statistics, compiled by the *Chicago Tribune*, of the cases of mob-murder, called "lynchings," which were reported in the newspapers as having occurred in the United States during the year 1890, showed a total of 107, being 20 less than a similar record for 1898 had shown. Of the reported cases, 3 were in Kansas, 1 in Pennsylvania, and 103 in Southern States. Georgia led in the latter list, being credited with 20 executions under lynch law. Mississippi followed with 14, Louisiana with 13, Arkansas with 11, and other States of the South with lesser numbers. Of the victims (mostly colored) 44 were accused of murder; 11 of complicity in murder; 11 with rape or attempted rape; 1 with rape and murder. The *Political Science Quarterly*, in its Record of Political Events between November 11, 1897, and May 10, 1898, cites 31 incidents of lynching, exclusive of a mob-murder committed at Lake City, South Carolina, where a negro postmaster and one of his children were killed, his wife and three other children wounded, and their house burned down. Of these incidents, 23 were reported from the south, the victims in every case being black; 8 were from northwestern states, the victims being white. For 1897, the *Buffalo Express* compiled statistics of reported lynchings from its news columns, which showed 38 between January 1 and June 8, and 77 during the remainder of the year, making a total of 115. In 1901 and 1902 "lynchings for the country were 231: 29, North, 202, South; 194 Negroes, 35 whites, 2 Indians, 1 Chinaman; 185 Negroes lynched in the South . . . [In] 1906 and 1907, for the United States, 132: 3, North, 129, South; Negroes lynched in the South, 129. . . . During the four years [1911-1914] there were 235 lynchings in the United States: 11, North; 224, South. In the North, 5 Negroes and 6 whites were lynched; in the South, 215 Negroes, 8 whites, and 1 Mexican."—*Ibid.*, pp. 50-52.

ALSO IN: *Negro Year Book*, 1912, pp. 33, 148-149.

Georgia case. See **GEORGIA: 1914-1915**.

National aspects.—Record in 1919 and 1920.—"If anyone is disposed to deny that lynching is national rather than regional, the riots in East St. Louis, Illinois, in 1917, resulting in the death of over two hundred Negroes, and the horrible

lynching at Coatesville, Pennsylvania, in 1911, should be sufficient to show that the burden of guilt does not rest on the South alone.' A second significant and usually unnoticed fact is that comparatively few of the persons lynched are even charged with assault or attempt assault—in 1918, 16 out of 62. This disposes of the idea that the motive of the mob is a chivalrous determination to protect the honor of white women. A third fact to be observed is that lynchings commonly occur in neighborhoods where education is backward and community standards are low. If Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, and other Southern states have won a bad eminence in their record of lynchings, the reason may largely be found in the unenlightened conditions under which too many of their people, white and black, have been allowed to live."—J. E. Gregg, *Lynching*, pp. 3-4.—"During the year 1919 there occurred in the United States 84 lynchings. Of the victims 78 were negroes, 4 were whites, and 2 were Mexicans. They were distributed among the states as follows: Alabama, 8; Arkansas, 10; Colorado, 2 (both Mexicans); Florida, 5; Georgia, 21; Kansas, 1 (white); Louisiana, 8; Mississippi, 13; Missouri, 2 (1 white); Nebraska, 1; North Carolina, 4; South Carolina, 2; Tennessee, 1; Texas, 3; Washington, 1 (white); and West Virginia, 2. During the first six months of 1920 the number of known lynchings fell to 12, of which one was a white person. The distribution of the twelve was as follows: Alabama, 2; Arkansas, 2 (1 white); Florida, 1; Kansas, 1; Kentucky, 1; Minnesota, 3; South Carolina, 1; and Texas, 1."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Municipal affairs (Political Science Quarterly, Supplement, Sept., 1920, p. 76)*.—" [A] bill which passed the House. It which thus far has failed to be approved by the Senate, is the Dyer Bill making lynching a federal crime. The vote in the House on January 26 was 230 for and 119 against. Seventeen Republicans voted with the Democrats against the measure while eight Democrats voted with the Republicans for it. The chief argument against the bill was that it constituted an unconstitutional invasion of the police powers of the states. . . . "During the year 1921 there were 64 lynchings in the United States. They were distributed among the states as follows: Alabama, 2 (1 white); Arkansas, 6; Florida, 5 (1 white); Georgia, 14 (1 woman); Kentucky, 1; Louisiana, 5 (1 white); Mississippi, 13 (1 white); Missouri, 1; North Carolina, 4; South Carolina, 5; Tennessee, 1 (white); Texas, 6 (1 white); Virginia, 1. In 18 cases the alleged offense was murder, and in 19, assault on white women. The other offenses were of a miscellaneous character. In 32 cases, just one-half of the total number of lynchings, the victims were taken from peace officers and jails. During the first half of the year 1922 there occurred in the United States 30 lynchings. Twelve occurred in Texas; 7 in Mississippi; 4 in Georgia; 2 in Arkansas; and one in each of the following states: Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Oklahoma and South Carolina."—*Political Science Quarterly, Supplement, Sept., 1922, pp. 37, 47*.

ALSO IN: H. Martineau, *Retrospect of western travel*, pp. 30-31.—H. Martineau, *Society in America*, v. 2, pp. 141-142.—G. W. Haugh, *Excursion through the slave states*, pp. 136-139.—H. H. Bancroft, *Popular tribunals*, v. 2, pp. 666-667.—C. Sandburg, *Chicago race riots*, July, 1916.—K. Miller, *Appeal to reason*.—*Negro Year Book*, 1921, pp. 72, 354-359.

LYNE, Sir William John (1844-1913), Australian statesman. Minister for home affairs, 1901-1903; for trade and customs, 1903-1904; 1905-

1907; treasurer of the commonwealth, 1907-1908. See AUSTRALIA: 1902.

LYNES, Hubert (1874-), British naval officer. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: a, 2.

LYON, John, leader of White Hoods in Ghent. See FLANDERS: 1379-1381.

LYON, Mary (1797-1849), American educator, founder (in 1837) of Mount Holyoke Female Seminary, and pioneer advocate for higher education of women in America. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1644-1852.

LYON, Nathaniel (1818-1861), American soldier. See U.S.A.: 1861 (July-September: Missouri); MISSOURI: 1861.

LYON, name of ship which brought relief to American colonists. See RHODE ISLAND: 1631-1636.

LYONS, city in eastern France, at the confluence of the Rhône and Saône rivers. In 1921, the city had a population of about 561,592.

Under the Romans.—Minutius Plancus, Roman governor of Gallia Comata, or the Gaul of Cæsar's conquest, founded, 43 B.C., a city called Lugdunum, at the confluence of the Rhone and the Saône. A few years later, under Augustus, it was made the capital of a province to which it gave its name—Lugdunensis—and which comprised the whole of central Gaul, between the Loire and the Seine with the Armorican peninsula. In time the name Lugdunum became softened and shorn to Lyons. "Lyons, which stood on the west side of the Rhone, not so near the confluence of the Saône as now, appears to have been settled by fugitive Romans driven out of Vienne by another party. It grew with as marvelous a rapidity as some of our western cities, for in fifteen years it swelled from a simple colony into a metropolis of considerable splendor. . . . Lugdun appears to have been a Celtic designation, and, as the 'g' in that speech took the sound of 'y' and 'd' was silent, we can easily see how the name became Lyon."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul, bk. 2, ch. 5, with foot-note*.—"Not having originated out of a Celtic canton, and hence always with a territory of narrow limits, but from the outset composed of Italians and in possession of the full Roman franchise, it [Lyons] stood forth unique in its kind among the communities of the three Gauls—as respects its legal relations, in some measure resembling Washington in the North American federation. . . . Only the governor of the middle or Lugdunensis province had his seat there; but when emperors or princes stayed in Gaul they as a rule resided in Lyons. [See GERMANY: B.C. 8-A.D. 11.] Lyons was, alongside of Carthage, the only city of the Latin half of the empire which obtained a standing garrison, after the model of that of the capital. The only mint for imperial money which we can point to with certainty, for the earlier period of the empire, is that of Lyons. Here was the headquarters of the transit-dues which embraced all Gaul; and to this as a centre the Gallic network of roads converged. . . . Thus Lugdunum rapidly rose into prosperity. . . . In the later period of the empire, no doubt, it fell behind Trèves."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, bk. 8, ch. 3*.

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

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

12th century.—"Poor Men of Lyons." See WALDENSES.

1685-1698.—Loss in silk weaving industry by Huguenot exodus. See FRANCE: 1681-1698.

1793-1794.—Revolt against revolutionary gov-

ernment at Paris.—Siege and capture by Terrorists. See FRANCE: 1793 (June); (July-December): Progress of war of coalition; also Civil war; 1793-1794 (October-April).

1795.—Reaction against Reign of Terror.—White Terror. See FRANCE: 1794-1795 (July-April).

19th century.—Austrian occupation.—Industrial crises.—Floods.—Lyons was occupied by the Austrian forces in 1814 and 1815. There was a labor insurrection in 1831, a socialist movement in 1871 that was inspired by the Paris commune, and industrial crises in 1849 and 1882. In 1840 and 1856 Lyons suffered from serious floods.

20th century.—Manufacturing, commercial and military centre.—Modern Lyons is ranked next to Paris as a French manufacturing, commercial and military center. The silk industry of France centers at Lyons (see EDUCATION, ART: Modern: France), and general industrial life in that city was augmented during the World War by many manufacturing establishments being transferred from the war zone.

LYONS, Peace of (1601). See SAVOY AND PIEDMONT: 1580-1713.

LYRE. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Stringed instruments.

LYS, river of northeastern France flowing through Belgium. It empties into the Scheldt at Ghent. The Lys valley was a scene of fighting

during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: t; 1918: II. Western front: a, 2; d, 5; d, 19; k, 5.

LYSA GORA, district in Poland. It was taken by the Germans in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 2.

LYSANDER (fl. 404 B. C.), Spartan general, administrator and diplomatist. See ATHENS: B. C. 404; B. C. 404-403; GREECE: B. C. 405; B. C. 4th century: General conditions.

LYSIMACHUS (c. 355-281 B. C.), Macedonian general. See MACEDONIA: B. C. 323-316, to B. C. 207-280.

LYSIPPUS (fl. 4th century B. C.), Greek sculptor. See SCULPTURE: Greek: B. C. 5th century.

LYTTLETON, William Henry (1724-1808), colonial governor of South Carolina, 1756-1760. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1750-1761.

LYTTON, Edward George Earle Bulwer-Lytton, 1st Baron (1803-1873), English novelist. Member of Parliament, 1831-1841, 1852-1866; wrote several successful plays: "The Lady of Lyons," "Richelieu," and "Money"; as a novelist he won great popularity with his "Last days of Pompeii," "Pelham," "Night and Morning," "The Caxtons," "Zanoni," "Rienzi," and "Eugene Aram."

LYTTON, Edward Robert Bulwer-Lytton, 1st Earl (1831-1891), English diplomatist. See INDIA: 1864-1893; AFGHANISTAN: 1869-1881.

M

M-1, giant British submarine. See SUBMARINES: 1912-1918.

MA'AN, town of Syria, about 180 miles east of Suez. It was captured by the British in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 6; c, 13.

MAARMORS. See MORMAERS.

MAAS. See MEUSE.

MAASTRICHT. See MAESTRICHT.

MABILLON, John (1632-1707), French Benedictine monk. Member of the Congregation of St. Maur. See HISTORY: 25.

MABINOGION, collection of Welsh prose tales from the Red Book of Hergest, translated by Lady Charlotte Guest, and published in 1838. See MYTHOLOGY: Celtic: Christian era.

MABLY, Gabriel Bonnot de (1709-1785), French writer. See SOCIALISM: 1753-1797.

MCADOO, William Gibbs (1863-), American financier, lawyer and cabinet officer. Secretary of the treasury, 1913-1918; director-general of railways, 1917-1919. See INDEPENDENT TREASURY, UNITED STATES; NEW JERSEY: 1000; RAILROADS: 1016-1020; U. S. A.: 1913 (March); 1917-1919: Effect of the war.

MCALLISTER, Fort: Siege and capture of. See U. S. A.: 1864 (November-December: Georgia).

MACALO, Battle of (1427). See ITALY: 1412-1447.

MCANENY, George (1860-), American civic administrator. President of the borough of Manhattan, 1910-1913; member of the New York board of aldermen, 1914-1917. See NEW YORK CITY: 1900.

MACAO, peninsular town and free port in China, near the western entrance of the Canton river. (See CHINA: Map.) The peninsula (area 4 square miles) has been a Portuguese settlement since 1557 when as a reward for aid against pirates, some merchants, engaged in the Chinese trade, were allowed to build warehouses there. (See also COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 15th-

17th centuries: Leadership of the Portuguese). The settlement grew into a town, which in the eighteenth century was a great center for the Eastern trade. China, however, for long did not recognize it as a Portuguese territory. Although a governor was regularly sent out from Portugal, China succeeded in maintaining supervision of the government, until the nineteenth century. In 1849, however, the rental which had been exacted ceased to be paid, and the Portuguese governor succeeded in destroying the authority of the Mandarin. In 1887 a treaty was made between the two countries, by which the settlement was recognized as Portuguese territory with the proviso that it should not be alienated without the consent of China. A large trade is still done, but is chiefly transit trade in Chinese hands and is hampered by the shallowness of the inner harbor. The population in 1910 was 74,866 of whom 2,171 were Portuguese, 71,021 Chinese, and 244 of various nationalities.

MCARTHUR, Arthur, governor of Wisconsin, 1856. See WISCONSIN: 1856-1893.

MACARTHUR, John (1767-1834), English colonist. Introduced the sheep-raising industry in New South Wales. See AUSTRALIA: 1787-1840.

MACAULAY, Thomas Babington, Baron (1800-1859), English historian and essayist. Member of the House of Commons, 1830-1834, 1839-1847; member of the supreme council in India, 1834-1838. See HISTORY: 8; 28; 31.

MACBETH, or Macbeda (d. 1057), king of Scotland, c. 1040-1057. See SCOTLAND: 1030-1054; IONA.

MCBRIDE, Sir Richard (1870-1917), Canadian statesman. Minister of mines in the provincial ministry, 1900-1901; premier and minister of mines, 1903-1916. See BRITISH COLUMBIA: 1003-1016.

MACCABÆUS, Judas (died c. 160 B. C.), greatest military hero of the Jewish war of independence waged against the Seleucidæan kings during the 2nd century B. C. See JEWS: B. C. 166-40;

HISTORY: 14; BETH-HORON, BATTLES OF; CAPHARSALAMA, BATTLE OF; BEER-ZATH, BATTLE OF.

MACCABEES, Asmonæans, family of Jewish patriots, consisting of the aged Mattathias and his five sons, Jochanan, Simon, Judas, Eleazar, and Jonathan. They achieved great prominence from 166-40 B. C., as leaders of the revolt of the Jewish people against the oppression of the Seleucidæan kings. See JEWS: B. C. 166-40.

MACCABEES, First book of. See HISTORY: 14.

MACCIOWICE, Battle of (1794). See POLAND: 1793-1796.

McCLELLAN, George Brinton (1826-1885), American general and statesman. Served in the Mexican War, 1846-1848; commander-in-chief of Federal armies, 1861-1862; superseded by Burnside, 1862; governor of New Jersey, 1878-1881.

Campaign in West Virginia. See U. S. A.: 1861 (June-July).

Appointed to chief command.—Organization of the Army of the Potomac. See U. S. A.: 1861 (July-November).

Protracted inaction through winter of 1861-1862. See U. S. A.: 1861-1862 (December-March: Virginia).

Peninsular campaign. See U. S. A.: 1862 (March-May: Virginia); 1862 (May: Virginia); Peninsular campaign: Battle of Williamsburg; 1862 (May-June: Virginia); 1862 (June: Virginia); 1862 (June-July: Virginia); 1862 (July-August: Virginia): End of peninsular campaign.

During General Pope's campaign. See U. S. A.: 1862 (July-August: Virginia): Beginning of Pope's campaign; 1862 (August-September: Virginia): General Pope's campaign.

Antietam campaign and removal from command. See U. S. A.: 1862 (September: Maryland): Lee's first invasion: Harper's Ferry; 1862 (October-December: Virginia).

Democratic nominee for president.—Defeated. See U. S. A.: 1864 (May-November).

McCLELLAN, George Brinton (1865-), American political leader. President of board of aldermen of New York City, 1893; member of the House of Representatives, 1895-1903; mayor of New York City, 1903-1909. See NEW YORK CITY: 1901-1903; 1905.

McCLINTOCK, Sir Francis Leopold (1819-1907), British admiral and explorer. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1852-1854; 1857-1859.

McCLURE, George (1771-1851), American general. Served in the War of 1812. See U. S. A.: 1813 (December).

McCLURE, Sir Robert John Le Mesurier (1807-1873), British naval officer and explorer. Discovered a northwest passage from the Pacific to the Atlantic, 1850-1854. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1850-1883; also Chronological summary: 1850-1854; Map of Arctic regions.

McCORMICK, Cyrus Hall (1809-1884), American manufacturer. Inventor of the reaper. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Reaper.

McCORMICK, Vance Criswell (1872-), American publisher. Chairman of the War Trade Board, 1917-1919; visited England and France on a war mission, 1917; appointed to Supreme Allied Blockade Council and the Economic Council, 1919. See U. S. A.: 1917 (November).

McCRRARY, George Washington (1835-1890), American political leader. Member of Ohio senate, 1861-1865; member of the House of Representatives, 1869-1877; secretary of war, 1877-1879. See U. S. A.: 1873-1874.

McCULLOCH VS. MARYLAND, United

States Supreme Court decision, 1819. See SUPREME COURT: 1780-1835.

MACDONALD, Sir Claude Maxwell (1852-1915), British soldier and diplomat. Served in the Egyptian campaign, 1882; in the Suakim expedition, 1884-1885; military attaché to the British agency in Cairo, 1882-1887; minister at Peking, 1896-1900; ambassador at Tokio, 1900-1912. See CHINA: 1898 (February-December); 1898 (April-August); 1898 (May).

MACDONALD, Jacques Étienne Joseph Alexandre, Duke of Taranto (1765-1840), French marshal. Became governor of the Roman states, 1798; of Naples, 1799; defeated by Suvarov at Trebbia, 1799; commanded in Switzerland and made a notable march over the Splügen pass, 1800-1801; distinguished himself at Wagram and won the marshal's baton, 1809; commanded the left wing in the Russian campaign, 1812; defeated at the Katzbach by Blücher, 1813; took part in the campaigns of 1813-1814; faithful to Napoleon, but directed by him to adhere to the new régime, 1814.—See also FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-April); 1799 (April-September); GERMANY: 1809 (July-September); 1813 (April-May); (August-October); (October); RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September).

ALSO IN: J. E. J. A. Macdonald, *Souvenirs*. **MACDONALD**, James Ramsay (1866-), British labor leader. See LABOR PARTIES: 1922.

MACDONALD, Sir John Alexander (1815-1891), Canadian statesman, one of the "Fathers of the Confederation." Premier of Canada, 1857-1862; 1867-1872; 1878-1891; chiefly instrumental in carrying the confederation of the dominion to a conclusion; responsible for institution of the tariff system known as "National Policy" for the protection of home industries; after his return to power in 1878, vigorously pushed the Canadian Pacific railway to completion; one of the British commissioners at Washington on settlement of the Alabama claims, 1870; opposed trade reciprocity with the United States.

MACDONALD, Sir William Christopher (1831-1917), Canadian capitalist. See EDUCATION: Modern developments; 20th century: General: Canada; EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Canada; GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

MACDONNELL, Antony Patrick, 1st Baron of Swinford (1844-), British administrator. In Indian civil service, 1865-1902; under-secretary of state in Ireland, 1902-1908; member of the Irish convention, 1917-1918. See IRELAND: 1903.

MACDONNELL, Sir Richard, governor of South Australia, 1855-1862. See SOUTH AUSTRALIA: 1840-1862.

MACDONOUGH, Thomas (1783-1825), American naval officer. Served in the War of 1812, in command of naval forces on Lake Champlain; defeated a British fleet under Downie in Plattsburg harbor, 1814. See U. S. A.: 1814 (September).

MACDOUGALL, William (1822-1905), Canadian statesman. Member of Canadian parliament, 1858-1882; member of executive council and commissioner of crown lands, 1862-1864; provincial secretary, 1864-1867; chairman of West Indian trade commission, 1865-1866; member of confederation conferences, 1864-1867; minister of public works, 1867; commissioner to London, for acquisition of North-West Territory, 1868. See CANADA: 1860-1873.

MACDOWELL, Edward Alexander (1861-1908), American composer. Studied in Paris, Wiesbaden, Frankfurt, and Weimar, where he was chiefly influenced by Joachim, Raff, and Liszt; returned to America, 1888; was professor of music, Columbia university, 1896-1904; elaborated a

highly personal harmony and method of musical speech which gives him his position as one of America's most original thinkers. See MUSIC: Modern: 1774-1908.

MCDOWELL, Ephraim (1771-1830), American surgeon. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: 19th century: Antiseptic surgery and obstetrics.

MCDOWELL, Irvin (1818-1885), American general. Served in the Mexican and Civil wars. In command of the Army of the Potomac, 1861; of the Army of Rappahannock in Virginia, 1862; engaged in the battles of Bull Run, Cedar Mountain, and Rappahannock Station, 1861-1862. See U. S. A.: 1861 (July: Virginia); 1862 (May-June: Virginia).

MACE: Symbol of authority.—"The club or mace, formed originally of hard wood, and the latter, subsequently either wholly or in part of metal, would naturally be adopted as one of the earliest weapons of primitive man, but it soon came to be regarded as a symbol of authority. . . . In the Middle Ages the mace was a common weapon with ecclesiastics, who in consequence of their tenures, frequently took the field, but were, by a canon of the Church, forbidden to wield the sword. It strikes me as not improbable that in this custom we have the origin of the use of the mace as a symbol of authority by our cathedral and other ancient religious bodies. . . . In all probability its use by lay corporations may be traced to the corps of sergeants-at-mace, instituted as a body-guard both by Philip Augustus of France and our own Richard I., whilst with the Crusaders in Palestine. We learn that when the former monarch was in the Holy Land he found it necessary to secure his person from the emissaries of a sheik, called 'the Old Man of the Mountain,' [q.v.] who bound themselves to assassinate whomsoever he assigned. 'When the king,' says an ancient chronicler, 'heard of this he began to reflect seriously, and took counsel how he might best guard his person. He therefore instituted a guard of sergeants-à-maces who night and day were to be about his person in order to protect him.' These sergens-à-maces were 'afterwards called sergeants-at-arms, for Jean Bouteiller, . . . who lived in the time of Charles VI., that is, at the conclusion of the fourteenth century tells us. "The sergens d'armes are the macebearers that the king has to perform his duty, and who carry maces before the king; these are called sergeants-at-arms, because they are sergeants for the king's body." We learn further that Richard I. of England soon imitated the conduct of the French king, but he seems to have given his corps of sergeants-at-arms a more extensive power. Not only were they to watch round the king's tent in complete armour, with a mace, a sword, a bow and arrows, but were occasionally to arrest traitors and other offenders about the court, for which the mace was deemed a sufficient authority. . . . Hence, in all probability, was derived the custom of the chief magistrate of a municipality, who, as such, is the representative of the sovereign, being attended by his mace-bearer, as a symbol of the royal authority thus delegated to him."—W. Kelly, *Great mace* (*Royal Historical Society Transactions*, v. 3).

MACEDONIA: Geographical description.—Character of population.—Macedonia is a territory on the northwestern coast of the Ægean sea, with a population of 1,194,000, 1920. The mixture of races has made it a storm center of the Balkans and its boundaries have been uncertain. "It is only within recent years that Dr. J. Cojic, Professor of Geography at the University of Belgrade,

has, as the result of many years travelling in Macedonia and exhaustive study of all the literary records in the country, established beyond all doubt that the central part of Macedonia extends to the middle (below Skoplje) and lower reaches of the Vardar; that her territory extends westward to the great lakes of Ochrida and Prespa, and eastward to the River Struma and, in places, to the River Mesta. Consequently the territorial unit of Macedonia would include the regions around Ochrida, Bitolj, Voden, Salonica, Dojran, Strumica, Seres and Kayala. All else to the north of this is not Macedonia."—T. R. Georgevitch, *Macedonia*, p. 2.—Generally speaking the district to which the name is given may be described as the valley of the Vardar with the coastal strip which is dominated by Salonika. "Macedonia comprises principally the central and lower valley of the Vardar, the country around great lakes in the west and up to Struma, and on some points up to Mesta in the East. During the Serbian and Bulgarian conquests, the name . . . [was] almost entirely lost. But towards the end of the XVth and during the XVIIth century many Balkan countries . . . were marked as Macedonia . . . as a reminiscence on the classical world and classical nomenclature."—*Macedonia and Macedonian problems* (*Pamphlet*), p. 12.—Under the Turks it was divided into vilayets and included those of Kossovo, Uskub and Salonika. It is inhabited by "a considerable population of Albanians, Serbs, Bulgars, and Greeks, by a few thousand Circassians, Turks, and Tatars, and by scattered shepherd-tribes of Latin extraction, the Kutzo-Wallachs, claimed by the Rumanians to be of Rumanian, and by Greeks to be of Greek origin, while the town of Salonika contained a population of 80,000 Spanish Jews, of strong Turcophile sympathies."—W. E. D. Allen, *Turks in Europe*, pp. 194, 195.

Early inhabitants.—"The race that in the early age of Greece inhabited Macedonia was probably related to the Thracians and the Phrygians. It was of Aryan stock (as the remains of the language prove), but not Hellenic—that is, neither Achæan nor Doric. Later the coast region and the more fertile inland plains were overrun by Hellenes from the south, who drove the natives to the hills. These Greeks, or semi-Greeks, of the lowlands regarded themselves as 'companions' of the king. They composed the royal bodyguard and, like the Norman nobility, formed a distinct class. It was long before the wild Macedonian hill tribes, as well as the Pæonians, Thracians, and Illyrians, were sufficiently subjugated and civilized to coalesce with their conquerors and to form a powerful nation. The Macedonian kings . . . claimed to be of Hellenic descent—a fact that Demosthenes fiercely denied, calling Philip II a 'pestilential Macedonian . . . and in no way related to the Greeks.'"—H. B. Cotterill, *Ancient Greece*, p. 425.—"The Macedonians of the fourth century B. C. acquired, from the ability and enterprise of two successive kings, a great perfection in Greek military organization, without any of the loftier Hellenic qualities. Their career in Greece is purely destructive, extinguishing the free movement of the separate cities, and disarming the citizen-soldier to make room for the foreign mercenary whose sword was unhalloved by any feelings of patriotism—yet totally incompetent to substitute any good system of central or pacific administration. But the Macedonians of the seventh and sixth centuries B. C. are an aggregate only of rude inland tribes, subdivided into distinct petty principalities, and separated from the Greeks by a wider ethical

difference even than the Epirots; since Herodotus, who considers the Epirotic Molossians and Thesprotians as children of Hellen, decidedly thinks the contrary respecting the Macedonians. In the main, however, they seem at this early period analogous to the Epirots in character and civilization. They had some few towns, but they were chiefly village residents, extremely brave and pugnacious. . . . The original seats of the Macedonians were in the regions east of the chain of Skardus (the northerly continuation of Pindus)—north of the chain called the Cambunian mountains, which connects Olympus with Pindus, and which forms the northwestern boundary of Thessaly; but they did not reach so far eastward as the Thermaic Gulf. . . . The Macedonian language was different from Illyrian, from Thracian, and seemingly also from Pæonian. It was also different from Greek, yet apparently not more widely distinct than that of the Epirots; so that the acquisition of Greek was comparatively easy to the chiefs and people. . . . The large and comparatively productive region covered by the various sections of Macedonians, helps to explain that increase of ascendancy which they successively acquired over all their neighbours. It was not, however, until a late period that they became united under one government. At first, each section—how many we do not know—had its own prince or chief. The Elymiots, or inhabitants of Elymeia, the southernmost portion of Macedonia, were thus originally distinct and independent; also the Orestæ, in mountain-seats somewhat north-west of the Elymiots. . . . The section of the Macedonian name who afterwards swallowed up all the rest and became known as 'The Macedonians' had their original centre at Ægæ or Edessa—the lofty, commanding and picturesque site of the modern Vodhena."—G. Grote, *History of Greece, v. 3, pt. 2, ch. 25.*

B. C. 700-359.—First Macedonian dynasty.—"Perdiccas . . . founded the dynasty of the Macedonian kings [about 700 B. C.]. The fifth of these, Amyntas I, about whose assassination of some Persian envoys Herodotus tells a weird story, was obliged to side with the barbarians during the Persian invasion, and was sent by them as ambassador to Athens; but he is said to have been secretly in favour of the Greeks and to have clandestinely imparted to them at Plataea the plans of the Persians. He competed at the Olympian Games . . . and set up a golden statue at Delphi. Perdiccas II lived during the Peloponnesian War and changed sides more than once. Then came Archelaus, who was a great admirer of Greek civilization and art, and entertained at his court many Greek notabilities, such as Euripides, Thucydides, Agathon, and Zeuxis. The relationships of the succeeding Macedonian monarchs will be best explained as follows:

the nobles, put aside his young nephew Amyntas (to whom he afterwards married one of his daughters) and assumed the crown."—H. B. Cotterill, *Ancient Greece, pp. 424, 425.*

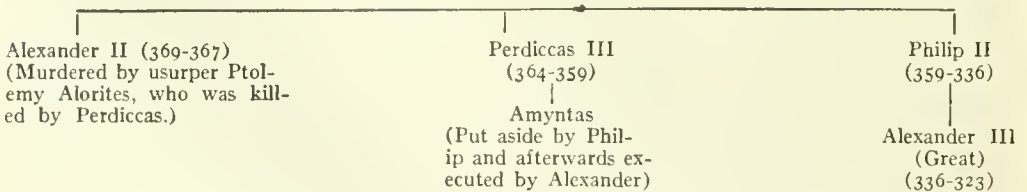
B. C. 508.—Subjection to Persia. See PERSIA: B. C. 521-493.

B. C. 424-421.—Exploits of Brasidas.—Revolution of allied cities in Macedonia. See GREECE: B. C. 424-421.

B. C. 383-379.—Overthrow of Olynthian confederacy by Sparta. See GREECE: B. C. 383-379.

B. C. 367-356.—Philip in Thebes.—Development of army.—Gold resources.—Birth of Alexander.—Philip's foreign problems and methods.—"Philip's education in Thebes had given him a deep insight into Greek character and Greek politics. He possessed great intellectual gifts and a genius for diplomacy. Under a frank and attractive personality he concealed a subtle cunning and an ambition that was as unscrupulous as it was boundless. Conscious that the last appeal was to force, he gave the greatest attention to the formation and training of a powerful standing army, the efficiency of which was much increased by the use of newly invented engines of war (catapults, &c.), and also by the introduction of a new formation—that of the famous Macedonian phalanx, the idea of which Philip probably took from the deep wedge-like column invented by Epameinondas and used with such effect at Leuctra. [See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 6]. . . . But Philip did not trust only to his army. By the acquisition of Thracian mines and by getting Thasian miners to work the gold in the neighbourhood of his town, Philippi, newly founded on the site of the ancient Crenides, he obtained large revenues, and it was by gold that he gained many of his successes. Philippi and its gold-mines brought Philip and the Athenians into collision. Amphipolis, at the mouth of the Strymon, cut him off from the sea and commanded the access to the goldbearing range of Mount Pangæus. This city, a colony of Athens, had been more or less independent ever since the time of Brasidas, and the Chalcidian Confederacy of Greek towns, headed by Olynthus, had tried in vain to gain it as an ally. By cunningly playing off Olynthus against Athens Philip duped both of them and captured Amphipolis, and soon afterwards Pydna and Potidaea fell into his hands. This happened in 356—the year in which his son Alexander was born; and, as Plutarch remarks, the year brought Philip a third gift of fortune, namely, an Olympic victory."—H. B. Cotterill, *Ancient Greece, pp. 423-426.*—"The problem of foreign relations was solved with . . . efficiency. Measures were taken to secure friends and prevent a coalition of Greeks against him. Gold was disbursed freely among the venal to obtain support. For some, the flattery of friendship suf-

Amyntas II (393-369)



"When Perdiccas III fell fighting against the Illyrians his brother Philip [born 382] was probably acting as his gerent. After crushing the Illyrians, Philip, probably by the invitation of

ficed. Others were gained by promises of support in local politics or petty wars. Exhibitions of his power won the fearful. Before the final conflict began there was a strong Macedonian party in

every city of Greece and some cities had declared themselves his friends. Philip was entirely without scruple. The old rules of warfare did not bind him. Treaties and truces he broke whenever his purposes required. Frequently he avowed friendship for a city and promised support and alliance. Once a foothold was secured in this way, he forgot his promises and the city fell. Captured, it might expect no mercy. The surrounding country was devastated, the city destroyed, its men killed or sold into slavery, while its women, too often, suffered a worse fate. In the neighborhood a colony of Macedonians was settled to secure the region. Spies in Philip's employ were everywhere. One Athenian was executed for accepting his bribe to burn an arsenal in Athens. Two things were needed to establish his place in the sun of the Ægean world: recognition by the Greek states as a leading power in order that he might dominate their councils, and the stretch of seacoast reaching from Saloniki to Byzantium—modern Constantinople—to secure for him the rich gold mines of Thrace, but above all to give him a vantage point from which he might outrive and crush the commercial and naval power of Athens. Conquest of Thessaly and the Theban invitation to take part in the Sacred War secured him the first of these. Success made him head of the Amphictyonic Council, the great religious body of Greece, with tremendous prestige. All his resources and all his ability were directed towards gaining the coastland. Clever trickery and quick action won him important gains in the very beginning. Success attended him nearly to the end."—W. E. Caldwell, *Hellenic conceptions of peace*, pp. 119-121.—See also GREECE: B. C. 350-358.

B. C. 353-336.—Philip's conquest of Thessaly.—Intervention in Sacred War.—Victory at Chæbronea.—Mastery of Greece. See GREECE: B. C. 357-336; ATHENS: B. C. 359-338.

B. C. 351-348.—War with Olynthian confederacy.—Destruction of Olynthus. See GREECE: B. C. 351-348.

B. C. 345-336.—Philip's ambition.—Treaty of Philocrates.—Devastation of Phocis.—Sparta and Athens.—Treatment of foes.—Preparations for invasion of Persia.—Assassination.—Importance of Philip.—"Never did Philip hold better cards than at Pella in May, 346 [B. C.], and never better did he play his game. Encamped about him in the plain of the Vardar was such an army as united Greece could not excel; and embassies from Athens, from Thebes, from the Phocians, from the Thessalian synod, from Aetolia, were bidding for his favour, each interpreting in their own sense the purpose which alone he knew. His whole soul was set on one great end—unconditional supremacy over the Hellenes—and he had the most definite plan of action. First, he must secure the command of the land route into central Greece; second, he looked to obtain a recognized position in the inner communion of the Hellenes; and third, he proposed to reduce the Greek states to an innocuous equality. In effect, he would seize and hold Thermopylae; he would assume the double role of champion of the Delphian Apollo and patron of Athens; and he would crush the Phocian 'Grand Company,' Sparta, and eventually Thebes. . . . Philip swore a solemn oath to observe peace with the Athenians, and with their children's children, and put forward representatives of all his 'allied' cities, from Epirus to Cardia in the Chersonese, to do the like. The final terms [of this agreement, known as the Peace of Philocrates, 346 B. C.] implied the abandonment of

Amphipolis to Philip; the recognition that Cardia was his ally; the relinquishing of the great eastern islands, Rhodes, Chios, and Cos, to the satrap of Caria; and the acknowledgment of the right of the Byzantines to levy their own tolls in the Bosphorus. In effect, Athens accepted the fact that she was no longer imperial. Nevertheless, the ten Athenians received Philip's oaths and accepted a safe conduct, and, not a little relieved, took ship to Euboea, and came again to Athens early in June. . . . [Later in the year] Philip was within the gates of Greece. What would he do? For whom, against whom, would he be? All Greece waited, hoping somewhat, fearing more, Athens especially looking to her walls, and calling in her country folk, though it was near the season of the rural feast of Heracles. With masterly duplicity, Philip held out the hand of frank fellowship to Thebes, who had been on the right side in the Sacred War when Lacedaemon and Athens had been on the wrong. The Boeotian cities, Orchomenus, Coronea, and Corsiae, whilom allies of the Phocians, were handed over to Theban mercies, and Philip marched into the mountains to avenge Apollo. Fire and sword went through Phocis, as



PHILIP OF MACEDON

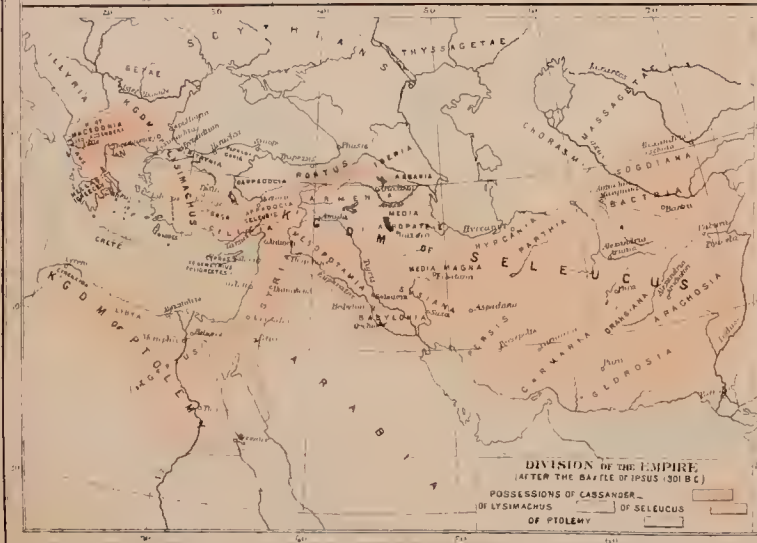
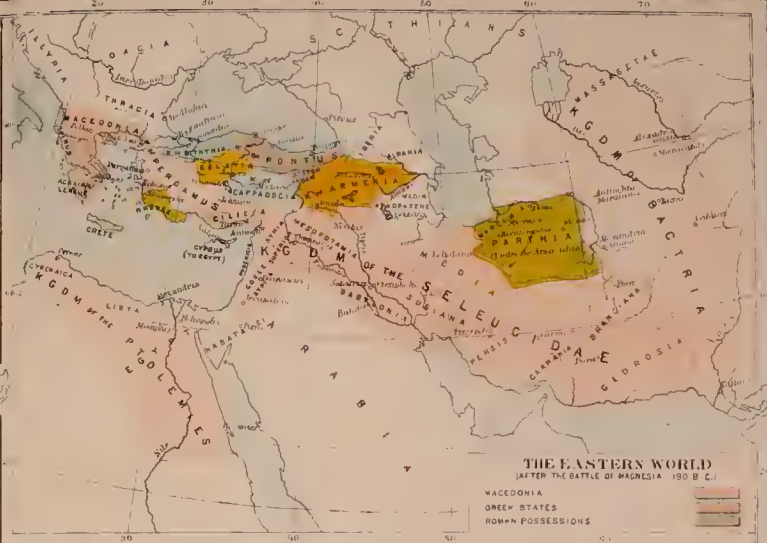
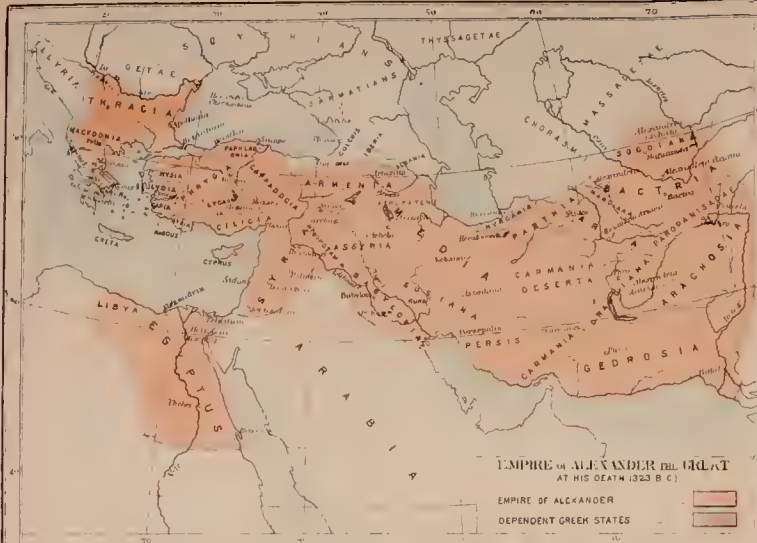
through no Greek state since Epaminondas had raided Laconia. Twenty-three cities were dismantled, and broken up into open villages, a device learned from the great Theban, and after ten years the Delphians were led back to their Delphi, and put in possession of its spoiled and violated shrine. . . . In 345 [B. C.], however, the most part of Philip's intrigue and coercion was exercised within the Isthmus to the breaking-up of the traditional supremacy of Sparta, against whom he could allege that she had ranged herself in Thermopylae with the violators of Delphi. But, although compelled now by superior force to swallow peace with Argos, and to see Arcadia set up again, and to resign Messene, Sparta never submitted herself altogether, but in years to come alone of all the Greeks refused to serve under Philip's banner against Persia, and broke out against his son, so soon as he was gone into Asia. . . . Athens herself, however, Philip did not touch. Determined as he was to end her claims to imperial dominion on the coasts which he conceived to be his own, he respected nevertheless the soil of Attica more than if it had been holy ground. And not only so, but by letter after letter, and envoy after envoy, he tried to soothe the fears of the city and heal

her wounded feelings. . . . Certainly . . . he comforted himself towards one part of his beaten foes with a forbearing and, as it were, an apologetic temper that is all the more conspicuous by contrast with the measure that he meted out to Thebes. That city, into which the Macedonians presently marched, was made to feel all the bitterness of defeat. Her headship of the Boeotian towns was stripped from her for ever, and Orchomenus and Plataea were encouraged to rise again on the north and the south. And not only this, but her own civic autonomy was destroyed, her leaders being proscribed or banished, and their lands seized for the king; and, while a Macedonian garrison was installed in the Cadmeia, a body of three hundred men, formerly exiled for adherence to Macedonian interests, was put in office in the lower city to work their will on the lives and goods of the citizens. Thus did Philip remove the last obstacle to his sway in northern Hellas, paying the city which had taught him war and cost him most the rude compliment of a treatment more brutal than any great state of Greece had experienced since the Persian War. . . . [See also GREECE: B. C. 340.] His ambition was satisfied formally about a twelve-month after Chaeronea. Delegates from all the states, except Sparta, came to meet him at the Isthmus. . . . From one motive or another the delegates were content to acclaim Philip Captain General, and to promise the spearmen, cavalry, and ships which he asked each state to provide, that his venture might assume a panhellenic character. If their fellow citizens grumbled privately, the returned delegates reminded them that they could hardly have done less for the master of so many legions. To Philip it mattered little if the panhellenic movement was factitious now; a successful campaign in Asia would go far to give it reality, and common danger and common triumph would unite his Macedonians and their Greek allies. In 337 he had probably no such Asiatic Empire in view, as that which later his son conceived; he was possessed rather with an idea of nation-making at home, to which end the mere warring with a common enemy would conduce more than the sack of the latter's towns, or the loot of his camps. The word given for a twelvemonth from that time, Philip left Greece, well pleased to gather up his forces for the great adventure which should crown all previous successes, and set the seal on his nation and his fame. He had a great army to equip and supply, and all that winter the arsenal of Pella must have rung to the sound of his arming. By the spring of 336 his host was ready, and making two divisions, he despatched the lesser in advance under Parmenio, with Amyntas and Atalys for lieutenant-generals, to hold the passage of the Dardanelles, and secure the Greek cities on the farther shore against his own coming with the second division and the allied army of Greeks. . . . Philip put off his own march, to the autumn, for he had his house to set in order. [But during the summer of 336 he was assassinated, at the instigation of Olympias, his former wife and the mother of Alexander.] . . . It was remarked long ago that the modern world has taken no political institution consciously or directly from Athens, that is to say, in letters and in art the Athenian is not our immediate fore-father. For if it is true that all the roads of civilization lead back to Greece, equally it is true that they run for vastly the greater part of their course not through Greece. But none the less all along those roads, down to the gate of modern times, the Greek is

conducting us always, himself the spirit of progression. Had no Philip nor such rude giant driver him forth from the frontiers of his little state, our present debt to Hellas had been little greater than can be contracted by conscious archaists in political science, in letters, and in art. But Philip it was that forced the Hellenic into the open sea, and therefore, if it be that 'nothing moves in the world which is not Greek in origin,' it is owed to no man more than the Macedonian. And surely if the great dead still may note the course of progress, in which once they played a part, a reconciliation must have been sealed long ago in the Elysian Fields between Demosthenes and his 'barbarian of Pella.'—D. G. Hogarth, *Philip and Alexander of Macedon*, pp. 93-94, 96, 99, 131, 135-137, 157.—See also GREECE: B. C. 357-336; ATHENS: B. C. 359-338.

B. C. 336-335.—Alexander's campaigns in the north.—Revolt and destruction of Thebes. See GREECE: B. C. 336-335.

B. C. 334-330.—Invasion and conquest of Persian empire by Alexander the Great.—Philip of Macedon was succeeded by his son, Alexander, who applied himself first, with significant energy, to the chastisement of the troublesome barbarians on his northern frontier, and to the crushing of revolt in Greece (see GREECE: B. C. 336-335; ATHENS: B. C. 336-322). He had not yet been a year on the throne "when he stood forth a greater and more powerful sovereign than his father, with his empire united in the bonds of fear and admiration, and ready to carry out the long premeditated attack of the Greeks on the dominion of [Darius the Great]. . . . He had indeed a splendid army of all branches, heavy infantry, light infantry, slingers and archers, artillery such as the ancients could produce without gunpowder, and cavalry, both Thessalian and Macedonian, fit for both skirmishing and the shock of battle. If its numbers were not above 40,000, this moderate force was surely as much as any commander could handle in a rapid campaign with long marches through a hostile country. [See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 6.] . . . After a Homeric landing on the coast near Ilium, and sacrifices to the Ilian goddess at her ancient shrine, with feasts and games, the king started East to meet the Persian satraps, who had collected their cavalry and Greek mercenary infantry on the plain of Zeleia, behind the river Granicus (B. C. 334). Here he fought his first great battle, and showed the nature of his tactics, . . . and after a very severe struggle in crossing the river, and climbing its rugged banks, he completely broke the enemy's line. . . . He did not strike straight into Asia, for this would have left it possible for Mentor and Memnon, the able Rhodians who commanded on the coast for Darius, either to have raised all Asia Minor against him, or to have transferred the war back to Macedon. . . . So then he seized Sardis, the key of all the highroads eastwards; he laid siege to Halicarnassus, which made a very long and stubborn resistance, and did not advance till he had his rear safe from attack. Even with all these precautions, the Persian fleet, under Memnon, was producing serious difficulties, and had not that able general died at the critical moment (B. C. 333), the Spartan revolt, which was put down the following year in Greece, would have assumed serious proportions. Alexander now saw that he could press on, and strike at the headquarters of the enemies' power—Phœnicia and the Great king himself. He crossed the difficult range of the Taurus, the southern bulwark of the Persian Empire, and occupied Cilicia. Even



the sea was supposed to have retreated to allow his army to pass along a narrow strand under precipitous cliffs. The Great king was awaiting him with a vast army—grossly exaggerated, moreover, in our Greek accounts—in the plain of Syria, near Damascus. Foolish advisers persuaded him, owing to some delay in Alexander's advance, to leave his favourable position, where the advantage of his hosts of cavalry was clear. He therefore actually crossed Alexander, who had passed on the sea side of Mount Amanus, southward, and occupied Issus on his rear. The Macedonian army was thus cut off from home, and a victory necessary to its very existence. The great battle of Issus was fought on such narrow ground, between the sea and the mountains, that neither side had room for outflanking its opponents, except by occupying the high ground on the inland side of the plain (B. C. 333). This was done by the Persians, and the banks of a little river (the Pinarus) crossing their front were fortified as at the Granicus. Alexander was obliged to advance with a large reserve to protect his right flank. As usual he attacked with his right centre, and as soon as he had shaken the troops opposed to him, wheeled to the left, and made straight for the king himself, who occupied the centre in his chariot. Had Darius withstood him bravely and for some time, the defeat of the Macedonians' left wing would probably have been complete, for the Persian cavalry on the coast, attacking the Thessalians on Alexander's left wing, were decidedly superior, and the Greek infantry was at this time a match for the phalanx. But the flight of Darius, and the panic which ensued about him, left Alexander leisure to turn to the assistance of his hard-pressed left wing, and recover the victory. . . . The greatness of this victory completely paralyzed all the revolt prepared in his rear by the Persian fleet. Alexander was now strong enough to go on without any base of operation, and he boldly (in the manifesto he addressed to Darius after the battle) proclaimed himself King of Persia by right of conquest, who would brook no equal. Nevertheless, he delayed many months (which the siege of Tyre cost him. . . . [See TYRE: B. C. 332]), and then, passing through Jerusalem, and showing consideration for the Jews [see JEWS: B. C. 332-167], he again paused at the siege of Gaza [see GAZA: B. C. 332], merely, we may suppose, to prove that he was invincible, and to settle once for all the question of the world's mastery. He delayed again for a short while in Egypt [see EGYPT: B. C. 332], when he regulated the country as a province under his sway, with kindness towards the inhabitants, and respect for their religion, and founded Alexandria [see also AFRICA: Ancient and medieval civilization: Development of Egyptian civilization; ALEXANDRIA: B. C. 332]; nay, he even here made his first essay in claiming divinity; and then, at last, set out to conquer the Eastern provinces of Darius' empire. The great decisive battle in the plains of Mesopotamia (B. C. 331)—it is called either Arbela or Gaugamela—was spoken of as a trial of strength, and the enormous number of the Persian cavalry, acting on open ground, gave timid people room to fear; but Alexander had long since found out, what the British have found in their many Eastern wars, that even a valiant cavalry is helpless, if undisciplined, against an army of regulars under a competent commander. . . . The Macedonian had again, however, failed to capture his opponent, for which he blamed Parmenio. . . . So then, though the issue of the war was not doubtful, there was still a real and legitimate rival to the

throne, commanding the sympathies of most of his subjects. For the present, however, Alexander turned his attention to occupying the great capitals of the Persian empire—capitals of older kingdoms, embodied in the empire. . . . These great cities, Babylon in Mesopotamia, Susa (Shushan) in Elam, Persepolis in Persia proper, and Ecbatana in Media, were all full of ancient wealth and splendour, adorned with great palaces, and famed for monstrous treasures. The actual amount of gold and silver seized in these hoards (not less than £30,000,000 of English money, and perhaps a great deal more) had a far larger effect on the world than the discovery of gold and silver mines in recent times. Every adventurer in the army became suddenly rich; all the means and materials for luxury which the long civilization of the East had discovered and employed, were suddenly thrown into the hands of comparatively rude and even barbarous soldiers. It was a prey such as the Spaniards found in Mexico and Peru,



ALEXANDER THE GREAT

(After the statue in the Glyptothek, Munich)

but had a far stronger civilization, which must react upon the conquerors. And already Alexander showed clear signs that he regarded himself as no mere Macedonian or Greek king, but as the Emperor of the East, and successor in every sense of the unfortunate Darius. He made superhuman efforts to overtake Darius in his retreat from Ecbatana through the Parthian passes to the northern provinces—Balkh and Samarcand. The narrative of this famous pursuit is as wonderful as anything in Alexander's campaign. He only reached the fleeing Persian as he was dying of the wounds dealt him by the traitor Bessus, his satrap in Bactria, who had aspired to the crown (B. C. 330). Alexander signally executed the regicide, and himself married the daughter of Darius—who had no son—thus assuming, as far as possible, the character of Darius' legitimate successor."—J. P. Mahaffy, *Story of Alexander's empire*, ch. 2-3.

Also in: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 6, ch. 40-50.—E. S. Creasy, *Fifteen decisive battles: Arbela*.—T. A. Doke, *Alexander*, ch. 18-31.—J. B. Bury, *History of Greece*, ch. 17.

B. C. 332-322.—Alexander's rule in Egypt. See EGYPT: B. C. 332-322.

B. C. 330-323.—Alexander's conquest of Afghanistan, Bactria and Sogdiana.—Invasion of India.—Death at Babylon.—Character and aims.—“After reducing the country at the south of the Caspian, Alexander marched east and south, through what is now Persia and Afghanistan. On his way he founded the colony of Alexandria Arion, now Herat, an important military position on the western border of Afghanistan. At Prophthasia (Furrah), a little further south, he stayed two months. . . . Thence he went on eastwards and founded a city, said to be the modern Candahar, and then turned north and crossed the Hindu Koosh mountains, founding another colony near what is now Cabul. Bessus had intended to resist Alexander in Bactria (Balkh), but he fled northwards, and was taken and put to death. Alexander kept on marching northwards, and took Mara Kanda, now Samarcand, the capital of Bokhara (B. C. 329). He crossed the river Jaxartes (Sir), running into the sea of Aral, and defeated the Scythians beyond it, but did not penetrate their country. He intended the Jaxartes to be the northern frontier of his empire. . . . The conquest of Sogdiana (Bokhara) gave Alexander some trouble, and occupied him till the year B. C. 327. In B. C. 327 Alexander set out from Bactria to conquer India [see INDIA: B. C. 327-312]. . . . Alexander was as eager for discovery as for conquest; and from the mouth of the Indus he sent his fleet, under the admiral Nearchus, to make their way along the coast to the mouth of the Euphrates. He himself marched westwards with the army through the deserts of Beloochistan [see BALUCHISTAN: B. C. 325], and brought them after terrible sufferings, through thirst, disease, and fatigue, again to Persepolis (B. C. 324). From this he went to Susa, where he stayed some months, investigating the conduct of his satraps, and punishing some of them severely. Since the battle of Arbela, Alexander had become more and more like a Persian king in his way of living, although he did not allow it to interfere with his activity. He dressed in the Persian manner, and took up the ceremonies of the Persian court. The soldiers were displeased at his giving up the habits of Macedonia, and at Susa he provoked them still more by making eighty of his chief officers marry Persian wives. The object of Alexander was to break down distinctions of race and country in his empire, and to abolish the great gulf that there had hitherto been between the Greeks and the Asiatics. He also enrolled many Persians in the regiments which had hitherto contained none but Macedonians, and levied 30,000 troops from the most warlike districts of Asia, whom he armed in the Macedonian manner. Since the voyage of Nearchus, Alexander had determined on an expedition against Arabia by sea, and had given orders for ships to be built in Phœnicia, and then taken to pieces and carried by land to Thapsakus on the Euphrates. At Thapsakus they were to be put together again, and so make their way to Babylon, from which the expedition was to start. In the spring of B. C. 323, Alexander set out from Susa for Babylon. On his journey he was met by embassies from nearly all the States of the known world. At Babylon he found the ships ready: fresh troops had arrived, both Greek and Asiatic; and the expedition was on the point of starting, when Alexander was seized with fever and died (June, B. C. 323). He was only thirty-two years old.”—C. A. Fyffe, *History of Greece (Primer)*, ch. 7.—“Three great

battles and several great sieges made Alexander master of the Persian empire. And it is worth remark that the immediate results of the three battles, Granikos, Issos, and Gaugamela, coincide with lasting results in the history of the world. The victory of the Granikos made Alexander master of Asia Minor, of a region which in the course of a few centuries was thoroughly hellenized, and which remained Greek, Christian, and Orthodox, down to the Turkish invasions of the 11th century. The territory which Alexander thus won, the lands from the Danube to Mount Tauros, answered very nearly to the extent of the Byzantine Empire for several centuries, and it might very possibly have been ruled by him, as it was in Byzantine times, from an European centre. The field of Issos gave him Syria and Egypt, lands which the Macedonian and the Roman kept for nearly a thousand years, and which for ages contained, in Alexandria and Antioch, the two greatest of Grecian cities. But Syria and Egypt themselves never became Greek; when they became Christian, they failed to become Orthodox, and they fell away at the first touch of the victorious Saracen. Their government called for an Asiatic or Egyptian capital, but their ruler might himself still have remained European and Hellenic. His third triumph at Gaugamela gave him the possession of the whole East; but it was but a momentary possession; he had now pressed onward into lands where neither Grecian culture, Roman dominion, nor Christian theology proved in the end able to strike any lasting root. . . . We believe then that policy, passion, and genuine superstition were all joined together in the demand which Alexander made for divine, or at least for unusual, honours. He had taken the place of the Great King, and he demanded the homage which was held to be due to him who held that place. Such homage his barbarian subjects were perfectly ready to pay; they would most likely have had but little respect for a king who forgot to call for it. But the homage which to a Persian seemed only the natural expression of respect for the royal dignity, seemed to Greeks and Macedonians an invasion of the honour due only to the immortal Gods. . . . He not only sent round to all the cities of Greece to demand divine honours, which were perhaps not worth refusing, but he ordered each city to bring back its political exiles. This last was an interference with the internal government of the cities which certainly was not warranted by Alexander's position as head of the Greek Confederacy. And, in other respects also, from this unhappy time all the worst failings of Alexander become more strongly developed.”—E. A. Freeman, *Alexander (Historical essays, series 2)*.—See also ASIA: B. C. 334-A. D. 1408.

Also IN: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 6-7, ch. 51-55.—J. B. Bury, *History of Greece*, ch. 18.

B. C. 323-322.—Revolt in Greece.—Lamian War.—Subjugation of Athens. See GREECE: B. C. 323-322.

B. C. 323-316.—Partition of empire of Alexander.—First period of the wars of the Diadochi or successors of Alexander.—Alexander “left his wife Roxana pregnant, who at the end of three months brought into the world the rightful heir to the sceptre, Alexander; he left likewise an illegitimate son, Hercules; a bastard half-brother, Arrhidæus; his mother, the haughty and cruel Olympias, and a sister, Cleopatra, both widows; the artful Eurydice, (daughter to Cyane, one of Philip's sisters,) subsequently married to the king, Arrhidæus; and Thessalonica, Philip's daughter, afterwards united to Cassander of Mace-

donia. The weak Arrhidæus, under the name of Philip, and the infant Alexander, were at last proclaimed kings, the regency being placed in the hands of Perdiccas, Leonnatus, and Meleager; the last of whom was quickly cut off at the instigation of Perdiccas. [The provinces of the empire which Alexander had conquered were now divided between the generals of his army, who are known in history as the Diadochi, that is, the Successors. The division was as follows]: Ptolmey son of Lagus received Egypt [see also EGYPT: B. C. 323-30]; Leonnatus, Mysia, Antigonus, Phrygia, Lycia, and Pamphylia; Lysymachus, Macedonian Thrace; Antipater and Craterus remained in possession of Macedonia. . . . The remaining provinces either did not come under the new division [see SELEUCIDÆ], or else their governors are unworthy of notice."—A. H. L. Heeren, *Manual of ancient history*, p. 222.—Meantime, "the body of Alexander lay unburied and neglected, and it was not until two years after his death that his remains were consigned to the tomb. But his followers still shewed their respect for his memory by retaining the feeble Arrhidæus on the throne, and preventing the marriage of Perdiccas with Cleopatra, the daughter of Philip; a union which manifestly was projected to open a way to the throne. But while the project of marriage occupied the attention of the regent, a league had secretly been formed for his destruction; and the storm burst forth from a quarter whence it was least expected. . . . The barbarous tribes of the Cappadocians and Paphlagonians . . . asserted their independence after the death of Alexander, and chose Ariarathes for their leader. Perdiccas sent against them Eumenes, who had hitherto fulfilled the peaceful duties of a secretary; and sent orders to Antigonus and Leonatus, the governors of Western Asia, to join the expedition with all their forces. These commands were disobeyed; and Perdiccas was forced to march with the royal army against the insurgents. He easily defeated these undisciplined troops, but sullied his victory by unnecessary cruelty. On his return he summoned the satraps of Western Asia to appear before his tribunal, and answer for their disobedience. Antigonus, seeing his danger, entered into a league with Ptolemy the satrap of Egypt, Antipater the governor of Macedon, and several other noblemen, to crush the regency. Perdiccas, on the other hand, leaving Eumenes to guard Lower Asia, marched with the choicest divisions of the royal army against Ptolemy, whose craft and ability he dreaded even more than his power. Antipater and Craterus were early in the field; they crossed the Hellespont with the army that had been left for the defence of Macedon. . . . Seduced by . . . false information, they divided their forces; Antipater hastening through Phrygia in pursuit of Perdiccas, while Craterus and Neoptolemus marched against Eumenes. They encountered him in the Trojan plain, and were completely defeated. . . . Eumenes sent intelligence of his success to Perdiccas; but two days before the messenger reached the royal camp the regent was no more. His army, wearied by the long siege of Pelusium, became dissatisfied; their mutinous dispositions were secretly encouraged by the emissaries of Ptolemy . . . and Perdiccas was murdered in his tent (B. C. 321). . . . In the meantime a brief struggle for independence had taken place in Greece, which is commonly called the Lamian war [see GREECE: 323-322]. . . . As soon as Ptolemy had been informed of the murder of Perdiccas, he came to the royal army with a large supply of wine and provisions. His kindness and courteous manners so won upon

these turbulent soldiers, that they unanimously offered him the regency; but he had the prudence to decline so dangerous an office. On his refusal, the feeble Arrhidæus and the traitor Python were appointed to the regency, just as the news arrived of the recent victory of Eumenes. This intelligence filled the royal army with indignation. . . . They hastily passed a vote proclaiming Eumenes and his adherents public enemies. . . . The advance of an army to give effect to these decrees was delayed by a new revolution. Eurydice, the wife of Arrhidæus, a woman of great ambition and considerable talent for intrigue, wrested the regency from her feeble husband and Python, but was stripped of power on the arrival of Antipater, who reproached the Macedonians for submitting to the government of a woman; and, being ably supported by Antigonus and Seleucus, obtained for himself the office of regent. No sooner had Antipater been invested with supreme power than he sent Arrhidæus and Eurydice prisoners to Pella, and entrusted the conduct of the war against Eumenes to the crafty and ambitious Antigonus. . . . Eumenes was unable to cope with the forces sent against him; having been defeated in the open field, he took shelter in Nora, a Cappadocian city, and maintained a vigorous defence, rejecting the many tempting offers by which Antigonus endeavoured to win him to the support of his designs (B. C. 318). The death of Antipater produced a new revolution in the empire; and Eumenes in the meantime escaped from Nora, accompanied by his principal friends. . . . Antipater, at his death, bequeathed the regency to Polysperchon, excluding his son Cassander from power on account of his criminal intrigues with the wicked and ambitious Eurydice. Though a brave general, Polysperchon had not the qualifications of a statesman; he provoked the powerful resentment of Antigonus by entering into a close alliance with Eumenes; and he permitted Cassander to strengthen himself in southern Greece, where he seized the strong fortress of Munychia. . . . Polysperchon, unable to drive Cassander from Attica, entered the Peloponnesus to punish the Arcadians, and engaged in a fruitless siege of Megalopolis. In the meantime Olympias, to whom he had confided the government of Macedon, seized Arrhidæus and Eurydice, whom she had murdered in prison. Cassander hastened, at the head of all his forces, to avenge the death of his mistress: Olympias, unable to meet him in the field, fled to Pydna; but the city was forced to surrender after a brief defence, and Olympias was immediately put to death. . . . In Asia, Eumenes maintained the royal cause against Antigonus, though deserted by all the satraps, and harassed by the mutinous dispositions of his troops, especially the Argyraspides, a body of guards that Alexander had raised to attend his own person, and presented with the silver shields from which they derived their name. After a long struggle, both armies joined in a decisive engagement; the Argyraspides broke the hostile infantry, but learning that their baggage had in the meantime been captured by the light troops of the enemy, they mutinied in the very moment of victory, and delivered their leader, bound with his own sash, into the hands of his merciless enemy (B. C. 315). The faithful Eumenes was put to death by the traitorous Antigonus; but he punished the Argyraspides for their treachery."—W. C. Taylor, *Student's manual of ancient history*, ch. 11, sect. 3.—See also GREECE: B. C. 321-312.

ALSO IN: P. Smith, *History of the world: Ancient*, v. 2, ch. 17.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 12, ch. 96.

B. C. 315-310.—First league and war against Antigonus.—Extermination of the heirs of Alexander.—“Antigonus was now unquestionably the most powerful of the successors of Alexander the Great. As master of Asia, he ruled over those vast and rich lands that extended from India to the Mediterranean Sea. . . . Although nearly seventy years old, and blind in one eye, he still preserved the vigor of his forces. . . . He was fortunate in being assisted by a son, the famous Demetrius, who, though possessed of a very passionate nature, yet from early youth displayed wonderful military ability. Above all, the prominent representatives of the royal family had disappeared, and there remained only the youthful Alexander, Herakles, the illegitimate son of Alexander the Great, who had no lawful claim whatever to the sovereignty, and two daughters of Philip, Kleopatra, who lived at Sardis, and Thessalonike, whom Kassander had recently married—none of whom were sufficiently strong to assert their rights to the throne. Thus Antigonus seemed indeed destined to become vicar and master of the entire Alexandrian kingdom, and to restore the unity of the empire. But not only was this union not realized, but even the great realm which Antigonus had established in Asia was doomed to inevitable destruction. The generals who possessed the various satrapies of the empire could not bear his supremacy, and accordingly entered into a convention, which gradually ripened into an active alliance against him. The principal organ of this movement was Seleukus, who, having escaped to Ptolemy of Egypt, first of all persuaded the latter to form an alliance—which Kassander of Macedonia and Lysimachus of Thrace readily joined—against the formidable power of Antigonus. The war lasted for four years, and was carried on in Asia, Europe, and Africa. [See also INDIA: B. C. 312.] Its fortunes were various [the most noteworthy event being a bloody defeat inflicted upon Demetrius the son of Antigonus, by Ptolemy, at Gaza, in 312], but the result was not decisive. . . . In 311 B. C. a compact was made between Antigonus on one side, and Kassander, Ptolemy, and Lysimachus on the other, whereby ‘the supreme command in Europe was guaranteed to Kassander, until the maturity of Alexander, son of Roxana; Thrace being at the same time assured to Lysimachus, Egypt to Ptolemy, and the whole of Asia to Antigonus. It was at the same time covenanted by all that the Hellenic cities should be free.’ Evidently this peace contained the seeds of new disputes and increasing jealousies. The first act of Kassander was to cause the death of Roxana and her child in the fortress of Amphipolis, where they had been confined; and thus disappeared forever the only link which apparently maintained the union of the empire, and a ready career now lay open to the ambition of the successors. Again, the name of Selenkus was not even mentioned in the peace, while it was well known at the time it was concluded that he had firmly established his rule over the eastern satrapies of Asia. . . . The troops also of Antigonus, notwithstanding the treaty, still remained in Hellas, under command of his nephew Ptolemy. Ptolemy of Egypt, therefore, accusing Antigonus of having contravened the treaty by garri-soning various Hellenic cities, renewed the war and the triple alliance against him.” A series of assassinations soon followed, which put out of the way the young prince Herakles, bastard son of Alexander the Great, and Kleopatra, the sister of Alexander, who was preparing to wed Ptolemy of Egypt when Antigonus brought about her murder, to prevent the marriage. Another victim of the

jealousies that were rife among the Diadochi was Antigonus’ nephew Ptolemy, who had deserted his uncle’s side, but who was killed by the Egyptian Ptolemy. “For more than ten years . . . Antigonus, Ptolemy, Lysimachus, and Kassander successively promised to leave the Greeks independent, free, and unguarded; but the latter never ceased to be guarded, taxed, and ruled by Macedonian despots. We may, indeed, say that the cities of Hellas never before had suffered so much as during the time when such great promises were made about their liberty. The Ætolians alone still possessed their independence. Rough, courageous, warlike, and fond of freedom, they continued fighting against the Macedonian rule.”—T. T. Timayenis, *History of Greece*, v. 2, pt. 9, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: J. P. Mabaffy, *Story of Alexander’s empire*, ch. 5-6.

B. C. 310-301.—Demetrius Poliorcetes at Athens.—His siege of Rhodes.—Last combination against Antigonus.—His defeat and death at Ipsus.—Partition of his dominions.—After the war which was renewed in 310 B. C. had lasted three years, “Antigonus resolved to make a vigorous effort to wrest Greece from the hands of Cassander and Ptolemy, who held all the principal towns in it. Accordingly, in the summer of 307 B. C., he despatched his son Demetrius from Ephesus to Athens, with a fleet of 250 sail, and 5,000 talents in money. Demetrius, who afterwards obtained the surname of ‘Poliorcetes,’ or ‘Besieger of Cities,’ was a young man of ardent temperament and great abilities. Upon arriving at the Piræus, he immediately proclaimed the object of his expedition to be the liberation of Athens and the expulsion of the Macedonian garrison. Supported by the Macedonians, Demetrius the Phalerean had now ruled Athens for a period of more than ten years. . . . During the first period of his administration he appears to have governed wisely and equitably, to have improved the Athenian laws, and to have adorned the city with useful buildings. But in spite of his pretensions to philosophy, the possession of uncontrolled power soon altered his character for the worse, and he became remarkable for luxury, ostentation, and sensuality. Hence he gradually lost the popularity which he had once enjoyed. . . . The Athenians heard with pleasure the proclamations of the son of Antigonus; his namesake, the Phalerean, was obliged to surrender the city to him, and to close his political career by retiring to Thebes. . . . Demetrius Poliorcetes then formally announced to the Athenian assembly the restoration of their ancient constitution, and promised them a large donative of corn and ship-timber. This munificence was repaid by the Athenians with the basest and most abject flattery [see GREECE: B. C. 307-197]. . . . Demetrius Poliorcetes did not remain long at Athens. Early in 306 B. C. he was recalled by his father, and, sailing to Cyprus, undertook the siege of Salamis. Ptolemy hastened to its relief with 140 vessels and 10,000 troops. The battle that ensued was one of the most memorable in the annals of ancient naval warfare, more particularly on account of the vast size of the vessels engaged. Ptolemy was completely defeated; and so important was the victory deemed by Antigonus, that on the strength of it he assumed the title of king, which he also conferred upon his son. This example was followed by Ptolemy, Selenus, and Lysimachus. Encouraged by their success at Cyprus, Antigonus and Demetrius made a vain attempt upon Egypt, which, however, proved a disastrous failure. By way of revenge, Demetrius

undertook an expedition against Rhodes, which had refused its aid in the attack upon Ptolemy. It was from the memorable siege of Rhodes that Demetrius obtained his name of Poliorketes. . . . After a year spent in the vain attempt to take the town, Demetrius was forced to retire and grant the Rhodians peace [see RHODES, ISLAND OF; B. C. 304]. Whilst Demetrius was thus employed, Cassander had made great progress in reducing Greece. He had taken Corinth, and was besieging Athens, when Demetrius entered the Euripus. Cassander immediately raised the siege, and was subsequently defeated in an action near Thermopylae. When Demetrius entered Athens he was received as before with the most extravagant flatteries. He remained two or three years in Greece, during which his superiority over Cassander was decided, though no great battle was fought. In the spring of 301 B. C. he was recalled by his father Antigonus, who stood in need of his assistance against Lysimachus and Seleucus. In the course of the same year the struggle between Antigonus and his rivals was brought to a close by the battle of Ipsus in Phrygia, in which Antigonus was killed, and his army completely defeated. Antigonus had attained the age of 81 at the time of his death. Demetrius retreated with the remnant of the army to Ephesus, whence he sailed to Cyprus, and afterwards proposed to go to Athens; but the Athenians, alienated by his ill-fortune at Ipsus, refused to receive him."—W. Smith, *History of Greece*, ch. 45.—"After the battle [of Ipsus] it remained for the conquerors to divide the spoil. The dominions of Antigonus were actually in the hands of Seleucus and Lysimachus, and they alone had achieved the victory. It does not appear that they consulted either of their allies on the partition, though it seems that they obtained the assent of Cassander. They agreed to share all that Antigonus had possessed between themselves. It is not clear on what principle the line of demarcation was drawn, nor is it possible to trace it. But the greater part of Asia Minor was given to Lysimachus. The portion of Seleucus included not only the whole country between the coast of Syria and the Euphrates, but also, it seems, a part of Phrygia and of Cappadocia. Cilicia was assigned to Cassander's brother Pleistarchus. With regard to Syria however a difficulty remained. The greater part of it had . . . been conquered by Ptolemy: Tyre and Sidon alone were still occupied by the garrisons of Antigonus. Ptolemy had at least as good a right as his ally to all that he possessed. . . . Seleucus however began to take possession of it, and when Ptolemy pressed his claims returned an answer, mild in sound, but threatening in its import . . . and it appears that Ptolemy was induced to withdraw his opposition. There were, however, also some native princes [Ardoates in Armenia, and Mithradates, son of Ariobarzanes, in Pontus], who had taken advantage of the contests between the Macedonian chiefs to establish their authority over extensive territories in the west of Asia. . . . So far as regards Asia, the battle of Ipsus must be considered as a disastrous event. Not because it transferred the power of Antigonus into different hands, nor because it would have been more desirable that he should have triumphed over Seleucus. But the new distribution of territory led to calamitous consequences, which might perhaps otherwise have been averted. If the empire of Seleucus had remained confined between the Indus and the Euphrates, it might have subsisted much longer, at least, as a barrier against the inroads of the barbarians, who at last obliterated all the traces of European civi-

lisation left there by Alexander and his successors. But shortly after his victory, Seleucus founded his new capital on the Orontes, called, after his father, Antiochia, peopling it with the inhabitants of Antigoniana. It became the residence of his dynasty, and grew, while their vast empire dwindled into the Syrian monarchy. For the prospects of Greece, on the other hand, the fall of Antigonus must clearly be accounted an advantage, so far as the effect was to dismember his territory, and to distribute it so that the most powerful of his successors was at the greatest distance. It was a gain that Macedonia was left an independent kingdom, within its ancient limits, and bounded on the north by a state of superior strength. It does not appear that any compact was made between Cassander and his allies as to the possession of Greece. It was probably understood that he should keep whatever he might acquire there."—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 7, ch. 59.

ALSO IN: B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on ancient history*, v. 3, lect. 86-87.

B. C. 3rd century.—Hellenistic kingdom. See GREECE: B. C. 3rd century.

B. C. 297-280.—Death of Cassander.—Intrigues of Ptolemy Keraunos.—Overthrow and death of Lysimachus.—Abdication and death of Ptolemy.—Murder of Seleucus.—Seizure of Macedonian crown by Keraunos.—"Cassander died of disease (a rare end among this seed of dragon's teeth) in 297 B. C., and so the Greeks were left to assert their liberty, and Demetrius to machinate and effect his establishment on the throne of Macedonia, as well as to keep the world in fear and suspense by his naval forces, and his preparations to reconquer his father's position. Lysimachus, Seleucus, and Ptolemy were watching one another, and alternating in alliance and in war. . . . Pyrrhus was now a very rising and ambitious prince; if not in alliance with Demetrius, he was striving to extend his kingdom of Epirus into Macedonia, and would doubtless have succeeded, but for the superior power of Lysimachus. This Thracian monarch, in spite of serious reverses against the barbarians of the North, who took both him and his son prisoners, and released them very chivalrously, about this time possessed a solid and secure kingdom, and moreover an able and righteous son, Agathocles, so that his dynasty might have been established. but for the poisonous influence of Arsinoe, the daughter of Ptolemy, whom he, an old man, had married in token of an alliance after the battle of Ipsus. . . . The family quarrel which upset the world arose in this wise. To seal the alliance after Ipsus, old king Ptolemy sent his daughter Arsinoe to marry his rival and friend Lysimachus, who, on his side, had sent his daughter, another Arsinoe, in marriage to the younger Ptolemy (Philadelphus). This was the second son of the great Ptolemy, who had chosen him for the throne in preference to his eldest son, Keraunos, a man of violent and reckless character, who accordingly left the country, and went to seek his fortune at foreign courts. Meanwhile the old Ptolemy, for safety's sake, installed his second son as king of Egypt during his own life, and abdicated at the age of 83 [B. C. 283], full of honours, nor did he leave the court, where he appeared as a subject before his son as king. Keraunos naturally visited, in the first instance, the Thracian court, where he not only had a half-sister (Arsinoe) queen, but where his full sister, Ly-sandra, was married to the crown prince, the gallant and popular Agathocles; but Keraunos and the queen conspired against this prince; they persuaded old Lysimachus that he was a traitor, and

so Keraunos was directed to put him to death. This crime caused unusual excitement and odium all through the country, and the relations and party of the murdered prince called on Seleucus to avenge him. He did so, and advanced with an army against Lysimachus, whom he defeated and slew in a great battle, somewhere not far from the field of Ipsus. It was called the plain of Coron (B. C. 281). Thus died the last but one of Alexander's Companions, at the age of 80, he, too, in battle. Ptolemy was already laid in his peaceful grave (B. C. 283). There remained the last and greatest, the king of Asia, Seleucus. He, however, gave up all his Asiatic possessions from the Hellespont to the Indus to his son Antiochus, and meant to spend his last years in the home of his fathers, Macedonia; but as he was entering that kingdom he was murdered by Keraunos, whom he brought with him in his train. This bloodthirsty adventurer was thus left with an army which had no leader, in a kingdom which had no king; for Demetrius' son, Antigonus, the strongest claimant, had not yet made good his position. All the other kings, whose heads were full with their newly acquired sovereignties, viz., Antiochus in Asia and Ptolemy II. in Egypt, joined with Keraunos in buying off the dangerous Pyrrhus [king of Epirus (see *ROME: Republic: B. C. 281-272*)], by bribes of men, money and elephants, to make his expedition to Italy, and leave them to settle their affairs. The Greek cities, as usual, when there was a change of sovran in Macedonia, rose and asserted what they were pleased to call their liberty, so preventing Antigonus from recovering his father's dominions. Meanwhile Keraunos established himself in Macedonia; he even, . . . induced the queen, his step-sister, his old accomplice against Agathocles, to marry him! but it was only to murder her children by Lysimachus, the only dangerous claimants to the Thracian provinces. The wretched queen fled to Samothrace, and thence to Egypt, where she ended her guilty and chequered career as queen of her full brother Ptolemy II. (Philadelphus), and was deified during her life! Such then was the state of Alexander's Empire in B. C. 280. All the first Diadochi were dead, and so were even the sons of two of them, Demetrius and Agathocles. The son of the former was a claimant for the throne of Macedonia, which he acquired after long and doubtful struggles. Antiochus, who had long been regent of the Eastern provinces beyond Mesopotamia, had come suddenly, by his father's murder, into possession of so vast a kingdom, that he could not control the coast of Asia Minor, where sundry free cities and dynasts sought to establish themselves. Ptolemy II. was already king of Egypt, including the suzerainty of Cyrene, and had claims on Palestine and Syria. Ptolemy Keraunos, the double-dyed villain and murderer, was in possession of the throne of Macedonia, but at war with the claimant Antigonus. Pyrrhus of Epirus was gone to conquer a new kingdom in the West. Such was the state of things when a terrible new scourge [the invasion of the Gauls] broke over the world."—J. P. Mahaffy, *Story of Alexander's empire*, ch. 7.

ALSO IN: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 8, ch. 60.

B. C. 280-279.—Invasion by the Gauls.—Death of Ptolemy Keraunos. See *GAUL: B. C. 280-279*.

B. C. 277-244.—Strife for the throne.—Failures of Pyrrhus.—Success of Antigonus Gonatus.—His subjugation of Athens and Corinth.—"On the retirement of the Gauls, Antipater, the nephew of Cassander, came forward for the second time, and was accepted as king by a portion, at any rate,

of the Macedonians. But a new pretender soon appeared upon the scene. Antigonus Gonatus, the son of Demetrius Poliorcetes, who had maintained himself since that monarch's captivity as an independent prince in Central or Southern Hellas, claimed the throne once filled by his father, and, having taken into his service a body of Gallic mercenaries, defeated Antipater and made himself master of Macedonia. His pretensions being disputed by Antiochus Soter, the son of Seleucus, who had succeeded to the throne of Syria, he engaged in war with that prince, crossing into Asia and uniting his forces with those of Nicomedes, the Bithynian king, whom Antiochus was endeavouring to conquer. To this combination Antiochus was forced to yield; relinquishing his claims, he gave his sister, Phila, in marriage to Antigonus, and recognised him as king of Macedonia. Antigonus upon this fully established his power, repulsing a fresh attack of the Gauls. . . . But he was not long left in repose. In B. C. 274, Pyrrhus finally quitted Italy, having failed in all his schemes, but having made himself a great reputation. Landing in Epirus with a scanty force, he found the condition of Macedonia and of Greece favourable to his ambition. Antigonus had no hold on the affections of his subjects, whose recollections of his father, Demetrius, were unpleasing. The Greek cities were, some of them, under tyrants, others occupied against their will by Macedonian garrisons. Above all, Greece and Macedonia were full of military adventurers, ready to flock to any standard which offered them a fair prospect of plunder. Pyrrhus, therefore, having taken a body of Celts into his pay, declared war against Antigonus, B. C. 273, and suddenly invaded Macedonia. Antigonus gave him battle, but was worsted, owing to the disaffection of his soldiers, and being twice defeated became a fugitive and a wanderer. The victories of Pyrrhus, and his son Ptolemy, placed the Macedonian crown upon the brow of the former. . . . But the arts and employments of peace had no charm for the Epirotic knight-errant. Hardly was he settled in his seat when, upon the invitation of Cleonymus of Sparta, he led an expedition into the Peloponnese, and attempted the conquest of that rough and difficult region. Repulsed from Sparta, which he had hoped to surprise, he sought to cover his disappointment by the capture of Argos; but here he was still more unsuccessful. Antigonus, now once more at the head of an army, watched the city, prepared to dispute its occupation, while the lately threatened Spartans hung upon the invader's rear. In a desperate attempt to seize the place by night, the adventurous Epirote was first wounded by a soldier and then slain by the blow of a tile, thrown from a housetop by an Argive woman, B. C. 271. On the death of Pyrrhus the Macedonian throne was recovered by Antigonus, who commenced his second reign by establishing his influence over most of the Peloponnese, after which he was engaged in a long war with the Athenians (B. C. 268 to 263), who were supported by Sparta and by Egypt [see *ATHENS: B. C. 288-263*]. These allies rendered, however, but little help; and Athens must have soon succumbed, had not Antigonus been called away to Macedonia by the invasion of Alexander, son of Pyrrhus. This enterprising prince carried, at first, all before him, and was even acknowledged as Macedonian king; but ere long Demetrius, the son of Antigonus, having defeated Alexander near Derdia, re-established his father's dominion over Macedon, and, invading Epirus, succeeded in driving the Epirotic monarch out of his paternal kingdom. The Epi-

rots soon restored him; but from this time he remained at peace with Antigonos, who was able once more to devote his undivided attention to the subjugation of the Greeks. In B. C. 263 he took Athens, and rendered himself complete master of Attica; and, in B. C. 244, . . . he contrived by a treacherous stratagem to obtain possession of Corinth. But at this point his successes ceased. A power had been quietly growing up in a corner of the Peloponnese [the Achæan League (see GREECE: B. C. 280-146)] which was to become a counterpoise to Macedonia, and to give to the closing scenes of Grecian history an interest little inferior to that which had belonged to its earlier pages."—G. Rawlinson, *Manual of ancient history*, pp. 261-263.—See also ÆTOLIA.

ALSO IN: B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on ancient history*, lect. 100-102.

B. C. 222.—Storming of Mantinea. See MANTINEA: B. C. 222.

B. C. 214-168.—Roman conquest.—Extinction of the kingdom. See GREECE: B. C. 214-146; ROME: Republic: B. C. 215-196; 197-146; 171-133.

B. C. 205-197.—Last relations with the Seleucid empire. See SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 224-187.

A. D. 35-60.—Loyalty of Macedonian churches to Christianity. See CHRISTIANITY: A. D. 35-60. 6th-7th centuries.—Slavonic occupation. See SLAVS: 6th-7th centuries.

9th-10th centuries.—Bulgarian occupation.—Revolts.—Independent Macedonian state.—Retaken by Bulgaria.—“For the first 150 years of their history on the Balkan Peninsula the Bulgarians never left their original frontiers. They used to make incursions in the neighbouring Greek provinces, with the object of plundering, but they regularly returned in their country. It is only under Krum that they begin their new migration westwards and that they conquer in 809, Sophia (Sredatz). Under Boris I. (852-888) they conquer the eastern parts of Macedonia and reach the Vardar. During Vladimir’s reign there are no new conquests . . . but under the Tzar Simeun (893-927) the Bulgarians conquer the whole of Macedonia, nearly the whole Balkan Peninsula and half of to-day’s Roumania and Hungary—in these times Bulgaria was at the zenith of her power.”—S. Tomitch, *Who are the Macedonian Slavs? (Macedonia and the Macedonians [pamphlet] pp. 81, 82)*—“Coming in this manner under the sway of the Bulgars, the Macedonian Slavs maintained the same relations towards them which they had hitherto observed towards Byzantium. The Slav tribes, under the rule of their native princes or chieftains, retained their independent domestic organization, only their allegiance was transferred to their new masters. The change of allegiance did not, therefore, interfere with the domestic life of the Macedonian Slavs. Likewise it exercised no influence on the ethnical evolution of the Macedonians either. The Bulgars did not come as settlers, but as conquerors. . . . The lot of the Macedonian Slavs represented not only two social classes one of which was the ruling and the other the ruled, but also two nations, two religions, and two civilizations. It is true that the Bulgars had already approximated themselves considerably to the conquered Slavs in Bulgarian territory, but to all intents and purposes they were in the main Bulgars. Although they were nominally converted, they were far from being really Christians.”—T. R. Georgevitch, *Macedonia*, p. 23.—“But already under Simeun’s son Peter (927-966) Bulgaria begins to decay and during the reign of the latter’s successor Boris II. (966-969) the sons of the Mace-

donian prince Nikolitz rise against the Bulgarians, turn them out of the country and found an independent Macedonian State. In 971 the Greek Emperor John Tzimiski conquers Bulgaria and in 973 he subdues also the new Macedonian State. In 976 the Macedonian Slavs rise again, this time against the Byzantines, liberate themselves and one of their leaders, Samuilo (970-1014) takes all the power in his hands and proclaims himself Emperor. Samuilo’s young and powerful State, with Prespa as capital liberates the whole of Macedonia, unites itself with all Serbian tribes up to Trebinjë and, in 986, conquers from the Byzantines the whole of Bulgaria. Fourteen years later (1000) the Byzantines retake Bulgaria from Samuilo and his State begins to decay also.”—S. Tomitch, *Who are the Macedonian Slavs? (Macedonia and the Macedonians [pamphlet], p. 82)*.

9th-10th centuries.—Origin of Cyrillic alphabet. See SLAVS: 9th-10th centuries.

11th-15th centuries.—Macedonia as a Serbian state.—Taken by Greeks.—Conquered by Asen II.—Re-conquered by Serbians.—Conquered by Turks.—“Samuel’s vast Macedonian Empire was not of long duration. Already under his immediate successors it began to decay, until finally in 1018 it fell completely under the domination of Byzantium. . . . Abortive insurrections in 1040 in the county of Vardar in Macedonia, which aimed at liberation from Byzantium, proved unsuccessful. [About 1186] the Bulgars revolted against the Byzantine supremacy. With the help of the Kumans (Russian *Polovci*) from the steppes of Pontus, they succeeded in freeing themselves and in once more establishing their State. . . . This Bulgarian domination in Macedonia did not last long, only until the death of Kalojan in 1207. . . . Part of Macedonia came to be ruled by a relative of Kalojan, Strez by name, but under Serbian suzerainty. Strez died in 1215; part of his lands was taken by the Latins of Salonica, and part by the Greeks of Epirus. . . . In 1223 Macedonia was ruled by Theodore Komnenus, Despot of Epirus, who presently proclaimed himself Emperor. . . . Theodore ruled over Macedonia for seven years in all. In 1230 he was suddenly attacked, defeated, and made prisoner by the Bulgarian Tsar Asen II, near the village of Klokotnica (now Semisdze). . . . In gratitude for his success over Theodore Komnenus, Asen II built the Church of the Forty Martyrs in his capital of Trnovo. In an inscription in this church he gives a brief account of his war with Theodore. There he describes how he captured Theodore with all his nobles and subdued all the lands from Adrianople even to Durazzo: the Greek, then the Albanian and the Serbian. . . . In 1246, Michael, the son of Asen II, ascended the Bulgarian throne. That same year the Greek Emperor John Vatatzes succeeded in retaking from the Bulgars all the Macedonian provinces from Adrianople to the Vardar. Michael II, Despot of Epirus, on his part occupied the Macedonian districts lying west of the Vardar, with the towns of Veles, Prilep, and Ochrida. In 1252 John Vatatzes overcame Michael II, and all Macedonia as far as the frontiers of the Serbian contemporary State became a Greek province. There was one more Bulgarian invasion of Eastern Macedonia as far as the Vardar, which lasted from the end of 1254 until 1256, and was also ‘carried out without difficulty.’ . . . In 1258 King Uros of Serbia took Skoplje, Prilep, and Kicevo from Byzantium, but lost them again shortly afterwards in 1261. . . . In 1283 King Milutin [of Serbia] . . . conquered the entire territory as far as Ser (the Seres of to-day), Morunac

(Krestopolje, or Kavala of to-day), and the neighbourhood of Mount Athos, and afterwards added Porec, Kicevo, and Debar in Macedonia to these conquests. . . . [Milutin's son Stephen defeated the Bulgarians at the battle of Velbuzo in 1330. His son, Stephan Dusan soon succeeded and commenced the reign which marked the apotheosis of Serbian history, and an epoch in the history of Macedonia more brilliant and prosperous than any she had hitherto passed through. By 1345 he had taken the remaining Macedonian towns including Salonika and thus the whole of Macedonia became a Serbian province. (See also SERBIA: 1341-1356.) Dusan was succeeded in 1355 by his son the feeble Stephan Uros, under whom the Serbian kingdom] was divided into several parts. . . . [Before this time the Turks had begun to overrun the Balkan peninsula, and after the defeat of the Serbs on the Marion in 1371 Macedonia was conquered by them. After this battle it is said that Serbian princes ruled as vassals of the Turks. The last Serbian ruler was Bogdan who can be traced up to the year 1413.]—T. R. Georgevitch, *Macedonia*, pp. 30-32, 34, 45.—See also TURKEY: 1300-1380.

1204-1261.—Part of kingdom of Saloniki. See SALONIKI, KINGDOM OF.

16th-18th centuries.—Turkish province.—Serbian patriarchate. See SERBIA: 14th-18th centuries.

17th century.—Re-occupation of Macedonia by Albanians. See ALBANIA: 1478-1880.

1870-1912.—Macedonian problem.—Influence of Bulgaria.—"Macedonia is the microcosm of the Balkan problem. In Macedonia we can see simultaneously, and in compact and concentrated form, all the different elements which, on a larger scale and in successive phases, have combined to make up the Eastern Question. . . . The presence of the Turk is, however, the least perplexing of the problems which confront us in Macedonia. The country with its ill-defined boundaries and its kaleidoscopic medley of races is in itself a problem. And the problem has been intensified by the demarcation of the Balkan nations in the last half-century. For Macedonia is a 'no man's land'; or rather it is an all men's land. It is the residuum of the Balkans. Moslems, Jews, Albanians, Bulgars, Serbs, Kutzo-Vlachs, Greeks—all are to be found here cheek by jowl; only the roughest territorial discrimination is possible. The Greeks have always desired to see Macedonia 'Hellenized,' and an Hellenized Macedonia is plainly an indispensable preliminary to the realization of the dream of a revived Hellenic Empire with Constantinople as its capital. Yet to Macedonia itself the Greeks have, on ethnographic grounds, no overpowering claim. Greeks are numerous on the coast and in most of the towns; they form a preponderant element in the south-western part of the vilayet of Monastir and in the south of that of Salonica, but they are outnumbered by the Spanish Jews in the city of Salonica, and in the aggregate they are far inferior to the Slavs. . . . 'Hellenism,' writes a close observer, 'claims these (Macedonian) peoples, because they were civilized by the "Greek Orthodox" Church.' . . . This purely ecclesiastical claim is buttressed by a 'spiritual' claim. . . . Down to 1870 all the Bulgarians in Macedonia, as elsewhere, were, according to the official nomenclature of the Ottoman Empire, Greeks. Creed being the only differentia acknowledged by the Turk, all members of the Orthodox Church were in the same category. The establishment of an independent Bulgarian exarchate was the first blow to the Greek monopoly in Macedonia. But although Bul-

garia came into existence as an ecclesiastical entity in 1870, it was not until 1878 that its existence was acknowledged in a political sense. The conclusion of the Treaty of San Stefano appeared to deal a death-blow to Hellenic ambitions in Macedonia. Lord Beaconsfield's intervention was a godsend to the Greeks. But the success of the Philippopolis revolution in 1875 and the subsequent union of Eastern Roumelia and Bulgaria again rendered acute the Macedonian situation. The events of 1885 seemed once more to bring within the sphere of practical politics the realization of the dream of the Greater Bulgaria actually defined at San Stefano. For some years after 1885 the Bulgarians entertained the hope that it might be realized. . . . Ethnographically also [the] . . . claims [of Bulgaria] are strong. It is perhaps rather too much to say, with a distinguished American authority, that 'the great bulk of the population of Macedonia is Bulgarian,' but it is undeniable that Macedonia has, 'by the educational efforts of the Bulgar people, been to a very large extent Bulgarized in its sympathies' in recent years. The people have 'for a quarter of a century been educated as Bulgars; have fought as Bulgars in 1895, 1903, and 1912; were annexed to Bulgaria by the Russians in 1878, and by the Serbs in 1912; were assigned to the Bulgar Church by the Turks in 1872 and 1897; and are to-day, many of them, perhaps most of them, protesting against being treated other than as Bulgars.' The policy of Bulgaria in regard to Macedonia has passed through two phases and into a third during the last thirty years. For some years, as was said, it aimed at the realization of the Greater Bulgaria, mapped out at San Stefano. Gradually abandoning this idea as outside the domain of practical politics the Bulgarians devoted their energies to the emancipation of Macedonia. Their avowed hope was that, as an autonomous principality under a Christian governor, Macedonia, possibly enlarged by the addition of the vilayet of Adrianople, might become a powerful independent State and the nucleus of a Balkan Federation. . . . [The Serbians, however,] have their own claims to substantiate. Ethnographically those claims are incontestable in northern Macedonia; historically they extend much further. It was from Serbians, not from Greeks or Bulgars, that the greater part of Macedonia was originally conquered by the Ottoman Turks. The historical self-consciousness of the Serbs is not less intense than that of the Greeks. . . . But Macedonia is not only the residuum of Balkan races; . . . the cockpit of competing Balkan nationalities; it has been for years the favourite arena for the international rivalries of the great European Powers. . . . If Russia had been permitted to carry out her plans in 1878 the Macedonian question would have been settled in favour of Bulgaria. At that time Europe was quite unconscious of the existence of a Macedonian problem. . . . Meanwhile, the condition of the Macedonian peoples, to whatever race they might belong, was nothing short of deplorable. For five hundred years the Ottomans had been undisputed lords of Macedonia. They began to plant colonies in Macedonia, even before they attempted the conquest of the Balkan Peninsula. They have been systematically colonizing it afresh since the shrinkage of their empire in Europe. But at no time have Turkish Moslems formed a majority of the population in Macedonia. There, as elsewhere, many of the upper classes apostatized to Mohammedanism, and were rewarded in the usual fashion. Those who refused to do so shared the common lot of the subject Chris-

tian populations in other parts of the peninsula. . . . For some years after the conclusion of the Treaty of Berlin these things were patiently endured in the hope that the Powers would fulfil the promises of reforms contained in that document. But from 1893 to 1903 there were sporadic insurrections in various parts of Macedonia, organized by the secret revolutionary committees which quickly came into existence as the hope of reform faded. In 1895 Bulgaria stood forth as the avowed champion of the oppressed peasantry of Macedonia. In that year the 'supreme Macedo-Adrianopolitan Committee' was formed at Sofia, and armed hands poured over the Bulgarian frontiers. Bulgarian intervention effected little good, though it served to stimulate a movement in Macedonia itself which had for its object the creation of an autonomous province under Turkish suzerainty. The outbreak of the 'Three Weeks' War' between Turkey and Greece in 1897 naturally aroused considerable enthusiasm in Macedonia. But the hopes it raised were destined to disappointment, for, in 1898, Austria and Russia concluded an agreement to maintain the *status quo*. In 1899, however, the Macedonian Committee, which was attempting from Sofia to organize a reform movement, addressed a memorial to the Powers in favour of an 'autonomous Macedonia.' . . . Nothing came of it, and from 1900 to 1903 Macedonia was in a state of chronic insurrection, which culminated in the autumn of 1903 in general risings in the Monastir district and in Thrace."—J. A. R. Marriott, *Eastern question*, pp. 361-367.—See also TURKEY: 1902-1903.

1878.—Treaty of San Stefano. See BALKAN STATES: 1878.

20th century.—Turkish administration in town and country.—Misrule of Young Turk government.—"There is in Turkish administration a singular but quite intelligible contrast between the country and the larger cities. The cities are emphatically over-governed. The administration pries into every detail of the daily life of the people. The streets swarm with spies, and it is as difficult to avoid them as it is to escape stumbling over the dogs. . . . The country, on the other hand, is exempt from any systematic government. It is inhabited in Macedonia mainly by Bulgarians, and the Turk does not see why he should trouble himself to provide them with the machinery of order and security. Macedonia is a land of villages. Hardly anywhere outside Albania proper does one find little hamlets or scattered houses. To build an isolated cottage or a lonely farm-house would imply too much trust in one's fellow-men. Nothing would be easier than to police Macedonia by establishing one or two resident gendarmes of good character in all the larger villages. But that is a precaution which the Turks have never adopted. They leave the villages to their own devices, and, if trouble threatens, suddenly quarter troops upon them, not to protect, but to terrorise them."—H. N. Brailsford, *Macedonia*, pp. 32-33.—"Abdul Hamid pursued the time-honoured Imperial policy of *divide et impera*, for he considered that to increase the confusion among the heterogeneous population of Macedonia, was the means best calculated to maintain the Ottoman authority. Following that policy which in 1871 had created the Bulgarian Exarchate as a counterforce to the Greek Patriarchate, he alternately conceded to and withdrew privileges from the Serbian, Bulgarian, and Greek 'nationalist' clergy in Macedonia. Of the three rival races, the Bulgarians carried on the most active propaganda. Many Macedonians had

risen to high positions in the Bulgarian Government and army, and thousands of refugees from the affected regions formed a restless element in the south-western districts of Bulgaria."—W. E. D. Allen, *Turks in Europe*, p. 195.—See also TURKEY: 1903-1908.—In 1910-1912 "the situation in Macedonia was . . . as bad, if not worse, than that existing prior to the [Turkish] Constitution. Instead of the promised equality for all nationalities, the non-Turkish elements of the population had, so to speak, been placed beyond the pale of common justice. Christians were expelled from their farms in order to be replaced by Mouhaggirs (Moslem emigrants) from Bosnia and Bulgaria. A systematic and organised campaign for the murder of a large number of Bulgarians was instituted. In short, the Constitution had been reduced to nothing but a name. Moreover, whereas under the Old Régime the people enjoyed a certain protection from Europe under various schemes of reform sanctioned and undertaken by the Great Powers, and whereas their religious chiefs were then treated with a certain deference by the Constantinople Government, two years after the establishment of the Constitution these advantages had been done away with and instead no amelioration in the actual system of government had been introduced. Upon this point the feeling of the population seems to have been well expressed in a memorandum, drawn up by the Committee of the Bulgarian Internal Organisation, and handed to the Consuls of Great Britain, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and France, on October 31, 1911. After discussing various aspects of the situation in Macedonia, this document declared that: 'Comparing the present state of things to that which existed during the last four years of the reign of Abdul Hamid, when there was in Macedonia a European Control, and when the country enjoyed a certain financial autonomy, the people find the present situation much more abominable and much more insupportable.'—H. C. Woods, *Cradle of the war*, pp. 17-18.

1903-1908.—Mürzsteg reforms.—Turkish obstruction.—"At last in February, 1903, the Austrian and Russian governments attempted a limited intervention, and drew up a scheme of reform, suggesting the appointment of an Inspector-general for a fixed number of years, the reorganisation of the gendarmerie under the superintendence of foreign officers, and certain financial arrangements."—W. E. D. Allen, *Turks in Europe*, p. 196.—See also TURKEY: 1903-1908.

1912.—First Balkan War. See BALKAN STATES: 1912: First Balkan War.

1912-1913.—Armed intervention by Balkan coalition against Turkish rule.—Partition among Balkan states by Treaty of Bucharest. See TURKEY: 1912-1913; BALKAN STATES: 1913-1914; BULGARIA: 1913; GREECE: 1913; Second Balkan War; SERBIA: 1900-1913.

1914-1916.—Situation in the Balkans. See BALKAN STATES: 1914-1916; WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: b, 5.

1916.—World War: Vardar line of defense on Balkan front.—Campaign in Macedonia.—Salonika and Doiran captured by the Allies.—Bulgarian invasion.—Operations in the Struma valley. See WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: b, to b, 2, iii.

1916.—World War: Bulgarian atrocities in Macedonia. See WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: b, 2, i; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: b, 5; d; d, 5.

1917.—World War: Fighting on Salonika front and Struma valley.—British attack.—British advance along Lake Doiran. See

WORLD WAR: 1917: V. Balkan theater: e; e, i; e, 2; e, 3.

1918.—World War: Fighting in the Vardar, Struma and Lake Doiran regions.—Battle of Macedonia.—Allied army at Salonika.—Strategy of Franchet d'Espérey. See WORLD WAR: 1918: V. Balkan theater: c, 1; c, 2; c, 5; c, 8, to c, 8, iv.

1921.—Situation in Macedonia. See BALKAN STATES: 1921: Macedonia, the apple of discord.

ALSO IN: C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference*, ch. 8.—V. Bernard, *La Macédoine*.—J. D. Bouchier, *Fate of Macedonia* (Macedono-Bulgarian Central Committee, Bulgaria).—E. Farr, *History of the Macedonians*.—N. and C. Buxton, *War and the Balkans*, ch. 9.—F. Schwill, *History of Balkan peninsula*, pp. 27, 28, 431-437, 450-452.—M. Wendel, *Macedonia and Macedonian Slavs*.—W. M. Fullerton, *Problems of power*, pp. 135-136, 138-139.—F. S. Stevenson, *Macedonian question*.

MACEDONIA, Battle of (1918). See WORLD WAR: 1918: V. Balkan theater: c, 8.

MACEDONIAN DYNASTY, 867-1057. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 820-1057.

MACEDONIAN PHALANX. See PHALANX, MACEDONIAN.

MACEDONIAN WARS. See GREECE: B. C. 214-146.

MACELLUM, Roman forum. See FORUMS OF ROME: Forum Romanum.

MACEO, José Antonio (1848-1896), Cuban revolutionist. See CUBA: 1895-1898.

MACERATA, Battle of (1815). See ITALY: (Southern): 1815.

McGILL, James (1744-1813), Scottish philanthropist. Bequeathed his property and £10,000 to found McGill university, Montreal.

McGIVNEY, Michael Joseph, Roman Catholic priest. Founder of the Knights of Columbus. See KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS: Circumstances of origin.

McGOVERN, Francis Edward (1866-), governor of Wisconsin, 1911-1915. See GOVERNORS' CONFERENCE.

MACHA, goddess of war. According to tradition, the daughter of the Irish High King, Aedh Ruad. See ARMAGH.

MACHANG, Battle of. See CHINA: 1922 (April-May).

McHENRY, Fort, at the entrance of Baltimore harbor. It was bombarded by the British in 1814. See U. S. A.: 1814 (August-September).

MACHI, name for Japanese villages. See JAPAN: Local government.

MACHIAVELLI, Niccolò (1469-1527), Italian author and statesman. Native of Florence; employed on missions to the various courts of Italy and foreign countries by the chancellor of the republic of Florence, 1498-1512. His most famous work is "The Prince," dedicated to Lorenzo de' Medici. See ITALY: 1494-1527; HISTORY: 22; ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1450-1595; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 34.

MACHINE GUNS. See ORDNANCE: 20th century.

MACHINERY. See INVENTIONS; ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY; STEAM AND GAS ENGINES; AGRICULTURE: Modern: British Isles: Late 18th—early 19th centuries; United States: 1833-1860; SCOTLAND: 1750-1921; INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION; TANKS; U. S. A.: 1865-1872.

MACINTOSH, Charles (1766-1843), Scottish chemist. Inventor of a number of new chemical processes and waterproof fabrics. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry.

MACK, Alexander, German pastor. First minister of the Dunkards. See DUNKARDS.

MACK VON LEIBERICH, Baron Karl (1752-1828), Austrian general. Fought against the Turks, 1797; commanded Neapolitan troops against the French, 1798; fought in the war between Austria and France and suffered defeat at the river Iller, 1805; capitulated to Napoleon at Ulm, Oct. 17, 1805. See FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-April); 1805 (March-December).

MACKAYE, Percy (1875-), American dramatist and poet. See DRAMA: 1865-1913.

McKEAN, Thomas (1734-1817), American patriot. Delegate to the Stamp Act Congress, 1765; one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, 1776. See U. S. A.: 1765: Stamp Act Congress; 1774 (September); 1776 (July): Text of the Declaration of Independence.

McKEES ROCKS STRIKE (1909). See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1877-1911.

McKEEVER, William Arch (1868-), American educator. One of the organizers of the playground movement in the United States. See RECREATION: 1906-1914.

McKENNA, Joseph (1843-), American statesman and jurist. United States circuit judge, 1893-1897; attorney-general, 1897-1898; became associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, 1898. See U. S. A.: 1897 (March).

McKENNA, Reginald (1863-), British statesman. President of the board of education, 1907; first lord of admiralty, 1908-1911; home secretary, 1911-1915; chancellor of the exchequer, 1915-1916; chairman of London joint city and Midland bank.

1909.—Speech on navy estimates. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909-1913.

1922.—Speech at bankers' convention in New York City. See DEBTS, PUBLIC: Problem of paying.

MACKENSEN, August von (1849-), German field marshal. Appointed to command the German 9th Army on the eastern front at outbreak of the World War; took part in the campaign in Poland, 1914; led the forces which defeated the Russians, at the Dunajec, 1915; commanded the armies which overran Serbia, 1915, and Rumania, 1916.

Campaign in Galicia.—Concentration against Warsaw.—Battle of Grodek.—Attack on Warsaw and Goryn. See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 2; d, 3; 1915: III. Eastern front: f; f, 6; f, 8; g, 1; g, 3; g, 6; g, 8; i, 3; i, 6.

Serbian, Rumanian, Armenian and Dobrudja campaigns. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: a; b, 4; 1916: V. Balkan theater: c, 5; c, 6, ii; VI. Turkish theater: d, 5; 1918: V. Balkan theater: b; BALKAN STATES: 1914-1916.

MACKENZIE, Sir Alexander (1755-1820), Canadian pioneer and explorer. See ARCTIC-EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1789; BRITISH COLUMBIA: 1577-1846; NORTH-WEST TERRITORY.

MACKENZIE, Sir Alexander Campbell (1847-), Scottish composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1842-1921: Modern English composers.

MACKENZIE, Sir Duncan (1859-), British general. Served in South Africa, 1899-1902; in the Natal native rebellion 1906; in the Southwest African campaign, 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 1.

MACKENZIE, Sir William (1849-), president of the Canadian Northern Railway. See RAILROADS: 1899-1919.

MACKENZIE, William Lyon (1795-1861), Canadian newspaper editor. Leader of the rebel-

lion of 1837-1838. See CANADA: 1837; 1837-1838.

MACKENZIE, district of northwestern Canada. See CANADA: 1805.

MACKENZIE AREA. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Mackenzie area.

MACKENZIE BASIN. See CANADA: 1909.

McKIM, Charles Follen (1847-1909), American architect. See U.S.A.: 1902 (May-November).

MACKINAC, or **MACKINAW**, ISLAND, at the northwestern extremity of Lake Huron, northwest of Detroit.

Discovery and first Jesuit mission.—Importance in early fur trade. See CANADA: 1634-1673; MICHIGAN: 1616-1701.

1763.—Captured by Indians. See PONTIAC'S WAR.

1796.—Ceded to the United States by the Jay Treaty. See MICHIGAN: 1775-1796.

McKINLEY, William (1843-1901), twenty-fifth president of the United States. Served in the Civil War; member of the House of Representatives, 1877-1891; governor of Ohio, 1892-1896; president of the United States, 1897-1901.

Tariff Act. See TARIFF: 1890.

Election and reelection to presidency.—Inaugural addresses. See U.S.A.: 1896: Party platforms and nominations: Republican; 1897 (March); 1900 (May-November); 1901 (March).

Message on the destruction of the "Maine." See U.S.A.: 1898 (February-March).

Message asking for power to intervene in Cuba. See U.S.A.: 1898 (March-April).

Message announcing state of war with Spain. See U.S.A.: 1898 (April).

Modification of civil service regulations. See CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: United States: 1897-1898; 1899.

Negotiation of peace with Spain.—Instructions to and correspondence with commissioners at Paris. See U.S.A.: 1898 (July-December).

Instructions to military commander and to the two commissions in the Philippines. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1898-1899 (December-January); 1899: Problem of governing; 1900: Progress toward civil government.

Reply to arguments on imperialism. See U.S.A.: 1900 (May-November).

1901.—Assassination.—President McKinley, with Mrs. McKinley, had arrived in Buffalo on the 4th of September for a long planned visit to the exposition, and had accepted the hospitality of its president, John G. Milburn. On the afternoon of the 6th he held a public reception in the temple of music, on the exposition grounds, and it was there that the brutal assassin found his opportunity for the deed. The one fatal bullet of the two that were fired was found to have passed through both walls of the stomach, and its further progress was not traced. For a week there seemed good ground for believing that the sound constitution of the president would defeat the assassin's attempt; but on Friday the 13th the symptoms underwent a rapid change, and at fifteen minutes past two o'clock of the morning of Saturday he breathed his last. The assassin, who called himself Nieman at first, was identified as Leon Czolgosz, a Pole, having reputable parents at Cleveland, Ohio. He had come under anarchist influences and been taught to believe that all heads of government were enemies of the people and ought to be slain. There was no other motive discoverable for his crime. He was arraigned in the county court, before Justice Emory, on September 17th. On the 26th he was sentenced to be executed, in the state

prison at Auburn, within the week beginning October 28.

"The circumstances of this, the third assassination of an American President, have a peculiarly sinister significance. Both President Lincoln and President Garfield were killed by assassins of types unfortunately not uncommon in history; President Lincoln falling a victim to the terrible passions aroused by four years of civil war, and President Garfield to the revengeful vanity of a disappointed office-seeker. President McKinley was killed by an utterly depraved criminal belonging to that body of criminals who object to all governments, good and bad alike, who are against any form of popular liberty if it is guaranteed by even the most just and liberal laws, and who are as hostile to the upright exponent of a free people's sober will as to the tyrannical and irresponsible despot. It is not too much to say that at the time of President McKinley's death he was the most widely loved man in all the United States; while we have never had any public man of his position who has been so wholly free from the bitter animosities incident to public life. . . . The blow was aimed not at this President, but at all Presidents; at every symbol of government. President McKinley was as emphatically the embodiment of the popular will of the Nation expressed through the forms of law as a New England town meeting is in similar fashion the embodiment of the law-abiding purpose and practice of the people of the town. On no conceivable theory could the murder of the President be accepted as due to protest against 'inequalities in the social order,' save as the murder of all the freemen engaged in a town meeting could be accepted as a protest against that social inequality which puts a malefactor in jail."—*Message of President Roosevelt to Congress, Dec. 3, 1901.*

McKINLEY, Mount, or **Denali**, the highest mountain (20,000 feet) in North America, first mentioned by George Vancouver in 1794; seen in 1878 by two Alaska traders, Alfred Mayo and Arthur Harper and in 1889 by Frank Densmore, a prospector, from whose description it was known for years to the Yukon settlers as "Densmore's mountain." Visited by W. A. Dickey in 1896, who guessed its height accurately and named the peak for William McKinley, the news of whose nomination was received on this expedition. Although viewed by George Eldridge and Robert Muldrow of the U. S. Geological Survey in 1898 and by Lieut. Herron in 1899 who named the lesser peak Mount Foraker for the Ohio senator, Alfred Brooks and D. L. Raeburn were the first white men to set foot on Mount McKinley. The first attempt to climb the mountain was made by James Wickersham with four men in 1903. The same year Dr. F. A. Cook tried the ascent and in 1906 organized a second expedition on which he was accompanied by Belmore Browne and Herschel Parker. The first ascent of the difficult North Peak was made by a party of miners and prospectors in 1910. In this year Parker and Browne organized another party, as well as C. E. Rust of Portland, Oregon. Parker and Browne again undertook the ascent in 1912. The summit was reached by Hudson Stuck and Harry Karstens, June 7, 1913, after two months' work.

—Also in: H. Stuck, *Ascent of Denali*.—B. Browne, *Mount McKinley National Park* (*Scribner's Magazine, Oct., 1917, pp. 300-300; 302*).

McKINLEY TARIFF ACT. See TARIFF: 1890.

MACKINTOSH, Æneas, British explorer. Captain of the *Aurora* in the Ross Antarctic expedition, 1914-1917. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1914-1916.

McLAURIN, John Lowndes (1860-), United States senator, 1897-1903. See U.S.A.: 1899 (January-February).

MACLEAN, Sir Harry Aubrey (1848-1920), British soldier. Instructor in Moroccan army, 1876-1906; held captive by the bandit Raisuli, 1907, his release being secured through a ransom paid by the British government. See MOROCCO: 1904-1909.

McLEMORE RESOLUTION.—"During the month of February the administration was engaged in admittedly delicate negotiations growing out of the armed merchantman-submarine controversy between Great Britain and Germany. . . . [William McLemore, representative from Texas introduced a resolution] which requested the president to warn all American citizens to refrain from traveling upon a merchantman of any belligerent even though armed only for defense, and specifically stating that 'in case American citizens do travel on such armed belligerent ships they do so at their own risk.' . . . [As this resolution tended to infringe upon the presidential powers, the president called into conference several of the majority leaders of the House. The conference gave rise to a rumor that the president was not in agreement with the leaders in the House. This rumor was transmitted to Germany, and] the German newspapers, and through them the German public were promptly advised that the President and his leaders in Congress were hopelessly out of accord. . . . Utterances like these tended to strengthen, and did strengthen, the position of Germany in its negotiations with the United States on this matter and . . . tended to embarrass, and did embarrass, the President of the United States in his dealings with Germany. . . . [Agitation which arose in Congress was] over the McLemore resolution and over nothing else. It arose, therefore, not over a mere 'warning' resolution but over a resolution than an American, in effect, lost his citizenship when he walked up the gangplank of a merchantman bound for Europe and carrying even a single gun. . . . Had this resolution been presented in time of world peace, or even at the beginning of the . . . session . . . the issue would have been very simple and it might have easily been disposed of. . . . [But in the situation then present the matter had a wider significance. Some weeks earlier German Government had given] notice that beginning March 1 it would sink armed enemy vessels without warning, whether such vessels were armed for defense only or not."—*Congressional Record*, Mar. 8, 1916, pp. 4327, 4332.—At the request of the president, the resolution was defeated.

MACLEOD, Fiona, pseudonym. See SHARP, WILLIAM.

McLEOD CASE. See CANADA: 1840-1841.

McMAHON, Sir Arthur Henry (1862-), British soldier and administrator. Served in the Punjab frontier force, 1885; revenue and judicial commissioner in Baluchistan, 1901; chief commissioner, 1905-1911; commissioner in Seistan, 1903-1905; foreign secretary to India, 1911-1914; high commissioner for Egypt, 1914. See EGYPT: 1914: Attempt to assassinate khedive; WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: c. 3.

MACMAHON, Marie Edmé Patrice Maurice de, Duke of Magenta (1808-1893), French marshal and president of the republic. Served in Algeria, 1830-1850; in the Crimean War, 1855; commanded an Italian army corps, 1859; made marshal of France and duke of Magenta, 1859; governor-general of Algeria, 1864-1870; served in Franco-Prussian War, 1870; president of France, 1873-1879. See FRANCE: 1870 (August-September); 1871-1876; 1875-1889.

McMASTER, John Bach (1852-), American historian. See HISTORY: 29.

McMURDO, Edward, American army officer. Received a concession from the Lishon cabinet to build a railway from Lourenço Marques to the Transvaal frontier, Africa, 1883. See DELAGOA BAY ARBITRATION.

MACMURROUGH, Dermot (Diarmait mac Murchadha) (c. 1110-1175), king of Leinster, Ireland, c. 1135-1171. See IRELAND: 1014-1169-1169-1200.

McMURRY, Charles Alexander (1857-), American educator. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th-20th centuries: Herbartian movement, etc.

McMURRY, Frank Morton (1862-), American educator. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th-20th centuries: Herbartian movement, etc.

MacNAB, Sir Allan Napier (1708-1862), Canadian soldier and statesman. Suppressed rebellion of 1837-1838; prime minister of the united provinces of Canada, 1854-1856. See CANADA: 1837-1838.

MACNAGHTEN, Sir William Hay (1793-1841), British diplomat. Entered Indian civil service, 1816; became trusted advisor of the governor-general, Lord Auckland, 1837; political agent at Kabul. See AFGHANISTAN: 1838-1842.

McNARY SUGAR CONTROL BILL. See U.S.A.: 1919 (August-December).

MAC NEILL, Eoin, member of Irish volunteers. See IRELAND: 1914-1916; 1916.

MACON, Council of (585). See CHARITIES: FRANCE: 511-1553.

MACON, Nathaniel (1758-1837), American political leader. Member of North Carolina state senate, 1781-1785; member of the national House of Representatives, 1791-1815; speaker of the House, 1801-1807; United States senator, 1815-1828.

MACON, Fort, on the eastern extremity of Bogue island, commanding Beaufort harbor, North Carolina. See U.S.A.: 1860-1861 (December-February); 1862 (January-April: North Carolina): 1865 (April-May).

MACON BILL NO. 2 (1810). See U.S.A.: 1810-1812.

McPHERSON, James Birdseye (1828-1864), American general. Chief engineer on the staff of General Grant, 1862; served at Campion hill and Vicksburg, 1863; commander of the Army of the Tennessee in Georgia, 1864. See U.S.A.: 1864 (May-September: Georgia).

MACQUARIE, Lachlan (1762-1824), British soldier and administrator. Governor of New South Wales, c. 1800-1820. See AUSTRALIA: 1787-1840.

McREYNOLDS, James Clark (1862-), American jurist. Attorney-general, 1913-1914; appointed associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, 1914. See U.S.A.: 1913 (March).

MACRINUS, Marcus Opellius (164-218), Roman emperor, 217-218. See ROME: Empire: 192-284.

MACSWINEY, Terence (d. 1920), Irish nationalist. Lord mayor of Cork, died as a result of a hunger strike in Brixton prison. See IRELAND: 1920 (April-November).

MACUSIS, or Macushi, American aboriginal tribe. See CARIBS.

MacVEAGH, Franklin (1837-), American cabinet officer. Secretary of the treasury, 1909-1913. See U.S.A.: 1909 (March): Inauguration of President Taft; 1909 (October-November).

MacVEAGH, Wayne (1833-1917), American diplomat. Minister to Turkey, 1870-1871; attorney-general, 1881; ambassador to Italy, 1893-1897.

MAD PARLIAMENT. See PARLIAMENT, ENGLISH: 1258.

MADAGASCAR: Area. — Population. — Resources. — Racial characteristics.—"Madagascar [a colonial possession of France] is the third largest island in the world, being 1,000 miles long, by 375 at its widest part, with an average breadth of about 250 miles. It has thus an area of about 230,000 square miles."—T. T. Matthews, *Thirty years in Madagascar*, p. 13.—See also AFRICA: Map.—"Although lying almost wholly within the tropics, it resembles South Africa in being mainly of an elevated character. . . . The eastern and northern coast plains and mountain slopes are very wet and are clothed with tropical forests, while on the highlands there are grasslands. . . . The population is largely found on the highlands, where Antonanarivo stands, connected by rail with the port of Tamatave. Here the abundance of natural pasture makes cattle-rearing the leading industry, there being over 7 million head of horned cattle in the country. Hence there is a large surplus of hides, and a meat-packing industry is established on a small scale in the leading towns and ports. . . . About 3 million acres are under cultivation, 12 per cent. of this total being worked by Europeans. . . . Much rice is grown, and with *manioc* and *butter beans* makes up an important total of food-stuffs exported. Of forest products, wild rubber, tanning barks, and raphia palm fibre . . . are all (especially the last named) exports of considerable value, while very important timber resources await development."—E. G. R. Taylor, *Business man's geography*, p. 326.—"Madagascar is often conveniently spoken of as the Great African Island. . . . It is, geographically speaking, an African island, as it lies near to the great continent, and may, indeed, in very remote ages have been part of it. But its people are not on the whole an African people; and much in its flora and fauna indicates a very long separation from the neighbouring continent. Particularly noticeable is the fact that Madagascar has no lions, elephants, deer, or antelopes, which are abundant in Africa. . . . The people of Madagascar, usually spoken of as the Malagasy, are doubtless of mixed origin. That a large African element exists among them cannot be doubted, but speaking generally they are not Africans, but belong to the same family as the Malays and Malayo-Polynesians. Substantially the same language exists throughout the entire island; and there is not more difference between the dialects than such as exists . . . between the talk of a countryman from Lancashire and another from Somersetshire. . . . The chief tribes in the island are the Hova, the Betsileo, the Bara, the Tankay, the Sihanaka, the Betsimisaraka, the Taimofo, the Taisaka, the Taifasy, the Tanosy, the Sakalava, the Tankarama. To these might be added many other tribal names of less importance, if we intended to make our list complete. The Hova are the inhabitants of the central province of Imerina."—W. E. Cousins, *Madagascar of to-day*.—"The element of Sanscrit in Malagasy proves that the immigrations from the mother source—from Sumatra—took place after the epoch of the Indianising of the Malay language through the Indian invasions of the Malay Peninsula, Java, and Sumatra, which began about 500 B. C. It has therefore been generally agreed to call the Malagasy Indonesians in respect of their race-affinity. . . . The study of comparative phonetics has proved that the Malagasy language is a perfect unity, and that it has developed as a Malayan dialect. . . . The existence of the light-skinned Hova-type of very pure Malayan origin (about 500,000 individuals), especially in the noble caste, could only be explained by the endogamic marriage customs

strongly maintained."—E. Birkeli, *Bantu in Madagascar (Journal of the African Society, July, 1920)*.—See MALAY, MALAYSIAN, OR BROWN, RACE; PHILIOLOGY: 27.

Early history.—"About the seventh century, the Arabs of Mecca took possession of the Comoro Islands, lying to the north-west of Madagascar, and extended their commerce all over the coasts of that great island; and it was to a marked extent their language, civilization, and religion which for centuries dominated the north-west of the island. The great Arab geographer Edresi, who lived in A. D. 1090, has left among his writings a description of Madagascar, which he calls Zaledi. The same author refers to the emigration of Chinese and Malays, who settled in Madagascar at an epoch which unfortunately cannot now be precisely determined. . . . Madagascar was first made known to modern Europe by the celebrated Venetian traveller Marco Polo, in the thirteenth century. He, however, had never seen or visited the island, but had heard during his travels in Asia various accounts of it under the name of Magaster, or Madagascar. . . . It was not until the beginning of the sixteenth century that any European set foot on Madagascar. . . . In A. D. 1505, King Manoel of Portugal sent out a fleet to the Indies under the command of Don Francisco de Almeida. . . . On their way they discovered, on February 1, A. D. 1506, the east coast of Madagascar. Joas Gomez d'Abreu discovered the west coast of the island in the same year, on August 10, St. Laurence's Day, from which circumstance it was called the Island of St. Laurence, a name which it retained for more than a hundred years. During the early times of French intercourse with Madagascar, in the reign of Henry IV, it was known as the Île Dauphiné; this name was never accepted by other nations. There is, however, every reason for believing that the name Madagascar is not a native name, but one given to the island by foreigners."—T. T. Matthews, *Thirty Years in Madagascar*, pp. 16-17.—The Hova were the ruling tribe; but their rule was oppressive and they were hated and feared by the subject tribes. They are, however, a progressive people and after their acceptance of Christianity began to assimilate ideas which fitted them to lead.

1810-1894.—Native rule.—French treaty.—Protectorate.—As far back as tradition will carry us there existed in Madagascar a kind of feudalism. Villages were usually built on the hill tops, and each hill top had its own chieftain, and these petty feudal chiefs were constantly waging war with one another. The people living on these feudal estates paid taxes and rendered certain services to their feudal lords. Each chief enjoyed a semi-independence, for no strong overlord existed. Attempts were made from time to time to unite these petty chieftaincies into one kingdom, but no one tribe succeeded in making itself supreme till the days of Radama I. [1810-1828]. . . . By allying himself closely with England, Radama obtained arms and military instructors, and carried war into distant provinces. He ultimately succeeded in conquering many of the tribes, and his reign marks the beginning of a new era in Madagascar. Indeed, only from his days could Madagascar in any sense be regarded as a political unit. . . . For three reigns, i.e. from the accession of Rasoherina in 1803, the 'Mpanjaka' [(sovereign) was a woman and the wife of the prime minister. The arrangement, however, was quite a recent one]. In the 17th century the French occupied Fort Dauphine, at the south-east extremity of the island, and also formed

establishments at Foule Point and other places on the east coast. The lives of many Frenchmen were sacrificed in the attempt to maintain these positions, and finally they were all but abandoned. In the Napoleonic wars, when Great Britain seized Mauritius and Bourbon, she also acquired whatever possessions and rights France possessed in Madagascar. And although, when peace was reestablished after the battle of Waterloo, Bourbon was restored to France, all French rights and possessions in Madagascar were retained by Great Britain. Later on, in the time of Radama I. (1810-1828), when a treaty of friendship was entered into between him and Governor Farquhar in 1817, all these claims were finally renounced, and Radama was acknowledged King of Madagascar. The French, however, never altogether abandoned the idea that Madagascar in some sense belonged to them. A work was published in 1859 entitled 'Madagascar; a French Possession from the year 1642,' showing how there still lingered in the minds of many the idea that, as a result of these early establishments, France still possessed some claims on the island. Later on France acquired by treaty with local chiefs the islands of St. Mary (1821), near the eastern coast, and Nosihè (1841) on the north-west. . . . From the accession of Radama II. there [were] . . . constant difficulties between the French and Malagasy governments. . . . In the year 1868 a treaty of friendship was entered into by the two governments, and Queen Rasoberina was recognized as Queen of Madagascar. This seemed to be the final abandonment of all French claims. It did not, however, end the difficulties. . . . In 1883, because the Malagasy would not yield to certain demands made by the French, war broke out. . . . In 1886 a treaty of peace was concluded, which, while reserving to the Hova the control of all domestic affairs, gave to the French a privileged position in regard to foreign affairs. . . . The large bay of Diego Suarez, on the north-east of Madagascar (sometimes known as British Sound) was also ceded to France."—W. E. Cousins, *Madagascar of to-day*.—"Difficulties and disputes arose from time to time, however, on various points directly bearing on the treaty, and notably on the two following: the validity of the appendix which was added to the agreement, and the rights of the native government to issue exequaturs to the foreign consuls. As time wore on the tension between the two parties became more and more strained, until at last the French government, feeling the situation to be intolerable, determined to make one final and serious effort to bring the Malagasy government to submission by peaceful means, and, with this end in view, sent out in October, 1894, a plenipotentiary in the person of M. Le Myre de Vilers, who, a short time previously, had been resident-general of the island. But, as the queen and prime minister were unwilling to yield to his demands, his mission proved abortive, and he returned to France."—T. T. Matthews, *Thirty years in Madagascar*, pp. 291, 292.

1890.—French sphere of influence recognized by Great Britain. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1890.

1894-1899.—Subjugation of island by the French.—Anti-foreign and anti-Christian risings.—Revival of idolatry.—Final possession of the island by France proclaimed.—Submissive declaration of the queen.—In 1894 the French government took decisive measures looking toward the subjugation of the island, and, early in 1895, a strong expedition under General Duchesne was

landed on the coast. The Malagasy were much divided among themselves, and they were poorly prepared for war. They made feeble resistance to the invaders; but the latter had a difficult and costly campaign, notwithstanding, on account of the nature of the country and the absence of roads, which they were obliged to construct as they advanced. They are said to have lost only twenty men killed in action, but 6,000 by disease. They reached Antananarivo, the Hova capital, at the end of September. "Immediately on the arrival of General Duchesne a treaty was signed by the Malagasy authorities, by which the whole power of the country was ceded to the French. The queen remained in her place, and the Hova Prime Minister was also allowed to be nominally at the head of affairs. Part of this arrangement was found impracticable after a short time; the Prime Minister had enjoyed unlimited power for too long a period to accept a subordinate position, and General Duchesne was forced to remove him. Accordingly, he was taken to a house of his own at a short distance from the capital, where he was kept under surveillance for two or three months, but as he was still supposed to be plotting he was deported to Algiers, in which country he died after a very short exile. It seemed at first as if the change of masters in the island was to be accomplished without any serious disturbance. . . . In the early part of November (1895), however, this satisfactory state of affairs was rudely interrupted. A paltry quarrel between two clans about a piece of ground, which each claimed, gradually developed into a serious rising. The two parties came to an understanding by agreeing to make an attack upon the Europeans. As soon as General Duchesne was informed of what had been happening to the south-west of the capital, he sent a column . . . with orders to punish the insurgents and to pacify the district. . . . The resistance on the part of the natives was vigorous, and for a time well sustained. . . . Discipline and Lebel rifles, however, were more than a match for all their efforts, and after a loss of about 150 men they desisted. . . . One distressing feature in the insurrection was the revival of idolatry, which was thought to be extinct in Imerina, but which evidently has been scotched and not killed. Almost the first move on the part of the rebels had been to reinstate a local idol called Ravololona, and the performance of certain acts of worship in the presence of the idol was considered the mark of a good patriot. Naturally under these circumstances the teachers and the more prominent Christians in the various churches and chapels were objects of dislike and hatred, and in the disaffected district these men with their wives and families had to fly for their lives. It is useless to shut one's eyes to facts; a considerable number of those who were held in esteem by the missionaries failed to stand the test of persecution, and if not guilty of actually worshipping idols were actively in league with those who did so. . . . After the suppression of this first outbreak matters remained quiet in Imerina for some months. . . . The next serious event in the island was an outbreak of a different character. With the exception of the Hova, few if any of the tribes were thought to be opposed to French rule. . . . The Hova were as much hated as they were feared, and, from whatever quarter it might come, release from their rule would be welcome. The arrival of the French was the long-wished-for moment; but news spreads slowly in Madagascar, and though the Hova power came to an end at the beginning of October, it was not realised on the coast until the new year [1896].

When, however, it was known that the French were masters of the country the explosion came. The two large tribes of the Betsimisaraka and the Taimoro on the east rose against the Hova, and ruthlessly killed them wherever they could catch them. . . . The buildings used as churches and schools were also burnt, for, as the greater part of the teachers came from Imerina, religion and education were associated with the Hova. In one or two instances Europeans were murdered, but only when they were mixed up with the Hova."—F. A. Gregory, *French in Madagascar (Nineteenth Century, Jan., 1897)*.

Formal possession of the island was now proclaimed, and, on January 18th, 1896, the submissive queen signed the following "Declaration":

Her Majesty the Queen of Madagascar, having been made acquainted with the Proclamation taking possession of the Island of Madagascar by the French Government, declares her acceptance of the following conditions:—

Article I. The Government of the French Republic shall be represented at the Court of Her Majesty the Queen of Madagascar by a Resident-General.

Art. II. The Government of the French Republic shall represent Madagascar in all relations with foreign Powers. The Resident-General shall be intrusted with the conduct of relations with the Agents of foreign Powers; and all questions affecting foreigners in Madagascar shall be dealt with through him. The French Diplomatic and Consular Agents abroad shall be charged with the protection of Malagasy subjects and interests.

Art. III. The Government of the French Republic reserve to themselves the right of maintaining in Madagascar the armed forces necessary for the exercise of their authority.

Art. IV. The Resident-General shall control the internal administration of the island. Her Majesty the Queen of Madagascar undertakes to introduce such reforms as the French Government shall deem expedient for the economic development of the island, and for the advancement of civilization.

Art. V. The Government of Her Majesty the Queen of Madagascar undertake to contract no loan without the authorization of the Government of the French Republic. (Signed) RANAVALOMANJAKA, *Mpanjakan'ny Madagascar*.

On February 11th the following "Notification" was officially communicated to all the Powers: "In consequence of difficulties which have arisen in Madagascar, the Government of the Republic, in the exercise of their Protectorate, have been obliged to intervene by force of arms in order to make their rights respected, and to obtain guarantees for the future. They have thus been obliged to occupy the island with their troops, and to take final possession thereof."—Great Britain, *Parliamentary Publications (Papers by Command: Africa, no. 8, 1897)*. About this time, "M. Laroche, the first Resident-General, arrived at the capital and began to organise the government of the country. A new Prime Minister was appointed, in whose name laws might be issued, for it had been settled that the administration should be indirect, that is to say conducted through the medium of the natives. A considerable number of regulations were promulgated, affecting the development of the industries of the country, the granting of concessions, and the education of the natives. Most of these were much too elaborate to be useful, and up to the present time nearly all of them have remained a dead letter. Some

may be useful when the insurrection has been quelled, when the country is such as to invite capitalists, and when schools have been re-established. In March there were again signs of trouble, though at first these were faint and perhaps too far off to attract the serious attention of the authorities. . . . A petty disturbance in the beginning, fomented for private purposes and fostered by an appeal to patriotic feeling, has developed into a formidable insurrection. I say formidable, but I do not mean to give the idea that the insurrection is formidable from a military point of view. . . . But from industrial, educational, and religious points of view, the rebellion has been a complete success, and however soon it may be suppressed, the progress of the country in some parts has been thrown back for years, a large tract reduced to desolation, and the inhabitants to little better than savages. This destruction has been effected in five months, for, beginning in May, it has spread over the whole of Avaradrano, Vonizongo, part of Imarovatana, and Vakin'Ankaratra, four out of the six divisions of Imerina. . . . To mark the anti-European character of the rising, the churches were burnt without distinction, and in some places leper hospitals were destroyed, and their unhappy inmates rendered houseless. The English and Norwegian missions have suffered the most severely. It is impossible to estimate correctly the number of churches and chapels that have been burnt, but at the lowest computation it must amount to 600. . . . As in the West, idol-worship was practised, the idol in this case being Ramahavaly, the war-god or goddess; the pillaging of houses and property became almost universal, and soon it came to pass that no one was safe unless he either joined the insurgents or paid them to leave him unmolested. . . .

"The greatest move in the organisation of the country is the abolition of slavery throughout the island. This was proclaimed in the official gazette issued on the 27th of September [1896] by decree of the Resident-General. It was wholly unexpected at the time, though there had been rumours two or three months previously to the effect that the step was contemplated, but would be effected gradually. Naturally, it fell upon the Hova like a clap of thunder, and, as the law was published on a Sunday, some worthy folk found themselves, on their return from service, without a slave to cook the dinner. . . . It would have been better to have proceeded more slowly to the desired end; to have made all children born after a fixed day free; and to have made the redemption of the rest, either by themselves or by others, cheap and easy. However, it has been decided otherwise, and certainly the state of the country is such as to justify any measure, for, when everything is in a state of upheaval the exact amount of pressure is of small importance. In addition to this it must be remembered that in consequence of the outbreak Madagascar has been declared a French colony, and that this carries with it the abolition of the status of slavery. While, then, the greater number of Europeans who know Madagascar would have preferred that slavery should have been abolished by degrees, few would be prepared to say that it was altogether a mistake."—F. A. Gregory, *French in Madagascar (Nineteenth Century, Jan., 1897)*.—An Act for the annexation of Madagascar was passed by the French chamber and senate in the early summer of 1896, with a declaration for the immediate abolition of slavery. In the following year Queen

Ranavalomanjaka was banished to the French island of Réunion, and in 1899 she was removed to a more distant exile in Algiers.

1900-1916.—Development of island as French colony.—“The French went to Tananarive in the same year that Jameson went to Johannesburg; and Queen Ranavalona was exiled to Algiers in the same year that President Kruger made his desperate personal appeal to Europe. . . . The results in Madagascar, just as the results in South Africa, have proved distinctly beneficial to the people of the country. . . . Madagascar is a credit to France. There was much initial suffering to native races, and a great amount of injustice in the early years. This is proved by the appeal of the Native Races Protection Committee, issued in Paris in 1900, which declared that the forced labor of the Malagasy was a crying scandal; that they were in a condition of slavery worse than that which the French Government had abolished by proclamation four years before they conquered the island; and that the taxes amounted to exploitation. It was asserted that forced labor on roads was reducing the robust male population on the island; that natives were arrested and imprisoned without trial, and then compelled to work, because they were prisoners, without pay. . . . Madagascar to-day has over two million acres under cultivation. Although rubber is the principal product, sugar, coffee, cloves, cotton, vanilla, and vegetables are raised in considerable quantity. Scientific development of forest products, government initiative in cattle breeding, and the introduction of silk-worms have done much for the prosperity of the natives. Mines are being opened up. There are nearly nine thousand miles of telegraph and telephone lines. Railway construction has advanced slowly. But there are many good roads, and motor lorries are in use extensively. The revolution in motor transport through the invention and development of the automobile has changed remarkably the problem of transport on islands. Where plantations are large and the haul to the port is not more than two hundred kilometers, it is a question whether the public interest is not better served by good roads than by railways. The planter can load the automobile truck in the field, and unload directly at the steamer. The haul is down to sea-level. . . . France was beginning to find a return in Madagascar when the Great War broke out. There was trade with France to the amount of seventy-five million francs in 1913. Of the ten thousand ships that entered Madagascar ports during that year, nearly seven thousand carried the French flag. . . . Most important of all things is the fact that the French, in spite of their bad start, have succeeded in winning the natives. Second only to the Senegalese have been the Malagasy in their zeal to serve France in this war.”—H. A. Gibbons, *New map of Africa (1900-1916)*, pp. 40-42.

MADEIRA ISLANDS, small group of islands, belonging to Portugal, 360 miles from the coast of Morocco, consisting of Madeira island—capital Funchal—Porto Santo, Desertas and the Selvagens. In the year 1419, Joham Gonçalvez Zarco and Tristam Vaz, “seeing from Porto Santo something that seemed like a cloud, but yet different (the origin of so much discovery, noting the difference in the likeness), built two boats, and, making for this cloud, soon found themselves alongside a beautiful island, abounding in many things, but most of all in trees, on which account they gave it the name of Madeira (wood).”—A. Helps,

Spanish conquest, bk. 1, ch. 1.—See also AMERICA: Map showing voyages of discovery.—Madeira island, from which the group takes its name has an area of about 300 square miles, and is composed of volcanic mountains, interspersed with valleys, which are capable of cultivation only if irrigated. The water courses, which have been constructed with infinite pains are therefore of great importance. To increase the area of cultivable land terraces have been built up the sides of the hills. Wine and sugar are exported; but the island is not capable of producing enough food for the population. Madeira is popular in Europe as a health resort for tuberculosis patients.

MADEIRA-MAMORÉ RAILWAY, Brazil. See AMAZON RIVER: Its course; LATIN AMERICA: 1901-1921: Transportation.

MADELEINE, famous church of Paris. See TEMPLES. Ancient examples.

MADERO, Francisco Indalecio (1873-1913), Mexican revolutionist. President of Mexico from October, 1911, to February, 1913. See MEXICO: 1910-1913.

MADISON, James (1751-1836), fourth president of the United States. Member of Virginia convention, 1776; member of Continental Congress, 1780-1784; member of Virginia assembly, 1784-1787; member of Annapolis convention, 1786 and of the federal constitutional convention, 1787; member of the House of Representatives, 1789-1797; secretary of state, 1801-1809 (see U. S. A.: 1800-1801); president of the United States, 1809-1817.

His views on independence. See U. S. A.: 1775 (January-April).

Framing and adoption of the federal constitution. See U. S. A.: 1787; 1787-1789; VIRGINIA: 1788.

Presidential election.—Administration.—Re-election. See U. S. A.: 1808: Sixth presidential election; 1809; 1810-1812; 1812 (September-November).

Confidential messages relative to occupation of territory east of the Perdido and south of Georgia. See FLORIDA: 1811-1812.

MADISON, capital of the state of Wisconsin, between Lakes Mendota and Monona, eighty-two miles west of Milwaukee. The population was 38,378 in 1920. It is the seat of the University of Wisconsin. See WISCONSIN: 1836-1844.

MADRAS, presidency in British India, of which the city of Madras is the capital. (See INDIA: Map.) The city is the third largest in India. In 1921 the population of the presidency was 42,322,270; of the city 522,951. “The area of the Madras presidency . . . has grown gradually by successive increments to the 6 square miles bought by Francis Day for the East India Company in 1640 [when the city of Madras was founded. (See INDIA: 1600-1702.)] The first important accession of territory was the Jagir, now the Chingleput district, granted in perpetuity by the Nawab of the Carnatic in 1763, as confirmed by the Mogul Emperor two years later. The ‘Northern Circars’ (properly, Sarkars or districts) . . . and Gantur, were acquired by treaties made in 1765 and 1766, but the southernmost district, Gantur, did not come under British administration until 1788. The dominions of the Nawab of the Carnatic were annexed in 1801, and the rest of the presidency was acquired for the most part as the result of the third and fourth Mysore wars, which ended respectively in 1792 and 1799; but Kurnool (Karnul) was not annexed until 1830. The result of those annexations and many minor

changes is that the presidency now consists of 24 districts. . . . All administered in the ordinary 'regulation' manner by executive and judicial officers of standing similar to those employed in other settled provinces. A board of revenue controls the revenue staff, and the chartered high court of Madras is the supreme judicial authority. The land is mostly 'settled' on the *rayatwari* system with individual peasants, as in Bombay. . . . [The chief industries, aside from agriculture are chrome tanning, cotton weaving and spinning dyed and printed cotton goods.]—V. A. Smith, *Political geography, government, and administration (Oxford Survey of the British Empire, v. 2—Asia, pp. 280, 281)*.—See also INDIA: 1021.

1746-1748.—Taken by the French.—Restored to England. See INDIA: 1743-1752.

1758-1759.—Unsuccessful siege by the French. See INDIA: 1758-1761.

1767-1769.—Cessation of war between English and Hyder Ali. See INDIA: 1767-1769.

MADRASAHS, Mohammedan mosque schools. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Moslem occupation.

MADRID, capital of Spain, built along the Manzanares river, on a high, barren, wind-blown plateau, with the one advantage of being almost in the center of the country. The population in 1018 was 608,703. The site of the city was in the tenth century a citadel of the Moors, from whom it was taken by Alfonso VI. The Cortes first met there in 1320; but it was not made the permanent capital until 1560, in the reign of Philip II. (See SPAIN: 1550-1563.) During the War of the Spanish Succession, the capital was entered by the Austrians in 1706 (see SPAIN: 1706; 1707-1710), and again in 1710 Philip V and his court were put to flight by the victorious Austrians. During the Peninsular Wars the city was a pawn in the military game played with the country. In April, 1808, it was occupied by a French army under Murat. In July, Joseph Bonaparte made his entrance into his new capital, only to fly on August 1, at the threat of the Spanish advance. At the close of the year, however, the city surrendered to Napoleon, Joseph was reinstated, and the French remained in occupation until August, 1812. (See SPAIN: 1807-1808; 1808 [May-September]; 1808 [September-December]; 1812 [June-August].) Once more in March, 1823, the French occupied Madrid, when they intervened to replace Ferdinand on the throne. (See SPAIN: 1814-1827.) It is the seat of a well-known university and is the railway center of the country.—See also SPAIN: 1012.

Treaty of (1526). See FRANCE: 1525-1526; PAPACY: 1525-1520.

Treaty of (1750). See LATIN AMERICA: 1750-1777.

MADRID SCHOOL OF PAINTING. See PAINTING: Spanish.

MADURA, island of the Dutch East Indies, northeast of Java, about 100 miles long. It proclaimed its independence from Java in 1682. See JAVA: 1623-1811.

MÆATÆ, name given by the Romans to tribes in Scotland between the Forth and the Clyde, next to "the wall."

MÆOTIS PALUS, ancient Greek name of what is now called the Sea of Azov. See PALUS MÆOTIS.

MAESIA. See MOESIA.

MAESTRICHT, or Maastricht, town in the Netherlands, nineteen miles north of Liège. (See NETHERLANDS: Map.) It was important in me-

dieval times, especially as a strategical point, and is noted for its Roman antiquities, and its architecture. In 1920 the population was 54,012.

1576.—Spanish fury. See NETHERLANDS: 1575-1577.

1579.—Spanish siege, capture and massacre. See NETHERLANDS: 1577-1581.

1631.—Siege and capture by the Dutch. See NETHERLANDS: 1625-1647.

1673.—Siege and capture by Vauban and Louis XIV. See NETHERLANDS: 1672-1674.

1676.—Unsuccessfully besieged by William of Orange. See NETHERLANDS: 1674-1678.

1678.—Restored to Holland. See NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.

1748.—Taken by the French and restored to Holland. See BELGIUM: 1746-1747; AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: CONGRESS: 2.

1793.—Siege by the French. See FRANCE: 1793 (February-April).

1795.—Ceded to France. See FRANCE: 1794-1795 (October-May).

1919.—Controversy over Maestricht at peace conference. See NETHERLANDS: 1910.

MAETERLINCK, Maurice (1862-), Belgian poet and dramatist. See DRAMA: 1850-1921; NOBEL PRIZES: Literature: 1911.

MAFEKING, capital of the British protectorate of Bechuanaland, near the Transvaal border, 870 miles northeast of Cape Town. Located on the Kimberly-Bulawayo railway, it is the center of trade and commerce for Bechuanaland and the Transvaal.

1899-1900.—Besieged during the Boer War. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (October-November); 1900 (March-May).

MAFIA, Italian secret society. See LOUISIANA: 1891; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Italy: 1882-1908.

MAGADHA, kingdom of India comprising most of the southern and central sections of the country. See INDIA: B. C. 600-327; 312.

MAGADHI, earlier form of the ancient spoken language of the Aryan race in India. See PALI.

MAGDALA, fortified town of Abyssinia, southeast of Gondar. It was stormed by the British in 1868. See ABYSSINIA: 1854-1880.

MAGDALEN ISLANDS, group of islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, northwest of Cape Breton island. See CANADA: 1763-1774.

MAGDALENA, province in northeastern Colombia. In 1922 the ruins of an ancient city were uncovered here. See COLOMBIA: 1922: Ancient city excavated.

MAGDALENIAN PERIOD: Prehistoric remains. See EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Cromagnon man; Paleolithic art.

MAGDEBURG, city in Prussia, on the Elbe. In 1919 the population was 285,856. The city dates from the tenth century. In the Middle Ages it was a Hansa town, and was famous for its charter known as the Magdeburg Right. (See POLAND: 14th century.) It had attained eminence as a commercial center by the sixteenth century.

1631.—Siege and massacre. See GERMANY: 1630-1631.

MAGDHABA, town in the Sinai peninsula near El Arish. It was occupied by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: b, 2, ii; b, 2, iii.

MAGELLAN, Ferdinand (c. 1480-1521), Portuguese explorer. First to circumnavigate the globe. See AMERICA: 1510-1524; ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1510-1810; PACIFIC OCEAN: 1513-1764; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1521.

MAGELLAN, Strait of, irregular passage, between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, separating

South America from the Tierra del Fuego islands. See AMERICA: 1519-1524; ARGENTINA: 1916-1917; LATIN AMERICA: Map of South America.

MAGENTA, Battle of (1859). See AUSTRIA: 1856-1859; ITALY: 1856-1859.

MAGESÆTAS, Germanic name for the states of Hwicce and Hecanas. See ENGLAND: 547-633.

MAGHARA, town in Sinai peninsula, thirty-six miles east of Ismailia. It was captured by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: b, 2; b, 2, ii.

MAGHREB EL-AKSA. See MOROCCO: Geographic description.

MAGIANS, **MAGI**, the priesthood of the ancient Iranian religion—the religion of the Avesta and of Zarathustra, or Zoroaster—as it existed among the Medes and Persians. In Eastern Iran the priests were called Athravas. In Western Iran “they are not called Athravas, but Magush. This name is first found in the inscription which Darius caused to be cut on the rock-wall of Behistun; afterwards it was consistently used by Western writers, from Herodotus to Agathias, for the priests of Iran.”—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, v. 5, bk. 7, ch. 8.—“The priests of the Zoroastrians, from a time not long subsequent to Darius Hystaspis, were the Magi. This tribe, or caste, originally perhaps external to Zoroastrianism, had come to be recognised as a true priestly order; and was entrusted by the Sassanian princes with the whole control and direction of the religion of the state. Its chief was a personage holding a rank but very little inferior to the king. He bore the title of ‘Tenpet,’ ‘Head of the Religion,’ or ‘Movpetan Movpet,’ ‘Head of the Chief Magi.’”—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy*, ch. 28.—“To the whole ancient world Zoroaster’s lore was best known by the name of the doctrine of the Magi, which denomination was commonly applied to the priests of India, Persia, and Babylonia. The earliest mention of them is made by the prophet Jeremiah (xxxix. 3), who enumerated among the retinue of King Nebuchadnezzar at his entry into Jerusalem, the ‘Chief of the Magi’ (‘rab mag’ in Hebrew), from which statement we may distinctly gather that the Magi exercised a great influence at the court of Babylonia 600 years B. C. They were, however, foreigners, and are not to be confounded with the indigenous priests. . . . The name Magi occurs even in the New Testament. In the Gospel according to St. Matthew (ii. 1), the Magi (Greek ‘magoi,’ translated in the English Bible by ‘wise men’) came from the East to Jerusalem, to worship the new-born child Jesus at Bethlehem. That these Magi were priests of the Zoroastrian religion, we know from Greek writers.”—M. Haug, *Essays on the religion of the Parsis*, I.—See also ZOROASTRIANS.

Usurpation of Persian government. See PERSIA: B. C. 549-521.

MAGIC: Origin of word. See CHALDEA: Wise men of the East.

Ancient magi.—“Black” and “white” magic.—**Association with science**.—“Magic might be called the science of superstition, or the ‘philosophy of the unknown.’ . . . The Magi, a hereditary caste of Persian priests, first practised it in any systematic form. [See MAGIANS.] In the Bible we find soothsaying and sorcery denounced as magic; and the foretelling of the birth of Christ by the Wise Men of the East is a foremost illustration. Now-a-days we find the necromancy of the Greeks—the consultation of ghosts for prophecy—and the Chinese practice of receiving oracles from mediums and from the ‘descending pencil’ imitated by the Spiritualists. . . . At first, the priests were the magicians, and the researches of Tylor, as contained

in his ‘Primitive Culture,’ tend to prove the association of ideas, which accounts for the development of magic, as Fontenelle declares myth developed, in the lowest state of race’s history. When magic became separated from religion, we find the distinction of ‘Black’ and ‘White.’ The former was a belief in supernatural powers, such as are now called ‘odid,’ ‘psychic,’ or ‘occult,’ and the latter a sort of tentative forerunner of the truths of science. Egypt, Babylonia, and Assyria brought magic into its pseudo-scientific stage, and extended it to the philosophic and theurgic forms, which are features in the science of the classics and the Jewish theology. . . . Some of the best deceptions of the sorcerers of old were furnished by the science of acoustics. The imitation of thunder in the subterranean temples indicated the presence of a supernatural agent. . . . The principles of hydrostatics were equally available in the work of deception. . . . The weeping statues and perpetual lamps—these were all obvious effects of the equilibrium and pressure of fluids. And the skill of the philosophers of antiquity in mechanics is unaccountably demonstrated by the Egyptian obelisks and the huge masses of transported stone raised to great heights in the erection of the temples, which are standing marvels till to-day. The powers they employed and the mechanism by which they operated have been studiously concealed. Mechanical arrangements seemed to have formed a large part of their religious impostures. . . . But, of all sciences, perhaps optics has been the most fertile in marvellous expedients. . . . The ancients, indeed, were not acquainted with those combinations of lenses and mirrors which constitute the telescope and the microscope; but they must have been familiar with the properties of glass to form erect and inverted images and objects. There is reason to think that they employed them to effect apparitions of their gods; and in some of the descriptions of the optical displays which hallowed their ancient temples we recognise all the transformations of the modern phantasmagoria.”—A. Thompson, *Magic and mystery*, pp. 7-9.—See also RELIGION: Universal elements; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: Egyptian; Ancient Finnish; Ancient: Babylonian.

MAGIC CALDRON. See LIA-FAIL.

MAGNA CARTA.—“Coming when he did, King John is to be counted among the most notable of the many gifts of good fortune to the English people. Everything in his character and every circumstance of his reign . . . combined to unite his subjects against him and to strip him of the power to resist their demands. Hence the signing [June 15, 1215.] at Runnymede of the Great Charter which underlies, in its principles and its exemplary influence, all that has been most successful in the enfranchisement of peoples. . . . That the English could win the Magna Charta when they did was due largely . . . to singularly favoring chains of circumstances; that they preserved it is their stronger claim to the grateful admiration of the world. Throughout the next two centuries they were seldom neglectful of opportunities to secure confirmation of the charter from successive kings, and repeatedly from many of them, by attaching that condition to their fiscal grants; and thus, before the end of the Middle Ages, it stood confirmed no less than thirty-eight times. Two-thirds of a century later than Magna Charta the cities of Aragon, already represented in the cortes of that small kingdom, obtained their ‘Great Privilege,’ so called, which went even beyond Magna Charta in its affirmation of popular rights, and it was often confirmed to them; but the want . . . of a broadly nationalized, land-owning Third Es-

tate, to support the burghers of the free towns, exposed them [later] to an easy suppression of their political rights."—J. N. Larned, *English leadership*, pp. 70-71.—"It is my belief that a clear understanding of what the Great Charter was thought to mean in the year 1215 by those who framed it and of its relation to earlier law and institutions, is indispensable to anyone who wishes to comprehend either how the English Constitution originated or what the influence of the charter was on later history. There is, I think, no institution and no set of facts bearing upon the establishment of constitutional government whose correct interpretation, as understood by contemporaries, is so vitally necessary as this. Such an opinion should go almost without saying because the Charter is a great generic or comprehensive document, gathering into itself in result almost all legal institutional history since the Conquest whatever may have been its influence upon the future."—G. B. Adams, *Origin of the English constitution*, pp. 207-208.—"If the results of Magna Carta were to be so creative in our history, at the instant it seemed to demand but little change. Unless we look to a future still distant, we can call it change only by insisting on its character as reaction. And in spirit, in method, and in principle, from the narrower point of view of 1215, it was reaction. If we regard the political necessities of the time, or the principle on which must rest the royal right to carry out the innovations which had been made, in the light of any political science which had up to that time been formulated, we must admit that the king was right and the barons wrong. Nor is the cause of the barons made better by any foresight, or any guess at wider applications of this principle. Their interest was wholly personal, selfish, and temporary. If instead of regarding principle we look to the side of forms, the only change we can find is also reaction. The law which the Great Charter asserts is old law. The things which are new in it, apart from those which are wrong and quickly abandoned, are unessential details or methods of enforcing rights. What was new at the time were the royal innovations, as in the judicial system and taxation, and if we judge them by what increasing business and the needs of government called for, or by the rapid social transformation which was taking place in the community, we must call them advance and the baronial demands reactionary. It is the unintended result which followed in course of time, which gives to the rebellion of 1215 its right to be regarded as the first step in the formation of the English Constitution. It is, therefore, not in details of form and law that the permanent influence of the Great Charter is to be sought. These almost wholly disappeared, or where they became permanent features of Anglo-Saxon public law, it is in a meaning greatly broadened by later experience. To repeat what has been already said, the controlling and moulding power of the Charter in English history is to be found in two things: First of all in the principle upon which it rests that there is a definite body of law by which the king's action is bound, and, second, that, if he insists upon violating it, he may be compelled by force to desist. It is not asserted that the barons of 1215 were conscious of this as an abstract principle, or that they could have formulated it in precise terms. They did not attempt any theoretical justification of their action; they could not even feel the need of it in the stage of political development in which they stood. In any case their ideas seem all to have been concrete and practical, and in their remedies they went no further than the correction of the

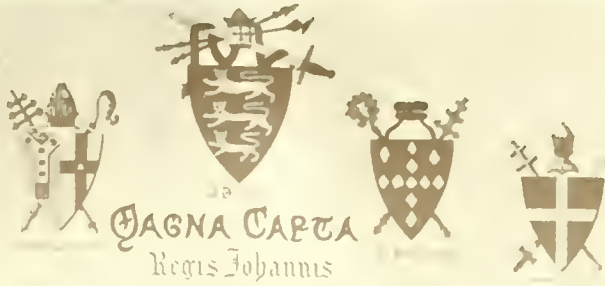
specific abuses from which they suffered, and the difficulty, also specific, of securing the king's observance of his promises. But it seems clear that the Charter and the whole movement of which it formed a part proceeded on the supposition that the existing law already bound the king, that many acts of his had been illegal, such as he was bound not to commit, and that the existing law also gave to the barons full right to insist, to the point of armed rebellion if necessary, that these acts should cease and that for the future the king should observe the law and in such an understanding of their rights under the law as it existed, the barons were undoubtedly correct. . . . It was this principle which gave the Charter its influence in the period immediately following, and ultimately its great place in English history. In the slowly developing crises of Henry III.'s reign, what men saw in the charter in its bearing on their differences with the king was not a body of specific law, but that the king's action was bound and limited, and that the community possessed the right to coerce him."—W. A. Dunning, *British empire and the United States*, pp. 249-251.—See also ENGLAND: 1215; COMMON LAW: 1215; LAND TITLES: 1215.—The following is the text of Magna Carta:

"John, by the Grace of God, King of England, Lord of Ireland, Duke of Normandy, Aquitaine, and Count of Anjou, to his Archbishops, Bishops, Abbots, Earls, Barons, Justiciaries, Foresters, Sheriffs, Governors, Officers, and to all Bailiffs, and his faithful subjects, greeting. Know ye, that we, in the presence of God, and for the salvation of our soul, and the souls of all our ancestors and heirs, and unto the honour of God and the advancement of Holy Church, and amendment of our Realm, by advice of our venerable Fathers, Stephen, Archbishop of Canterbury, Primate of all England and Cardinal of the Holy Roman Church; Henry, Archbishop of Dublin; William, of London; Peter, of Winchester; Jocelin, of Bath and Glastonbury; Hugh, of Lincoln; Walter, of Worcester; William, of Coventry; Benedict, of Rochester—Bishops; of Master Pandulph, Sub-Deacon and Familiar of our Lord the Pope; Brother Aymeric, Master of the Knights-Templars in England; and of the noble Persons, William Marescall, Earl of Pembroke; William, Earl of Salisbury; William, Earl of Warren; William, Earl of Arundel; Alan de Galloway, Constable of Scotland; Warin FitzGerald, Peter FitzHerbert, and Hubert de Burgh, Seneschal of Poitou; Hugh de Neville, Matthew FitzHerbert, Thomas Basset, Alan Basset, Philip of Albiney, Robert de Roppell, John Mareschal, John Fitz-Hugh, and others, our liegemen, have, in the first place, granted to God, and by this our present Charter confirmed, for us and our heirs forever:—

1. That the Church of England shall be free, and have her whole rights, and her liberties inviolable; and we will have them so observed, that it may appear thence that the freedom of elections, which is reckoned chief and indispensable to the English Church, and which we granted and confirmed by our Charter, and obtained the confirmation of the same from our Lord the Pope Innocent III, before the discord between us and our barons, was granted of mere free will; which Charter we shall observe, and we do will it be faithfully observed by our heirs for ever.
2. We also have granted to all the freedom of our kingdom, for us and for our heirs for ever, all the underwritten liberties, to be had and holden by them and their heirs, of us and our heirs for ever: If any of our earls, or barons, or others, who hold of us in chief by military service, shall die, and at the time of his death his heir shall be of full age, and owe a relief, he shall

have his inheritance by the ancient relief—that is to say, the heir or heirs of an earl, for a whole earldom, by a hundred pounds; the heir or heirs of a baron, for a whole barony, by a hundred pounds; the heir or heirs of a knight, for a whole knight's fee, by a hundred shillings at most; and whoever oweth less shall give less, according to the ancient custom of fees. 3. But if the heir of any such shall be under age, and shall be in ward, when he comes of age he shall have his inheritance without relief and without fine. 4. The keeper of the land of such an heir being under age, shall take of the land of the heir none but reasonable issues, reasonable customs, and reasonable services, and that without destruction and waste of his men and his goods; and if we commit the custody of any such lands to the sheriff, or any other who is answerable to us for the issues of the land, and he shall make destruction and waste of the lands which he hath in custody, we will take of him amends, and the land shall be committed to two lawful and discreet men of that fee, who shall answer for the issues to us, or to him to whom we shall assign them; and if we sell or give to any one the custody of any such lands, and he therein make destruction or waste, he shall lose the same custody, which shall be committed to two lawful and discreet men of that fee, who shall in like manner answer to us as aforesaid. 5. But the keeper, so long as he shall have the custody of the land, shall keep up the houses, parks, warrens, ponds, mills, and other things pertaining to the land, out of the issues of the same land; and shall deliver to the heir, when he comes of full age, his whole land, stocked with ploughs and carriages, according as the time of wainage shall require, and the issues of the land can reasonably bear. 6. Heirs shall be married without disparagement, and so that before matrimony shall be contracted, those who are near in blood to the heir shall have notice. 7. A widow, after the death of her husband, shall forthwith and without difficulty have her marriage and inheritance; nor shall she give anything for her dower, or her marriage, or her inheritance, which her husband and she held at the day of his death; and she may remain in the mansion house of her husband forty days after his death, within which time her dower shall be assigned. 8. No widow shall be distrained to marry herself, so long as she has a mind to live without a husband; but yet she shall give security that she will not marry without our assent, if she hold of us; or without the consent of the lord of whom she holds, if she hold of another. 9. Neither we nor our bailiffs shall seize any land or rent for any debt so long as the chattels of the debtor are sufficient to pay the debt; nor shall the sureties of the debtor be distrained so long as the principal debtor has sufficient to pay the debt; and if the principal debtor shall fail in the payment of the debt, not having wherewithal to pay it, then the sureties shall answer the debt; and if they will they shall have the lands and rents of the debtor, until they shall be satisfied for the debt which they paid for him, unless the principal debtor can show himself acquitted thereof against the said sureties. 10. If any one have borrowed anything of the Jews, more or less, and die before the debt be satisfied, there shall be no interest paid for that debt, so long as the heir is under age, of whomsoever he may hold; and if the debt falls into our hands, we will only take the chattel mentioned in the deed. 11. And if any one shall die indebted to the Jews, his wife shall have her dower and pay nothing of that debt; and if the deceased left children under age, they shall have necessaries pro-

vided for them, according to the tenement of the deceased; and out of the residue the debt shall be paid, saving, however, the service due to the lords, and in like manner shall it be done touching debts due to others than the Jews. 12. No scutage or aid shall be imposed in our kingdom, unless by the general council of our kingdom; except for ransoming our person, making our eldest son a knight, and once for marrying our eldest daughter; and for these there shall be paid no more than a reasonable aid. In like manner it shall be concerning the aids of the City of London. 13. And the City of London shall have all its ancient liberties and free customs, as well by land as by water; furthermore, we will and grant that all other cities and boroughs, and towns and ports, shall have all their liberties and free customs. 14. And for holding the general council of the kingdom concerning the assessment of aids, except in the three cases aforesaid, and for the assessing of scutages, we shall cause to be summoned the archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, and greater barons of the realm, singly by our letters. And furthermore, we shall cause to be summoned generally, by our sheriffs and bailiffs, all others who hold of us in chief, for a certain day, that is to say, forty days before their meeting at least, and to a certain place; and in all letters of such summons we will declare the cause of such summons. And summons being thus made, the business shall proceed on the day appointed, according to the advice of such as shall be present, although all that were summoned come not. 15. We will not for the future grant to any one that he may take aid of his own free tenants, unless to ransom his body, and to make his eldest son a knight, and once to marry his eldest daughter; and for this there shall be only paid a reasonable aid. 16. No man shall be distrained to perform more service for a knight's fee, or other free tenement, than is due from thence. 17. Common pleas shall not follow our court, but shall be holden in some place certain. 18. Trials upon the Writs of Novel Disseisin, and of Mort d'ancestor, and of Darrein Presentment, shall not be taken but in their proper counties, and after this manner: We, or if we should be out of the realm, our chief justiciary, will send two justiciaries through every county four times a year, who, with four knights of each county, chosen by the county, shall hold the said assizes in the county, on the day, and at the place appointed. 19. And if any matters cannot be determined on the day appointed for holding the assizes in each county, so many of the knights and freeholders as have been at the assizes aforesaid shall stay to decide them as is necessary, according as there is more or less business. 20. A freeman shall not be amerced for a small offence, but only according to the degree of the offence; and for a great crime according to the heinousness of it, saving to him his contentment; and after the same manner a merchant, saving to him his merchandise. And a villein shall be amerced after the same manner, saving to him his wainage, if he falls under our mercy; and none of the aforesaid ameracements shall be assessed but by the oath of honest men in the neighbourhood. 21. Earls and barons shall not be amerced but by their peers, and after the degree of the offence. 22. No ecclesiastical person shall be amerced for his lay tenement, but according to the proportion of the others aforesaid, and not according to the value of his ecclesiastical benefice. 23. Neither a town nor any tenant shall be distrained to make bridges or embankments, unless that anciently and of right they are bound to do it. 24. No sheriff, constable, coroner, or other



Facsimile of the Latin text of the Magna Carta, arranged in a central column between two vertical borders of various heraldic shields.



FACSIMILE OF THE MAGNA CARTA
(Original parchment, with seal attached, is in the British Museum)

our bailiffs, shall hold "Pleas of the Crown." 25. All counties, hundreds, wapentakes, and trethings, shall stand at the old rents, without any increase, except in our demesne manors. 26. If any one holding of us a lay fee die, and the sheriff, or our bailiffs, show our letters patent of summons for debt which the dead man did owe to us, it shall be lawful for the sheriff or our bailiff to attach and register the chattels of the dead, found upon his lay fee, to the amount of the debt, by the view of lawful men, so as nothing be removed until our whole clear debt be paid; and the rest shall be left to the executors to fulfil the testament of the dead; and if there be nothing due from him to us, all the chattels shall go to the use of the dead, saving to his wife and children their reasonable shares. 27. If any freeman shall die intestate, his chattels shall be distributed by the hands of his nearest relations and friends, by view of the Church, saving to every one his debts which the deceased owed to him. 28. No constable or bailiff of ours shall take corn or other chattels of any man unless he presently give him money for it, or hath respite of payment by the good-will of the seller. 29. No constable shall distrain any knight to give money for castle-guard, if he himself will do it in his person, or by another able man, in case he cannot do it through any reasonable cause. And if we have carried or sent him into the army, he shall be free from such guard for the time he shall be in the army by our command. 30. No sheriff or bailiff of ours, or any other, shall take horses or carts of any freeman for carriage, without the assent of the said freeman. 31. Neither shall we nor our bailiffs take any man's timber for our castles or other uses, unless by the consent of the owner of the timber. 32. We will retain the lands of those convicted of felony only one year and a day, and then they shall be delivered to the lord of the fee. 33. All kydells (wears) for the time to come shall be put down in the rivers of Thames and Medway, and throughout all England, except upon the seacoast. 34. The writ which is called *præcipe*, for the future, shall not be made out to any one, of any tenement, whereby a freeman may lose his court. 35. There shall be one measure of wine and one of ale through our whole realm; and one measure of corn, that is to say, the London quarter; and one breadth of dyed cloth, and russets, and haberjeets, that is to say, two ells within the lists; and it shall be of weights as it is of measures. 36. Nothing from henceforth shall be given or taken for a writ of inquisition of life or limb, but it shall be granted freely, and not denied. 37. If any do hold of us by fee-farm, or by socage, or by burgage, and he hold also lands of any other by knight's service, we will not have the custody of the heir or land, which is holden of another man's fee by reason of that fee-farm, socage, or burgage; neither will we have the custody of the fee-farm, or socage, or burgage, unless knight's service was due to us out of the same fee-farm. We will not have the custody of an heir, nor of any land which he holds of another by knight's service, by reason of any petty serjeanty by which he holds of us, by the service of paying a knife, an arrow, or the like. 38. No bailiff from henceforth shall put any man to his law upon his own bare saying, without credible witnesses to prove it. 39. No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned, or disseised, or outlawed, or banished, or any ways destroyed, nor will we pass upon him, nor will we send upon him, unless by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land. 40. We will sell to no man, we will not deny to any man, either justice or right. 41. All merchants

shall have safe and secure conduct, to go out of, and to come into England, and to stay there and to pass as well by land as by water, for buying and selling by the ancient and allowed customs, without any unjust tolls; except in time of war, or when they are of any nation at war with us. And if there be found any such in our land, in the beginning of the war, they shall be attached, without damage to their bodies or goods, until it be known unto us, or our chief justiciary, how our merchants be treated in the nation at war with us; and if ours be safe there, the others shall be safe in our dominions. 42. It shall be lawful, for the time to come, for any one to go out of our kingdom, and return safely and securely by land or by water, saving his allegiance to us; unless in time of war, by some short space, for the common benefit of the realm, except prisoners and outlaws, according to the law of the land, and people in war with us, and merchants who shall be treated as is above mentioned. 43. If any man hold of any escheat, as of the honour of Wallingford, Nottingham, Boulogne, Lancaster, or of other escheats which be in our hands, and are baronies, and die, his heir shall give no other relief, and perform no other service to us than he would to the baron, if it were in the baron's hand; and we will hold it after the same manner as the baron held it. 44. Those men who dwell without the forest from henceforth shall not come before our justiciaries of the forest, upon common summons, but such as are impleaded, or are sureties for any that are attached for something concerning the forest. 45. We will not make any justices, constables, sheriffs, or bailiffs, but of such as know the law of the realm and mean duly to observe it. 46. All barons who have founded abbeys, which they hold by charter from the kings of England, or by ancient tenure, shall have the keeping of them, when vacant, as they ought to have. 47. All forests that have been made forests in our time shall forthwith be disforested; and the same shall be done with the water-banks that have been fenced in by us in our time. 48. All evil customs concerning forests, warrens, foresters, and warreners, sheriffs and their officers, water-banks and their keepers, shall forthwith be inquired into in each county, by twelve sworn knights of the same county, chosen by credible persons of the same county; and within forty days after the said inquest be utterly abolished, so as never to be restored; so as we are first acquainted therewith, or our justiciary, if we should not be in England. 49. We will immediately give up all hostages and charters delivered unto us by our English subjects, as securities for their keeping the peace, and yielding us faithful service. 50. We will entirely remove from their bailiwicks the relations of Gerard de Atheyes, so that for the future they shall have no bailiwick in England; we will also remove Engelard de Cygony, Andrew, Peter, and Gyon, from the Chancery; Gyon de Cygony, Geoffrey de Martyn, and his brothers; Philip Mark, and his brothers, and his nephew, Geoffrey, and their whole retinue. 51. As soon as peace is restored, we will send out of the kingdom all foreign knights, crossbowmen, and stipendiaries, who are come with horses and arms to the molestation of our people. 52. If any one has been dispossessed or deprived by us, without the lawful judgment of his peers, of his lands, castles, liberties, or right, we will forthwith restore them to him; and if any dispute arise upon this head, let the matter be decided by the five-and-twenty barons hereafter mentioned, for the preservation of the peace. And for all those things of which any person has, without the lawful

judgment of his peers, been dispossessed or deprived, either by our father King Henry, or our brother King Richard, and which we have in our hands, or are possessed by others, and we are bound to warrant and make good, we shall have a respite till the term usually allowed the crusaders; excepting those things about which there is a plea depending, or whereof an inquest hath been made, by our order before we undertook the crusade; but as soon as we return from our expedition, or if perchance we tarry at home and do not make our expedition, we will immediately cause full justice to be administered therein. 53. The same respite we shall have, and in the same manner, about administering justice, disafforesting or letting continue the forests, which Henry our father, and our brother Richard, have afforested; and the same concerning the wardship of the lands which are in another's fee, but the wardship of which we have hitherto had, by reason of a fee held of us by knight's service; and for the abbeys founded in any other fee than our own, in which the lord of the fee says he has a right; and when we return from our expedition, or if we tarry at home, and do not make our expedition, we will immediately do full justice to all the complainants in this behalf. 54. No man shall be taken or imprisoned upon the appeal of a woman, for the death of any other than her husband. 55. All unjust and illegal fines made by us, and all amercedments imposed unjustly and contrary to the law of the land, shall be entirely given up, or else be left to the decision of the five-and-twenty barons hereafter mentioned for the preservation of the peace, or of the major part of them, together with the aforesaid Stephen, Archbishop of Canterbury, if he can be present, and others whom he shall think fit to invite; and if he cannot be present, the business shall notwithstanding go on without him; but so that if one or more of the aforesaid five-and-twenty barons be plaintiffs in the same cause, they shall be set aside as to what concerns this particular affair, and others be chosen in their room, out of the said five-and-twenty, and sworn by the rest to decide the matter. 56. If we have disseised or dispossessed the Welsh of any lands, liberties, or other things, without the legal judgment of their peers, either in England or in Wales, they shall be immediately restored to them; and if any dispute arise upon this head, the matter shall be determined in the Marches by the judgment of their peers; for tenements in England according to the law of England, for tenements in Wales according to the law of Wales, for tenements of the Marches according to the law of the Marches: the same shall the Welsh do to us and our subjects. 57. As for all those things of which a Welshman hath, without the lawful judgment of his peers, been disseised or deprived of by King Henry our father, or our brother King Richard, and which we either have in our hands or others are possessed of, and we are obliged to warrant it, we shall have a respite till the time generally allowed the crusaders; excepting those things about which a suit is depending, or whereof an inquest has been made by our order, before we undertook the crusade: but when we return, or if we stay at home without performing our expedition, we will immediately do them full justice, according to the laws of the Welsh and of the parts before mentioned. 58. We will without delay dismiss the son of Llewelin, and all the Welsh hostages, and release them from the engagements they have entered into with us for the preservation of the peace. 59. We will treat with Alexander, King of

Scots, concerning the restoring his sisters and hostages, and his right and liberties, in the same form and manner as we shall do to the rest of our barons of England; unless by the charters which we have from his father, William, late King of Scots, it ought to be otherwise; and this shall be left to the determination of his peers in our court. 60. All the aforesaid customs and liberties, which we have granted to be holden in our kingdom, as much as it belongs to us, all people of our kingdom, as well clergy as laity, shall observe, as far as they are concerned, towards their dependents. 61. And whereas, for the honour of God and the amendment of our kingdom, and for the better quieting the discord that has arisen between us and our barons, we have granted all these things aforesaid; willing to render them firm and lasting, we do give and grant our subjects the underwritten security, namely that the barons may choose five-and-twenty barons of the kingdom, whom they think convenient; who shall take care, with all their might, to hold and observe, and cause to be observed, the peace and liberties we have granted them, and by this our present Charter confirmed in this manner; that is to say, that if we, our justiciary, our bailiffs, or any of our officers, shall in any circumstance have failed in the performance of them towards any person, or shall have broken through any of these articles of peace and security, and the offence be notified to four barons chosen out of the five-and-twenty before mentioned, the said four barons shall repair to us, or our justiciary, if we are out of the realm, and, laying open the grievance, shall petition to have it redressed without delay: and if it be not redressed by us, or if we should chance to be out of the realm, if it should not be redressed by our justiciary within forty days, reckoning from the time it has been notified to us, or to our justiciary (if we should be out of the realm), the four barons aforesaid shall lay the cause before the rest of the five-and-twenty barons; and the said five-and-twenty barons, together with the community of the whole kingdom, shall distrain and distress us in all the ways in which they shall be able, by seizing our castles, lands, possessions, and in any other manner they can, till the grievance is redressed, according to their pleasure; saving harmless our own person, and the persons of our Queen and children; and when it is redressed, they shall behave to us as before. And any person whatsoever in the kingdom may swear that he will obey the orders of the five-and-twenty barons aforesaid in the execution of the premises, and will distress us, jointly with them, to the utmost of his power; and we give public and free liberty to any one that shall please to swear to this, and never will hinder any person from taking the same oath. 62. As for all those of our subjects who will not, of their own accord, swear to join the five-and-twenty barons in distraining and distressing us, we will issue orders to make them take the same oath as aforesaid. And if any one of the five-and-twenty barons dies, or goes out of the kingdom, or is hindered any other way from carrying the things aforesaid into execution, the rest of the said five-and-twenty barons may choose another in his room, at their discretion, who shall be sworn in like manner as the rest. In all things that are committed to the execution of these five-and-twenty barons, if, when they are all assembled together, they should happen to disagree about any matter, and some of them, when summoned, will not or cannot come, whatever is agreed upon, or enjoined, by the major part of those that are

present shall be reputed as firm and valid as if all the five-and-twenty had given their consent; and the aforesaid five-and-twenty shall swear that all the premises they shall faithfully observe, and cause with all their power to be observed. And we will procure nothing from any one, by ourselves nor by another, whereby any of these concessions and liberties may be revoked or lessened; and if any such thing shall have been obtained, let it be null and void; neither will we ever make use of it either by ourselves or any other. And all the ill-will, indignations, and rancours that have arisen between us and our subjects, of the clergy and laity, from the first breaking out of the dissensions between us, we do fully remit and forgive; moreover, all trespasses occasioned by the said dissensions, from Easter in the sixteenth year of our reign till the restoration of peace and tranquillity, we hereby entirely remit to all, both clergy and laity, and as far as in us lies do fully forgive. We have, moreover, caused to be made for them the letters patent testimonial of Stephen, Lord Archbishop of Canterbury, Henry, Lord Archbishop of Dublin, and the bishops aforesaid, as also of Master Pandulph, for the security and concessions aforesaid. 63. Wherefore we will and firmly enjoin, that the Church of England be free, and that all men in our kingdom have and hold all the aforesaid liberties, rights, and concessions, truly and peaceably, freely and quietly, fully and wholly to themselves and their heirs, of us and our heirs, in all things and places, for ever, as is aforesaid. It is also sworn, as well on our part as on the part of the barons, that all the things aforesaid shall be observed in good faith, and without evil subtilty. Given under our hand, in the presence of the witnesses above named, and many others, in the meadow called Runingmede, between Windsor and Staines, the 15th day of June, in the 17th year of our reign.

ALSO IN: W. Stubbs, *Select charters*, pt. 5.—*Old South Leaflets, General Series*, no. 5.—E. F. Henderson, *Select historical documents of the Middle Ages*, bk. 1, no. 7.—C. H. Pearson, *History of England during the Early and Middle Ages*, v. 2, ch. 3.

MAGNA GRÆCIA.—"It was during the height of their prosperity, seemingly, in the sixth century B. C., that the Italic Greeks [in southern Italy] either acquired for, or bestowed upon, their territory the appellation of Magna Græcia, which at that time it well deserved; for not only were Sybaris and Kroton then the greatest Grecian cities situated near together, but the whole peninsula of Calabria may be considered as attached to the Grecian cities on the coast. The native Ænotrians and Sikels occupying the interior had become hellenised, or semi-hellenised, with a mixture of Greeks among them—common subjects of these great cities."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 22.—See also ACILEAN CITIES, LEAGUE OF.

Samnite conquests. See SAMNITES.

MAGNANO, Battle of (1709). See FRANCE: 1708-1709 (August-April).

MAGNATÆ, or Nagnatæ, early Celtic tribe. See IRELAND: Tribes of early Celtic inhabitants.

MAGNESIA.—The eastern coast of Thessaly was anciently so called. The Magnetes who occupied it were among the people who became subject to the Thessalians or Thesprotians, when the latter came over from Epirus and occupied the valley of the Peneus.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 3.—Two towns named Magnesia in Asia Minor were believed to be colonies from the Magnetes of Thessaly. One was on the south side

of the Mæander; the other, more northerly, near the river Harmus.—*Ibid.*, ch. 13. See GREECE: Map of ancient Greece.

MAGNESIA, Battle of (190 B. C.). See SELLEUCIDE: B. C. 224-187; ROME: Republic: B. C. 192-180.

MAGNET: First use of. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Compass.

MAGNET, Electric. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1825-1921.

MAGNETIC NEEDLE: Discovery and use. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Compass.

MAGNUS I, the Good, king of Norway, 1035-1047; king of Denmark, 1042-1047.

Magnus II, king of Norway, 1066-1069.

Magnus III, the Barefoot (d. 1103), king of Norway, 1093-1103. See NORMANS: 10th-13th centuries.

Magnus IV, the Blind, king of Norway, 1130-1135.

Magnus V, king of Norway, 1162-1184.

Magnus VI, the Legislator, king of Norway, 1263-1280.

Magnus I, king of Sweden, 1275-1290.

Magnus II (1316-1374), king of Sweden, 1319-1350; 1359-1363; VII, king of Norway, 1319-1343.

MAGNUSSON, Skuli (1711-1794), Icelandic patriot. See ICELAND: 18th century.

MAGOFFIN, Beriah (1815-1885), governor of Kentucky, 1859-1863. See KENTUCKY: 1861 (January-September); 1862-1863; U. S. A.: 1861 (April): President Lincoln's call to arms.

MAGOON, Charles (1861-1920), American lawyer and administrator. Governor of Canal Zone, 1905-1906; provisional governor of Cuba, 1906-1909. See CUBA: 1906 (August-October); 1909-1909.

MAGRUDER, John Bankhead (1810-1871), American soldier. Served in the Mexican and Civil Wars. See U. S. A.: 1861 (June: Virginia).

MAGYARS, dominant race of Hungary. See HUNGARY; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Hungary: 1222-1918; AUSTRIA: Races of Austria.

Migrations. See EUROPE: Introduction to historical period: Migrations.

Language. See PHILOLOGY: 20; SLOVAKS.

MAHABHARATA, Hindu national epic. See HINDU LITERATURE: Epic poetry.

MAHAN, Alfred Thayer (1840-1914), American naval officer and historian. Served in the Civil War; reached grade of captain, 1885; rear admiral on retired list, 1906; organizer and president of the Naval War College, 1886-1889; president of the American Historical Association, 1902-1903; internationally recognized as the leading interpreter of naval history in his generation; author of "Influence of sea power upon history" (1800), and "Influence of sea power upon the French Revolution and empire" (1802).—See also HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Conference; POISON GAS: First use in war.

MAHARAJA. See RAJA.

MAHAS, American aboriginal tribe. See SIOUAN FAMILY.

MAHATMAS, sages. See THEOSOPHY.

MAHDI.—"The literal meaning of the word Mahdi is not, as the newspapers generally assert, 'He who leads,' a meaning more in consonance with European ideas, but 'He who is led.' . . . If he leads his fellow-men it is because he alone is the 'well-guided one,' led by God—the Mahdi. [See also MOROCCO: 1003-1004.] The word Mahdi is only an epithet which may be applied to any prophet, or even to any ordinary person; but used as a proper name it indicates him who is 'well-guided' beyond all others, the Mahdi 'par excel-

lence,' who is to end the drama of the world, and of whom Jesus shall only be the vicar. . . . The Koran does not speak of the Mahdi, but it seems certain that Mahomet must have announced him. . . . The idea of the Mahdi once formed, it circulated throughout the Mussulman world . . . among the Persians, the Turks, the Egyptians, and the Arabs of the Soudan."—J. Darmesteter, *Mahdi, past and present*, ch. 1-2.—"A work written at Mecca in 1883 by a Sherif of that place, entitled *The Conquests of Islam*, contains what may be considered as an authorised version of the conditions which the true Mahdi must fulfil. 'The greatest of the signs,' it is said, 'shall be that he shall be of the line of Fatma (i. e. a Sherif, or descendant of the Prophet); that he shall be proclaimed Mahdi against his will, not seeking such proclamation for himself, and not causing strife amongst the Faithful to obtain it, nor even yielding to it till threatened with death by them. He shall be proclaimed in the Mosque of Mecca, not elsewhere; he shall not appear save when there is strife after the death of a Khalifa; he shall neither come nor be proclaimed until such time as there is no Khalifa over the Moslems. His advent shall coincide with that of Anti-Christ, after whom Jesus will descend and join himself to the Mahdi. These are the great signs of his coming. The others are imaginary or disputed, and whosoever shall, of his own will, declare himself to be Mahdi and try to assert himself by force, is a pretender, such as have already appeared many times.' In August 1881, a man named Mohammed Ahmed proclaimed himself to be the Mahdi in the Soudan. He was born in 1843 in the Province of Dongola. As a young man he was apprenticed to his uncle, a boatbuilder in Sennar, but the tendency which, from his earliest childhood, he had shown towards religious studies, led him to abandon trade, and to enter a religious school at Khartoum. His mission, as explained in his various Proclamations, was to gain over the Soudan to his cause, then to march on Egypt, overthrow the heretical Turks, and convert the whole world. All who opposed his mission were to be destroyed, whether Christians, Mohammedans, or Pagans. Mohammed Ahmed was at once branded by orthodox Mohammedans in Egypt and elsewhere as a False Mahdi (Mutemahdi). Neither, in spite of the credulity and ignorance of the population of the Soudan, is it probable that he would have met with any success even in that province, had not the prevailing discontent predisposed the inhabitants against the Egyptian Government."—Lörd Cromer, *Modern Egypt*, v. 1, pp. 351-353.—See also EGYPT: 1870-1883; 1884-1885; 1885-1896; SENUSSIA; SUDAN: 1003.

MAHDIA, Mehdiya, or Mahdiya, town on the coast of Tunisia, about forty-seven miles southeast of Susa, between the gulfs of Hammamet and Gabes. It was besieged by joint French and English forces, 1300, and was seized by Dragut in the early part of the 16th century. It was under Spanish rule, 1550-1574. See BARBARY STATES: 1543-1560.

MAHELE, land tenure in Hawaii. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Discovery and early history.

MAHENGE, plateau in southeastern Tanganyika. It was occupied by the Belgians in 1017. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VII. East African campaign: a.

MAHICANS, or Mohicans, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

MAHMUD (d. 1724), Afghan chieftain. Invaded Persia, 1722. See PERSIA: 1499-1887.

Mahmud I (1696-1754), sultan of Turkey, 1730-1754.

Mahmud II (1785-1839), sultan of Turkey, 1808-1839. See TURKEY: 1780-1812; 1826.

MAHMUD OF GHAZNI (971-1030), Afghan ruler and conqueror. Founder of the great Ghaznavide empire. See INDIA: 977-1290; TURKEY: 999-1183; 1004-1063; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 33.

MAHOMET, or Mahommed. See MOHAMMED.

MAHON, Sir Bryan Thomas (1862-), British general. Military governor of Kordofan, 1901-1904; during the World War, in command of Salonika army, 1915-1916; commander-in-chief in Ireland, 1916-1918. See SUDAN: 1903; WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: c, 3, i; VI. Turkey: a, 4, xxxv.

MAHRATTAS, a people of Central India. While of obscure origin, they acquired great power and influence in the 18th century, and were among the most formidable foes of the British.

17th century.—Origin and growth of power.—Warfare. See INDIA: 1662-1748; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 33.

1759-1761.—Disastrous conflict with the Afghans. See INDIA: 1747-1761.

1781-1819.—Wars with the English. See INDIA: 1780-1783; 1798-1805; 1805-1816; 1816-1819.

Language. See PHILOLOGY: 16.

MAID OF NORWAY. See MARGARET, QUEEN OF SCOTLAND.

MAID OF ORLEANS. See JOAN OF ARC.

MAIDALCHINA, Olympia, sister-in-law of Pope Innocent X. See PAPACY: 1644-1667.

MAIL SERVICE. See POSTAL SYSTEMS.

Aerial. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1918-1921: Air service after World War.

Rural. See CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: United States: 1902-1903.

MAIL SUBSIDY ACT, United States, passed 1845, repealed, 1855. See COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1789-1920.

MAILLARD, Stanislas (1745-1805), French revolutionist. Leader in the insurrection of women, 1789; presided over revolutionary tribunal, 1792. See FRANCE: 1789 (October): Famine in Paris; 1792 (September).

MAILLÉ, Urbain de (Marquis de Brézé) (c. 1597-1650), marshal of France. Commander of a French fleet sent to the Italian coast; killed during the siege of Orbitello. See ITALY: 1646-1654.

MAILLEBOIS, Jean Baptiste François Desmarests, Marquis (1682-1762), French soldier. Fought in the War of the Austrian Succession. See AUSTRIA: 1742 (June-December).

MAILLOTINS, insurgents against the general tax on merchandise. See PARIS: 1381.

MAIMONIDES (Moses ben Maimon) (1135-1204), Jewish philosopher and physician. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval: 12th century.

MAIN, river of Germany, a tributary of the Rhine. See CANALS: Principal European canals: Germany.

MAIN COMPANY OF RUSSIAN RAILROADS. See RAILROADS: 1837-1908.

MAINE: Geographic description.—Area.—Population.—Resources.—"The State of Maine forms the northeastern part of the United States. It is about 300 miles long and 285 miles wide. Maine lies between 43° 6' and 47° 27' 33" N. latitude; between 66° 56' 48" and 71° 6' 41" W. longitude. The 45th. parallel crosses the state within thirty miles of its geographical center. The boundaries are as follows:—The southern boundary, the Atlantic Ocean, is 226 miles, 3640 feet long; the eastern boundary follows the St. Croix river to its source, thence due north to the St. John

river, a distance of 195 miles. The northern boundary extends from the St. John Grand Falls along the river to Crown Monument, a distance of 300 miles, 3950 feet; the western boundary extends from Crown Monument to the sea at the mouth of Piscataqua River near Kittery Point, a distance of 163 miles, 3760 feet. The tenth census places the area at 33,845 square miles, a total land surface of 29,895 square miles. Maine is as large as New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut and Delaware combined."—H. E. Dunning, *Maine book*, p. 37.—"No State has so broken, rugged, and picturesque a coast-line, the actual length of the coast being not far from 2500 miles. Along the coast, and for the most part at no great distance from it, are numerous islands, that of Mt. Desert being the largest. The surface of the State, in general rugged and broken, presents two well-defined slopes or drainage areas. The northern slope, drained by the river St. John and its tributaries, includes about one-third of the area of the State. The southern slope is drained by the rivers which flow southeastward into the Atlantic. The coast rises toward the east. Mt. Katahdin and the northeastern peaks of the White Mountain range are the only considerable mountains. The State is numerously dotted with lakes, large and small, Mooshead and Rangeley lakes being the largest. A noticeable characteristic of the lakes is their high altitude above the sea. The principal rivers . . . are navigable only a short distance from the sea, but they afford excellent and abundant water power, which has long been utilized for manufacturing purposes. [The population of Maine on January 1, 1920, was 768,014, an increase over the census of 1910 of 15,673. The summer population, however, is much larger.] The soil of Maine save in the Aroostook valley and along the rivers, is not fertile. . . . Fortunately, however, Maine does not need to depend upon agriculture alone for its wealth. Its extensive forests of hard and soft wood, its large deposits of granite, slate, and limestone, its fisheries, and its ice afford employment to thousands of persons, and yield, where properly developed, large and increasing returns; while the excellent hunting and fishing, which the State carefully fosters, and the reputation of Maine as the summer resort *par excellence* of eastern North America, form unique and important sources of revenue."—W. MacDonald, *Government of Maine*, pp. 1-3.—Maine is essentially a manufacturing state, and her manufactures had a beginning very early in her history. The first woolen mill of which there is any record was built in Lisbon in 1808, and was still in use as a cotton mill in 1910. In 1870, the state had ninety-three woolen mills, but after that date the era of consolidation was commenced and in 1914 fifty-seven establishments only were reported. Cotton weaving began in Windsor in 1800. Its history followed practically the same course as that of woolen making, and in 1914 the number of persons employed in the manufacture was 13,070. Paper making, which was begun in 1880 is one of the most important of the state's industries. In 1914 it employed 10,606 people. Boot and shoe making began in 1844, and in 1914 employed 0,371 people in fifty plants. Brick-making began before 1760, and in 1880 had reached its highest point, with 118 plants. These rapidly diminished, however, and in 1914 thirty-seven only were quoted. The paper and lumber industries hold the first place, so far as capital invested is concerned among the industries of the state. The lumber industry, however, has changed in its char-

acter since the early times. The use of wood pulp for paper now causes the timber cut to be consumed more in that way than in any other. The large capitalized companies, also are engaged in the development of water power to such an extent that lumbering is almost a by-product. For example the Great Northern Paper Company has constructed dams and reservoirs in various places that have a capacity of forty billion cubic feet. The picturesque industry of ice-cutting, which was formerly a source of considerable profit, decayed to nothing at the beginning of the century. The formation of the ice trust in 1899 brought about a doubling of the price to the people of New York, Philadelphia, Washington and Baltimore where its control was established. This led to failure, reorganization and development of local sources of supply. A more important cause was the introduction of artificial ice which is now made in nearly every state in the Union.—See also U. S. A.: Economic map.

Name.—Sullivan in 'Hist. of Maine,' and others, say that the territory was called the Province of Maine, in compliment to Queen Henrietta, who had that province in France for dowry. But Folsom, 'Discourse on Maine' (Maine Hist. Coll., vol. ii., p. 38), says that that province in France did not belong to Henrietta. Maine, like all the rest of the coast, was known as the 'Maine,' the mainland, and it is not unlikely that the word so much used by the early fishers on the coast, may thus have been permanently given to this part of it."—W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *History of the United States*, v. 1, p. 337, foot-note.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See **ABNAKIS; ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.**

Embraced in the Norumbega of old geographers. See **NORUMBEGA; CANADA; Names.**

1524-1600.—Verrazano's voyage along the coast.—Thevet's visit.—John Walker's expedition.—In May 1524 Giovanni da Verrazano, in command of an expedition sent out by Francis I of France is believed to have entered the gulf of Maine. About a year after Estevan Gomez, sent out by Charles V to search for a passage to the Indies, named the territory of which Maine is a part, "the country of Gomez." "We have very vague accounts of an English expedition to the coast of Maine in a ship 'The Mary of Guilford,' commanded by John Rat. This was in the year 1567. It is said that he frequently landed, with parties of his men, to explore the interior. The account which we have of this enterprise is meagre in the extreme. This was the second English expedition after that of Sebastian Cabot. . . . In the year 1556, a French gentleman by the name of André Thevet, a scholar and a writer of much repute, desiring to see the New World, took passage in a vessel which sailed along the entire east coast of both South and North America. Thevet visited the coast of Maine, and gives . . . [a] description of the Penobscot River."—J. C. S. Abbott, *History of Maine*, pp. 28-30.—In 1580, John Walker, in command of an expedition sent out by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, also reached the coast of Maine.

1602-1605.—English and French voyages in early seventeenth century.—"In the year 1602 an English navigator, Bartholomew Gosnold, crossed the Atlantic; and it is said by some, while it is disputed by others, that he touched the coast of Maine near Mount Desert. The next year (1603) Martin Pring, with two vessels, 'The Speedwell' and 'The Discover,' sailed from Milford Haven. . . . On the 7th of June, Pring entered Penobscot

Bay. He gives a glowing account of the almost unrivalled scenery there presented. They found excellent anchorage, and fishing-ground never surpassed. The majestic forests deeply impressed them. . . . Sailing along the coast in a south-easterly direction, they passed by the beautiful islands which stud Casco Bay, and entered a river which was probably the Saco. This they ascended about six miles. It seems probable that they also entered the Kennebec and York Rivers. . . . [In 1604 de Monts entered Passamaquoddy bay] now the extreme eastern border of the State of Maine. He explored this bay, and ascended the St. Croix and Schoodic Rivers. . . . It being late in fall, De Monts decided to pass the winter there. Selecting a spot easy of defence, in the midst of a grand forest which afforded shelter from the piercing northern winds, he built several log-cabins for his men. . . . [In May 1605 he took possession of the country round the Kennebec in the name of the king of France, traversed Casco Bay, and sailed south to Cape Cod; but returned to Port Royal. Rumors of these French activities having reached England an expedition was fitted out with the intention of frustrating them.] A thoroughly-built, well-furnished ship, 'The Archangel,' sailed from the Downs on the 31st of March, 1605. Capt. George Weymouth was in command. On the 12th of May the white sands of Cape Cod hove in sight. He directed his course northerly toward the coast of Maine. On the 17th he came to an island about six miles from the shore, and about noon cast anchor upon its north side. . . . After a tarry here of two days, taking in wood and water, on Sunday the 10th Weymouth again spread his sails, and, passing several other islands, reached the mainland at the distance of about nine miles. . . . Wild currants were found, and luxuriant vines which promised an abundance of grapes. They found the soil to be very rich. . . . [and there planted a garden] the first attempt made by Europeans to cultivate the soil of Maine. . . . [Weymouth appears to have made a survey of that region of Penobscot bay and river up to the Kennebec. He sailed for home on June 16, taking with him five captives, who had been seized from among the trading Indians while the ship lay at anchor.]—J. S. C. Abbott, *History of Maine*, pp. 31-34.

ALSO IN: W. D. Williamson, *History of the state of Maine*, pp. 183-195.

1607-1608.—Popham colony on the Kennebec.—Fruitless undertaking of Plymouth Company.—The company chartered in England by King James, in 1606 (see AMERICA: Map of King James's grants), for the colonization of the indefinite region called Virginia, was divided into two branches. To one, commonly spoken of as the London Company, but sometimes as the Virginia Company, was assigned a domain in the south, from 34° to 41° N. L. To the other, less familiarly known as the Plymouth Company, or the North Virginia Company, was granted a range of territory from 38° to 45° N. L. (See VIRGINIA: 1606-1607.) The first named company founded a state; the Plymouth branch was less fortunate. "Of the Plymouth Company, George Popham, brother of the Chief Justice, and Raleigh Gilbert, son of the earlier navigator and nephew of Sir Walter Raleigh, were original associates. A vessel despatched from Bristol by Sir John Popham made a further survey of the coast of New England, and returned with accounts which infused vigorous life into the undertaking; and it was now prosecuted with eagerness and liberality. But in little more than

a year 'all its former hopes were frozen to death.' Three ships [some say two] sailed from Plymouth with 100 settlers, amply furnished, and taking two of Gorges's Indians [kidnapped on the voyage of Captain Weymouth in 1605] as interpreters and guides. After a prosperous voyage they reached the mouth of the river called Sagadahoc, or Kennebec, in Maine, and on a projecting point proceeded to organize their community. After prayers and a sermon, they listened to a reading of the patent and of the ordinances under which it had been decreed by the authorities at home that they should live. George Popham had been constituted their President, Raleigh Gilbert was Admiral. . . . The adventurers dug wells, and built huts. More than half of the number became discouraged, and returned with the ships to England. Forty-five remained through the winter, which proved to be very long and severe. . . . When the President sickened and died, and, presently after, a vessel despatched to them with supplies brought intelligence of the death of Sir John Popham, and of Sir John Gilbert,—the latter event calling for the presence of the Admiral, Gilbert's brother and heir, in England,—they were ready to avail themselves of the excuses thus afforded for retreating from the distasteful enterprise. All yielded to their homesickness, and embarked on board of the returning ship, taking with them a small vessel which they had built, and some furs and other products of the country. Statesmen, merchants, and soldiers had not learned the conditions of a settlement in New England. 'The country was branded by the return of the plantation as being over cold, and in respect of that not habitable by Englishmen.' Still the son of the Chief Justice, 'Sir Francis Popham, could not so give it over, but continued to send thither several years after, in hope of better fortunes, but found it fruitless, and was necessitated at last to sit down with the loss he had already undergone.' Sir Francis Popham's enterprises were merely commercial. Gorges alone [Sir Ferdinando Gorges, who had been among the most active of the original promoters of the company], 'not doubting but God would effect that which man despaired of,' persevered in cherishing the project of a colony.—J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 1, ch. 2.—See also U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

ALSO IN: W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *Popular history of the United States*, v. 1, ch. 12.—R. K. Sewall, *Ancient dominions of Maine*, ch. 3.—E. Ballard, *Geographical names on the coast of Maine*.—C. H. Pope, *Pioneers of Maine and New Hampshire*.

1608-1613.—French Jesuit settlement on Mount Desert.—Two Jesuits, Biard and Masse, who had sailed from France with Poutrincourt to convert the natives to Christianity, after an altercation with his son, travelled westward from Port Royal to Mount Desert, where they settled and worked for five years. "Among the visitants to these Northern coasts, at this period, one was *Samuel Argal*, subsequently governor of South-Virginia. Driven by a violent storm, he bore away for Sagadahoc; and coming in sight of a small rocky island out of Penobscot bay, in latitude 43°44', he approached it as the winds abated, and on the 28th of July [1608] landed upon it. . . . Since the Charter was obtained, Gorges had been viewing the American coast between Piscataqua and Passamaquoddy with peculiar intensity and predilection; and continually drawing from voyagers, from the natives, and in particular, from Richard Vines, a great variety of facts about its situation, its inhabitants, and its resources. . . . Meanwhile,

an opportune transaction gave fresh vigour to the enterprizes of the French in this region. Madame de Guercheville, a Catholic lady of France, zealous for the conversion of the American natives, after procuring of de Monts a surrender of his patent, had it all confirmed to her by a Charter from the King, excepting Port-Royal, previously granted to Poutrincourt. She appointed one Suassaye, her agent, who set up at Port le Hive, in Acadia, . . . the arms of his mistress, in token of possession taken; and at Port-Royal, he made a visit, where he found only five persons, of whom two were Jesuit missionaries. Suassaye, producing his pious credentials, took both monks into the service of the mission, and sailed for Mount Desert. Here 25 colonists were landed on the south side of the river; a small fort was built; the ship's crew of 35 men helped fit up the habitations; and here they set up a cross, celebrated mass, and called the place *St. Saviour*. . . . But scarcely had these emigrants provided themselves with some few accommodations, when they had to encounter new, and unexpected troubles from the English. Capt. Argal, of Virginia, in a fishing trip to these waters, being cast ashore at Pentagoet, or Penobscot bay, was there fully informed by the natives what the French were doing at St. Saviour, sometimes called Mount Mansel. This intelligence he immediately communicated to the Virginia magistrates, and they at once determined to expel these Catholic Frenchmen, as obtruders within the limits of the first Charter granted to the patentees of North and South Virginia. Eleven fishing vessels were speedily equipped [1613] carrying 60 soldiers and 14 pieces of cannon;—and of this little armament, Argal was appointed the commodore. His first approach completely surprized the French; yet having a ship and a barque in the harbour, and 'a small entrenchment' on shore, they made a show of resistance. This was all they were able to do, for the cannon were not in a situation to be used; and the men were mostly absent from the fort, engaged in their respective employments. Argal, in his attack upon the vessels, found the capture of them to be no difficult task, even with musketry. Gilbert du Thet, one of the Jesuits, was killed by a musket ball, while in the act of levelling a ship's gun against the assailants; others were wounded; and those on board, except 4 or 5, were taken prisoners. Argal then landed and summoned the fort. The commander requested time for a consultation; but through fear of his being reinforced, his request was not granted. The garrison then abandoning the fort, through a private passage, escaped to the woods. After breaking in pieces the cross which the Jesuits had erected, Argal reared another inscribed with the name of his king and in this way, took formal possession of the place. The people came in the next day and surrendered themselves, their patent, and their stores. Argal treated them with kindness, and gave them their choice, either to return home in such French vessels, as might perchance resort to the coast, or to go with him to Virginia."—W. D. Williamson, *History of the state of Maine*, v. 1, pp. 207-210.

1623-1631.—Gorges' and Mason's grant and division of it.—First colonies planted. See NEW ENGLAND: A. D. 1621-1631.

1629-1631.—Ligonía, or Plow Patent, and other grants.—"The coast from the Piscataqua to the Kennebec was covered by six . . . patents, issued in the course of three years by the Council for New England, with the consent, doubtless, of Gorges, who was anxious to interest as many per-

sons as possible in the projects of colonization to which he was himself so much devoted. Several of these grants were for small tracts; the most important embraced an extent of 40 miles square, bordering on Casco Bay, and named Ligonía. The establishments hitherto attempted on the eastern coast had been principally for fishing and fur-trading; this was to be an agricultural colony, and became familiarly known as the 'Plow patent.' A company was formed, and some settlers sent out; but they did not like the situation, and removed to Massachusetts. Another of these grants was the Pemaquid patent, a narrow tract on both sides of Pemaquid Point, where already were some settlers. Pemaquid remained an independent community for the next forty years."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States*, v. 1, ch. 7.—The Plow Patent "first came into notoriety in a territorial dispute in 1643. The main facts of the case are told shortly but clearly by Winthrop. According to him, in July, 1631, ten husbandmen came from England, in a ship named the Plough, with a patent for land at Sagadahock. But as the place did not please them they settled in Massachusetts, and were seemingly dispersed in the religious troubles of 1636. . . . At a later day the rights of the patentees were bought up, and were made a ground for ousting Gorges from a part of his territory."—J. A. Doyle, *English in America: Puritan colonies*, v. 1, ch. 7.—See also AMERICA: Map of early colonial grants.

1639.—Palatine principality.—Royal charter to Sir Ferdinando Gorges.—"In April 1639 a charter was granted by the King constituting Gorges Lord Proprietor of Maine. [In this charter the name "Province of Maine" was used.] The territory was bounded by the Sagadahock or Kennebec on the north and the Piscataqua on the south, and was to extend 120 miles inland. The political privileges of the Proprietor were to be identical with those enjoyed by the Bishop of Durham as Count Palatine. He was to legislate in conjunction with the freeholders of the province, and with the usual reservation in favour of the laws of England. His political rights were to be subject to the control of the Commissioners for Plantations, but his territorial rights were to be independent and complete in themselves. He was also to enjoy a monopoly of the trade of the colony. The only other points specially worth notice were a declaration that the religion of the colony was to be that of the Church of England, a reservation on behalf of all English subjects of the right of fishing with its necessary incidents, and the grant to the Proprietor of authority to create manors and manorial courts. There is something painful in the spectacle of the once vigorous and enterprising soldier amusing his old age by playing at kingship. In no little German court of the last century could the forms of government and the realities of life have been more at variance. To conduct the business of two fishing villages Gorges called into existence a staff of officials which might have sufficed for the affairs of the Byzantine Empire. He even outdid the absurdities which the Proprietors of Carolina perpetrated thirty years later. They at least saw that their elaborate machinery of caciques and landgraves was unfit for practical purposes, and they waived it in favour of a simple system which had sprung up in obedience to natural wants. But Gorges tells complacently and with a deliberate care, which contrasts with his usually hurried and slovenly style, how he parcelled out his territory and nominated his officials. . . . The task of putting this cumbrous

machinery into motion was entrusted by the Proprietor to his son, Thomas Gorges, as Deputy-Governor."—J. A. Doyle, *English in America: Puritan colonies*, v. 1, ch. 7.—"The Province was divided into two counties, of one of which Agamenticus, or York, was the principal settlement; of the other, Saco. . . . The greatness of York made it arrogant; and it sent a deputation of aldermen and burgesses to the General Court at Saco, to save its metropolitan rights by a solemn protest. The Proprietary was its friend, and before long exalted it still more by a city charter, authorizing it and its suburbs, constituting a territory of 21 square miles, to be governed, under the name of 'Gorgeana,' by a Mayor, twelve Aldermen, a Common Council of 24 members, and a Recorder, all to be annually chosen by the citizens. Probably as many as two thirds of the adult males were in places of authority. The forms of proceeding in the Recorder's Court were to be copied from those of the British chancery. This grave foolery was acted more than ten years."—J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 1, ch. 13.—"Nothing like it [the charter], before or since, is to be found in all the history of the American nation. By it Gorges became the feudal lord of the soil of Maine, and Maine was a fief. The new Lord of Maine established his government and set up his general court at what is now York, which he named Gorgeana, and which was . . . the first incorporated city in America. This court was established in the year 1640."—H. E. Holmes, *Makers of Maine*, pp. 154-155.

ALSO IN: F. Gorges, *Brief narration (Maine Historical Society Collections, v. 2)*.

1643-1677.—Territorial jurisdiction in dispute.—Claims of Massachusetts made good.—"In 1643, the troubles in England between the King and Commons grew violent, and in that year Alexander Rigby bought the old grant called Lygonia or 'Plow Patent,' and appointed George Cleaves his deputy-president. Governor Thomas Gorges about that time returned to England, and left Vines in his place. Between Cleaves and Vines there was of course a conflict of jurisdiction, and Cleaves appealed for aid to Massachusetts; and both parties agreed to leave their claims (1645) to the decision of the Massachusetts Magistrates, who decided—that they could not decide the matter. But the next year the Commissioners for American plantations in England decided in favor of Rigby; and Vines left the country. In 1647, at last, at the age of 74, Sir Ferdinando Gorges died, and with him died all his plans for kingdoms and power in Maine. In 1651, Massachusetts, finding that her patent, which included lands lying three miles north of the head waters of the Merimack, took in all the lower part of Maine, began to extend her jurisdiction, and as most of the settlers favored her authority, it was pretty well established till the time of the Restoration (1660). Upon the Restoration of Charles II., the heir of Gorges claimed his rights to Maine. His agent in the province was Edward Godfrey. Those claims were confirmed by the Committee of Parliament, and in 1664 he obtained an order from the King to the Governor of Massachusetts to restore him his province. In 1664 the King's Commissioners came over, and proceeded through the Colonies, and among the rest to Maine; where they appointed various officers without the concurrence of Massachusetts; so that for some years Maine was distracted with parties, and was in confusion. In 1668, Massachusetts sent four Commissioners to York, who resumed and re-established the juris-

dition of Massachusetts, with which the majority of the people were best pleased; and in 1669 the Deputies from Maine again took their seats in the Massachusetts Court. Her jurisdiction was, however, disputed by the heirs of Mason and Gorges, and it was not finally set at rest till the year 1677, by the purchase of their claims from them, by Massachusetts for £1,250."—C. W. Elliott, *New England history*, v. 1, ch. 26.

ALSO IN: R. K. Sewall, *Ancient dominions of Maine*, ch. 3-4.—W. D. Williamson, *History of Maine*, v. 1, ch. 6-21.

1664.—Pemaquid patent purchased and granted to Duke of York. See NEW YORK: 1664.

1675.—Outbreak of Tarenteens. See NEW ENGLAND: 1675 (July-September).

1675-1783.—Indian warfare.—Maine in Revolutionary War.—"For almost a century the northern American colonies experienced all the horrors of savage warfare incident to the desperate struggle for supremacy between France and England. 'The brunt fell upon Maine, the vast frontier and flying buttress of New England,—her soil the battle ground and her sons the vanguard.' Within her boundaries at the conclusion of King Philip's War [1675-1676] were only five settlements and such was the drain upon her during the succeeding wars that there was not left at home one man to a family. The fleet which took Port Royal was chiefly manned in Maine and commanded by her distinguished son, Sir William Phipps. The famous siege of Louisburg [1745] was commanded by William Pepperell of Kittery, . . . and at least a third of the entire besieging force was recruited from the Province of Maine. Maine gave to the struggle for independence six thousand men. And when it was over, one thousand of her sons had sacrificed their lives, and the burden of the debt that fell upon her was greater in proportion to her wealth and population than her share in the cost of the Civil War. The news of the Battle of Lexington reached York on the evening of the same day. The next morning a company of sixty men, fully equipped with arms, ammunition and food, were marching to Boston. The first company was followed in a few days by men from the entire province, even as far east as Machias. Falmouth, now Portland, was bombarded and utterly destroyed by a British fleet, October 18, 1775, and the territory from the Kennebec to the eastern boundary was frequently invaded and suffered numerous attacks at different points. A Maine regiment was present at Bunker Hill. On June 12, 1775, the patriots of Machias fought the 'Lexington of the seas,' when the British flag was struck for the first time on the ocean to Americans. Eleven hundred men from Maine were with Washington at Valley Forge, a tenth of the entire force. At the siege of Boston practically every able-bodied man in Western Maine was present."—H. E. Dunnack, *Maine book*, pp. 3, 4.

1686.—Included in the "Territory and Dominion of New England" under a royal governor. See NEW ENGLAND: 1686.

1689-1697.—King William's War.—Indian cruelties. See CANADA: 1689-1690; 1692-1697.

1722-1725.—Renewed Indian war. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1713-1730.

1744-1748.—King George's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1744; 1745; 1745-1748.

1779-1814.—Plans of the English to separate Maine from Massachusetts during the revolution.—"The design of the British government during the Revolution, of severing a portion of Maine from Massachusetts, and of erecting it into a

province to be colonized by Loyalists, under the name of New Ireland, had received little attention from historians. The earliest published account of it appeared in the seventh volume of our Proceedings, and it has since been briefly noticed by Bancroft, in the closing volume of his history of the United States. . . . I have obtained copies of several documents which illustrate the origin and progress of the project. These were found in the private collections of the Marquis of Lansdowne, . . . [who was] Secretary of State for war [1805-1800], and of Earl Dartmouth [sixth earl], whose ancestor was Secretary for American Affairs during the Revolution. . . . The project had received attention from the Government during the preceding year [1779], and was communicated to Governor Hutchinson, then in England. His diary, under date of September 3, 1778, recounts an interview with Mr. Knox, an official of the War department, who stated that the Penobscot district was, 'to be erected into a new province, and to be given to the refugees, . . . as a recompense for their sufferings, and to ease Government of the expense it is now at for their support.' . . . After slumbering for nearly two years after the royal approval, the plan was revived by memorials from Dr. John Calef, agent for the Loyalists on the Penobscot and others. . . . In Knox's Extra Official State Papers, it is stated that the proposed colony received its death-blow from an opinion rendered by the Attorney General of England, afterwards Lord Loughborough, who entertained scruples about violating the sacredness of the chartered rights of the Province of the Massachusetts Bay, arguing that the rights extended its limits to the river St. Croix, and that the eastern boundaries were not terminated at either the Saco, the Kennebec or the Penobscot. Up to this time Dr. Calef, who had remained in England two years, had been hopeful of success, but one morning, entering the office of Lord North, these hopes were ended by his Lordship's saying, 'Doctor, we cannot make the Penobscot the boundary; the pressure is too strong.' Yet long afterwards the British claimed that Massachusetts had no title west of that river, and in 1814 took possession of all the land between it and the St. Croix, not as conquered territory, but as rightfully belonging to the crown."—J. Williamson, *Proposed province of New Ireland (Maine Historical Society Collections, v. 1, pp. 147, 157)*.—See also U. S. A.: 1813-1814.

1783.—Abolition of slavery in the state.—"As there had been for more than half a century, a considerable number of colored people in this eastern country, as well as in other parts of the State, who were *slaves*;—the very name after the revolutionary struggle became doubly odious. It was thought to be base hypocrisy and crime in a *free* people to tolerate slavery; and consequently, it was declared in the Bill of Rights, a constituent part of the State constitution, that 'all men are born free and equal.' Aided by this clause, the Supreme Judicial Court at Worcester, in 1783, imposed a small fine upon a man for correcting his negro servant, though he pleaded his privilege in justification. The public were satisfied; and every slave felt the relief for which he had long sighed. But this was not sufficiently effectual, for there had been lately an attempt by a sea-captain to seize three blacks in Boston harbor, for the purpose of carrying them to the West-Indies; and therefore, the Legislature, March 26, [1788] passed an act, highly penal against both kidnapping and the slave trade."—W. D. Williamson, *History of the state of Maine, v. 2, pp. 536-537*.

1783-1812.—Growth of desire for separation from Massachusetts.—First newspaper.—Separation convention.—Petition and vote.—Embargoes.—Hartford convention.—Declaration of war.—"Immediately after the close of the Revolution, the question of the separation of Maine from Massachusetts and the erection of the District into an independent State was freely discussed among all classes of society. In 1784 the *Falmouth Gazette*, the first newspaper in Maine, was established, for the purpose, according to Williamson, of advocating separation. . . . After the discussion had continued for months, it was felt that some action ought to be taken to secure a decision of the question. . . . The District had neither a legislature nor executive of its own, and in that modest age 'individuals were averse to any active step lest they should be considered officious.' At last some gentlemen summoned courage to procure the insertion of the following notice in the *Falmouth Gazette* of September 17 and October 1, 1785: 'Agreeably to a request made and signed by a large and respectable number of persons to the printer of this *Gazette*, the inhabitants of the three Counties of York, Cumberland and Lincoln are hereby notified that so many of them as are inclined or can conveniently attend, are requested to meet at the Meeting House of the Revd. Messrs. Smith and Deane in Falmouth, on Wednesday, the fifth day of October next, to join in a conference then and there to be held on the proposal of having the said counties erected into a separate government; and, if it should be thought best, to form some plan for collecting the sentiments of the people on the subject and pursue some orderly and regular method of carrying the same into effect.' Thirty-three gentlemen, residents in about equal proportion of the three Maine counties of York, Cumberland and Lincoln, answered the call. . . . A committee of seven, of which General Wadsworth was chairman, was appointed . . . [to call a convention of delegates from all the Maine towns and plantations] to be held at Falmouth on the first Wednesday of January, 1786. . . . Whether a separation was wise or not, the measures taken to obtain it were certainly moderate, peaceable and lawful, but the authorities in Massachusetts seem to have regarded them as almost treasonable. Governor Bowdoin . . . described it as 'a design against the Commonwealth of very evil tendency.' . . . [While the convention was held, nothing of importance was done. Separation feeling grew, however. Convention meetings were again held in September 1786; a petition for separation was sent to the legislature, and an address issued to the people of Maine.] The petition was a moderate and respectful document, stating that the people of Maine were loyal and law-abiding citizens of Massachusetts, but that owing to their separation therefrom by another State and their great distance from the seat of government, they labored under difficulties which they believed could be removed only by their erection into a separate State. . . . The movement for separation was originally a moderate and conservative one. . . . It was the time of Shay's rebellion in Massachusetts proper. The people were burdened with taxes and with debts, many of which had fallen into the hands of speculators and were being pressed for collection in a very harsh manner. . . . The convention having issued the address and requested that a vote on separation be taken, and returns made to them, adjourned to the last Wednesday of January. It then appeared that

only 970 of the citizens of the District had taken the trouble to vote at all; 618 of the votes were in favor of separation, and 352 against it. So small a vote was an almost fatal blow to the project, and the adoption of the United States Constitution of 1787 gave a new turn to the people's thoughts. The convention, which had adjourned until September 5, 1787, resolved to obtain another vote of the people but nothing was done. . . . In 1792 a vote of the District on separation was taken by order of the Legislature. The number of votes in favor was 2084, opposed 2438. . . .

"Maine was commonly called the District of Maine, or, more briefly, the District, until its separation from Massachusetts. . . . In 1788 Maine was invited to express, indirectly, her views on the adoption of a Federal Constitution. In the General Convention at Philadelphia, which drew up the constitution, Maine was not represented, the four delegates from Massachusetts being all from Massachusetts proper. The ablest of them, however, Rufus King, was a native of Maine. . . . [Maine had forty-six delegates in the Massachusetts constitutional convention, only seven of whom, however, favored it.] Maine was Federalist until 1805. By that time the party had greatly decreased in numbers. Even Massachusetts, a Federalist stronghold, had been carried by Jefferson in the preceding year, though the Federalists elected their candidate for Governor. But in Maine there was great discontent with the land policy of Massachusetts. Men who sought homes had settled without leave on land which had been sold or granted in large tracts to wealthy individuals and companies. In some cases the settlers were expelled, losing their improvements; sometimes the owners would neither sell nor lease; in other cases the ownership of the land was in dispute and there was no one who could give a clear title. It was felt in Maine that the Legislature at Boston favored the absentee landlords and wrongfully refused to resume land which they had forfeited by non-compliance with the conditions of the grant. These local causes and the general Democratic movement gave the District of Maine to the Republicans in 1805, and nearly gave them the State in the following year. . . . The public feeling in Massachusetts, as in the nation, was setting strongly toward the Republicans, but it was checked by the passage in 1807 of an embargo law forbidding commercial intercourse between the United States and foreign countries. It was hoped that this would compel both England and France to cease their interference with American commerce, but the stoppage of trade caused the greatest distress in the United States and provoked furious opposition to the law which caused it. Various towns in Maine joined in the chorus of remonstrance. Nor did the opposition stop with mere words. All kinds of tricks were resorted to in order to evade the law. . . . In June, 1812, the United States declared war against Great Britain. Opinion in Maine was much divided. There was a strong anti-war sentiment. . . . When the Legislature voted to call a convention at Hartford to consider means for redressing the grievances of New England, the vote in opposition from Maine was much larger proportionately than that from Massachusetts proper, and the most vigorous speech against the call was made by John Holmes, of New York."—L. C. Hatch, ed., *Maine*, v. 1, pp. 107-112, 67, 70-73.

1794.—Founding of Bowdoin college. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1794.

1812-1814.—Maine in War of 1812-1814.—"At first the war of 1812 bore lightly on Maine except for the interference with trade and the increase of taxations. It was more than a year after the outbreak of hostilities before there was any fighting of importance on her soil or near her waters. . . . In 1814 the pressure of the war was felt more severely by Maine. The attempt to win New England to make a separate peace with Great Britain had failed, and on April 25, 1814, a blockade of her ports, as well as those of the rest of the United States, was proclaimed. . . . A more serious invasion followed. Maine, according to the American interpretation of the treaty of 1783, thrust itself deep into the British provinces, and the Cabinet at London desired an acquisition of territory which would make the direct route from Halifax to Quebec undeniably British."—L. C. Hatch, ed., *Maine*, v. 1, pp. 73-75.—"In the war of 1812, although it was unpopular with the people, Maine shirked no responsibility. It is said that more soldiers were enlisted in the District of Maine, in proportion to its population, than in any of the states. The whole number of the militia, ever ready to march, amounted to twenty-one thousand one hundred and twenty-one men. During the first two years of the war Maine was not actually invaded, though often menaced. During the summer of 1814, however, the towns of Eastport, Castine, Belfast, Bangor and Hampden were captured and plundered by a strong British force. The region between Pasamaquoddy Bay and the Penobscot River passed under the control of the British. Castine was made the port of entry, and a custom house was opened at Hampden. A naval engagement off the coast near Portland on September 5, 1814, in which the American brig the 'Enterprise' captured the British brig the 'Boxer' is probably the most noteworthy battle in which Maine participated."—H. E. Dunnack, *Maine book*, p. 4.

1814-1819.—Resumption of agitation for separation.—Separation Bill of 1815.—Arguments for statehood.—Elections of 1819.—Passage of Separation Act.—Constitutional convention.—"The War of 1812 and the Hartford Convention proved a stimulus to the separation movement. Though the Massachusetts delegation included two residents of the district, 'in no other part of the Union, perhaps, did that famous convention call forth more exasperation than it did in Maine.' A convention of towns in Oxford county declared it expedient for Maine to be a part of Massachusetts only so long as Massachusetts gave support to the Union, and that a convention ought to be called to take action in this sense. . . . In the same year, 1814, the Massachusetts House appointed a committee to consider the expediency of taking the opinion of the people of the State (not as formerly, of the District of Maine, only) on the question of a separation. The committee advised that the matter be referred to the next Legislature. Meanwhile . . . petitions for separation were sent to the Legislature, and its supporters found the Federalists apparently ready to give the request 'benevolent consideration.' . . . On February 26, 1815, a resolution for separation was introduced by Senator Albion K. Parris, of Oxford. On February 26, [1815] the Senate by a party vote of 17 to 10 accepted the report of a committee that 'it was not expedient to pass these resolves.' . . . The refusal of Massachusetts to allow the people of Maine to express their opinion on the question of separation roused its advocates to greater activity. When the Legislature met in the following winter, petitions poured in from Maine in favor of Statehood. The

action of the previous year was reversed and a bill was passed allowing the people of Maine, on the 20th of the following May, to express by a vote their wishes in the matter of separation. . . . The contest in the District was fiercely waged, but when the ballots were counted it was found that less than half of the voters had gone to the polls. The vote stood, in favor of separation, 10,584, opposed, 6,941. . . . The Legislature met shortly after the vote in Maine and promptly referred the subject of separation to a joint committee . . . [which reported that the vote in May did not clearly express the wishes of the people, hoped that separation would not take place, and in order to learn the opinion of Maine] presented a bill providing for the election by the people of Maine of a convention to meet at Brunswick on August 26. . . . The failure of Massachusetts to defend the District during the late war had caused the bitterest feeling in Maine. In 1786 the citizens of Machias had voted against separation, one of the reasons being that Maine needed the protection of Massachusetts against Great Britain. Now . . . it was claimed that if Maine had been a separate State she would not have tamely submitted to the occupation of Castine, but would have won honor by her courage as did Kentucky. Massachusetts was accused of partiality in education matters. . . . It was urged that the population of Maine was equal, and more than equal, to that of Rhode Island, Delaware and Louisiana taken together. The point was also made that the new State would be entitled to two Senators, and that this might 'quiet the alarms of some of our good folks over Southern influence.' . . . Election day came, the separationists carried the convention, and from the early returns it appeared that they had the necessary five to four majority of the popular vote on the question of separation. But when the ballots were counted it was found that they had polled 11,969 votes, and their opponents 10,347. . . . [Agitation continued, however, and bitter feeling began to show itself.] Fortunately wiser counsels prevailed, and the official action of the representatives of Massachusetts and Maine was marked by courtesy and moderation. . . . On April 19, 1819, 'a committee of the Maine members of the Legislature issued an address to the people of the District, urging them, in the selection of representatives, to choose none but supporters of separation. . . . At the annual election party differences were extinguished, and the sole issue was separation. Every Senator elected from the District was in favor of separation, and of 127 representatives chosen by eighty-nine towns, 114 were in favor of separation. Both these numbers were subsequently increased by later returns. . . . So overwhelming a majority rendered it practically impossible for Massachusetts to refuse separation. . . . A joint committee on which Maine was well represented . . . reported a bill providing that there should be a vote of the District on separation, . . . that the returns should be made to the Governor and Council, . . . [and that a majority of 1500 in its favor should be regarded as assent to separation. This bill passed by a vote of 193 to 59.] Every county in the District voted for separation, although the majority in Hancock was only sixty-three. The total vote was, for separation 17,001, opposed 7,132. Proclamation of the result was duly made by Governor Brooks, and Maine turned to the election of the constitutional convention. The fight over separation once decided, both parties forgot old disputes, and joined in a friendly and patriotic effort to choose the best men in the State to draw

up her fundamental law. . . . [On October 17 the constitutional convention met at the court house in Portland. The constitution was framed and passed and the new state at once made application for admission to the Union, December, 1819.]—L. C. Hatch, *Maine*, v. 1, pp. 123, 125-127, 136, 139-141.

1819.—Adoption of Connecticut plan for amending state constitutions. See AMENDMENTS TO CONSTITUTIONS: United States: Other methods.

1820.—Recognition as distinct commonwealth.—Admission into Union.—First meeting of legislature.—"The memorial of Maine asking for admission was referred to a select committee, and on December 31 they reported a bill for that purpose. Here was an opportunity for the opponents of the prohibition of slavery in Missouri. The vote on the latter question would be very close, it was possible that the seven Representatives from Maine might consent to waive their objections to the reception of another slave State into the Union if the sacrifice were necessary to secure the admission of Maine, and their votes might turn the nicely balanced scale. The temptation would be the stronger because the consent of Massachusetts to the separation of Maine was given on condition that the bill admitting her be passed before the fourth of March, 1820, and should Congress fail to act, the vote of the District in favor of Statehood, and the ratification of the constitution presented by the Portland convention would become of no effect."—L. C. Hatch, *Maine*, v. 1, pp. 161.—"In the division of the property all the real estate in Massachusetts was to be forever hers; all that in Maine to be equally divided between the two, share and share alike. . . . Several days the subject was debated, and sent from one branch to the other in Congress, till the 1st of March, when, to our joy, they were divorced; and on the 3d of the month [March, 1820] an act was passed by which Maine was declared to be, from and after the 15th of that month, one of the United States."—W. D. Williamson, *History of Maine*, v. 2, ch. 27.—William King, the governor pro-tempore was re-elected, a legislature was chosen, and its first meeting was held on May 31, 1820.

1821-1840.—Early Democratic governors.—Effort by National Republicans in 1829 to gain control.—Question of internal improvements.—For the first thirty years of its existence as a State, Maine consistently elected National Democrats to office. William King, the first governor of Maine, resigned in 1821 to become United States commissioner on the adjustment of the Spanish claims in Florida. He was followed by W. D. Williamson, president of the senate, who acted as governor until the election of Albion Keith Parris six months later. Governor Parris held office from 1821 to 1826, the period in which successful arrangements were made in connection with property held jointly with Massachusetts. He was succeeded in 1827 by Enoch Lincoln, also a lawyer, who died in 1829. During his administration the federal tariff bill of 1828 known as the "tariff of abominations" created very adverse criticism in Maine, especially among the opponents of President Jackson. "Among the 'abominations' was one doubling the duty on molasses, and thus striking a heavy blow at the West India trade. Maine lumber, Maine ships, and all the industries dependent on them, were seriously affected. When the news that the bill had passed reached Portland, the town went into mourning. Stores were hung with crepe, bells were tolled, and the vessels in the harbor half-masted their flags. . . . [Election for the national legislature had a

strong reflex influence on the elections of 1829.] In Maine the Adams men had carried the Legislature, and they proceeded to make their power felt. They elected a new Council composed solely of National Republicans. The Treasurer and Secretary of State were Jacksonians. Supporters of Adams were put in their places. Sheriffs and other county officers were at that time appointed by the Governor and Council. Governor Lincoln renominated most of the incumbents, but the Council refused to confirm the Jackson men. . . . The Democrats of the Legislature held the usual gubernatorial caucus and renominated Governor Lincoln, but he declined the honor. They then determined to leave the choice of a candidate to a convention specially called for the purpose. . . . But, alas, the convention chose a man who was reported to have voted for Adams, Samuel E. Smith, chief justice of the Court of Common Pleas. . . . The National Republicans in the Legislature held a caucus and nominated Jonathan G. Hunton, of Readfield. . . . [After an exciting election campaign Hunton was elected by a narrow majority, which on re-count gave him a majority of 39.] Hardly had the excitement over the election a little subsided, when the people of the State were shocked by the sudden death of Governor Lincoln. . . . [His death at this particular moment was followed by a period of confusion.] Eight Senators were National Republicans, eight Democrats, and there were four vacancies. . . . The first duty of a Senate is to officially declare what vacancies exist and to go into a joint convention with the House to fill them. Before the election of a president, the National Republicans had repeatedly proposed that . . . [the Senate should officially declare what vacancies existed, and go into joint convention with the House to fill them], but the Democrats refused, on the ground that until an organization was effected there was no Senate. . . . On February 1 the House passed an order to go into a convention with the Senate on the following day. On February 2 the National Republican leader in the Senate, Mr. Kingsberry, moved to adjourn for the purpose of going into a convention, but the motion was lost by a vote of 8 to 8. A National Republican senator then read a protest against the right of Mr. Hall to vote, as he was now legally acting governor. Mr. Kingsberry stated that, since Mr. Hall had no right to vote, he considered the Senate adjourned, and the National Republican senators proceeded to the House. On their arrival, Speaker Goodenow declared that as the House had voted to go into convention at this time, no further vote was necessary, and that by the arrival of the senators a convention was *ipso facto* formed. The Democrats submitted a written protest and withdrew from the hall, and the vacancies reported by the Governor and Council were filled. . . . The National Republicans met, elected a president *pro tem*, and called on the secretary of the Senate, Mr. Kavanagh, to surrender the journal, which he refused to do. The National Republicans, however, did not attempt to form a separate organization, but they maintained that four new senators had been lawfully elected. . . . There had been a question as to who had the legal right to act as Governor. At Governor Lincoln's death, the president of the Senate, Nathan Cutler, of Farmington, had, as all admitted, become acting governor by virtue of his office. But the Senate of which he was president ceased to exist on the day before the first Wednesday in January. He was no longer president of the Senate, could he then remain acting governor? Mr. Cutler swore in the members of the Legis-

lature, a duty which the constitution devolved on the governor. For this there was both precedent and reason. It must at times happen that the governor would have served a year before the first Wednesday of the calendar year. The constitution required the governor to swear in the Legislature before they could act, and the Legislature to declare the election of Governor for the current year. Hence, if the provision that the governor serve a year were to be strictly construed, all government must stop. . . . Two of the three judges, Chief Justice Mellen and Judge Parris, stated that it was the duty of the president of the existing Senate to act as governor, the other member of the court, Judge Weston, believed that Mr. Cutler was acting governor until a governor should be regularly elected. Mr. Cutler, in deference to the opinion of the majority of the court, and wishing to remove all doubts on the subject, resigned his office of acting governor; and President Hall assumed it. . . . The Senate accepted the majority report of the joint committee on the votes for governor, . . . and appointed a committee to notify Mr. Hunton of his election. . . . [At the end of his term Governor Hunton was renominated but failed of reelection. Samuel Emerson Smith, the Democratic candidate, was chosen governor.] The Democrats also carried the Legislature, and to the great wrath of the Whigs insisted on passing an act validating the laws of the previous year. . . . [Governor Smith stayed in office until 1834, the period during which the state capital at Augusta was completed. Public opinion in the state during this time was more or less divided over the nullification movement in South Carolina. On the whole President Jackson was upheld but the dislike of the existing tariff laws was more or less general.] . . . Governor Parris served five years, and then declined a renomination; Governor Lincoln served three years and also declined a renomination. Governor Smith had served for the same period and party usage demanded his renomination without a contest. . . . The Democrats of the Legislature refused to make any nomination, but directed the State committee to provide for the holding of a convention twice as large as the House of Representatives, to nominate a candidate for Governor. The convention was duly held and nominated Robert G. Dunlap. . . . [Dunlap was elected and served as governor from 1834 through 1837.]

"In 1835 the question of internal improvement became an issue of importance. [The great need of the country for better means of transportation and the enormous benefit which New York had obtained from the Erie canal had resulted in a mania for turnpikes, canals and railroads. . . . Maine had, on the whole, been free from the excitement, but some of the leading business men believed that the government should assist in the development of the State. . . . Unfortunately Maine was a poor, large and thinly settled State, and the improvements which would most hasten its development would be very costly and would at first directly benefit only a few of its citizens. . . . Internal improvement was not, however, the only issue of the campaign. Both parties had much to say on the subject of banks. . . . The election of a Governor was not the only political battle of the year 1837 [when Edward Kent, the Whig candidate, was elected]; there was also a sharp contest over the disposition of Maine's share of the 'surplus revenue.' . . . In Maine there was a sharp dispute over the use to be made of her part of the 'loan.' The Whigs urged that it be used for some public purpose, the Democrats de-

manded that it be divided among the people. . . . The Legislature voted that the money be divided among the towns and plantations, according to population, care being taken that residents in unorganized territory should receive their share. The towns and plantations were permitted to use the money for any purpose for which money raised by taxation might be used or to loan it on ample and safe security. . . . Various towns voted to distribute the money, but their right to do so was denied. . . . [On a test case the Supreme Court decided] that the money raised by taxation could not be divided among the inhabitants. . . . But the people were determined not to lose their gratuity, and in the following winter the Legislature released the towns from any obligation of returning the 'deposit,' and permitted them to divide it among the inhabitants."—L. C. Hatch, ed., *Maine*, v. 1, pp. 193-194, 195-197, 200-202, 206, 213-214, 219, 220, 229-230.

1838-1839.—Border war in disputed territory between New Brunswick and Maine. See AROOSTOOK WAR.

1840-1841.—Gubernatorial contest.—Governor Kent (Whig) defeated by ex-Governor Fairfield (Democrat).—First appearance of Liberty (Anti-Slavery) party.—"The Maine Whigs went into the gubernatorial campaign in the fall [of 1840] weakened by the internal quarrel of their party. The Maine Democrats also were not entirely harmonious. . . . Governor Kent had again removed many Democrats from office and these martyrs felt that their suffering should be compensated by immediate re-appointment if the Democrats won. But others who perhaps had not belonged to the office-holding faction practiced by the 'Federalists' demanded a rigid adherence to the principle of rotation in office, and that the future appointing power 'should be unshackled by the past condition of things,' and under no obligation to reappoint men who had been removed. Both Fairfield and Kent were nominated by their respective parties, with substantial unanimity. . . . An amendment to the constitution had just been passed limiting the terms of judges to seven years. This vacated the seats of Chief Justice Weston and Associate Justice Nicholas Emery, and the Whigs put men of their own party in their places. The Democrats loudly protested against the alleged introduction of partisanship into judicial appointments. Governor Kent himself had wished to reappoint Chief Justice Weston, but the Council refused its assent. The Liberty [Anti-Slavery] party appeared in Maine this year for the first time, and nominated for Governor, Jeremiah Curtis, of Calais. . . . Fairfield was elected, leading Kent by over 10,000 votes. The official returns gave Fairfield 47,354 votes, Kent 36,700, Curtis 1,662; there were 347 scattering. It was a great triumph for the Democrats."—L. C. Hatch, ed., *Maine*, v. 2, pp. 311-312.—"In 1841 an amendment to the constitution of Maine forbade the Legislature to loan the credit of the State directly or indirectly in any case, 'or to increase the State debt beyond the sum of \$300,000 except to suppress insurrection, repel invasion or for purposes of war.' Many came to feel that this limitation was a serious obstacle to the development of Maine, but no change was made until 1912."—L. C. Hatch, ed., *Maine*, v. 3, p. 720.

1841-1842.—Settlement of northeastern boundary.—Webster-Ashburton Treaty.—Unpopularity of Webster.—When Webster became secretary of state, the time seemed to have arrived for the settlement of the boundary question with

Great Britain. In the summer of 1841 he informed Fox that he was ready to enter into negotiations, and on the British side Lord Ashburton was sent out as a special minister with power to settle the dispute. "While awaiting the arrival of Lord Ashburton, Webster began in serious earnest to make ready for the negotiation. His first act, the grand stroke, as he called it, was to seek the consent of Maine and Massachusetts to a conventional line. Reuel Williams, then a Senator from Maine, was asked to sound the Governor and leading men of the State as to the willingness of the legislature to send commissioners to Washington fully empowered to agree to such a line with the understanding that it should not be adopted without their assent. Williams replied that from such information as he could gather, it seemed quite likely that the Governor and Legislature would accept a conventional line, provided that privileges of navigation and other benefits were given in lieu of any territory that might be ceded. As it was not known, however, that Lord Ashburton would have authority to agree to a conventional line, nothing could be done before he arrived. Should Maine appoint commissioners and then find that his lordship could not discuss such a line, she would be placed where no true American could wish to see her. At this stage of the correspondence Webster received from Jared Sparks a letter and a copy of a map which greatly helped his negotiations. . . . Webster determined to use . . . [this map] to force Maine to modify her demands and accept a conventional line, and despatched Sparks to Augusta to show it to the Governor of Maine. The Governor at once declared for a conventional line, and by his influence the legislature was induced to appoint four commissioners. Two were Whigs and two were Democrats, and to them were given no instructions and unlimited power. Massachusetts, which had likewise been invited to send agents, soon after appointed hers, and in June, Webster, and Lord Ashburton took up the question of the northeastern boundary. The commissioners from Maine fought sturdily for their State, but in the end were forced to accept a line which gave Great Britain eight hundred and ninety-three square miles more territory than had been awarded her by the decision of the King of the Netherlands. They had seen the red-line map and, it is probable, feared that if no treaty were made another arbitration might follow, that the map might be laid before the arbitrator, and that the second award might be worse than the first. . . . In Maine the treaty found no friends among the Democrats. Great Britain, said one journal, gains on all sides of our State. She gets an easy and ready communication between Halifax and Quebec on the North. She gets good military positions on the four-mile strip ceded to her on the east, and still others along the whole chain of highlands given to her on the northwest. On the east side, said another, a large strip is yielded to Great Britain. Instead of running the line due north from the monument at the source of the St. Croix, as the old treaty provides, the line bends westward to Mars Hill, which is four miles west of the true meridian. This greatly strengthens the British military road in that quarter. Maine, said a third, will lose about three million acres, or one million more than she would had the Dutch award been accepted. In return she is to have the free navigation of the St. John River, one hundred and fifty thousand dollars and the posse account of two hundred thousand more. Rouse's Point is retained, and New York, New Hampshire, and Vermont have

their boundary lines established as they wish. If the St. John runs through our territory we have a right to navigate it. Can the free navigation of it be considered the equivalent for territory? Can benefits received by other States be looked on as an equivalent for territory lost to Maine? For the time being Webster was an unpopular man in both Maine and Massachusetts. Even his friends now cried out that the time had come for him to leave the Cabinet. On the other hand, strangers wrote to him from all parts of the country, urging him not to quit the Department of State. When, however, the Massachusetts Whigs met to nominate candidates for State offices, they declared that the misdeeds of Tyler 'left no alternative to the Whigs of Massachusetts but to declare, as they do now declare, their full and final separation from him,' and then presented Henry Clay to the Whigs of Massachusetts as justly entitled to their suffrages 'for the first office in the gift of the American people.'—J. B. McMaster, *History of the people of the United States*, v. 3, pp. 273-277, 283-288.—See also AROOSTOOK WAR; U. S. A.: 1842; Ashburton treaty with England.

ALSO IN: M. Macdonald, *Government of Maine*.
1851-1858.—Prohibition legislation.—In 1851 a prohibitory law was passed. "The act granted extensive powers of search and many felt that private rights were invaded. A cry was also raised that the law as enforced was hurting business. But far more injurious to the Republicans was a liquor riot in Portland in which the militia were called out, the mob fired on; several persons injured and one killed. Liquor had been bought for the city agency and it was claimed that technically Mayor Dow was the owner and had violated his own prohibitory law. . . . The opponents of the Maine law were much excited. They considered it a most outrageous and inquisitorial statute which established arbitrary and unreasonable presumptions of guilt and that it had been enforced by Mr. Dow in a very severe manner. The report that he had been caught in his own trap and might be publicly proclaimed and punished as a violator of his own law was received with the greatest joy. . . . [In 1855] an extremely arduous piece of business for the Democrats was the preparation of a new liquor law. Here, like their opponents in 1855, they were embarrassed by all the difficulties of a coalition. There were Democrats who wished free rum; there were others who honestly desired an effective prohibitory law, but who believed that the act in force was unduly stringent and gave great opportunities for espionage and tyranny. . . . After long delay, and changes from the original plan, an act was passed [1858] allowing the sale of liquor by a limited number of persons varying according to the population of the city or town where the license to sell was granted. Liquor thus sold was not to be drunk on the premises and must be unadulterated. Liquor might also be sold by innholders to strangers who were travellers or lodgers. No liquor could be sold to a minor without the written direction of his master, parent or guardian, to any Indian, soldier in the army, drunkard or intoxicated person of whose intemperate habits the seller had been notified by his relatives or the public authorities. Notice by the relatives should be presumptive evidence and by the public authorities conclusive evidence of such habits."—L. C. Hatch, *Maine*, v. 2, pp. 383-384, 396-397.

1853.—Purchase of public lands from Massachusetts.—"Massachusetts held title to her one-half of the public lands until 1853 when the

Maine legislature passed the following resolve: 'Resolved: That the land agent proceed without delay to Boston, for the purpose of ascertaining from the authorities of Massachusetts, the terms on which that state will sell or surrender to Maine, all her interests in the lands in this state. Also upon what terms Massachusetts will sell to Maine her interest in the lands known and denominated as settling lands, independently of the timber lands, and report to the legislature as soon as may be.' By a further resolve the Legislature was directed to choose by ballot three commissioners to make negotiations with Massachusetts for the purchase of these lands. The commissioners for Maine were Reuel Williams, William P. Fessenden and Elijah L. Hamlin, and on the part of the Commonwealth were E. M. Wright, Jacob H. Loud and David Wilder. An extra session of the Legislature was held September 20, 1853, at which time the report of the joint commission was received and accepted and their acts ratified and confirmed by a resolve approved September 28, 1853.—H. E. Dunnack, *Maine book*, p. 61.

1854-1867.—Attitude towards slavery question.—Work of William Pitt Fessenden during reconstruction period.—Before 1856 Maine had always been Democratic but from 1856 to 1920 it has been largely Republican. The change took place over the slavery question and in 1854 Maine sent William Pitt Fessenden to the United States Senate. His brilliant oratory brought him to the front as one of the leaders of the anti-slavery camp. "The report of the [reconstruction] committee, which was made [in 1867] after a thorough and careful examination into the condition of the Southern states, was anxiously awaited in the belief that it would shed light upon the darkness, and would point out the true path leading to a reunited nation. The report was written by Mr. Fessenden, and it has been said of it that with the possible exception of the Proclamation of Emancipation it is the ablest state paper of the period. With perhaps the same exception it is the most important. Clear and lucid in its style, admirable in its composition, faultless in its logic, convincing in its argument, thorough and complete in its treatment of the subject, and wise in its recommendations, it is a document upon which Mr. Fessenden may well rest his reputation for broad, intelligent, patriotic and wise statesmanship. The influence of the report was immense. It became the creed of the Republican Party, and the settlement of the question therein proposed was considered throughout the country as reasonable, practicable and just. Mr. Fessenden, although he had from his earliest days been an opponent of slavery, and had always been a true friend to the colored race, was not in favor of negro suffrage as a condition of reconstruction. When the proposed Fourteenth Amendment was before the Senate it was most forcibly attacked by Mr. Sumner because it did not grant universal suffrage, and Mr. Fessenden in his reply contended that it was in all respects better to leave the question of suffrage wholly to the states, holding out to them, however, the prospect of increased representation whenever they should make suffrage universal. Negro suffrage might thereby appear as for the interest of the South, and the negroes would in time be enfranchised by act of the states themselves. Had the negro received the right from the state, he would have been much more likely to have been protected in its exercise."—R. Webb, *William Pitt Fessenden* (*Maine Historical Society Collections*, p. 252).

1861-1865.—Part taken in the Civil War.—

"The outbreak of the Civil War found Maine like most of the Northern States totally unprepared. The old musters had been abandoned as burdensome, useless, and furnishing occasions for drunkenness and dissipation. . . . But the country's need was pressing; Maine was asked to furnish a regiment under the President's call for 75,000 men, and Governor Washburn requested ten of the volunteer companies to enlist in the United States service. Eight did so, the others declined or failed to act promptly, and two new companies were raised. The Governor, however, felt that he had not the legal powers which the occasion demanded, and the day after the President's proclamation he called the Legislature to meet in extra session on April 22. That body promptly passed an act for raising ten regiments of volunteers to serve for two years, and for the borrowing of \$10,000,000. Maine responded readily and enthusiastically, but after six regiments had been sent forward recruiting was suspended, the Governor being unofficially informed that no more regiments would be accepted from Maine. The means of the national government for arming and caring for troops were limited and the expense and difficulty of assembling them at Washington was greatest in the case of the most remote States. Some of the Maine regiments suffered heavy losses in battle, others never saw an enemy. Lieutenant-Colonel William F. Fox . . . says that the First Maine Heavy Artillery had more men killed and mortally wounded than any other regiment in the Union army, and a greater percentage killed than any regiment but one, the Seventh Wisconsin. . . . The First Maine Heavy also had the greatest number of killed in any one action."—L. C. Hatch, *Maine*, v. 2, p. 473.—"The years following . . . [the Civil War] were trying ones for Maine. Business declined, manufacturing decreased, and many citizens, attracted by the inducements held out by land owners in Ohio, emigrated to what was then known as the Far West. Nearly 15,000 of Maine's citizens left their homes to settle on lands west of the Alleghany Mountains, and this draft upon the population for a time checked her prosperity and growth. But after a few years, the tide turned, business revived, and the growth of Maine, while slow, has been steady since that time."—W. W. Stetson, *History and civil government of Maine (State Government Series)*, p. 67.

1875-1909.—Compulsory Education Bill.—Educational qualification.—Australian ballot.—Initiative and referendum.—Following on the "Maine Law," or prohibition act, the most important legislative enactment was the Compulsory Education Bill, passed in 1875. "In 1870 the terms of the Governors, Senators, and Representatives were made two years, instead of one, and the regular sessions of the Legislature became biennial. The requirement of a majority in the elections of Representatives, Senators and Governor was changed to that of a plurality in 1847, 1875 and 1880 respectively."—L. C. Hatch, ed., *Maine*, v. 3, p. 720.—In 1884 the prohibition law was made a constitutional amendment. This was followed in 1892 by a constitutional amendment, which provides an educational qualification for voters. In 1891 the Australian ballot system had been introduced, and in 1908 the direct initiative and optional referendum were adopted. "Maine has the distinction of being the first of the eastern states to enact an initiative and referendum law, which was put into effect in 1909. The history of this movement in Maine covers a period of five years. There has long been a feeling of unrest among

important elements of the electorate regarding certain questions of local importance. Maine has vast tracts of unorganized and unsettled lands, some ten million acres in extent, [the 'wild lands'] which are owned by a comparatively small number of individuals and corporations, an area which is covered with valuable timber, and has an assessed valuation of fifty million dollars, and, indeed, is probably worth several times that amount. . . . So liberal has been the policy of the state in the past in disposing of its wild lands, including the earlier grants, in 1836 and subsequent years, to settlers, which were justifiable, and the large grants to railroads and sales at nominal costs to individuals that were made in the period from 1862 to 1875, which were questionable; that almost the entire area, some fourteen thousand square miles in extent, or the equivalent of one-half of the total area of the state, is in private hands, and the state now retains but a paltry fifty thousand acres of its former vast public domain. Because of their low valuation these lands contribute through taxation less than one-ninth of the state's revenues from direct taxation. The influence of a powerful lobby at the state house has been successful in heading off efforts to increase the tax on wild lands; and the owners of these lands are strongly fortified by a decision of the Supreme Court of Maine, which prohibits the taxing of wild lands at a higher rate than the state tax imposes upon the settled areas. There seems to be no other way to meet this situation save through the passage of a constitutional amendment, subjecting these lands to a separate classification and independent treatment, but such a proposal has thus far failed to produce results. To be sure the preservation of the forest is necessary to the preservation of the rivers and upon these the people are dependent for water power, a source of energy with which nature has abundantly endowed the state. The forests are also necessary to the maintenance of the game preserves, which attract thousands of hunters and fishermen to the state every year, and thereby bring large sums into the coffers of the merchants and the railroads—an argument which has constantly served as a defense of low state taxes. The gains from this source, however, are not a sufficient offset for the losses incident to the failure to pursue a policy that would force the development of new agricultural lands, open up the state to larger settlement, and attract immigrants to promote latent industries and increase the wealth of . . . [the] state. Maine has also been liberal in the grant of valuable franchises for little or no return, and through her lax corporation laws has become the mother of numerous corporations, many of which should never have been authorized, and whose only justification seemed to be the fees which they yielded. . . . The state has also been liberal in the past in rebating the taxes of her railroads, and in granting other privileges and exemptions which have cost her revenue. These are some of the reasons why Maine has been unable to meet the growing demand for better roads, . . . and for the improvement of her schools and other state institutions. Maine's remarkable water power facilities have not been developed beyond a fraction of their possibilities; the Maine farmer has been more conservative and less progressive than his western rival, except in certain industries in which he has shown some specialization, like the cultivation of potatoes in Aroostook County. There has been too much protection and too little reciprocity in both commodity and labor to give Maine the benefit of the rich iron and coal deposits of her neighbor to the north and east,

which might well have been turned to the advantage of the state for the employment of her natural resources of stream and forest, and in the saving of a great industry, shipbuilding, in which Maine had such an early and promising start."—J. W. Black, *Initiative and referendum in Maine (Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, Sept., 1912)*.—"In Maine initiative bills may propose any measure, including bills to amend or repeal emergency legislation, but not to amend the state constitution. The petition must set forth the full text of the measure proposed and be signed by not less than 12,000 electors, and be filed by the secretary of state, or presented to either branch of the Legislature at least 30 days before the close of its session. . . . The veto power of the governor does not extend to any measure approved by vote of the people, and if he vetoes any measure initiated by the people and passed by the Legislature without change, and his veto is sustained by the legislature, the measure is referred to the people at the next election. . . . The Legislature may enact measures expressly conditioned upon the people's ratification of referendum vote. Petitions for a reference of any act, or any part or parts thereof, passed by the Legislature must be signed by not less than 10,000 electors, and be filed within ninety days after the recess of the Legislature. . . . The governor may order a special election upon an initiative or referendum measure, or if so requested in the petition shall order a special election held upon the act to be referred or the act initiated but not enacted by the Legislature."—H. E. Dunnack, *Maine book*, pp. 71-72.—See also INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States.

1883-1896.—Republicans in power.—Prohibition legislation of 1883.—Opposition to McKinley tariff.—"The inauguration of Governor Robie [1883] was the beginning of a Republican supremacy which lasted for nearly thirty years. For much of the period there is comparatively little that is interesting in the political history of the State, except the great part played by Maine men at Washington. In 1883, however, the Legislature took an important step in the development of the prohibitory policy by submitting a constitutional amendment forbidding the manufacture of intoxicating liquors, except cider, and the sale or keeping for sale of intoxicating liquors. But the Legislature was given authority to permit the sale of cider, and of liquors to be used for medicinal and mechanical purposes and in the arts. . . . In 1884 the amendment was submitted to the people and ratified by a large majority, the vote standing: yeas, 70,783; nays, 23,811. . . . [Governor Robie] served through 1886. Joseph R. Bodwell was elected in the election of that year but died in December, 1887, and Sebastian S. Marble, president of the Senate, served for the balance of the term. In 1890 when Edwin C. Burleigh, who had followed Governor Marble in office, was re-elected, elections were notable because of the fact that for the first time the labor party was strong enough in Maine to nominate a candidate, who received 1,296 votes. In 1892 when Henry B. Cleaves became governor the People's Prohibitionist and Union Labor Party were both represented and received votes aggregating about 8,500. The Democratic convention expressed itself in opposition to the McKinley tariff, but the party was not sufficiently strong to force the Republicans out of office."—L. C. Hatch, ed., *Maine*, v. 3, p. 633.

1896-1918.—Maine elections.—Thomas B. Reed's contest with William McKinley for the

presidential nomination.—Governor Fernald's defeat.—Frederick W. Plaisted's term.—1912 elections.—1916 election and the war governor.—September elections.—"In 1896, Maine again presented a candidate for the Republican nomination for President, not Mr. Blaine, who had died early in 1893, but Thomas B. Reed. . . . It was believed that the tariff would be the chief issue of the campaign, and Reed was a protectionist through and through, and had done most valiant and effective service against the Democratic Mills and Wilson bills for reducing the tariff. On the currency question he had an untarnished record of open, undeviating support of 'sound money.' His daring and resolution in counting a quorum had saved the Republican legislative program in 1890. Yet he was overwhelmingly defeated by the man he himself had beaten for the speakership, McKinley of Ohio. . . . 'It is true of Reed as . . . of many another public man that his strength was his weakness. His power as a leader whether of majority or minority enabled him to thwart, and his integrity and the loftiness of his principles compelled him to thwart many dubious schemes and thus he made enemies. His impatience with whatever was pretentious and superficial led him into needlessly uttered expressions of contempt that rankled in the minds of the little men at whom they were aimed. He was ambitious but as a politician he was not tactful and would not budge from a position once taken with deliberation, though his inflexibility might, and he was aware of it, imperil his political life. . . . Many of those who admired him and were not his enemies doubted the wisdom of placing at the head of affairs one who had such undoubted confidence in his own judgment or opinion, and who was so capable of making his opinions effective.' Moreover, McKinley had the great advantage of having Mark Hanna for his manager."—L. C. Hatch, ed., *Maine*, v. 3, pp. 650-651.—After a long and useful service Mr. Reed retired shortly after the Spanish-American War. He did all he could to prevent this war and was disappointed at the result. An address published in the Maine Historical Society Publications commenting on the retirement says: "After the ratification of the treaty of peace in February of 1899, he clearly foresaw the new policy upon which his own party was to embark and the impossibility of his longer continuing in public life in harmony therewith." (See also CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES: House of Representatives: Speaker.) In 1896 Llewellyn Powers was elected governor. The democratic convention in this election "repudiated the platform its party was to adopt in national convention, declaring by a vote of 193 to 101 that it was opposed to the free coinage of silver unless by international agreement. . . . [E. B. Winslow, the democratic candidate, refused the nomination, and a second convention nominated W. P. Frank and declared for free silver, and the Republican majority for both state and federal election was very large, Governor Powers was re-elected in 1898. He was followed in 1900 by John F. Hill who in 1904 was succeeded by William T. Cobb. In 1906 Governor Cobb's majority was reduced to 8,000.] The principal cause of the change was the 'Sturgis law' and Governor Cobb's attitude on prohibition. A bill fathered by Senator Sturgis of Cumberland had been passed providing for the appointment of a special commission to enforce the prohibitory law, with authority to appoint deputy commissioners. Governor Cobb in his first address to the Legislature had called for the enforcement of prohibition

and he made his actions square with his words. . . . [In 1908 Bert M. Fernald was elected.] The circumstances of Governor Fernald's administration [1909-1911] gave opportunity for grave charges of extravagance. He had also offended the radical prohibitionists by vetoing a bill which made imprisonment the sole punishment for certain violations of the liquor laws, and the Democrats felt that with care and energy on their part they would win at the next election. The leaders selected for their standard bearer Frederick W. Plaisted of Augusta, a son of Harris M. Plaisted, and a man of pleasing personality. . . . Plaisted was nominated on the first ballot by a vote of 575 to 311 for Gardiner. Mr. Gardiner promptly pledged his full support to the nominee, and took the stump in his behalf. The vote of the preceding election was reversed and Plaisted led Fernald by between eight and nine thousand votes. The Democrats also carried the Legislature which gave them a United States Senator, as Senator Hale's term expired in March, 1911. The Legislature elected Charles F. Johnson. . . . William P. Frye died in the summer of 1911, and Governor Plaisted appointed Obadiah Gardiner to fill the vacancy. The Democratic Legislature submitted a constitutional amendment annulling the prohibitory amendment of 1884, but after a sharp contest it was defeated by a small majority. It is a significant fact that seventeen of the eighteen cities of the State voted against prohibition. In 1912 the Democrats went into the campaign with the advantage of the split in the Republican ranks which followed the renomination of President Taft. But the Maine Republicans avoided a break as far as the State campaign was concerned, Progressives and Regulars agreeing to work together in September and then fall apart and fight in the presidential election. A law had been passed providing for primary nominations, but the candidates were the same as would have been 'slated' under the old system. The Republicans nominated William T. Haines, the leading, unsuccessful candidate of four years before. The Democrats renominated Governor Plaisted. Haines fell just short of a majority but led Plaisted by 3,229 votes. The Republicans also carried the Legislature. In the presidential election the Democrats were successful, Wilson receiving 51,113 votes to 48,495 for Roosevelt and 26,545 for Taft. The Legislature of 1913 had the duty of electing a Senator to succeed Mr. Gardiner and the choice fell on ex-Governor Burleigh, who had been a Representative in Congress since 1897. In the gubernatorial election of 1914 the straight Republicans and the Progressives were unable to unite. The Republicans renominated Governor Haines, the Progressives nominated Halbert P. Gardiner of Patten, and the result was that the Democratic candidate, Oakley C. Curtis, of Portland, obtained the prize. In 1916, the political wheel made another revolution, the Progressives came back to the Republican fold and the Republican candidate, Carl P. Milliken, of Island Falls, a young man with Progressive ideas, was nominated and elected. In the presidential election too, Maine once more took her place in the Republican ranks. The following year she was again obliged to choose two United States Senators. Senator Burleigh had died in 1916 and Senator Johnson's term expired in the following March. The amendment to the national Constitution giving the election of Senators to the people was now in force and the people chose Frederick Hale for the long term and ex-Governor Fernald for the unexpired term of Mr. Burleigh. . . . Governor Milliken's administration was marked by a

special effort to enforce neglected laws. In 1914 he compelled the amusement concessionaires at Old Orchard Beach to cease operation on Sunday and with the consent of his Council he removed Sheriff White of Penobscot for failing to enforce the prohibitory law. The World War greatly added to the Governor's burdens but he assumed them courageously and showed much activity and energy in the execution of his office. In 1918 he received the customary renomination, as did Senator Fernald, whose term expired in March, 1919. . . . The election resulted in a great victory for the Republicans. They defeated Mr. White, who had been renominated for sheriff of Penobscot county by the Democrats, they secured an overwhelming majority in both Houses of the Legislature, and they re-elected Mr. Fernald by a handsome majority. They also re-elected Governor Milliken but by a majority much less than the one that he had received in 1916. . . . He is the first Governor of the State to be re-elected since 1906 and . . . he has secured his place in the history of Maine as her World War and Centennial Governor."—L. C. Hatch, ed., *Maine*, v. 3, pp. 652, 655-658.—Maine still holds her state elections in September and these elections attract national attention. If the Republican pluralities are larger than usual, they are thought to be the forerunner of national Republican victory. If, on the other hand, these pluralities are small, or if the Democrats elect their state ticket, the Democrats are hopeful for national success in November. On this account both parties send speakers of national prominence to participate in the early state campaign.

1904-1905.—*Historical celebrations.*—Two notable celebrations took place within a year of each other. One was the tercentennial of the landing of de Monts and his fellow colonists on St. Croix island. The other was the tercentennial of the landing of Weymouth. Both of these events were appropriately celebrated and a granite cross was unveiled on Allen island in commemoration of Weymouth's landing. One feature of the celebration was an imitation of the landing.

1909.—*Industrial arbitration board created.* See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920.

1911-1919.—*Notable legislation.*—In 1911 Maine passed a corrupt practices act, a primary election law, an act to protect forests, an act to exempt mortgages from taxation, and ratified the sixteenth federal amendment (income tax). In 1911 Augusta was declared the seat of government by constitutional amendment, and the same year an attempt to repeal the prohibitory law was defeated. "This decision, rendered [in 1911] by the Governor and Council, was not reached until almost two months after the voters had registered their will. The delay in announcing the result of the vote is easily explained. The votes were cast on September 11. At first the report was that the Constitutional provision for prohibition had been repealed. Out of nearly 121,000 votes cast, however, there appeared on the afternoon after election day to be a majority for repeal of only 168. By that same evening the returns indicated that repeal had been defeated and that prohibition had been retained. So close, however, was the vote that it was impossible for even the officials of the State to tell definitely on which side the majority really was. After all the returns were officially made, it appeared evident that the final result would depend upon a decision with regard to certain errors in the records. This decision rested with the Governor and Council. In his report to the Council

Governor Plaisted explains the nature of their duty. He points out that they had no authority to examine or recount the ballots, but simply 'to tabulate the returns and describe the result as it 'appears.' The vote as it thus 'appeared' is 60,095 for the repeal of prohibition and 60,853 for the retention of prohibition. Thus the majority for the retention of constitutional prohibition in Maine is less than sixty-three hundreds of one per cent of the total vote."—(*Outlook*, Nov. 25, 1911, p. 694.)—In 1916 C. E. Miliken, the successful candidate, declared himself in favor of the enforcement of the anti-liquor laws, and received the solid support of the anti-liquor element.

In 1912 an act of the legislature provided for the appointment of a chemist to inspect food. Another act provided that women should not be compelled to work more than sixty hours in certain employments. A constitutional amendment to authorize the issue of highway bonds, to the amount of \$2,000,000 was adopted the same year. "Maine first undertook road improvement through state aid in 1901 by providing for the payment of half the cost of permanently improving a section of the main thoroughfare in any town which should be designated by the county commissioners as the state aid road. [The limit of aid was first one hundred dollars, raised at intervals until it reached three hundred dollars.] In 1907 the legislature . . . created a State Highway Department. . . . [At this time state aid appropriation was fixed at one-third of a mill on the valuation of the state. This was raised in 1909 to three-fourths of a mill, and in 1911 the mill tax was abolished, and an appropriation of \$250,000 a year made to carry on the work. In 1913 the appropriation was raised to \$300,000 a year.] The legislature of 1913 passed a new state highway law reorganizing the state highway department under a commission of three members. This law directed the highway commission to lay out a system of state highways which should be the principal thoroughfares of the state and a system of state aid highways which should be feeders to the state highway system. The law also placed in the hands of the commission the maintenance of all state and state aid highways. . . . This law provided for the issue of \$2,000,000 bonds to be applied to the construction of state highways and made an appropriation of \$300,000 annually for the state aid construction. . . . In order to provide funds to meet the Federal aid offered by the government, the legislature in 1919 proposed an \$8,000,000 bond issue for state highway construction. This was approved by the voters at a special election in September . . . and in November the legislature in special session authorized the issue of \$2,000,000 of these bonds for state highway construction work in 1920. . . . The Maine Public Utilities Commission was created in 1913. . . . This Act was referred to the people in 1914 and accepted by a large majority. . . . The Public Utilities Commission consists of three commissioners appointed for a term of seven years. This Commission has regulatory powers over all steam railroads, electric railroads, gas, water, electric, telephone, telegraph, steamboat and express companies, also warehousemen and wharfingers operating in the State of Maine. . . . The Commission has the power to fix the rates charged for the different classes of service rendered by the different utilities. . . . It has jurisdiction over all issues of stocks, bonds, and notes. This requires public hearings and careful scrutiny of the purpose and legality of the issues. . . . The Commission requires full and complete financial statements from each company,

authorizes all sales, leases, or mergers, the necessity and cost of which must be approved."—H. E. Dunnack, *Maine book*, pp. 245-246, 251.—"In 1913 the seventeenth federal amendment was ratified (direct election of senators). In 1914 a public utility commission was created that followed in general the Wisconsin law. In 1915 the legislature passed an act which provided a nine hour day for women and minors under sixteen. The Maine voters, by a referendum ballot at this election [1916] ratified, despite strong corporation hostility, the fifty-four hour bill passed by the Legislature in 1915. This act reduces the working week of women and minors from fifty-eight to fifty-four hours. Maine is, we believe, the fifteenth State to adopt a measure of this kind."—*Maine elections (Outlook, Sept. 20, 1916)*.—"The Workman's Compensation Act of Maine was passed by the legislature of 1915, and became operative for organization purposes upon the first day of October, 1915. . . . Administration of the law is supervised by a commission consisting of four members; a chairman and associate legal member who are appointed by the governor, the commissioner of labor and industry and the commissioner of insurance. . . . The system provided for is elective, except as to state, counties, cities, water districts and other quasi municipal corporations. All other employers have the right to elect whether or not to adopt the compensation features of the act."—H. E. Dunnack, *Maine book*, p. 305.—In 1917 a compensation act which applied to state employees, and a mother's pension act were passed. In the same year a moratorium was voted for the men in the service (the state furnished 22,000 soldiers). In 1919, the eighteenth federal amendment (prohibition) and the nineteenth federal amendment (woman suffrage) were ratified.

1916-1920.—**Historical celebrations.**—In June, 1916, the 200th anniversary of the permanent settlement of Portland was observed by the city and the Chamber of Commerce. "The 100th anniversary of Maine's entrance into the Union was celebrated at Portland, the opening day being Saturday, June 26th, 1920. The Historical Day was Sunday, June 27th, when at 3 P.M. official historical exercises were held at the First Parish Church, Congress Street, near Monument Square."—*Maine centennial, June 26-July 5, 1920 (Sprague's Journal of Maine History, Dec., 1920)*.

1917-1918.—**Part taken in World War.**—For its resources, Maine contributed largely in men and money toward the success of the World War. Quite aside from liberty loans and other war savings, the people of the state contributed above \$2,367,500 to assist the various war activities. The state furnished 24,252 men, or .65 per cent of the whole force who were engaged in the various branches of the army and navy services.

1919-1921.—**State budget.**—"Under the provisions of . . . the Public Laws of 1919, the governor becomes the head of the budget committee. He with the state auditor, state treasurer, chairman of the committee on appropriations and financial affairs on the part of the Senate and chairman on the part of the House of the Maine Legislature make up this budget committee. An informal budget was inaugurated in 1917. This was continued in 1919, and the Legislature of 1921 . . . [saw] the first legal budget."—H. E. Dunnack, *Maine book*, p. 180.

ALSO IN: W. P. Preble, *Decision of the king of the Netherlands*.—J. P. Baxter, ed., *Trelawny Papers (Documentary history of the State of Maine, v. 3)*.—J. L. Chamberlain, *Maine, her place in*

history.—H. S. Burrage, *Beginnings of colonial Maine*.

MAINE, former province of northern France. See FRANCE: 1180-1224; Maps of medieval period: 1154-1360.

MAINE, United States battleship. Its sinking in Havana harbor, 1898, was the prelude to the Spanish-American war. The wreck was raised and resunk, 1911-1912. See U.S.A.: 1898 (February-March); CUBA: 1895-1898; 1011-1012.

MAINZ, Mayence, or Mentz, city in Germany, on the left bank of the Rhine near the influx of the Main. See GERMANY: Map.

Origin. See MOGONTIACUM.

406.—Destroyed by the Germans. See GAUL: 406-409.

851.—Poor relief laws. See CHARITIES: Germany: 9th-10th centuries.

12th-13th centuries.—German electorate. See GERMANY: 1125-1272.

1118.—Became a free city. See CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY.

1462.—Effect of capture by Adolph of Nassau on printing. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1457-1489.

1621.—Treaty of. See GERMANY: 1621-1623.

1631.—Occupied by Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden. See GERMANY: 1631; 1631-1632.

1785.—In League of Princes. See GERMANY: 1785.

1792.—Incorporation with the French republic. See FRANCE: 1792 (September-December).

1797.—Ceded to France by Treaty of Campo Formio. See FRANCE: 1797 (May-October).

1801-1803.—Extinction of electorate. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

1806.—Control of Frankfort.—Transfer of electorate from Ratisbon. See GERMANY: 1805-1806.

1815.—Fortress to be garrisoned by Germanic confederation. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1918.—Occupied by Allies. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: f, 1. **MAISON CARRÉE**, temple at Nîmes, France. See TEMPLES: Ancient examples.

MAJESFONTEIN, Battle of (1890). See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (October-December).

MAJESTAS, Law of.—“The law of Majestas or Treason . . . under the [Roman] empire . . . was the legal protection thrown round the person of the chief of the state: any attempt against the dignity or safety of the community became an attack on its glorified representative. Nevertheless, it is remarkable that the first legal enactment which received this title, half a century before the foundation of the empire, was actually devised for the protection, not of the state itself, but of a personage dear to the state, namely, the tribune of the people. Treason to the State indeed had long before been known, and defined as *Perduellio*, the levying of war against the commonwealth. . . . But the crime of majesty was first specified by the demagogue Apuleius, in an enactment of the year 654 [100 B.C.], for the purpose of guarding or exalting the dignity of the champion of the plebs. . . . The law of Apuleius was followed by that of another tribune, Varius, conceived in a similar spirit. . . . [After the constitution of Sulla] the distinction between Majestas and *Perduellio* henceforth vanishes: the crime of Treason is specifically extended from acts of violence to measures calculated to bring the State into contempt.”—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 44.

MAJORCA, largest of the Balearic islands, off the east coast of Spain.

1229.—Conquest by King James of Aragon. See SPAIN: 1212-1238; ARAGON.

1708.—Captured by the English in War of Spanish Succession. See SPAIN: 1707-1710.

MAJORIAN (Julius Valerius Majorianus), Roman emperor (Western), 457-461. See ROME: Empire: 455-476.

MAJUBA HILL, Battle of (1881). See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881.

MAKAROV, Stephan Osipovitch (1848-1904), Russian admiral. Served in the Russo-Japanese War. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

MAKINO, Baron, Japanese diplomat. Japanese representative at the Peace Conference, 1919. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

MALABAR, coastal district of the Madras presidency in British India. It is an important trading and fishing center. The population in 1911 was 3,015,110. See INDIA: 1408-1580.

1921.—Political unrest.—Collapse of civil government. See INDIA: 1921-1922.

MALACCA, capital of the territory of the same name in the Straits Settlements. (See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Land.) The region is chiefly devoted to agriculture. The population of the town and territory was about 97,000 in 1905.

1602.—Siege. See NETHERLANDS: 1594-1620.

1818.—Yielded to the Dutch. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement.

1824.—Restored to the British. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement.

MALACHY II, or *Maelsechlainn II*, king of Ireland, 980-1015. See IRELAND: 9th-10th centuries; 1014.

MALAGA, capital of the province of the same name in southern Spain, part of the old province of Andalusia, which was divided in 1833. It is noted for its fruit, oil and wines, is rich in minerals, and has important fisheries. It is next to Barcelona in importance as a Spanish seaport. In 1910 the population of the province was about 527,240 and that of the city, about 136,365 (1918).

711.—Taken by Arab-Moors. See SPAIN: 711-713.

1487.—Siege and capture by Christians. See SPAIN: 1476-1492.

MALAGASY, natives of Madagascar. See MADAGASCAR: Area.

MALAMOCO, early Paduan settlement. See VENICE: 452; 697-810.

MALARIA. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Development of bacteriology; 19th-20th centuries: Insect transmission of disease; FORMOSA: 1874-1910.

MALATE, district of Manila, Philippine islands. It was the scene of military operations before the capture of Manila. See U.S.A.: 1898 (July-September).

MALATESTA FAMILY.—“No one with any tincture of literary knowledge is ignorant of the fame at least of the great Malatesta family—the house of the *Wrongheads*, as they were rightly called by some prevision of their future part in Lombard history. . . . The story of Francesca da Polenta, who was wedded to the hunchback Giovanni Malatesta and murdered by him with her lover Paolo, is known not merely to students of Dante, but to readers of Byron and Leigh Hunt, to admirers of Flaxman, Ary Scheffer, Doré—to all, in fact, who have of art and letters any love. The history of these Malatesti, from their first establishment under Otho III. [900-1002] as lieutenants for the Empire in the Marches of Ancona, down to their final subjugation by the Papacy in the age of the Renaissance, is made up of all the vicissitudes which could befall a mediæval Italian despotism.

Acquiring an unlawful right over the towns of Rimini, Cesena, Sogliano, Ghiacciuolo, they ruled their petty principalities like tyrants by the help of the Guelph and Ghibelline factions, inclining to the one or the other as it suited their humour or their interest, wrangling among themselves, transmitting the succession of their dynasty through bastards and by deeds of force, quarrelling with their neighbours the Counts of Urbino, alternately defying and submitting to the Papal legates in Romagna, serving as condottieri in the wars of the Visconti and the state of Venice, and by their restlessness and genius for military intrigues contributing in no slight measure to the general disturbance of Italy. The Malatesti were a race of strongly marked character; more, perhaps, than any other house of Italian tyrants, they combined for generations those qualities of the fox and the lion which Machiavelli thought indispensable to a successful despot. . . . So far as Rimini is concerned, the house of Malatesta culminated in Sigismondo Pandolfo, son of Gian Galeazzo Visconti's general, the perfidious Pandolfo. . . . Having begun by defying the Holy See, he was impeached at Rome for heresy, parricide, incest, adultery, rape, and sacrilege, burned in effigy by Pope Pius II., and finally restored to the bosom of the Church, after suffering the despoliation of almost all his territories, in 1463. The occasion on which this fierce and turbulent despiser of laws human and divine was forced to kneel as a penitent before the Papal legate in the gorgeous temple dedicated to his own pride, in order that the ban of excommunication might be removed from Rimini, was one of those petty triumphs, interesting chiefly for their picturesqueness, by which the Popes confirmed their questionable rights over the cities of Romagna. Sigismondo, shorn of his sovereignty, took the command of the Venetian troops against the Turks in the Morea, and returned in 1465, crowned with laurels, to die at Rimini."—J. A. Symonds, *Sketches in Italy and Greece*, pp. 217-220.

ALSO IN: A. M. F. Robinson, *End of the Middle Ages*, pp. 274-209.

MALAY, MALAYSIAN, or BROWN, RACE.—"The Malay race may be defined as that grand division of mankind which is distinguished by its brown color and which is native to the Malay Archipelago and Peninsula and the Island of Madagascar, with perhaps a few related remnants of tribes in Indo-China. The Malay Archipelago includes the Philippines, but not New Guinea on the east. . . . All the languages spoken by the Malay race belong to the great Malayo-Polynesian family of languages. . . . While linguistically the Malays are radically distinct from the Mongolians, physically they approach them more nearly than any other great race. The lighter brown color found in some sections approaches the yellow of the Chinese, and the slanting eye, or 'Mongol fold' of the upper lid is frequently found where no intermixture can be assumed. . . . In temperament, and native civilization, however, the Malay is quite distinct. He has primitive cruel instincts more like those of the American Indian. He has nowhere accepted the Mongolian type of civilization so much as the Caucasian."—D. Folkmar, *Dictionary of races and peoples*, p. 94.—"In the Oceanic domain, which for ethnical purposes begins at the neck of the Malay peninsula, the Mongol peoples range from Madagascar eastwards to Formosa and Micronesia, but are found in compact masses chiefly on the mainland, in the Sunda Islands (Sumatra, Java, Lombok, Borneo, Celebes), and in the Philippines. Even here they have mingled in many places with other populations, forming fresh eth-

nical groups, in which the Mongol element is not always conspicuous. Such fusions have taken place with the negrito aborigines in the Malay peninsula and the Philippines; with Papuans in Micronesia, Flores, and other islands east of Lombok; with . . . dolichocephalic Indonesians in Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, Halmahera, parts of the Philippines, and perhaps also Timor and Ceram; and with African negroes (Bantu) in Madagascar. To unravel some of these racial entanglements is a . . . most difficult task. . . . The problem has been greatly . . . complicated by the indiscriminate extension of the term 'Malay' to all these and even to other mixed Oceanic populations farther east. . . . The essential point to remember is that the true Malays—who call themselves Orang-Malayu, speak the standard, but quite modern Malay language, and are all Mohammedans—are a historical people who appear on the scene in relatively recent times, ages after the insular world had been occupied by the Mongol peoples to whom their name has been extended, but who never call themselves Malays. The Orang-Malayu, who have acquired such an astonishing predominance in the Eastern Archipelago, were originally an obscure tribe in . . . Sumatra, . . . whose migrations date only from about the year 1160 A.D. . . . Sumatra . . . became the true centre for the later diffusion of the cultured Malays, their language, usages, and religion, throughout the Peninsula and the archipelago. . . . Beyond Sumatra . . . the Orang-Malayu are . . . in fact intruders on the other Malayan populations, with whom they collectively constitute the Oceanic branch of the Mongol division."—A. H. Keane, *Man past and present*, pp. 221, 222.—"The first inhabitants [of the Malay peninsula and the archipelago] were probably a black woolly-haired race, of which the pigmy representatives (Negritos) are the Andamanese, the Semang of the Malay Peninsula, the Aeta of the Philippines, and the pygmies of New Guinea; the taller varieties are the recently extinct Tasmanians, the Papuans proper, and the ground stock of the Melanesians. The Malay peninsula was first occupied in the twelfth century by the true Malays, Orang-Malayu, who crossed over from Sumatra; thence at the close of the thirteenth century they spread over the East Indian archipelago. . . . A mixture of proto-Malayans with Indonesians whom we may call Proto-Polynesians, drifted into the west Pacific, and gave to the black woolly-haired natives their language and some elements of higher culture, the resultant mixed peoples being the Melanesians. Later migrations fared further into the Pacific."—A. C. Haddon, *Wanderings of peoples*, pp. 33-36.

In the Philippines.—"The data at hand would seem to indicate that the bulk of the population of the Philippine Islands may be included in three racial types each of which presents certain distinctive characteristics. . . . These are I. Malay: affinities distinctly Mongoloid, . . . [Malayans proper, the dominant peoples, found in the coastal districts of all the Malayan islands and the peninsula]. II. Indonesian: affinities less Mongoloid than the Malay type, . . . [found in the interior of all Malay islands and the Malay peninsula]. III. Negrito: [affinities negroid, found in the hill regions of the Malay peninsula, the Philippine and the Andaman Islands]. The Philippine problem is a part of the much larger Malay problem. All through Malaysia we find an apparent stratification of the population. In the interior of the various islands, we find tribes variously called 'wild,' 'pagan' or 'head hunters.' Surrounding these on all sides are the more civilized tribes designated as

'civilized' or 'Christian.' These people for the most part live near the coast of the islands. Mingling with these peoples, we have the Mahomedan peoples known as 'historic Malays' or 'Moros.' This stratification is further complicated in some instances, notably the Philippine Islands, by the presence of a fourth element, the pygmy Negrito, who usually occupy the mountain wilds. . . . The Negrito were probably the first inhabitants of the islands. We had, in turn, two prehistoric Malay invasions. The first Malay invasion, probably from Borneo, drove the Negrito inland and the newcomers inhabited the coast. The second invasion, also prehistoric, drove the people of the first invasion inland."—L. R. Sullivan, *Anthropological Papers of the Museum of Natural History*, 1918, pp. 10-11.

See also MALAY ARCHIPELAGO: People; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: People; PACIFIC OCEAN: People; B. C. 2500-A. D. 1500; STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement; MADAGASCAR; FORMOSA: 1874-1910.

ALSO IN: M. Morris, *Race and custom in Malay archipelago* (*Journal of the American Oriental Society*, v. 27, p. 201).—W. W. Skeat, *Wild tribes of Malay peninsula* (*Report of Smithsonian Institution*, 1902, p. 463).

MALAY ARCHIPELAGO: Land.—The Malay archipelago is a group of islands which are botanically, zoologically, and ethnologically related to each other, and to the Malay peninsula. The larger islands are connected with each other by smaller islands, and the similarity of plants, animals, and human inhabitants throughout the archipelago makes of it a geographical unit. The islands lie almost uniformly in tropical waters and stretch from the Malay peninsula to the Philippines on the north, the Nicobar islands on the west, and the Solomon islands, beyond New Guinea, on the east. "The Malay Archipelago extends for more than 4,000 miles in length from east to west, and is about 1,300 in breadth from north to south. It would stretch over an expanse equal to that of all Europe from the extreme west far into Central Asia, or would cover the widest parts of South America, and extend far beyond the land into the Pacific and Atlantic oceans. It includes three islands larger than Great Britain; and in one of them, Borneo, the whole of the British Isles might be set down, and would be surrounded by a sea of forests. New Guinea, though less compact in shape, is probably larger than Borneo. Sumatra is about equal in extent to Great Britain; Java, Luzon, and Celebes are each about the size of Ireland. Eighteen more islands are, on the average, as large as Jamaica; more than a hundred are as large as the Isle of Wight; while the isles and islets of smaller size are innumerable. The absolute extent of land in the Archipelago is not greater than that contained by Western Europe from Hungary to Spain; but, owing to the manner in which the land is broken up and divided, the variety of its productions is rather in proportion to the immense surface over which the islands are spread, than to the quantity of land which they contain."—A. R. Wallace, *Malay archipelago*, pp. 4-5.—See also ASIA: Map; BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.

People.—The inhabitants of the Malay archipelago consist chiefly of the Malays. (See MALAY, MALAYSIAN, OR BROWN, RACE.) But in New Guinea and the eastern islands there are also the Papuans, a stalwart, black race, much superior to the Malays in physical strength, and, in some respects, superior also in character and intelligence. . . . "The Malays proper inhabit the Malay peninsula, and almost all the coast regions of Borneo and

Sumatra. They all speak the Malay language, or dialects of it; they write in the Arabic character, and are Mahometans in religion. The Javanese inhabit Java, part of Sumatra, Madura, Bali, and part of Lombok. They speak the Javanese and Kawi languages, which they write in a native character. They are now Mahometans in Java, but Brahmans in Bali and Lombok. The Bugis are the inhabitants of the greater parts of Celebes, and there seems to be an allied people in Sumbawa. They speak the Bugis and Macassar languages, with dialects, and have two different native characters in which they write these. They are all Mahometans. The fourth great race is that of the Tagalas in the Philippine Islands. . . . Many of them are now Christians, and speak Spanish as well as their native tongue, the Tagala. The Moluccan-Malays, who inhabit chiefly Ternate, Tidore, Batchian, and Amboyna, may be held to form a fifth division of semi-civilized Malays. They are all Mahometans, but they speak a variety of curious languages, which seem compounded of Bugis and Javanese, with the languages of the savage tribes of the Moluccas. The savage Malays are the Dyaks of Borneo; the Battaks and other wild tribes of Sumatra; the Jakuns of the Malay Peninsula; the aborigines of Northern Celebes, of the Sula island, and of part of Bouru."—A. R. Wallace, *Malay archipelago*, v. 2, p. 441.—"The different peoples making up the [Malay] race differ markedly from one another in culture. . . . Fourteen or fifteen hundred years ago Hinduism spread over Burma, Siam, and Java. Great cities were erected with splendid temples and huge idols, the ruins of which still remain, though their magnificence has gone and they are covered to-day with the growth of the jungles."—D. P. Barrows, *History of the Philippines*, p. 37.

Before sixteenth century.—Origin and early history previous to discovery by Europeans.—Influence of Hinduism and Mohammedanism.—Native race previous to European contact.—Origin.—"It is thought that the Malayan race originated in southeastern Asia. From the mainland it spread down into the peninsula and so scattered southward and eastward over the rich neighboring islands. Probably these early Malaysians found the little Negritos in possession and slowly drove them backward, destroying them from many islands until they no longer exist except in the places we have already named. With the beginning of this migratory movement which carried them from one island to another of the great East Indian Archipelago, these early Malaysians must have invented the boats or praus for which they are famed and have become skillful sailors living much upon the sea. . . . Life for many generations, upon these islands, so warm, tropical, and fruitful, gradually modified these emigrants from Asia, until they became in mind and body quite a different race from the Mongol inhabitants of the mainland. Previous to their discovery by Europeans they seem to have come in contact, in varying degrees, both with Hinduism and Mohammedanism. The powerful civilization of the Hindus, established . . . in Malaysia, greatly affected the Malayan people on these islands, as well as those who came to the Philippines. Many words in the Tagalog have been shown to have a Sanskrit origin, and the systems of writing which the Spaniards found in use among several of the Filipino peoples had certainly been developed from the alphabet then in use among these Hindu peoples of Java. . . . Not only did Mohammedanism move westward over Africa and Europe, it was carried eastward as well. Animated by their faith, the

Arabs became the greatest sailors, explorers, merchants, and geographers of the age. They sailed from the Red Sea down the coast of Africa as far as Madagascar, and eastward to India, where they had settlements on both the Malabar and Coromandel coasts. Thence Arab missionaries brought their faith to Malaysia. At that time the true Malays, the tribe from which the common term 'Malayan' has been derived, were a small people of Sumatra. At least as early as 1250 they were converted to Mohammedanism, brought to them by these Arabian missionaries, and under the impulse of this mighty faith they broke from their obscurity and commenced that great conquest and expansion that has diffused their power, language, and religion throughout the East Indies. A powerful Mohammedan Malay settlement was established on the western coasts of Borneo probably as early as 1400. The more primitive inhabitants, like the Dyaks, who were a tribe of the primitive Malays, were defeated, and the possession of parts of the coast taken from them. From this coast of Borneo came many of the adventurers who were traversing the seas of the Philippines when the Spaniards arrived."—D. P. Barrows, *History of the Philippines*, pp. 31, 32, 38, 40.

1500.—Characteristics of the Malay archipelago at the beginning of the sixteenth century.—"If now we look at the Malay Islands, we find . . . that changes had been effected there. Hinduism had first elevated and civilized at least a portion of the race, and Mohammedanism and the daring seamanship of the Malay had united these islands under a common language and religion. There was, however, no political union. The Malay peninsula was divided. Java formed a central Malay power. Eastward among the beautiful Celebes and Moluccas, the true Spice Islands, were a multitude of small native rulers, rajas or datos, who surrounded themselves with retainers, kept rude courts, and gathered wealthy tributaries of cinnamon, nutmegs, and cloves. The sultans of Ternate, Tidor, and Amboina were especially powerful, and the islands they ruled the most rich and productive. Between all these islands there was a busy commerce. The Malay is an intrepid sailor, and an eager trader. Fleets of praus, laden with goods, passed with the changing monsoons from part to part, risking the perils of piracy, which have always troubled this archipelago. Borneo, while the largest of all these islands, was the least developed, and down to the present day has been hardly explored. The Philippines were also outside of most of this busy intercourse and had at that date few products to offer for trade. Their main connection with the rest of the Malay race was through the Mohammedan Malays of Jolo and Borneo. The fame of the Spice Islands had long filled Europe, but the existence of the Philippines was unknown."—D. P. Barrows, *History of the Philippines*, pp. 50-60.—Since there never was any real political union in the Malay archipelago, and since several of the islands, while retaining the same original characteristics, developed in highly individual ways, the history of the Malay archipelago becomes the history of its individual units.

See also BORNEO; CELEBES; FLORES; JAVA; LOMBOK; MOLUCCAS; NEW GUINEA; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS; PORTUGUESE TIMOR; SUMATRA.

MALAY PENINSULA, or Malacca.—"The term 'Malay Peninsula' covers that portion of Asia which forms a prolongation of the narrow neck of land, known as the Isthmus of Kra, where Burmese territory abuts on Lower Siam.

. . . Except for a small piece of Siamese territory on the east coast, this area is under British rule or influence, and covers with adjacent islands approximately 52,500 square miles. It is bounded on the west by the Straits of Malacca, on the east by the South China Sea, and on the south by the shallow waters in which are set the green islands of the Riau-Lingga Archipelago. Politically that part of the Malay Peninsula under British rule or protection is divided into: 1. The Crown Colony of the Straits Settlements, comprising the island of Singapore, the island of Penang with Province Wellesley and the Dindings, and the Settlement of Malacca. 2. The Federated Malay States: Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and Pahang. 3. The Unfederated Malay States: Johore, Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan and Trengganu."—R. O. Winstedt, *Malaya*, p. 2.—See also ASIA: Map; STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

Inhabitants. See MALAY, MALAYSIAN OR BROWN RACE.

MALAYĀLAM, or Malabar language. See PHILOLOGY: 16.

MALAYO-POLYNESIAN LANGUAGES. See PHILOLOGY: 27; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Language.

MALCOLM I (Malcolm MacDonald) (d. 954), king of Scotland, 943-954.

Malcolm II (Malcolm MacKenneth), (d. 1034), king of Scotland, 1005-1034. See SCOTLAND: 1005-1034.

Malcolm III (Malcolm MacDuncan) called Canmore (d. 1003), king of Scotland, 1057-1003. See SCOTLAND: 1066-1003.

Malcolm IV, the Maiden (1141-1165), king of Scotland, 1153-1165.

MALDIVES.—The Maldive archipelago, southwest of India and Ceylon, embracing a long series of groups of small coral islands (atolls), is a dependency of Ceylon, and the Sultan of the Maldives pays allegiance to the British government. The population in 1922 was over 70,000, all Mohammedans.—See also INDIA: 1408-1580; 1665-1743.

MALDON, Battle of (901), fought by the English against an invading army of Norwegians, who proved the victors. The battle, with the heroic death of the English leader, Brihtnoth, became the subject of a famous Early-English poem, which is translated in Freeman's "Old English History for Children." The field of battle was on the Blackwater in Essex.

MALEK SHAH, Seljuk Turkish sultan, 1073-1002. See TURKEY: 1063-1073.

MALESHERBES, Chrétien Guillaume de Lamoignon de (1721-1794), French statesman. Minister under Louis XVI and counsel for his defense before the Convention, 1792-1793; condemned to death by the revolutionary tribunal on a charge of treason, 1793. See FRANCE: 1774-1788.

MALHERBE, François de (1555-1628), French poet and critic. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1600-1630.

MALIANS, or Melians, one of the early peoples of Greece, who dwelt on the Malian gulf. See DORIS AND DRYOPIS.

MALIGNANTS, name given by the Roundheads to the king's party in the English civil war and during the Commonwealth.

MALINES, or Mechlin, city of Belgium fourteen miles southeast of Antwerp. See NETHERLANDS: Map.

1572.—Massacre by Alva. See NETHERLANDS: 1572-1573.

1579.—Betrayed to Spain. See NETHERLANDS: 1577-1581.

1585.—Surrender to the Spaniards. See NETHERLANDS: 1584-1585.

1706.—Taken by Marlborough. See NETHERLANDS: 1706-1707.

1914-1918.—Taken by the Germans and occupied until the end of the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: e; y; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: a, 7.

MALLESON, Sir Wilfrid, British general. Served on the general staff, India, 1905-1914; commanded a brigade in British East Africa, 1915-1916; head of the British mission to Turkestan, 1918-1920; served in the Afghan War, 1919. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: b, 1; b, 2; 1916: VII. African theater: a; a, 3.

MALLUM, old assembly or council of the Franks.

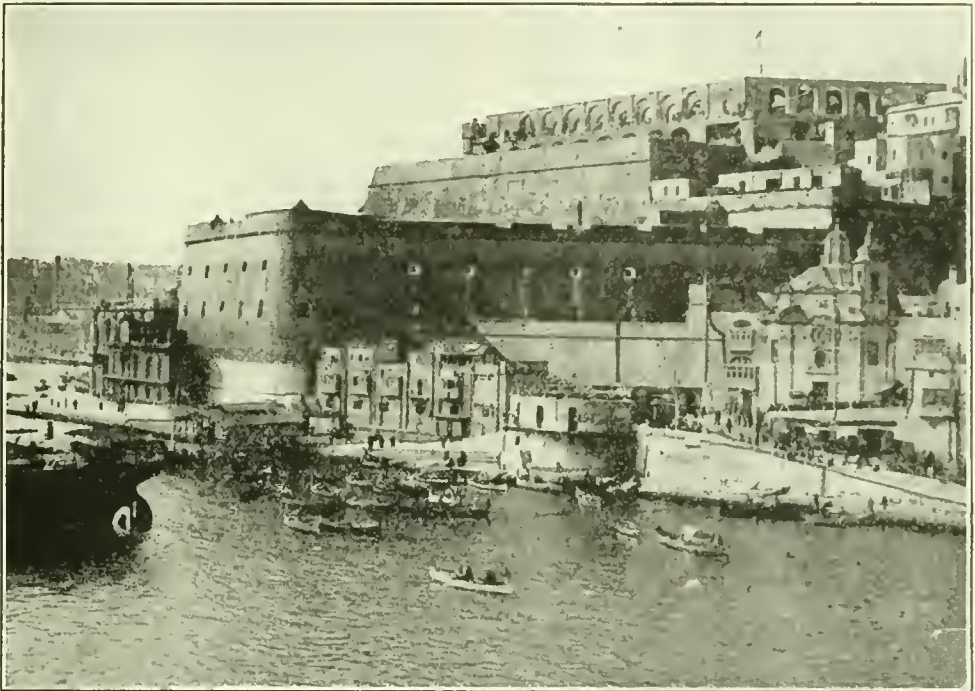
MALORY, Sir Thomas (fl. 1470), translator of the "Morte d'Arthur." See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 15th century.

MALOUN, Capture of (1816). See INDIA: 1805-1816.

MALPIGHI, Marcello (1628-1694), Italian anatomist. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th century: Harvey, etc.

MALPLAQUET, Battle of (1709). See NETHERLANDS: 1708-1709.

MALTA, Island of: Geographical description.—Area.—Population.—Commerce.—Language.—Importance in history.—"Malta is a British Colony administered by a Governor, who is also in command of the Garrison. It includes the two islands of Malta and Gozo, and has an area of 117 square miles and a population of about 250,000. The chief town and seaport is



CITADEL OF VALLETTA, MALTA

MALMAISON, chateau and park presented to the French government in 1900 by Daniel Osiris, situated near the town of Rueil, about seven miles from Paris. The chateau, an eighteenth century building, takes its name from the hamlet of Malmaison, so named in the thirteenth century from the fact that it was a notorious refuge for outlaws. It was occupied by the Empress Josephine, before her marriage to Napoleon, and after her divorce until her death.—See also WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: b, 2, i.

MALMAISON, Constitution of (1801). See FRANCE: 1801-1803.

MALMEDY, town and district north of Luxembourg. It was ceded with Eupen and Moresnet by Germany to Belgium as a result of the World War. See BELGIUM: 1919 (June 28); 1920 (January); VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part III; Section I.

MALMÖ, Armistice of (1848). See DENMARK: 1848-1862; GERMANY: 1848 (March-September).

MALMÖ MEETING (1914). See SWEDEN: 1914-1918.

Valletta, with a population of 25,000. Malta lies about halfway between Gibraltar and Port Said, [see AFRICA: Map] and 50 miles south of Sicily, in latitude 36° n. [The island is strongly fortified, and is the chief station of the British Mediterranean fleet.] It commands the great trade-route between Western Europe, India and the East. The total trade is valued at about . . . [£5,000,000], of which over . . . [£4,000,000] represents imports. This is due to the fact that supplies for the garrison and for civil servants are imported, while many Maltese are engaged about the harbours and docks, or as merchant sailors, since Malta is an important calling and bunkering station for ships. . . . Bunkering coal is imported and exported to the value of about half a million sterling, while wheat and flour, cattle food, petroleum and textiles are other heavy items on the import list. There is a considerable trade in luxury articles. About 43,000 acres of land are under cultivation, wheat being the chief crop, although the harvest is quite inadequate to local needs. Potatoes, onions, tomatoes and other

vegetables, besides citrons and other fruit are grown for export. . . . The chief domestic animals are sheep and goats. There is a small manufacture of lace and cigarettes. The islands are over populated, and there is considerable emigration to the continent, the United States, and North Africa, the destination of the emigrants varying according to the state of the labour market."—E. G. R. Taylor, *Business man's geography*, p. 332.—In the later Stone Age, Malta was inhabited by a people who may have belonged to the stock from which the Basques and Iberians have sprung. Remains of remarkable megalithic temples and monuments erected by these people are found in various parts of the island. "By reason of its secure anchorage and its position between the African and European seaboard, . . . Malta has been, even from early classical times, the coveted prize of those nations who sought to extend their commerce and increase their possession by maritime power. It has been, in consequence, the meeting-place and the battleground of such various protagonists as the Carthaginians, Romans, Arabs, and Normans, to name only a few of the races which have directed the destinies of the island. The Maltese are a homogeneous race, distinct from their African or European neighbours in language and character, and with national customs of which they are tenacious and proud. They are descended from the Phœnicians, who colonized the island a thousand years before Christ. From this stock they inherit their native tongue, which is neither English nor Italian, but a patois [a mixture of the old Phœnician (or Semitic) Arabic, Latin and Italian]. . . . Many races have ruled Malta since the coming of the Phœnician, but few have sent settlers to the island in sufficient numbers to crush out the primitive inhabitants, and so down to this day the Phœnician strain predominates. Some ancient families, indeed, especially among the nobility, are of foreign extraction, bearing Italian, French, Spanish, or other surnames; they came to the island long ago, intermarried with the natives, and are now more Maltese than the Maltese themselves. Environment has, no doubt, in part done this, as well as the use from infancy of the Maltese tongue, universal as the language of domestic life by both high and low in the island; hence, the Maltese present a study in national development in many ways unique. A people, so small in numbers, with a territory so valuable, could not, however, live their life entirely uninfluenced by the rest of the world, and Malta has, in consequence, been drawn into most great movements. It is no exaggeration to say, with a native writer, that in local records may be read in microcosm the history of Europe; while in the archaeological remains found, the island presents a complete picture of the various stages of Western civilization. Here Hamilcar surrendered to Titus Sempronius Gracchus, when Carthage ceded her command of the Great Sea to Rome. Saint Paul the Apostle, shipwrecked upon the island, preached Christianity to the Maltese. Feudalism came early into Malta, and stayed, under the régime of the Knights, an interesting anachronism, until the eighteenth century. In the wars of the Crescent and the Cross, Malta became, under the Knights, the bulwark of Christian Europe; in later days Napoleon saw its importance as a naval and military base when he declared to the British Ambassador in Paris: 'Peace or war depends upon Malta. . . . I would rather put you in possession of the heights of Montmartre than of Malta.' . . . When Garibaldi entered Rome, the Vatican considered the possibility of transferring the Holy See to Malta, always loyal to the

Papal connection. These are but a few cases in which the island has been a factor in European events, and as we come to know local history better, we find the Maltese people themselves have played, within the narrow compass of their island, a part not ignoble. Hence, the problems of race, language, and religion which confront the Government of Malta to-day, . . . have sprung from seed long sown in a field long prepared."—F. W. Ryan, *Malta*, pp. 2-5.

B. C. 500-A. D. 870.—Phœnician and Roman domination.—Saint Paul's shipwreck.—There are still left a few remains of houses and cisterns from the time of the Phœnician period. (See also PHœNICIANS: Origin.) Carthaginian settlements date from the sixth century B. C. There are a number of references by Roman writers in regard to the history and monuments of this period and there are also found tomb caves in the hill-sides which contain urns full of human bones, and beautiful vessels of iridescent glass. The capital of Malta during Carthaginian and Roman days was the present city of Notabile. Here, during the first century A. D., and after, a Roman governor was apparently stationed. About 60 A. D., St. Paul was shipwrecked on Malta and the inhabitants are described in the Acts of the Apostles as "barbarous" people, Lind and superstitious. In 395, Malta was transferred to the Eastern empire and was governed from Constantinople.

870-1530.—From Arab to Norman domination.—In 870 the island was conquered by the Arabs. The fortress of St. Angelo, at the entrance to the Grand Harbor was built by them on a site formerly occupied by the Roman temple to Juno; and numbers of Arab graves with Semitic inscriptions have been excavated among the ruins of the Roman villa at Notabile. "The Maltese Islands flourished considerably under the Arabs. It even seems likely that they found an independent state, with a fleet of their own. But difference of religion . . . proved an insuperable barrier between the two races. . . . In A. D. 1090, Roger the Norman completed his conquest of Sicily by landing on our shores . . . [He] marched in bloodless triumph through the gates of our old capital, and was acclaimed lord of the island. . . . [The Arabs succeeded in recapturing the island in 1127, but were soon dislodged.] From that time Malta became a part of the Kingdom of Sicily, and for four and a half centuries underwent the same changes of rulers and dynasties and practically the same fate as the larger island. During that long period Malta, by reason of its position, was called upon to assume the rôle of policing the Mediterranean, . . . first against the pirates and the Barbary corsairs, and then against the Ottomans."—A. Bartolo, *Malta and sea power (United Empire, Royal Colonial Institute Journal, Dec., 1920)*.—At the end of the twelfth century Malta became a fief of the grand admiral of Sicily. Late in the thirteenth century, the island came into possession of Peter of Aragon, and through him descended to Charles V.

1530-1798.—Possession by the Knights of St. John.—After the Knights of St. John had been driven from the island of Rhodes by the Turks, the Emperor Charles ceded Malta to them as a refuge for the order. The knights fortified themselves strongly in the peninsula which is overlooked by the Castle of San Angelo, in prevision of a Mohammedan attack. It came in 1565 when the island was besieged from May to September. La Valette, the grand hospitaller of the order, conducted the defence with energy and wisdom, and the Mohammedan force was defeated in September

with great loss. The story of the siege is almost the same from day to day: efforts to take the city by storm, constantly repulsed; mines and counter mines; fights in the water between Turkish swimmers armed with axes, endeavoring to cut the chain at the mouth of the creek, and Maltese swimmers with daggers defending it. "It became evident however, that succour could not be long delayed. When even Protestant England put up public prayers in her churches for the deliverance of Malta, the saturnine Philip must have felt shamed into action. The superhuman exertions of the defenders, continued so unintermittingly under the tropical heat of a Malta summer, could not endure for ever. La Valette himself had moved his quarters to a small house near the chief point of attack, where his arms are this day visible, carved in the wall: this movement was probably made in consequence of a suggestion which had been brought forward, in anticipation of another grand attack, of which they had been forewarned, on the 23rd August, that they should abandon the towns, and defend themselves in the castle of St. Angelo. The assault was repulsed, and so was another on the 1st of September, when the besiegers actually were forced to the charge by blows from the swords of their own officers. Yet when the Viceroy of Sicily called a council, a speaker urged that considering the expressed intention of the Turks to abandon Malta after destroying the Order, it would be better to allow them to do so, and reoccupy it. Happily this prudent counsellor stood alone. At length a horseman brought news to Mustapha, just as he was assembling his hordes for one more effort to storm the defences, that an army had landed from Sicily: at once a retreat was commenced, and all the war material hurried to the ships, which was scarcely effected ere the garrison occupied the deserted posts, and the Turkish commanders learned that less than 9,000 men had landed from the Christian fleet. Hurriedly determining to try the fortune of war once more, Mustapha landed about an equal number of soldiers at St. Paul's Bay, and began a march towards the capital. An irregular skirmish with the advanced guard led to a general engagement, in which the Mahometan force was driven to the ships with heavy loss. So ended this famous siege; about 40,000 men had been engaged in the attack, of whom barely 15,000 survived to return to Constantinople. The number of those engaged in the defence was originally under 9,000, and about 700 were added in the course of the struggle; of those only 600 were left unwounded at the close. It was a world-renowned effort of heroic endurance."—W. K. R. Bedford, *Malta and the knights hospitallers*, pp. 25-26.—"The full effects of the crushing defeat inflicted by the little rock of Malta on the flower of the Ottoman Army was the first staggering blow dealt at the power of the Turks, and its effects, though perhaps not fully realised at the time, were not considerably underrated. . . . Viewing the events of three and a half centuries ago in the light of modern principles, it is easy to explain their importance by the simple reflection that, in the hands of the Turks, Malta would have proved an invaluable naval base, such as would have rendered them masters of the Mediterranean."—A. Bartolo, *Malta and sea power (United Empire, Royal Colonial Institute Journal, Dec., 1920)*.—See also HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM: 1522; 1530-1565; BARBARY STATES: 1543-1560.

1798-1799.—French seizure and surrender.—The rule of the Knights of Saint John lasted until

June 1798, when Napoleon, on his way to Egypt, took possession of the island, and expelled the order. The French were, however, compelled to surrender to the allies in the following year.—See also FRANCE: 1798 (May-August); 1801-1802.

1814.—Ceded to England.—"By the terms of the Treaty [of Amiens, 1802] Malta was to remain in English hands until the guarantees laid down in the same Treaty were given; but as these guarantees did not appear to be forthcoming, England refused to evacuate Malta. [See FRANCE: 1802-1804.] Napoleon was furious at what he regarded as a breach of faith. . . . His anxiety and his threats . . . betrayed his plans, which were soon to be completely unmasked. 'Peace or war depends upon Malta,' he said to the British Ambassador in Paris. . . . Although the Treaty of Paris, which recognised the British sovereignty over Malta, was not signed till 1814, . . . Malta had definitely passed to England long before that time—by the victory of Trafalgar."—A. Bartolo, *Malta and sea power (United Empire, Royal Colonial Institute Journal, Dec., 1920)*.—See also FRANCE: 1814 (April-June).

1814-1901.—Government under British rule.—Friction.—Strickland-Mizzi constitution.—In a speech made in the British House of Commons on January 28, 1901, Chamberlain gave a brief resumé of the history of the island, under British rule down to that date. "We did not conquer the Maltese, we were fighting side by side with them, but never against them. It was not a conquest, it was a cession by the representative authorities of the Maltese. . . . The Constitution, if indeed it can be called a Constitution, which existed at the time of the cession and for a great many years afterwards, was a purely autocratic Constitution. The Governor was judge and jury in every case in which Imperial interests were concerned; he was the Grand Elector, he was the representative authority; all laws were made by him. Sir Thomas Maitland, who was Governor from 1813 to 1824, was the best type of a beneficent despot; but from 1803 to 1838, that is, for thirty-five years, the Constitution of Malta was absolutely autocratic; there was no representation of any kind. In 1838 a representative element was introduced for the first time, but it was not an elective one. The Council of Government then consisted of the Governor and six persons, all of whom were nominated by the Governor. Three of them were official members, and three of them unofficial. These were the gentlemen who, up to 1840, made the laws of Malta. In that year, for the first time, . . . elected members were introduced. The Council of Government then consisted of the Governor, with nine nominated and eight elected members. But, under this constitution, as under the previous one, the Governor, in the last resort—representing the Imperial authority, the security of the fortress, and the interests of the Empire—was supreme. The elected gentlemen were called in to advise and assist him, but the will of the Imperial Government prevailed. . . . [But in 1887] in deference to the wishes expressed by the representatives of a section of the Maltese population, for the first time [by what is known as the Strickland-Mizzi constitution] a majority of the Council of Government was given to the elected members. The Council consisted . . . of the Governor and six officials, with fourteen elected members. The consequence is that the control of the finances . . . [has been transferred to] the elected members. . . . They could refuse every penny for every service in the island; and, in those circumstances, the position of

the Government in the maintenance of this fortress would be one of the greatest difficulty. . . . Legislation by Order in Council [however] was expressly reserved . . . and, if the powers of the elected members are abused in any way, the Imperial Government has it always in its power to legislate over their heads by means of this order in Council. Friction, however, continued. The language question has been brought into the foreground, and made the dominant one. . . . Since our Government will not grant the demands of this party, the elected majority in the Council has refused to vote money for new schools, and for teachers' salaries. It has blocked our Government proposals for drainage-works, water-works, hospitals, asylums, street-improvements, harbours and jetties, etc., etc. . . . This local Council in the island, refusing to act in the way in which our Governor, Sir Francis Grenfell, and our Chief Secretary, Sir Gerald Strickland desire—as instructed by the Government at home—the Cabinet . . . issued an "Order in Council," to meet the difficulty by taxation. . . . Now the Government, having considered the state of things, decided that when purely local interests were concerned, we must—so long as there are elected members—allow them to play ducks and drakes with the interests of their constituents; but wherever Imperial interests are concerned—or where there are interests that so considerably affect the welfare of the population that they become Imperial interests—we must interfere."—W. Knight, *Malta (Fortnightly Review, Apr., 1903)*.

1903.—**Repeal of constitution.**—Antagonism between the political forces in the island and the imperial government was not allayed by the action taken under the order in council. The elected members refused to vote supplies, or even to attend the meetings of the council. The marriage laws, and education, were burning questions; but the chief opposition centered around the question of the official language which the official authorities desired should be English, and the majority of the elected members, with equal persistency insisted should be Italian. In 1903, therefore, the constitution was repealed, and an executive government of thirteen official members instituted by letters patent.

1903-1920.—**Administration.**—In 1909 the constitution of 1903 was modified by the admission of two elected members of the legislative council to the executive council. No further change was made, and the government continued to consist of a governor, an executive council of eleven official, and two unofficial members, and a legislative council of ten official and eight elected members besides the president and vice-president. The governor was president of both councils. Revenue was raised entirely by indirect taxation.

1921.—**Constitution providing self-government.**—"In 1921 the island of Malta received a new constitution which has placed it in a position above any of the Crown Colonies. It was granted responsible self-government, such as exists in the Dominions, for purely local affairs, while matters of imperial concern were retained under the control of the Governor, assisted by an Executive Council. In 1919 there was a very evident desire in Malta for a constitution granting responsible government. The National Assembly proposed a draft constitution, which was made the basis of a second draft constitution prepared by the Colonial Office. This, in turn, received wide discussion; the completed document was formally put into effect in May, 1921. The Maltese constitution makes

provision for two concurrent systems of government, one for matters of imperial concern and one for purely local affairs. The two are united in the person of the chief Crown appointee, who is known as the Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Malta; from one aspect he is the mouthpiece of the Imperial Government, from another aspect the head of a self-governing community. The constitution provides for a legislature of two houses. There is a Ministry responsible to the legislature, as in the Dominions. English and Italian are recognized as the official languages; speeches in the legislature may be in Maltese as well. Matters of imperial concern which are without the jurisdiction of the constitution are such as affect the general defense of the Empire and the position of Malta as an imperial fortress, dockyard, and maritime center. This novel constitutional experiment has been made in order to grant a colony of great imperial importance, with a population largely non-British, a measure of self-government; this diarchical system seemingly answers the objection that one might about as well grant a constitution to a battleship as give one to Malta."—H. Robinson, *Development of the British empire, pp. 439-440*.

See also MASONIC SOCIETIES: Malta.

ALSO IN: W. Hardman, *History of Malta (1798-1815)*.

MALTA, Knights of. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM.

MALTHUS, Thomas Robert (1766-1834), English political economist. See MALTHUSIAN DOCTRINE; STATISTICS: Laws of growth of population; CHARITIES: England: 1782-1834.

MALTHUSIAN DOCTRINE, the name commonly associated with a theory of population enunciated by Thomas Robert Malthus toward the end of the eighteenth century. Malthus did not originate the idea that population tends to increase excessively. In his first essay, 1798, he was indebted to the works of Wallace, Hume, Smith and Price, and he later acknowledged what had been done by Montesquieu, Franklin, Stewart, Young and Townsend. Malthus was acquainted with Rousseau and Hume, and the latter must have exercised some influence over him. The immediate cause of his "Essay on Population" was furnished by the writings of William Godwin, who in 1793 had published a work entitled "Inquiry concerning political justice and its influence on morals and happiness." In it Godwin held that government, which he described as a necessary evil, is to blame for the unhappiness and misfortunes of man. This book was much discussed, and excited much controversy. It was in reply to an essay of Godwin's on avarice and prodigality (1797) that Malthus in 1798 published his "Essay on the principle of population." He endeavored to prove that abolition of government could not restore an Eden on earth, because the cause of unhappiness and misfortune is to be found in our weak and imperfect natures. Malthus held that human institutions, far from increasing, had tended to mitigate misery, though they could never remove it altogether. He assumed two premises: (1) Food is necessary to the existence of man; (2) Passion between the sexes is necessary and will remain nearly in the present state. His complete doctrine finally was: History shows that population has a constant tendency to increase beyond the means of subsistence and is kept to its necessary level by various positive and negative checks, including moral restraint. This conclusion rests upon the natural operation of three factors: (1) Natural rate of increase of population; (2) Rate of increase of means of subsistence; (3) External checks

on increase of population. Despite the criticism and derogatory estimate of his contemporaries and followers, Malthus's claim to importance as an original thinker is supported by many of the best present day thinkers. Perhaps the most vitriolic attack within the memory of men now living was made by Henry George in "Progress and poverty." Taking his most careful statement of the three factors in his problem separately, and considering them only as tendencies in the sense that they would be true if not interfered with, they may be accepted; but Malthus sometimes states them so that their character as mere potential tendencies is forgotten. He has also been criticised for lack of foresight in his view of the possibilities of increased subsistence through improvements in agricultural science and transportation. He did not seem to appreciate fully the possible effects of an increase of population in increasing the rate of increase of subsistence. However, he was the first to devote a treatise to the principle of population, and he deserves great credit for calling attention to economic significance of an hitherto neglected subject. It is important to note that the Malthusian doctrine was partly instrumental in leading Darwin to his doctrine of natural selection. In addition, Malthus also collected a mass of valuable facts illustrative of his doctrine—on emigration, poor laws and various customs. These influenced legislation considerably and gave him a place among the founders of historical economics. Darwin himself said that his theory of the struggle for existence was only "the doctrine of Malthus applied with manifold force to the whole animal kingdom." The Malthusian theory is essential to an understanding of the problems of social reform even in our day. John Stuart Mill was prevented from unreservedly advocating governmental interference with wages, of a highly socialistic character, only by his belief in the theory of population of Malthus. The economist cannot go far without recognizing the tendencies with which Malthus dealt. Attempts to solve modern social problems without taking into consideration the principle of population, are foredoomed to failure.—See also STATISTICS: Laws of growth of population; ECONOMICS: 18th-19th centuries.

Also in: L. H. Haney, *History of economic thought*, pp. 101-211.—F. W. Taussig, *Principles of economics*, pp. 209-214.

MALVASIA, Battle of (1263). See GENOA: 1261-1200.

MALVERN CHASE.—An ancient royal forest in Worcestershire, England, between Malvern Hills and the river Severn. Few remains of it exist.—J. C. Brown, *Forests of England*.

MALVERN HILL, Battle of: 1781. See U.S.A.: 1781 (May-October).

1862. See U.S.A.: 1862 (June-July: Virginia).

MALVY, Louis Jean, French cabinet officer. Minister of the interior in the Ribot cabinet, 1917; implicated in the defeatist propaganda of Caillaux, Humbert, Bolo Pasha and others. See FRANCE: 1918; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: II. Espionage: a, 3.

MAMACONAS. See YANACONAS.

MAMAKHATUN, town of Armenia. It was occupied by the Russians during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 3; d, 5; d, 6.

MAMELUKE, or **SLAVE DYNASTY**, India. See INDIA: 977-1200.

MAMELUKES, slave soldiers maintained by the sultans of Egypt. By the thirteenth century the Mamelukes had risen to power and were sufficiently secure to proclaim and depose sultans.

From 1250 to 1517 the throne was occupied either by descendants of Mamelukes, or by aspirants from among their ranks. See EGYPT: 1250-1517; 1517-1798; 1803-1811; TURKEY: 1481-1520; DAMIETTA.

MAMELUKES, political party of Geneva. See GENEVA: 1504-1535.

MAMELUKES OF BRAZIL. See BRAZIL: 1531-1641.

MAMERTINE PRISON.—The ancient "carcer" or prison of Rome, containing two cells, one above the other, with no entrance to the upper except through a small opening in the roof, nor to the lower except from the upper. "Varro expressly tells us that the lower part of the prison, which was underground, was called Tullianum because it was added by Servius Tullius."—H. M. Westropp, *Early and imperial Rome*, p. 93.—"The oldest portion of the horror-striking Mamertine Prisons . . . is the most ancient among all Roman buildings still extant as originally constructed."

—C. I. Hemans, *Historic and monumental Rome*, ch. 4.—"Here, Jugurtha, king of Mauritania, was starved to death by Marius. Here Julius Cæsar, during his triumph for the conquest of Gaul, caused his gallant enemy Vercingetorix to be put to death. . . . The spot is more interesting to the Christian world as the prison of SS. Peter and Paul."—A. J. C. Hare, *Walks in Rome*, ch. 3.

MAMERTINI, mercenaries from Campaña. In about B.C. 289 they seized Messina (now Messina) and were instrumental in bringing about the First Punic War. See PUNIC WARS: First.

MAMETZ, village in northeastern France, four miles east of Albert. It was taken by the British during the battle of the Somme, 1916. See WORLD WAR: 116: II. Western front: d, 5; d, 6.

MAMUN (originally Abdallah), Abbasid caliph, 813-833. See BAGDAD: 763-833.

MAN, Bishopric of. See SODOR AND MAN, BISHOPRIC OF.

MAN, Isle of. See MANX KINGDOM.

MAN, Prehistoric. See EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.

MAN IN THE IRON MASK. See IRON MASK, MAN IN THE.

MAN POWER ACT. See U.S.A.: 1918 (August).

MANACICOS INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Inca area.

MANAGUA, TREATY OF (1860). See NICARAGUA: 1860-1880.

MANAOS, American aboriginal tribe. See GUCK OR COCO GROUP.

MANASSAS, or **Bull Run**, First Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1861 (July: Virginia).

Confederate evacuation. See U.S.A.: 1861-1862 (December-March: Virginia).

Second Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1862 (August-September: Virginia): End of General Pope's campaign.

MANASSEH, king of Judah, 697-642 B.C. See JEWS: B.C. 724-604.

MANASSEH, tribe of Israel. See JEWS: Israel under the Judges.

MANAVAS, school of Hindus. See MANU, LAWS OF.

MANCHESTER, Edward Montagu, 2nd Earl of (Lord Kimbolton and Viscount Mandeville) (1602-1671), English general and statesman. Leader of the popular party in the House of Lords at beginning of the Long Parliament; impeached for high treason, 1642; major-general of the parliamentary forces in the eastern counties, 1643; in supreme command at Marston Moor, 1644; resigned his commission in the army, 1645;

opposed the ordinance for trial of the king, 1649. See ENGLAND: 1642 (January); 1644 (January-July); 1644-1645.

MANCHESTER, county, borough and city in southeastern Lancashire, England, thirty-one miles northeast of Liverpool. Roman remains are plentiful, but the first mention of the city is found in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle of the year 923, when reference is made to Mamcester, or Mameceaster. The town suffered from the Danes, but continued to prosper. There is a record of fulling mills at work in the thirteenth century.

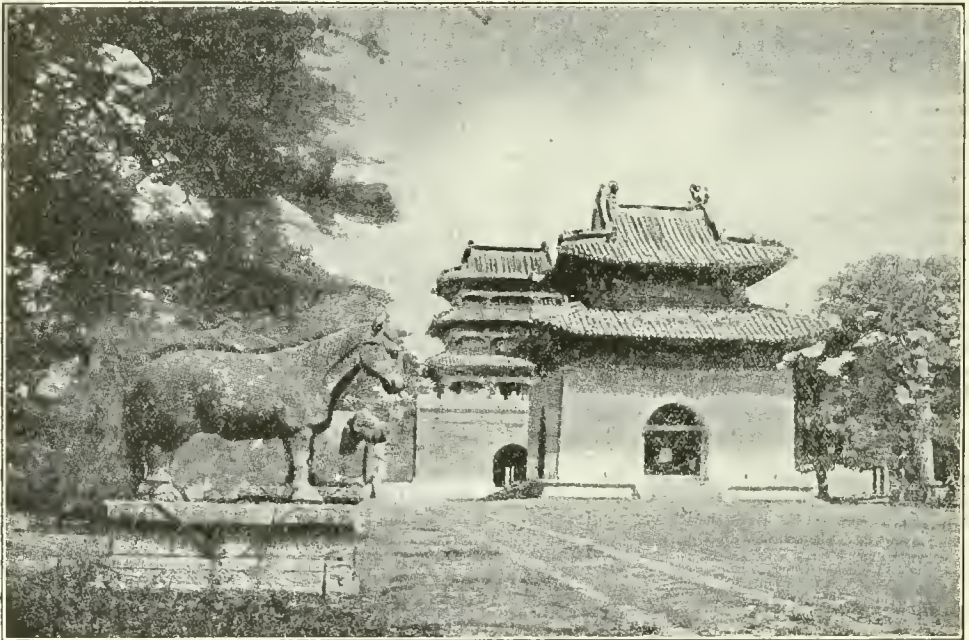
Origin. See MANCUNIAM.

1817-1819.—**March of Blanketeers.**—**Massacre of Peterloo.** See ENGLAND: 1810-1820.

1838.—**Formation of Anti-Corn-Law Association.** See TARIFF: 1836-1841.

1868.—**Trade union congress.** See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1843-1894.

Corea, the Pacific Ocean as far as Vladivostok, and thence by the Russian province of Primorsk to the junction of the Ussuri River with the Amur. Thence on the north it is bounded by the Amur River; on the west by the Argun River and Mongolia; and on the south by the province of Mongolia."—J. B. Suttor, *Report on Manchuria, 1907* (*New South Wales Intelligence Department Bulletin no. 20*), p. 3.—See also CHINA: Map.—"Mention is frequently made of South and North Manchuria, but, strange as it may seem, no one knows with any exactitude where South Manchuria ends and North Manchuria begins. It was the Russian who first used the terms, but the practical significance of them began when Japanese and Russian influence came in contact in Manchuria, inasmuch as the Russian sphere of influence was represented by the name North Manchuria and that of the Japanese by the name South Manchuria,



NORTH TOMB OF THE MANCHUS AT MUKDEN

1894.—**Opening of ship canal.** See CANALS: Principal European canals: British Isles.

Libraries. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Administration: Administration of some great libraries.

MANCHESTER MARTYRS. See IRELAND: 1858-1867.

MANCHURIA: Geographic description.—**Area.**—**Population.**—**Administration.**—"Manchuria comprises what are known as the three eastern provinces [Tung-san-shêng] of the Chinese Empire, known locally as Feng-tuen [Liao-tung] in the south, with an area of about 60,000 square miles; Kirin, to the north of Feng-t'ien, with an area of about 120,000 square miles; and Hei-lung-chiang, to the north and west of Kirin and north of Mongolia, containing an area of about 200,000 square miles, this being a total area of about 380,000 square miles for the whole of Manchuria, which practically embraces the territory from the southernmost point of the Liaoyang Peninsula (Port Arthur) to the Great Amur River on the north, being bounded on the east by the Bay of Corea,

while additional importance has been lent to the latter term by its finding place in the treaties recently concluded between Japan and China."—*Economic history of Manchuria* (*Bank of Chosen*) p. 12.—"The population is apparently greatest in the southern province of Feng-t'ien, which seems to be well developed, this being doubtless due to its closer proximity to the seaboard and commercial ports of China proper, such as Tientsin, Chefoo, Shanghai, and trade routes to all other Oriental ports. . . . The climate of Manchuria is varied. In summer, the temperature of the northern portion reaches about 90 degrees, while in the winter months it falls as low as 49 degrees below zero. In the extreme south, the temperatures range from about 96 degrees in summer to about 17 below zero in the winter. . . . From the end of November to about the 1st of April, the whole country to the north of the southernmost part of the Liaoyang Peninsula is practically ice-bound and frozen. . . . [and] the biting cold of the Manchurian winters far surpasses anything in other

parts of the world for similar latitudes. . . . The rich agricultural land . . . extends in a northerly direction to about 150 miles north of Harbin, the junction of the Manchurian and Siberian railways. The soil is certainly very rich. For miles and miles one travels through rich loamy soil, which alternates with rich chocolate soil. . . . If Manchuria were devoted to wheat-growing, then all other wheat-growing countries would have a formidable competitor."—J. B. Suttor, *Report on Manchuria, 1907* (*New South Wales Intelligence Department Bulletin no. 20, pp. 4, 5*).—"The great grain and bean producing area in the three provinces is contained in a strip of country, extending from the Treaty Port of Newchwang to 30 miles north of Pei-tuan-lin-tzu. To the west of this belt of arable land are the Mongolian steppes, all in grass, but fading away into sand as they merge in the great desert of Gobi; to the east is a hilly or mountainous region, in which the only large cultivated area is that watered by the River Hwei-fa, an affluent of the Upper Sungari; elsewhere the cultivated areas are small, such as those at Mergen, Tsi-tsi-har, the Valley of the Yen, and at Sansing, Ninguta, Hun-chun, and Omoso. . . . The Manchus are nearly all concentrated in towns; there are Manchu villages, but they are small, possibly their numbers amount to between 2,000,000 and 3,000,000, or about 20 per cent. of the population. The chief appointments in Manchuria are, without exception, held by Manchus, the descendants of the conquerors of China. In four centuries of ease and sloth they have lost the wild courage, the spirit of adventure that inspired them to overrun China, and the hardihood and skill at arms that brought success to their venture. But if they have lost the warlike instincts of their savage ancestors, they have retained all their pride, their ignorance, their cruelty, and their superstition. All these qualities a Manchu possesses far in excess of the liberal share that nature has bestowed on the Chinese. . . . Formerly the Manchus did not intermarry with Chinese women, but at the present time this custom is frequently broken through, though of course no Chinese would be permitted to marry a Manchu woman. . . . As regards the Chinese, few of the rich merchants make Manchuria their home. They come to the country for a definite number of years, and the same applies to their agents, managers, and staff generally, who leave their families in China. The settlers, on the contrary, have made the country their home. They are a fine, healthy, and vigorous race. Driven from China by poverty or famine, they regard Manchuria as a land flowing with milk and honey. . . . Whether it be the rigour of the climate which softens their manners, or the absence of the Chinese Mandarin, or living under the sway of an alien race which humbles their pride, or a combination of all these elements, it is difficult to say, but the people are far less hostile to the foreigner than those in China proper."—Great Britain, *Parliamentary Publications (Papers by Command: China, no. 1, 1890, pp. 34-37)*.—"Of the 17,000,000 inhabitants of the three provinces of Manchuria [in 1910] probably not more than ten per cent. are Manchus, and by Manchus I mean not merely the descendants of the various tribes which were welded into one kingdom by Nurhachu, but also the descendants of the inhabitants of the Northern province of Hei-lung-chiang, which was not brought completely under the sway of the present dynasty until 1671, as well as the descendants, called Han-Chün, of the northern Chinese, who

assisted the Manchus in the conquest of China. All these—Manchus, Han-Chün, as well as the descendants of Mongols, who also lent their aid—are known by the generic name of Ch'i Jên, or Bannermen. When the Manchus conquered the Chinese the great mass of the conquerors remained in China, where they were required to garrison their newly-acquired territory. . . . The descendants of those who stayed at home are scattered over Manchuria from the Yellow Sea to the Amur; but the vast majority are to be found in the two provinces of Hei-lung-chiang and Kirin. There are, however, certain places in Fêng-t'ien . . . where Bannermen predominate, and in the chief Government centres, especially the capitals of the three provinces—Mukden, Kirin, and Tsitsihar (Pu-k'uei)—they are comparatively numerous. Mongols are sparsely scattered about in the south-west of Hei-lung-chiang and in the north-west of Kirin, but ninety per cent. of the seventeen millions of Manchuria are composed of the descendants of Chinese who had already settled in Southern Manchuria during the Ming Dynasty, and of immigrants from the northern provinces of China, who are annually on the increase. . . . Intellectually, . . . the Manchu is no match for the Chinese. The former lacks the intelligence and capacity which are characteristic of the latter. . . . As merchant or farmer, too, the Manchu lacks the business qualities and industry of the Chinese. This intellectual inferiority is due, in the main, to the grant by the State [during the empire] to the majority of Manchus of mature age of a monthly subsidy which, while keeping them from actual want, . . . [precluded] that stimulus to earn a livelihood and better their condition which goes to make men and nations. In return for this subsidy the Government . . . [exact] a certain amount of military training from the recipients and their enrolment as reservists; but the system . . . [did] serious harm, for it . . . [prevented] the pensioner from leaving the neighbourhood of the pension office . . . unless, indeed, he . . . [chose] the army as a profession. . . . There . . . [were] for example, many Bannermen in the employ of foreigners at Peking; but, . . . [they were] as a rule, unwilling to take service elsewhere even at considerably enhanced pay. The Manchu language, unlike the Chinese, has no antiquity to boast of, and, at the present time, it is to all intents and purposes a thing of the past. . . . The administration of Manchuria was originally conducted on a purely military basis; but the southern province of to-day resembles in its form of government the provincial administration of China. There is a difference, however, and it is this. At Peking there are six Boards for the transaction, each in its own department, of all public business referred to them. They are: (1) Board of Civil Office, (2) Board of Revenue, (3) Board of Ceremonies, (4) Board of War, (5) Board of Punishments, and (6) Board of Works. With the exception of the first, the Board of Civil Office, these Boards have their counterparts of Mukden, and each of the five Boards, established in 1631, is presided over by a vice-president, who, in his own special department, is a colleague of the head of the province, the Governor-General."—A. Hosie, *Manchuria, v. 14, pp. 7, 22-28*.—There is also in Manchuria a Forestry Office at Harbin and a Mining Inspector's Office at Changchun. Presumably under the direction of Peking, these offices, however, are controlled by the Governor General of Manchuria, and all important negotiations regarding the affairs directed

by these offices are carried on at the Governor General's Yamen in Mukden."—T. F. Logan, *Manchuria, land of opportunities*, p. 8.

Early history.—"Unlike the Mongols, who have 'moved about after grass and water,' [the Manchus] have always been a settled people, who in ancient times dwelt during the cold season in holes excavated in the sides of dry banks, or in pits in the earth, and during summer in huts formed of young trees and covered with bark or with long wild grass. They have, unlike the Mon-

Suhmo Mo-hos, that member of the confederation whose territory lay immediately on the north of Corea and north-east of Liau East, established themselves as rulers over the whole of Manchuria Proper, over Liau East, and over a large portion of Corea. In 712, the then Whang-ti, or Emperor of China, conferred the title of Prince of Po-hae on the head of the family; but the immediate successors of this prince shook off even the form of vassalage, and by their conquest of Northern Corea and Liau East, assumed a position of hos-



MANCHUS

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gols, from the earliest periods been somewhat of agriculturists; like them they have always reared domestic animals. . . . In the 11th century before Christ this nation appeared at the court of the Chow dynasty as Sub-chin, and presented tribute, a portion of which consisted of stone-headed arrows. In the 3d century after Christ they reappeared as Yih-low. . . . In the 5th, 6th, and 7th centuries after Christ we find them under the names of Wuh-keih, and Mo-hos, still described as rude barbarians, but politically organized as a confederation of seven large tribes or seven groups of tribes. At length, in the beginning of the 8th century, a family named Ta, belonging to the

tility to the Whang-ti. Po-hae, the name adopted by the new rulers, became the name of the Manchu Nation; which under it for the first time takes a place in history, as constituting a civilized State with a centralized administration. . . . It was overthrown by the Ketans, . . . [either a Manchu or a Mongol tribe, who] took their rise in the valleys of the Hu-lan, a small northern branch of the Soongari. . . . The Ketans had possessed themselves of Eastern Mongolia, and been engaged in successful war on China before they, in 926, attacked the Po-hae state, which they speedily overthrew, incorporating into their own dominions all Manchuria Proper and the East of the Liau. Be-

fore the middle of the 10th century, they had conquered nearly all Mongolia and Northern China. . . . They assumed for their dynasty the name of Liau, that of the river which flows past this port. Under the eighth of the line, their power had sunk so much that it fell easily before the attacks of A-kuh-ta, the chief of a purely Manchu tribe or commune, the Neu-chins, whose original seat was the country between the Upper Soongari and the Hurka. The Neu-chins rebelled against the Ketans or Liaus in 1113. Within 15 years, they had possessed themselves of the whole of Manchuria, Mongolia, and Northern China, driving the Chinese Whang-ti to the south of the Great River, and themselves establishing a rival line under the name of Kin, or Golden; adopted because their own country Manchuria 'was a gold-producing one.' The Neu-chins or Kins were in their turn overthrown by the Mongols, under Ghenghis Khan and his immediate successors. Manchuria came under their power about 1217, Northern China, about 1233, and Southern China, about 1280, when they established—it was the first time the thing had happened—a line of non-Chinese Whang-tis in undisputed possession of that dignity. . . . The Mongol dynasty maintained itself in China for about 90 years, when (in 1368) the last Whang-ti of the line was driven to the north of the Great Wall by the forces of a Chinese rebel, who established himself at Nanking as the first Whang-ti of the Ming dynasty."—T. T. Meadows (quoted in A. Williamson's "Journeys in north China," v. 2, ch. 4).—Manchuria "is an agglomeration of petty Tartar or Manchu principalities, which were conquered one after another and welded into one kingdom during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries by a Manchu chieftain named Nurhachu and his successors, who, pushing south and west from their ultimate capital, Mukden (lat. 41° 46' N. and long. 123° 37' E.), overthrew the great Ming dynasty and seated themselves on the throne of China at Peking in the year 1644, under the name of Ta Ching Ch'ao (The Great Pure Dynasty)."—A. Hosie, *Manchuria*, v. 14, p. 3.—See also CHINA: 1204-1736.

ALSO IN: E. Parker, *Manchus in China* (*China Review*, 1886-1887, p. 262).

1689-1860.—Russian encroachments.—"When the Manchus were struggling with China the Russians were settling on the banks of the Upper Amur and in the neighbouring regions, which then constituted part of Northern Manchuria. This encroachment, which was naturally resented, gave rise to a conflict, which resulted in the Treaty of Nerchinsk in 1680, wherein the boundaries of the two Empires are laid down. . . . Notwithstanding the various discrepancies which occur in the texts of this Treaty, it may be assumed that the boundary of Russia and Northern Manchuria was intended to be the Argun and Gorbitza Rivers and the Yablonoi Mountains from the source of the latter rivers to the sea. . . . [The French text of] the Treaty of Aigun (Ai-h'un), concluded in May, 1858 . . . gives the Amur from the Argun River to the sea as the northern boundary of Manchuria. . . . By this Treaty, therefore, the whole of the country between the Yablonoi Mountains and the Amur fell to Russia, and the territory between the Ussuri and the sea was placed under the jurisdiction of both countries, pending, according to the French text, a delimitation of the frontier. . . . In November, 1860, and in accordance with Article IX. of the Treaty concluded at Tientsin on the 13th of June, 1858, a Supplementary Treaty was made at Peking and ratified at

St. Petersburg in December of the same year. . . . In virtue of this Treaty the boundaries of Russia and Manchuria were, in 1860, the Erguné (Argun) River on the west, the Amur to the Ussuri on the north, and a line from the mouth of the Ussuri to the mouth of the Tumén on the east. By Article I. of the Treaty of Aigun (Ai-h'un) the Amur, the Sungari, and the Ussuri Rivers were declared open to the navigation of Russian and Chinese vessels only—to the exclusion of the vessels of other foreign countries. . . . But since 1680 the whole coast line of Northern and Central Manchuria has bit by bit fallen into the hands of Russia, and the only seaboard now remaining to the whole of Manchuria lies between the Ya-lu River (*i.e.*, Korea) and the Chinese province of Chihli."—A. Hosie, *Manchuria*, v. 14, pp. 4-6.

1891-1899.—Trans-Siberian railway.—Russo-Chinese Treaty. See RAILROADS: 1876-1921; TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY; CHINA: 1895.

1896.—Russian and Japanese occupation and influence.—"The treaty of St. Petersburg, December 26, 1896, gave the Eastern Chinese Railroad Company, whose stock could be held only by Russians and Chinese, the right to construct a line through Manchuria, to develop mines, to promote all other commercial enterprises, and to station troops in Manchuria 'to protect the railroad.' This virtually made Manchuria a Russian province."—A. J. Brown, *Mastery of the Far East*, p. 129.

1900-1901.—Chinese Boxer attack on Christians.—Russian retaliation.—Russian occupation of Niu-Chwang.—Russo-Chinese negotiations.—Distrust of Russian designs.—The Boxer outbreak in and around Peking in the early summer of 1900 (see CHINA: 1900) had its counterpart in Manchuria. On June 10, 1900, the Boxers began to drill in Mukden; on the 17th orders were given that two camps of imperial troops were to drill as Boxers. The families of the missionaries were sent away just in time for, on the last day of the month the burning of the mission buildings was begun. "The Lieutenant-Governor, Commander of the army, threw himself with zeal into the task of exterminating all trace of foreign existence. The soldiers were employed to help the Boxers, who, however, remained a separate organization, their numbers being swelled by all who were eager for loot. The Russians were completely taken by surprise. Many of the railway men were killed. A party of engineers fought their way north from Tieling, generously escorting a number of Catholics and a Protestant missionary. All the northern missionaries were helped to escape by the Russians. Parties of soldiers and Boxers were dispatched to city after city, town after town, and even to villages and glens. One after another every church, hospital, school, and foreign house was burned, and many Christians were killed. . . . After looting and confiscating all available Christian property, the Boxers had soon begun to seek new sources of gain. They blackmailed the merchants and wealthy men of city and country, levied taxes, interfered with trade, and took up an arrogant attitude to all. When the Governor-General's equipage met on the street some of their leaders with their mounted escort, he had to draw aside humbly to make room for them. Their claims for power and money grew till all Moukden trembled before them, and the country sighed for the old days of comparative prosperity and security. At the beginning of August, their ally the Lieutenant-Governor, went south with part of the army. . . . The Boxer power had now

lasted forty-one days in Moukden, and the Governor-General decided that this was long enough. A strong proclamation denouncing them was issued, which was received with relief by the people; and at the same time, on 11 August, the soldiers were commanded to turn on them, and kill every Boxer they could find. A good many were killed, many more fled from Moukden, and the rest were absorbed in the ordinary population. The Boxer Madness was at an end in Manchuria. . . .

"In August the Russians began slowly but steadily to move northwards, meeting with vigorous opposition from the Lieutenant-General and his troops. . . . At the same time another Russian force was moving down from the north. . . . In September Dr. A. Macdonald Westwater, [a missionary] of Liaoyang, accompanied the Russian army on its forward march, as a Red Cross surgeon. Knowing the country and people well, and having some previous acquaintance with the Russians, he was able to be of great use as an intermediary. When the army was encamped south of Liaoyang, he went forward . . . [and persuaded the authorities to] let the Russians enter quietly. Thus the city was saved. Moukden was unfortunately occupied by those same soldiers whose passions had been roused by helping the Boxers to kill and loot. Many of them had at the command of their officers turned their weapons on their quondam allies and looted and killed them in their turn; others had returned angry and rebellious after being defeated by the Russians. There was open conflict between the Governor-General and the Lieutenant-General, who was very indignant at the massacre of his friends the Boxers. Fearing for his life, Tseng Chi fled on 29 September, followed by most of the officials, when the Russians were within a few miles of the city. The consequences to Moukden were dire. The soldiers threw off all restraint, and all that night and all next day they pillaged and terrorized the defenceless merchants and people. . . . On the second evening they began to set fire to the shops they had looted; then hearing that the Russians were at the south gate, they fled precipitately by the north gates, leaving the most busy and prosperous streets of the city in flames, which were rapidly spreading. An advance party of three hundred Cossacks rode up to the south gate to reconnoitre, and finding it undefended, they entered and took possession of Moukden, their first work being to help to control and extinguish the fires. Had their arrival been delayed until morning, the soldiers would have continued their ruthless destruction, and half Moukden might have been burned. . . . The Russian Commander . . . set himself to restore order. Some days later the Russian armies from the north joined forces with those from the south, and through Manchuria there ran a line of Russian rule from Siberia to the sea."—D. Christie, *Thirty years in Moukden*, pp. 142-143, 140-153.—The retaliation of the Russians appears to have been simply ferocious. Professor G. Frederick Wright, who was travelling in Manchuria at the time, gives a sickening account of what he saw on the Amur, above Blagovestchensk, in a letter written, August 6, from Stretensk, Siberia, to the *Nation*, of New York. The Chinese fort at Aygun, on the Manchurian side of the Amur, began, without warning, on July 14, he writes, "to fire upon passing steamboats, and, on the 15th, fire was opened upon Blagovestchensk, and some Russian villages were burned opposite the fort. The actual injury inflicted by the Chinese was slight; but the terror caused by it was

indescribable, and it drove the Cossacks into a frenzy of rage. The peaceable Chinese, to the number of 3,000 or 4,000, in the city were expelled in great haste, and, being forced upon rafts entirely inadequate, were most of them drowned in attempting to cross the river. The stream was fairly black with their bodies. Three days after, we counted hundreds of them in the water. In our ride through the country to reach the city on Thursday, the 19th, we saw as many as thirty villages and hamlets of the Chinese in flames. One of them was a city of 8,000 or 10,000 inhabitants. We estimated that we saw the dwellings of 20,000 peaceable Chinese in flames that awful day, while parties of Cossacks were scouring the fields to find Chinese, and shooting them down at sight. What became of the women and children no one knew; but there was apparently no way for them to escape to a place of safety. On our way up the river for 500 miles above the city, every Chinese hamlet was a charred mass of ruins. The large village of Motcha was still smoking, and we were told that 4,000 Chinese had been killed. We do not mention these facts to excite prejudice against the Russian authorities or against the Cossacks. This work of devastation has not been ordered by those high in authority. It is rather the result of mob violence. . . . The wholesale destruction, both of property and of life, was thought to be a military necessity. The wives and children of the Cossacks were in terror."

Russian troops were poured into Manchuria in vast numbers, and however much or little there may have been of the Boxer movement, it was crushed with merciless rigor. A letter from the Manchurian treaty port of Niu-chwang, on the Liao-tung gulf, written August 13, to the *London Times* describes the Russian occupation of that town and region, in the previous week. After some 1,500 or 2,000 Chinese soldiers and civilians, in flight from the town, had been intercepted and killed, "the Russian general," says the writer, "was about to order a general assault on the town when the foreign residents interceded, as there were no longer any soldiers or 'Boxers' left. He declared his intention was to kill all, as it was impossible to distinguish between soldiers, 'Boxers,' and civilians. Some foreigners then went down into the city and brought up the principal merchants, who were given until 10 a.m. to deliver up all the guns in the town. This, of course, they could not and did not do, so some foreign residents offered to enter the city with the Russian soldiers, and guaranteed peaceful occupation. This offer was accepted, and the town was spared enormous loss of life, though there was a certain amount of looting, and a few people were bayoneted in the outlying houses. Outside the walls men, women, and children were killed, and from all sides came reliable reports of violation of women. There is no possible doubt about the truth of these reports. The Russians are carrying out a policy of destruction of property and extermination of the people. Kai-chau, the district city, 24 miles south of this port, and nearly all the villages have been burnt and the inhabitants killed. The soldiers, both infantry and Cossacks, have been allowed to do what they like for some days." The same correspondent goes on to say: "The Russians hoisted their naval flag over the Custom-house at 7.30 p.m. on August 4. Neither in the attack and bombardment of the town nor in hoisting their flag did they consult any of the foreign Consuls or the commanders of the two Japanese gunboats in port. Admiral Alexieff arrived on the 5th and

issued a circular announcing the occupation of the treaty port by Russian military forces." . . . The "one flag" seems to have been still waving over Niu-chwang as late as February 15, 1901, since a member in the British House of Commons, on that day, arraigning his government for want of vigor in China, said that "though British people traded with Niu-chwang to the extent of three millions sterling a year, the port was now under the civil and military administration of Russia alone. He should like to know what undertaking his Majesty's Government had obtained that Russia would speedily evacuate Niu-chwang, and that the administration of the port would revert to the hands of the Chinese Government."

A few days later, the under secretary of state for foreign affairs, Viscount Cranborne, said in reply to this statement: "We made proper inquiry from our representative, and he assured us that any agreement which exists between Russia and China in respect to Manchuria is in the nature of a 'modus vivendi, consisting merely in the simultaneous presence of the Russian and Chinese forces in Manchuria, and in order to prevent disturbances on their frontier. He assured us that the occupation of the railway is of a purely temporary character, and that, although a guarantee is expected by the Russian Government that upon their withdrawal the disturbances shall not break out again, yet that guarantee will not take the form of an acquisition of territory or of a virtual or actual protectorate in Manchuria. . . . In respect to Niu-chwang we have received assurances at least equal to those which have been given us in respect to the province of South Manchuria. We understand the Russians are prepared to restore Niu-chwang at the end of their occupation precisely to its former condition."

For the time being, however, the Russians seemed to have established in practice a very real protectorate over the province of Fêng-tien, in southern Manchuria, by an agreement between the Russian governor of the territory leased from China in the Liao-tung peninsula and the Chinese Tatar general of Fêng-tien, signed on November 11, 1900. The general terms of this agreement were reported late in December, and excited much uneasiness as to Russian designs. The full text was communicated to the London *Times*, in the February following, by its Peking correspondent, with the information that the Tatar general who signed it, in transmitting a copy to Li Hung-chang, "states that grief pierces his very soul, but what alternative has he?" The agreement required the Tatar general to disband his troops and disarm them, on account of the rebellions which had occurred among them; to deliver up all munitions of war and dismantle all forts and defenses, and to give full information of all important measures taken by him to a Russian resident who should be stationed at Mukden, with "general powers of control." Late in February, 1901, it was ascertained that the Russian minister at Peking, M. de Giers, was negotiating a more definite and binding convention relative to Manchuria with the Chinese imperial government, as represented by Li Hung-chang; and, on March 7, the Peking correspondent of the London *Times* telegraphed to that journal what claimed to be a translation of the full text of the treaty, as follows:

I. The Emperor of Russia, being desirous to manifest his friendly feelings, agrees to restore Manchuria completely to China without keeping in mind the fact of the recent warfare in that

province. The Chinese administration shall be restored in all respects to the "status quo ante."

II. China granted to the railway company, as stipulated in Article VI. of the Eastern China Railway Concession, the right of guarding the line with troops, but the country being still in disorder and the number of troops being insufficient, it has been found necessary to station a body of troops in the province, which will be withdrawn as soon as peace and order are restored and the provisions of the last four articles of the present convention are carried out.

III. In case of emergency, the Russian troops stationed in the province shall render all possible assistance to China to suppress any disturbances.

IV. The recent attacks against Russia having been conducted principally by regular troops, China agrees not to organize any army before the completion of the railway and the opening thereof for traffic. When China subsequently organizes her military forces, the number of troops shall be fixed in consultation with Russia. The importation of arms and ammunition into Manchuria is prohibited.

V. In order to safeguard the province, China shall immediately dismiss such Governors-General and high local officials as have committed improper acts in connexion with foreign relations against which Russia would protest. China can organize infantry and cavalry in Manchuria for police purposes, but the number shall be fixed in consultation with Russia. Artillery should be excluded, and arms given to no subjects of any other Power employed in connexion with the exercise of functions.

VI. China, as previously agreed, shall not employ the subjects of any other Power for training her naval and military forces in the northern provinces.

VII. In order to maintain peace and order, the local authorities, residing in the vicinity of the neutral zone provided for by the fifth article of the convention relating to the lease of the territory of Leao-tong, shall establish special regulations suitable to the circumstances, and shall relinquish the administrative autonomy of Kinchau, which is reserved to China by Article IV. of the special convention.

VIII. China shall not grant, without the consent of Russia, to any other Power or their subjects advantages relative to mines, railways, or other matters in the Russo-Chinese Frontier provinces—namely, Manchuria, Mongolia, Kashgar, Yarkand, Khotan, and Turkestan; neither shall she construct her own railways in those provinces without the consent of Russia. Leases of land outside Niu-chwang shall not be granted to the subjects of any other Power.

IX. China being under obligations to pay the war expenses of Russia and the claims of the various other Powers, the amount of Russia's indemnity, and the terms of payment and the security for it, shall be adjusted conjointly with the other Powers.

X. Indemnities shall be paid and compensation granted for the destruction of railway property and to the employés of the company. Losses accruing from delay in the work shall be adjusted between China and the railway company.

XI. When the indemnities for the various damages shall have been agreed upon between China and the company the whole or part of the amount of such indemnities should be met by advantages other than pecuniary compensation—that is, either by revision of the existing agreement relating to the railway or by the grant of new advantages.

XII. China shall, as previously agreed, grant to Russia a concession for the construction of a railway from the main or branch line of the Manchuria Railway towards Peking and to the Great Wall.

Notwithstanding the very positive agreement contained in the first article of this treaty, that the emperor of Russia will "restore Manchuria completely to China," the publication of its terms excited new and greater distrust of the designs and the action of the Muscovite power. It was seen that Chinese authority, for the time being, would be pushed out of Manchuria so completely, and that of Russia would be established so firmly, that any future restoration of the former was improbable, to say the least. Moreover, the entire exclusion of all people except Russians from any share in the development of Manchurian resources was exceedingly offensive to the money-making desires with which the whole western world is looking toward the great decaying empire of the East. That such an exclusion should extend beyond Manchuria, even to Mongolia, Kashgar, Yarkand, Khotan and Turkestan, as set forth in the above report of the pending treaty, was an idea at which capitalistic circles in Europe and America stood aghast. Very soon there was denial that the exclusiveness asked for by the modest Russian went farther than the bounds of Manchuria; but, even as thus limited, it roused strenuous protest from the press of the western world, if not from the governments.

See also CHINA: 1901-1902; JAPAN: 1895-1902.
1900-1910.—Russian occupation to the Russo-Japanese War.—Japanese occupation compared with Russian.—"The confusion caused by the Boxer uprising of 1900 afforded Russia a pretext for further aggressions. Asserting, and with reason, that foreign interests in Manchuria were imperilled, Russia sent troops into New-chwang and virtually assumed the government of all Manchuria. In a treaty with China, signed April 8, 1902, Russia solemnly agreed to evacuate Manchuria, except the leased Liao-tung peninsula, by October 8, 1903. [See also CHINA: 1901-1902; JAPAN: 1902-1905.] . . . The intermingling of the Chinese and the Manchus appears much more complete in Manchuria than in other parts of China, and the result is a virile type, physically vigorous and mentally alert. . . . In recent years the people of Manchuria have been overawed by the aggressive power first of the Russians, and later of the Japanese. Manchuria was helpless before the military strength of the Russian occupation prior to the Russia-Japan War. The common people cared little who their rulers were, knowing that they would get scanty consideration in any event, while the ruffled dignity of officials was smoothed by Russian gold. The Russians had greater tact in getting along with the Chinese than any other foreign people showed, and difficulties were seldom serious. When Japan drove Russia out of Port Arthur and southern Manchuria, the people simply exchanged one master for another. Many of their fields and villages were destroyed; but it was not the policy of either the Japanese or the Russians to molest the Manchurians unnecessarily, and as the contending armies required enormous food-supplies and tens of thousands of carts and laborers, the thrifty inhabitants took shrewd advantage of their opportunity and reaped rich profits from both sides with true Chinese impartiality."—A. J. Brown, *Mastery of the Far East*, pp. 131-132, 210.—"There is this thing to be said in

favour of the Russian occupation (of Manchuria); before the Russians came it was little more than a sterile waste; now [1910] money is poured into the country, and another ten years will probably reveal wonders.' When an Englishman or a Japanese of those days spoke well of the Russians, what he said was always true. The wonders revealed themselves before the ten years had passed. A marvellous development was soon in evidence all along the railway and especially a round Harbin. Lands hitherto lying waste were taken up and cultivated, and production increased by leaps and bounds."—*Economic history of Manchuria (Bank of Chosen, p. 37)*.

1903.—Treaty opening two new ports to foreign trade. See CHINA: 1903 (May-October).

1904-1905.—Russo-Japanese War. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

1905 (October).—Treaty of Portsmouth between Russia and Japan.—Contracting powers agree to evacuate Manchuria. See PORTSMOUTH, TREATY OF; JAPAN: 1905.

1905-1907.—Administration of Chao-Er-Sun.—Abolition of opium-smoking.—Educational reforms.—"The Russo-Japanese war seems to have awakened the Central Government somewhat tardily to the importance of Manchuria. For the first time a Governor-General of outstanding merit was appointed, not a Manchu, as always before, but a Chinese Bannerman, *Chao Er Sun*, one of the ablest men available and a notable financier. . . . *Chao Er Sun's* watchword might have been expressed as 'Progress, Efficiency, and Economy.' Scores of paid officials had little or no work to do; these he dismissed, and sought to gather round him men like himself, eager for good hard work. . . . One of his most striking reforms was the abolition of opium smoking. This vice had never been so common in Manchuria as in some parts of China, still there were a large number of smokers. . . . The cultivation of the poppy was illegal, but very lucrative. During the years since 1900 it had rapidly increased, some of those officials whose duty it was to prevent it receiving a share of the gains. . . . [But, owing to the vigorous action of the governor, cultivation of the poppy ceased and] Manchuria was one of the first provinces closed to Indian opium. . . . Education also received the new Governor-General's earnest care. Till now there had been no such thing as a Government school. . . . Several large boys' schools and one for girls were opened, professing all the modern subjects, tuition, books, and stationery being free."—D. Christie, *Thirty years in Moukden, 1883-1913*, pp. 197-200.

1905-1908.—Japanese occupation.—Treaty between Japan and China.—"Although it had several times previously been announced that Japan was fulfilling her treaty obligation, and had restored the part of Manchuria then occupied by Japanese armies to the exclusive administration of China, it was not until December, 1906, that Japanese troops were withdrawn from Moukden, Newchwang and other important places, and Chinese autonomy outwardly resumed. At that time Japanese had occupied southern Manchuria over two years, and the military authorities had used this period to establish Japanese in possession of all property formerly owned, occupied or claimed by the Russians; to occupy themselves much Chinese property to which the Russians never had asserted claim; to establish thousands of Japanese immigrants in the country by according to them more favorable treatment in comparison with Chinese or other foreigners; and to lay, by arbitrary

seizure, foundations for subsequent claims to valuable mines and concessions. This so-called evacuation was not made, however, until Japan had used her military control of the country to put pressure upon China with a view to firmly establishing Japanese interests there. The Komura-Yuan agreement was negotiated while Japan was in full control, which put China in the real attitude of bargaining to regain possession of her own territory. In scrutinizing this agreement it appears that in some important matters it is intentionally ambiguous. Japan probably did not then desire to appear to press China too severely, but refused to relax her hold until foundation for further negotiation was laid. This agreement was signed late in 1905, and by its terms Japan specifically agreed to begin evacuation of Manchuria immediately, and not to wait upon full expiration of the time limit (March, 1907) fixed by the Portsmouth treaty. [See also CHINA: 1905 (December).] But for another year after it was signed Japan retained her tight grip. The reason is obvious. During this period supplementary negotiations were progressing at Peking, and Japan was making the fulfillment of her promise a condition of China's yielding in other matters which Japan was pressing upon her. Late in 1906 the Peking Government sent Prince Tsai-chen to Manchuria to investigate conditions and report upon a plan to reorganize Chinese administration of the three provinces and consolidate Chinese power to resist Russian and Japanese aggression. In attempting to pursue this policy, Chao Ehr-sun, then Tartar General at Moukden, soon developed friction with the Japanese authorities. H. E. Chao seems to have been intensely anti-Japanese, and in dealing with the Japanese authorities was alternately swayed by dislike, which inclined him to be over-aggressive, and timidity, which made him too yielding. Upon representation of Japan at Peking, H. E. Chao was transferred to another post and Hsu Shih-chang was appointed. About the same time Tang Shao-yi [an enlightened official, who had studied at Columbia University] was appointed Governor of Feng-tien province . . . and from the time he arrived [1907] at Moukden he virtually had charge of relations between the Chinese and Japanese authorities. . . . [By 1908] outward evidences of Japanese occupation were less conspicuous. Japanese troops in the country had been reduced. . . . Moukden was the last important place evacuated, the troops being withdrawn from the city in April, 1907."—T. F. Millard, *America and the Far Eastern question*, p. 262.—See also U. S. A.: 1907-1917.

1905-1914.—Colonization by Koreans.—South Manchuria Railway Company.—“Along with these developments, Japanese officialdom, from its base in the Leased Territory and through the consulates and the Railway Company, went on effectively consolidating and extending its influence. The result is that the Japanese authority has become practically absolute, not alone in the Leased Territory and along the Railway Zone, but, indirectly, throughout all of Southeastern Manchuria; for, while the Chinese administration still functions, the Chinese officials submit to the exercise of a veto power by the Japanese which renders Japan for practical purposes the final authority in determining issues of importance. . . . Japanese colonization of Manchuria has not proceeded as rapidly as the Japanese government had hoped. The vast, wind-swept plains, fertile though they are, do not seem to attract the Japanese farmer. From the indications of ten years' experience, it

would seem that if Manchuria passes into the possession of Japan it will serve the purposes of an exploitation rather than of a settlement colony. When, however, we turn to the question of Korean immigration, we find a difference. We discover that, simultaneously with a considerable influx of Japanese into Korea, there is occurring a considerable exodus of Koreans, who, selling their property to the Japanese, leave their native land, cross the Yalu, and settle in South Manchuria. The Japanese government is officially encouraging this movement. At the same time, whereas it was formerly a common practice among the Korean immigrants in Manchuria to become naturalized as Chinese subjects, the Japanese authorities are now putting all possible obstacles in the way of their doing this. Naturally, the Japanese policy in this matter is based upon two principles: that Manchuria shall be colonized by Japanese subjects, and that Japan shall retain the allegiance of these emigrating and colonizing subjects. It might be added, also, that the idea is to be encouraged that South Manchuria is a projection of Japanese territory. These Korean farmers become real settlement colonists and contribute materially to the consolidation of the Japanese political hold upon the regions in which they establish themselves; at the same time their extraterritorial status as Japanese nations has contributed to the complication of the political situation. Thanks to their presence to the number of about 250,000, Japan can point out that she has the interests of some 350,000 of her subjects resident in Manchuria to look after. While strategically and politically Manchuria presents problems for each of the three countries whose territories converge on its borders, when considered as a field for colonization its importance commands more specifically the attention of China and Japan. Told, as we have been over and over, that Japan must have an outlet for her excess population and that Manchuria is the natural outlet, it is well to bear in mind that China also has a crowded population and that in the new condition in which the awakening Chinese people find themselves a movement toward the relief of the present congested conditions is bound to manifest itself in an attempt at redistribution. This will mean pressure outward. Manchuria is a natural outlet for the excess of China's population more truly than for that of Japan; and, as far as rights to this open field are concerned, China has the better claim. . . . Though Japan takes South Manchuria, and whether she leaves it open to Chinese immigration or whether she closes it, her occupation will not settle the question of population pressure; nor will it settle finally the question of political domination. Still less will it insure the peace of the Far East. . . .

“No account of Japanese activity in South Manchuria would be complete or do justice which failed to describe and pay tribute to the material successes which the conquerors have achieved—through an efficient administration—in the fields of industrial and commercial development. When Russia began her forward move in Manchuria, she leased the Liaotung Peninsula for a period of twenty-five years. The lease which passed to Japan would, therefore, expire in 1923, but it was subject to renewal. The railway agreements provided that China should have the right to buy the lines at the end of thirty-six years from 1903—which would be in 1939—or to secure the reversion, without payment, at the end of eighty years—or in 1983. The administration of the Leased Territory and the Zone is subject to the

Ministry of Foreign Affairs at Tokyo and is in the hands of a Governor-General with official headquarters at Port Arthur. The railway, which is now a government enterprise, is controlled by the Ministry of Communications in Tokyo. The Governor-General must be an officer of the Imperial army, and he has powers which not only include the administration of civil affairs and control of the railway guards but extend into the diplomatic sphere for purposes of negotiation with the Chinese authorities. . . . The most conspicuous evidences of Japanese constructive efficiency in Manchuria are to be found in the improving of the railways, the building of cities, and the developing of mining and commercial enterprises. First of all come the railways. Japan inherited from Russia about five hundred miles of track and equipment, including the main line from Changchung to Dairen and branch lines to Port Arthur, to the Fushun Mines, and to Newchwang. She has subsequently built the line from Antung—on the Yalu River—to Mukden, thus linking the Korean frontier with central Manchuria and establishing a direct line of communication between Japan and Europe. She has also participated in building the branch line from Changchun to Kirin, which she expects to extend to Hoiryong on the North Korean coast. The Japanese government controls the lines, though the actual administration is in the hands of the South Manchuria Railway Company. When the Company was organized it was authorized to engage in railway business, mining, marine transportation, sale on consignment goods shipped, warehousing, administration of land and construction on lands belonging to the railway, and supplementary enterprises; to make necessary provisions for education, health, and engineering works within the Railway Zone; and to collect fees (that is, taxes) from residents in the Zone. In short, the Railway Company has been, except in military affairs, the government of the Railway Zone, and it has in addition been the greatest factor in the economic life and development of the Leased Territory. The South Manchuria Railway Company has done a truly remarkable work. The railway is one of the best managed, to outward appearance at least, and best equipped in the Far East. Projecting Japan's political authority along a narrow line from a triangular base up into the center of Manchuria, the company has acted in most of the capacities of a colonial administration. It owns harbors and mines; it has built cities, towns, and settlements, and has installed in them various public works—even to parks and summer resorts; it has installed factories, gas, electric light and waterworks, telegraph, telephone, and tramway systems. It superintends immigration, builds hotels, hospitals, schools, and laboratories; it conducts a loan business—in connection with which it has made several loans to the Chinese for joint railway enterprises. Money has been lavished on the equipment. One of the criticisms of the railway has been that the equipment is above the standard for which the traffic calls, the implication being that Japan planned deliberately to make the valuation of her holdings so high that China could not, when the time should come, afford to buy out these interests. The direct result of the investment is that the railway furnishes excellent facilities for both freight and passenger traffic. The various enterprises of the company have contributed wonderfully to the prosperity of South Manchuria, have improved the export trade in the great Manchurian staple—beans—and have facilitated the building up of a

huge import trade, from all of which the profits have accrued especially to Japan. The Antung-Mukden line, one hundred and seventy miles long, is a beautiful piece of construction, representing great expense. Both as to roadbed and equipment it is far superior to the lines in Japan. Its completion brought Mukden within 1,582 miles, or less than three days' travel, of Tokyo. As soon as it had been finished the Japanese secured a reduction in the Chinese tariff rates in favor of goods imported by rail from south of the Yalu. This line, while affording a great convenience for passenger traffic, has appeared, so far, more valuable as a strategic than as an economic instrument. Its commercial value is, however, increasing. Persons who have occasion to use both the Chinese and the Japanese railways in South Manchuria regularly give praise and preference to the latter. Goods are said to be safer and to be handled more expeditiously, and *likin* and 'squeezes' are avoided on the Japanese lines. The tariffs are more dependable, and payments are made in gold yen or equivalents regularly listed at the stations.

"The Fushun Mines, which the Russians had developed to some extent and of which the Japanese took control after some controversy with the Chinese, are a very valuable adjunct to the railway and other enterprises. Here there exists a single vein of coal varying in thickness from 80 to 175 feet, about ten miles long and estimated to contain 800,000,000 tons of coal. The Japanese have installed the most up-to-date machinery and methods of mining and have brought the output up to over 3,000,000 tons per annum, which exceeds that of the best collieries of Japan. The coal is used throughout Manchuria, to some extent in Siberia, and is exported to Chinese ports, the Philippines, and even as far as Singapore and India. The mines employ a great number of Japanese-skilled and Chinese unskilled laborers. About the pit mouths the Railway Company has built a model city. At Pensihiu, nearer the Yalu, both coal and iron mines are being developed: In co-operation with the Yokohama Specie Bank and the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, which have established banking houses and a ramification of trading facilities throughout the region, the Railway Company has become the mainspring of the economic awakening of South Manchuria."—S. K. Hornbeck, *Contemporary politics in the Far East*, pp. 269-276.—See also CHINA: 1005-1009.—"As the Japanese military grip was relaxed, Chinese administrative processes gradually resumed their functions, and now perform ordinary governmental duties throughout the country with some limitations and exceptions. But these limitations and exceptions, when examined, reveal that Manchuria still [1914] is far from being restored to the exclusive administration of China. Japanese garrisons remain at Antung; at the Fu-Shun, Pen-shui-hu and other mines; and in Chien-tao. Japanese troops (railway guards) are garrisoned along the railways and at all railway stations and settlements. Japan also has covered the country with a web of consulates. In the Japanese sphere, there is a consulate-general at Moukden, consulates at Kirin, Newchwang and Antung; consular agencies at Liao-yang, Tsinmintun, Fakumen, Tieling, Kwang-chengtze, Feng-wang-cheng and Kaiping. In the Russian sphere, Japan has a consulate-general at Harbin, and consular agencies at Tsitsihar and Manchuli. At most places where Japan has established a consular representative also is a consular guard, which means that small garrisons thus are distributed over the country. There is

no actual need for these troops. They are not considered necessary by British, American, German and other foreign governments which have consulates in Manchuria."—T. F. Millard, *America and the Far Eastern question*, pp. 259-263.

1907-1922.—Changes in administration.—"The administrative system of China in Manchuria has undergone frequent changes in recent years. In 1864 a system was instituted by which Mukden, Kirin, and Amur each had a military governor vested with complete authority, both civil and military. In 1897 the three provinces were placed under a governor-general with a civil governor attached to each."—*Economic history of Manchuria (Bank of Chosen, p. 11)*.—"In 1907 another change was made, and for the first time in the history of the 'Three Eastern Provinces' a single Viceroy was appointed with authority over the three Governors, chiefs of the provincial organizations. An effort was made with satisfactory results to remodel the old administrative machinery. The first Viceroy and the Governor of Fengtien province, who were responsible for this endeavor, were, however, greatly hampered by the lack of well-trained and progressive men. There was, undoubtedly, speculation and waste, even under their administration, and a close investigation would probably reveal numerous instances of corruption and incompetence. An honest and sincere effort, however, is now being made to overcome these defects and it is safe to say that Manchuria to-day is more efficiently governed than any other portion of the Chinese Empire. The last Tartar General of Fengtien, predecessor at Mukden of the first Viceroy, gave his Province probably the first two years of fairly honest government in the history of Manchuria."—G. H. Blakeslee, *China and Far East*, pp. 139-140.—"Since 1916 [written in 1922] the three provinces have been separately governed, each having a *Tuchun* (Military Governor) and a *Shengchang* (Civil Governor). At present, however, these two offices are vested in one person for Mukden and Amur Provinces."—*Economic history of Manchuria (Bank of Chosen, p. 11)*.

ALSO IN: E. Harper, *Manchus.—Manchu relations with Korea (Transactions Asiatic society of Japan, 1885, pp. 93-95)*.—A. J. Beveridge, *Russian advance*.

1910.—Russo-Japanese convention. See JAPAN: 1905-1914.

1910-1911.—Plague.—"During the winter of 1910-11 Manchuria was swept by an epidemic of pneumonic plague, of such a virulent and deadly type that it recalled the traditions of the Middle Ages, the Black Death which decimated Europe, the Great Plague of London. . . . This was not bubonic plague, and its spread had no connection with rats and fleas. . . . This was the first time for centuries that there had been in the world a serious outbreak of pneumonic plague, independent of the bubonic variety. Its specially marked feature was its unvarying fatality: 43,042 cases are recorded, and 43,042 deaths. There was no authenticated case of recovery."—D. Christie, *Thirty years in Moukden*, pp. 234, 235.

1918.—Japanese troops in Manchuria.—Allied operations against Bolsheviki in Siberia. See WORLD WAR: 1918: III. Russia: e, 1; SIBERIA: 1917-1919.

1919-1923.—Extent of Japanese jurisdiction.—Foreign trade.—Railway mileage.—Status of Chinese eastern railroad.—"The Japanese jurisdiction in Manchuria is limited to 1,300 square miles, known as the Leased Territory in the Kwantung Peninsula, and the South Manchuria Railway Zone of 100 square miles. This Japanese juris-

isdiction is confined to civil administration in the Leased Territory, and to railway guard, police and postal service in the Zone. . . . The Leased Territory is divided for local government purposes into three civil administration districts with headquarters at Dairen, Port Arthur and Chinchow. Port Arthur and Dairen are partly self-governed, having been raised to municipalities electing their mayors and counsellors, among whom, at Dairen, there are many prominent Chinese. The Leased Territory is a 'free zone' and consequently no duty is levied on goods imported for consumption within it; but articles passing the frontier into Manchuria are subject to the Chinese tariffs. The entire system for the administration of the customs is in the hands of the Chinese. . . . With the development of the port of Dairen, the gateway to Manchuria, the foreign trade of the country has grown apace. Three years after the Russo-Japanese War, when Dairen and Antung were opened to commerce, the total trade reached \$40,000,000. In the first year after the close of the European War it had risen to nearly \$500,000,000. . . . More than 2200 miles of railway are now in operation in Manchuria. These lines are as follows: South Manchuria Railway—686 Miles; . . . Chinese Government Railways—522 Miles; . . . Railways Under Russo-Chinese Management—1,078 Miles. . . . For the purpose of providing long-term capital to develop the country, there have been organized the Oriental Developing Company, the Eastern Enterprise Company and the Manchurian Enterprise Company. These financial institutions make loans against lands and buildings."—T. F. Logan, *Manchuria, land of opportunities*, pp. 9, 55, 61, 67.—"Since the Russia-Japan War an anomalous condition has prevailed. Theoretically, Manchuria remains [written in 1919] a part of China. Its officials are appointed by the government of China, and are supposed to be amenable to it. Practically, the Viceroy and his subordinates are in a very embarrassing position. They are expected by the Peking government to rule the country; but north of Chang-chun the Russians, until the chaos which followed the revolution of 1917 weakened their hold, were in possession of the railway and all the leading cities en route. . . . Both Russians and Japanese do as they please in their respective territories, with little regard for the wishes of the Chinese officials. It is true that their jurisdiction is technically limited to a narrow strip on each side of the railway, but as that railway is the one thoroughfare of the country along which all streams of trade and travel flow, and in which practically all the activities of Manchuria center, the limitation is more nominal than real, and a Chinese magistrate who acted on any other assumption would quickly find himself in hot water."—A. J. Brown, *Mastery of the Far East*, pp. 213-214.—See also JAPAN: 1921.

"According to news from Moscow, the Bolshevik Government is about to recover control of the Chinese Eastern Railroad, built by the Czar's Government a quarter of a century ago. If the Moscow version is accurate, this is probably the most satisfactory possible solution of one of the minor complications of Far Eastern economic politics. Under a treaty made with China in 1896, Russia built the railroad; China supplied the right of way, and received her reward in the enormous economic development of Manchuria; Russia paid for the building of the road, and for twenty years paid operating deficits due to the fact that it was used as an instrument of political expansion and not as a business enterprise. But the money was lent by France; and when various Siberian

Governments followed the Imperial Government into collapse, it was the French interests in control of the Russo-Asiatic Bank, holding company for the railroad, which virtually directed its policy. At the Washington conference last Winter [1922] the Chinese came forward with a proposal that they be allowed to buy the road with a new bond issue. This provoked no enthusiasm at all among the men whose money was in it, and who were at last beginning to see a chance of getting some of it back under the competent management of Basil Ostroumoff. Chinese troops had taken over the work of 'guarding' the railroad through most of its length; and they were the soldiers of Chang Tso-lin. His influence compelled the addition of a considerable number of Chinese to the administrative staff. . . . A technical committee appointed by the conference recommended the creation of an international committee of finance which should hire guards and have general control of the railroad. This plan was ruined by Chinese opposition, . . . and the interallied committee which had given the road some protection since 1919 was dissolved last Autumn. Accordingly, the Russo-Asiatic Bank interests seem to have decided to come to terms with Moscow, and the arrangement now concluded virtually restores the conditions existing before the revolution. That is to say, the Russian Government controls the road, and the French are apparently to get interest on their money. China has a minority interest on the Board of Directors, which is as much as China can expect. . . . The road is more important as the shortest outlet for inner Siberia than as the main line of Manchuria. In any case, China has the treaty right to buy it back, if she can, in 1933, and will acquire the title automatically in 1977."—*New York Times*, March 12, 1923.

MANCHUS, or **Manchoos**, inhabitants of China belonging to the Tungusic branch of the Ural-Altaic family.—See also **MANCHURIA**: Geographic description; Early history.

Rule in China. See **CHINA**: 1294-1736; 1662-1838; 1911 (April-December).

Language. See **PHILOLOGY**: 20; **CHINA**: Languages and dialects of the country.

MANCINUS, Caius Hostilius, Roman consul, 137 B. C. See **NUMANTIAN WAR**.

MANCO, Inca of Peru, crowned 1534. See **PERU**: 1533-1548.

MANCOMUNIDAD, voluntary representative body of Catalonia. See **BARCELONA**: 1015-1019.

MANCUNIAM, Roman town in Britain which occupied the site of the modern city of Manchester.

MANDA ISLAND, off the east coast of British East Africa. See **BRITISH EAST AFRICA**: 1895-1897.

MANDAKOES, aboriginal tribe of Texas. See **TEXAS**: Aboriginal inhabitants.

MANDALAY, chief town in Upper Burma. It was the former Burman capital. See **CHINA**: Map. 1884.—Massacre. See **BURMA**: 1824-1886.

MANDANS, or **Mandanes**, American aboriginal tribe. See **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area; **HIDATSA**; **STOUAN FAMILY**.

MANDARIN, dialect of China. See **CHINA**: Languages and dialects of the country.

MANDAT, A. J. Gaillot de (1751-1792), French soldier. Commander-in-chief of the French National Guard; murdered, 1792. See **FRANCE**: 1792 (June-August).

MANDATES: Under League of Nations. See **LEAGUE OF NATIONS**: Text of the Covenant: Article 22; also Establishment of the Secretariat; **PALESTINE**: 1920; 1921-1922; **PARIS, CONFERENCE OF**: Colonies and mandates.

MANDEVILLE, Jehan de, "Sir John Mandeville," name taken by the compiler of a book of travel. See **EUROPE**: Renaissance and Reformation: Spirit of adventure, etc.

MANDUBIL.—A tribe in ancient Gaul, which occupied part of the modern French department of the Côte-d'Or and whose chief town was Alesia, the scene of Caesar's famous siege.—Based on Napoleon III, *History of Cæsar*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 2, footnote.

MANES. See **MANI**; **MANICHEANS**.

MANET, Edouard (1832-1883), French painter. See **PAINTING**: Europe (19th century).

MANETHO, List of.—"Of all the Greek writers who have treated of the history of the Pharaohs, there is only one whose testimony has, since the deciphering of the hieroglyphics, preserved any great value—a value which increases the more it is compared with the original monuments; we speak of Manetho. Once he was treated with contempt; his veracity was disputed, the long series of dynasties he unfolds to our view was regarded as fabulous. Now, all that remains of his work is the first of all authorities for the reconstruction of the ancient history of Egypt. Manetho, a priest of the town of Sebennytus, in the Delta, wrote in Greek, in the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus, a history of Egypt, founded on the official archives preserved in the temples. Like many other books of antiquity, this history has been lost; we possess now a few fragments only, with the list of all the kings placed by Manetho at the end of his work—a list happily preserved in the writings of some chronologers of the Christian epoch. This list divides into dynasties, or royal families, all the kings who reigned successively in Egypt down to the time of Alexander."—F. Lenormant, *Manual of ancient history of the East*, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 1, sect. 2.—See also **EGYPT**: Historical antiquity; **HISTORY**: 14.

MANFRED (c. 1232-1266), king of Naples and Sicily, 1258-1266. See **ITALY** (Southern): 1250-1268; **FLORENCE**: 1248-1278.

MANGIN, Charles Marie Emmanuel (b. 1866), French general. He served in West Africa and Morocco, 1906-1913; commanded the 5th Infantry Division in the early stages of the World War and later led the 11th Army Corps against the Germans before Verdun; played a prominent part in the great Allied offensive of 1918; appointed member of the Superior War Council, January, 1920. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: II. Western front: b, 15; 1918: II. Western front: g, 7; g, 11; g, 12.

MANGU (d. 1260), khan of Mongolia, 1251-1260. See **MONGOLIA**: 1220-1264; **BAGDAD**: 1258.

MANHATTAN BOROUGH, one of the five boroughs which make up New York City. See **NEW YORK CITY**: 1895-1897.

MANHATTAN BRIDGE. See **NEW YORK CITY**: 1867-1915.

MANHATTAN ISLAND, island at the head of New York bay, forming the borough of Manhattan of Greater New York. It has a length of thirteen and one half miles, a maximum width of two and one quarter miles, and an area of twenty-two square miles. Its population, in 1922, was 2,271,892.

Aboriginal people and name.—"The earliest notice we have of the island which is now adorned by a beautiful and opulent city is to be found in Hudson's journal. 'Mana-hata' is therein mentioned, in reference to the hostile people whom he encountered on his return from his exploring of the river, and who resided on this island. De Laet . . . calls those wicked people Manathans, and names the river Manhattes. . . . Hartger calls the Indians and the island Mahattan. . . . In some of the early

transactions of the colony, it is spelled Monhattoes, Munhatos, and Manhattoes. Professor Ebeling says, that at the mouth of the river lived the Manhattans or Manathanes (or as the Englishmen commonly called it, Manhados), who kept up violent animosities with their neighbours, and were at first most hostile towards the Dutch, but suffered themselves to be persuaded afterwards to sell them the island, or at least that part of it where New York now stands. Manhattan is now the name, and it was, when correctly adopted, so given by the Dutch, and by them it not only distinguished the Indians, the island and the river, but it was a general name of their plantations. . . . Mr. Hecke-welder observes that hitherto all his labours had been fruitless in inquiring about a nation or tribe of Indians called the 'Manhattos' or 'Manathones'; Indians both of the Mahicanni and Delaware nations assured him that they never had heard of any Indian tribe by that name. He says he is convinced that it was the Delawares or Munseys (which last was a branch of the Delawares) who inhabited that part of the country where New York now is. York Island is called by the Delawares to this day [1824] Manahattani or Manahachtanink. The Delaware word for 'Island' is 'Manatey'; the Munsey word for the same is 'Manächtey.' . . . Dr. Barton also has given as his belief that the Manhatta were a branch of the Munsis."—J. V. N. Yates and J. W. Moulton, *History of the State of New York*, v. 1, pp. 223-224.

1613.—First settlements.—Argalls' visit. See NEW YORK: 1610-1614.

1623.—Settlement. See NEW YORK CITY: 1623.

1626.—Purchase of. See NEW YORK: 1621-1646; NEW YORK CITY: 1626.

MANHATTANS, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; MANHATTAN ISLAND.

MANHOOD SUFFRAGE. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD.

MANI, or Manes (c. 216-c. 277), Persian religious philosopher. Claimed divine inspiration and founded the sect of the Manicheans; crucified by order of the Persian king. See MANICHEANS.

MANICHEANS.—"A certain Mani (or Manes, as the ecclesiastical writers call him) . . . grew to manhood under Sapor, exposed to . . . various religious influences. . . . With a mind free from prejudice and open to conviction, he studied the various systems of belief which he found established in Western Asia—the Cabalism of the Babylonian Jews, the Dualism of the Magi, the mysterious doctrines of Christians, and even the Buddhism of India. At first he inclined to Christianity, and is said to have been admitted to priest's orders and to have ministered to a congregation; but after a time he thought that he saw his way to the formation of a new creed, which should combine all that was best in the religious systems which he was acquainted with, and omit what was superfluous or objectionable. He adopted the Dualism of the Zoroastrians, the metempsychosis of India, the angelism and demonism of the Talmud and Trinitarianism of the Gospel of Christ. Christ himself he identified with Mithra, and gave Him his dwelling in the sun. He assumed to be the Paraclete promised by Christ, who should guide men into all truth, and claimed that his 'Ertang,' a sacred book illustrated by pictures of his own painting, should supersede the New Testament. Such pretensions were not likely to be tolerated by the Christian community; and Manes had not put them forward very long when he was expelled from the church and forced to carry his teaching elsewhere. Under these circumstances he is said to have addressed himself to Sapor [the Persian

king], who was at first inclined to show him some favour; but when he found out what the doctrines of the new teacher actually were, his feelings underwent a change, and Manes, proscribed, or at any rate threatened with penalties, had to retire into a foreign country. . . . Though the morality of the Manichees was pure, and though their religion is regarded by some as a sort of Christianity, there were but few points in which it was an improvement on Zoroastrianism."—G. Rawinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy*, ch. 4.—First in Persia and, afterwards, throughout Christendom, the Manicheans were subjected to a merciless persecution; but they spread their doctrines, notwithstanding, in the West and in the East, and it was not until several centuries had passed that the heresy became extinct.—Based on J. L. Mosheim, *Christianity during the first 325 years, third century*, lect. 39-55.—See also PAULICIANS; ALBIGENSES; PRISCILLIANISM.

MANIFESTATION, Aragonese process of severity for national liberty. See CORTES: Early Spanish.

MANIKALAND, a region in the southeastern part of Africa, part of the territory being in Rhodesia and part in the section claimed by the Portuguese.

MANILA, capital and principal port of the Philippine islands, on the east shore of Manila bay, on the island of Luzon. (See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Map.) The population was 283,013 in 1918. The Pasig river divides the city into two parts, the old walled city and the suburbs. Manila was originally founded by Legaspi in 1571. A year later it was attacked and nearly conquered by Chinese pirates. An era of prosperity set in early in the seventeenth century when Manila was considered the commercial metropolis of the Far East. Before the close of the century, however, running parallel with the decline of Spanish power and the growth of Dutch commerce, this prosperity gradually waned and did not pick up again under Spanish rule. Especially disastrous too, were the earthquakes of 1645 and 1863. The city was captured by the English in 1762, but was, however, returned to Spain by the Treaty of Paris (1763). Late in the nineteenth century Manila became the center of revolutionary agitation against Spanish sovereignty.—See also PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1564-1572; 1574; 1600; 1600-1663; 1700-1800.

1898.—Destruction of Spanish fleet in Manila bay.—Blockade and siege. See U. S. A.: 1898 (April-July); (April-May: Philippines).

1898 (July-September)—Capture by the Americans.—Relations of Americans with Filipino insurgents.—General Merritt's report.—Change after invasion by Americans. See U. S. A.: 1808 (July-September); (August-December).

1906.—Change in provincial government. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1906.

MANILIAN LAW. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 60-63.

MANIN, Daniele (1804-1857), Italian patriot. See ITALY: 1848-1849.

MANIOTO, or Mayno, South American Indian tribe. See ANDESIANS.

MANIPULI, name of Roman company of soldiers. See LEGION, ROMAN.

MANITOBA: Geographical description.—"The original area of the Province of Manitoba was 13,000 square miles. There have been two extensions since. In 1881 the western boundary of the province was carried from the 100th meridian of west longitude to its present position [the eastern boundary of Saskatchewan], and in 1912 a large part of the Territory of Keewatin was added,

the boundaries of Manitoba being then carried north to the 60th parallel, and northeast to where the 89th meridian meets the southern coast-line of Hudson Bay. The present area of the province is 251,832 square miles. [While Manitoba is best known for its hard wheat and other grains, stock raising and dairying, lumbering, mining and fishing and the fur trade are all industrially important.]—*Manitoba, the keystone province of the Canadian confederation*, pp. 15, 20.—See also NORTHWEST TERRITORY; CANADA: Agriculture; U.S.A.: Economic map.

1811-1835.—Origin of province.—Troubles of early settlers.—In the beginning of the nineteenth century, James Douglas, Earl of Selkirk, a philanthropist, who believed that emigration was the best remedy for the economic ills from which the Old World was suffering, conceived the idea of planting a colony on the Red river. He was associated with the Hudson's Bay Company, and from its agents had learned of the great fertility of the region in which he proposed to make his great experiment. In pursuance of his project "Lord Selkirk proceeded to purchase a large quantity of the stock of the Hudson's Bay Company. Up to May, 1811, he or his relatives had acquired some £35,000 out of a total capital variously stated as from £105,000 to £180,000. Having finally and legally purchased so large a portion of the stock, a general court of proprietors was called to consider his proposition to settle, within a limited time, a large colony—assuming the expense of transport, of outlay for the settlers, of Government, of protection, and of quieting the Indian title. . . . The district thus disposed of was called Assiniboia. . . . It is variously estimated to have been from 75,000 to 116,000 square miles in extent. It included the valleys of the Red River and Assiniboine."—G. Bryce, *Manitoba, its infancy, growth and present position*, pp. 149-151.—Part of this great tract is now in the United States, the rest forms part of the present province of Manitoba. In 1811, 1813 and 1815, Scottish and Irish colonists were sent out to settle the land, and from the first faced discouragements which would have dismayed any less hardy pioneers. They were brought into the country by way of James bay, which they reached in the early autumn, and each contingent was compelled to winter on the Nelson river, and make its way across the country to the Red river in the following autumn. The first three winters were spent at Pembina, seventy miles south of the proposed settlement, partly at the insistence of the North-West Company's employees. Quarrels between the fur companies obstructed the growth of the colony, and it was not until 1820, that even a semblance of prosperity began to give hope to the settlers. In 1821 a party of Swiss arrived; but they were unsuited for pioneer life and a few years later moved away to the United States. In 1821, when the fur companies amalgamated, the population of the settlement was "about five hundred. . . . A number of enterprises were undertaken, in order to provide employment for the colonists. . . . [They were unsuccessful, and] these dismal failures placed an undesired stigma upon the character of the soil, climate and resources of Assiniboine. It took more than fifty years of subsequent effort to remove this impression, [an impression which was sedulously cultivated by the Hudson's Bay Company]."—G. Bryce, *Lord Selkirk's colonists*, pp. 167, 176.—The control of the colony was in the hands of the founder and his executors until 1823, when the government was transferred to the Hudson's Bay Company, which repurchased the land in 1835.

1835-1871.—Government by Hudson's Bay Company.—"For more than twenty years the colony had existed almost without laws, rulers, or protectors; but . . . [in 1835] the Hudson's Bay Company thought it time to adopt some system whereby law and order could be more effectually maintained. Its first step towards this end was to appoint a new Council of Assiniboia in which the people of the colony would have a larger representation and to empower this council to make a simple code of laws, to establish courts of justice, and to appoint a constabulary force for the maintenance of order. . . . Accordingly new councillors . . . were nominated and commissioned by the company's executive committee in London; and these, with the councillors chosen from the company's officials, were to constitute the council of the governor-in-chief. It was a legislative body, having power to make laws in criminal as well as civil matters; and it was also a judicial body, inasmuch as it might sit as a court of appeal from decisions made in the magistrates' courts. The new council met for the first time on February 12, 1835. . . . In spite of defections and drawbacks of various kinds, the population of the colony increased. The census of 1840 showed the total population to be 4,704, the number of Protestant families being 257 and the number of Catholic families 488. . . . The census of 1849 shows that there were 745 dwelling houses in the colony, 7 churches, 12 schools, 2 watermills, and 12 windmills. The settlers . . . [were fairly well supplied with stock] and they had 6,320 acres of land under cultivation."—G. Bryce, *Lord Selkirk's colonies*, p. 167.—"There was a bad flood in the spring of 1852 . . . [which lasted from May 7 to June 12]. About 3,500 people had to leave their homes and flee to the open country, and [wheat could not be planted]. In 1861 there was another flood, although it was not so destructive as that which devastated the settlement nine years earlier. . . . [In 1865 an epidemic of typhus came in the wake of immigrants by way of James bay; in 1865 grasshoppers appeared and worked havoc until 1867 when they disappeared, and all these hardships did not help to make the colonists more satisfied with the rule of the Company. In spite of obstacles new settlers appeared from time to time, from Canada and the United States, and dissatisfaction showed itself more strongly among these newcomers] who had been accustomed to self-government, than among the old settlers, who had passed most of their lives in the colony."—F. H. Schofield, *Story of Manitoba*, pp. 197-198.—"In 1867 Canadian patriots established the Dominion of Canada, and at once a cry was raised for . . . [Canadian] rights in the west. A determined stand was now made, and most extraordinary stories were told in England before a Committee of the House of Commons, showing that the country was little better than an iceberg. In 1868 Bishop Taché published his sketch of the North-West, and he, too, like the Hudson's Bay Company, looked upon the country as scarcely suited for civilized man. Its rivers were unsuited for navigation, and its climate hyperborean. Not one section [of the land which Lord Selkirk had said was capable of supporting 30,000] is spoken of as being suited to a farming community."—J. Macoun, *Manitoba and the great North-West*, p. 453.

1869-1870.—Purchase by Canadian government.—First Riel rebellion.—Creation of province of Manitoba. See CANADA: 1869-1873.

1871-1883.—Organization of government.—Development of communications.—Land "boom."—

"Close in the wake of Wolsey's Expedition, there arrived on the 2nd of September, Adams G. Archibald [of Nova Scotia], the newly-appointed Governor of the new Province of Manitoba. The organization of his government began at once. . . . The Legislative Council . . . of seven members, was appointed, and electoral divisions for the election of members to the Legislative Assembly were made to the number of twenty-four—twelve French and twelve English. The time for the opening of Parliament was the spring of 1871. . . . During the first session certain elementary legislation was passed including a short school act. There was yet no division of parties, and a sufficient cabinet was chosen by the Governor. Thus . . . Manitoba—the successor of our Red River Settlement—had conceded to it the right of local self-government. [The legislative council was abolished in 1876.]—G. Bryce, *Lord Selkirk's colonists*, pp. 307-308.—"When the West became part of the Dominion of Canada, the Indians had to be dealt with justly, the Indian and the half-breed titles to land had to be provided for, the prairies had to be surveyed, roads had to be made, and law and order had to be maintained. First of all, communications had to be established. In 1871 a tri-weekly stage line under contract with the government began running between Abercrombie, Minn., and Winnipeg. In 1877 it became a daily service. In 1871 a telegraph line from Pembina to Winnipeg was opened; thereafter the little outpost at the junction of the Red and the Assiniboine was daily in touch with Ottawa and with the rest of the world. In 1872 the . . . [steamer "Selkirk," appeared on the river, and] meanwhile the Dawson route, . . . from Thunder Bay, . . . to Winnipeg, was opened up. By 1875 a considerable number of home-steaders from Eastern Canada had come to Manitoba. . . . The Mennonites, who came in 1875, were the first foreign settlers. In the following year came the vanguard of the Icelandic settlers. The first train over the first railway to be operated in Manitoba, which was called the Pembina branch, reached St. Boniface, across the river from Winnipeg, on December 7, 1878; it had made the run from Emerson"—*Manitoba, the keystone province of the Canadian confederation*, pp. 17-10.—"The growth from straggling settlements with 12,000 inhabitants to a province of more than 60,000 had taken place in scarcely a decade, despite an isolation unbroken except by the 'prairie schooner' or the river steamboat. . . . [By 1878 settlement had spread westward even as far as Edmonton.] 'At the close of 1870,' says Begg, 'farm houses and cultivated fields were in sight all along the main road for 250 miles west of Winnipeg.'"—C. Martin, *Political history of Manitoba* (A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 19, p. 110).—"The rapid increase in the population . . . and the consequent increase in . . . capital and the amount of business transacted throughout the country resulted in prosperity . . . [which led to speculation; and] culminated in 'the boom' of 1882. A mania for buying and selling real estate seized the people. The prices of lots in the city of Winnipeg [and the smaller towns] were forced up to many times their real value. . . . Lots were sold in towns which never existed save on paper. A similar unwarranted inflation pervaded all departments of business. It could not last, and after a few months the crash came . . . [and many] woke to find themselves ruined. During 1883 and a few of the succeeding years business in Manitoba was at low ebb, and it was a long time before the country recovered from the disastrous effects

of 'the boom.'"—F. H. Schofield, *Story of Manitoba*, v. 1, p. 384.

1871-1912.—Disputes with Dominion government.—Settlement of boundaries.—"Almost from the organization of the Province, the relations of Manitoba with the Dominion government were complicated by problems relating to railways, the public schools, finances and boundaries. In the case of the railways, the complication was caused by the federal policy that 'no charter for a line exclusively within the Province of Manitoba should be granted by its Legislature' without the previous assent of the Dominion government. . . . When the incorporation of the Manitoba South-Eastern Railway by the provincial legislature was actually disallowed in 1882 by the governor-general in council because it contravened existing federal contracts . . . [energetic protests were made]. 'The monopoly clause' . . . in the Canadian Pacific Railway contract of 1880, precluding for twenty years competition except by 'such line as shall run south-west or to the westward of south-west'—together with the 'land-lock' occasioned by the granting to that company of alternate sections for twenty-four miles on either side of the railway, . . . [had already become topics of heated discussion]. 'Railway Policy' became a party issue, and parties began to conform more rigidly to the exigencies of federal politics. . . . [In 1888, however, 'Disallowance' of railways] was abolished by the surrender of the offensive 'monopoly clause' by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. . . . [The public school question came to the front, when] an agitation for non-sectarian public schools and a government department of Education to replace the cumbersome dual board of 1871 . . . [was] organized in 1876 under inspiration from Ontario. . . . [The summary readjustment of the board of education averted conflict, and the system] of public schools in Winnipeg, controlled by a board of elected trustees and supported by extensive powers of taxation, appointment, and inspection, proved sufficiently satisfactory to keep the 'school question,' for twelve years, from the arena of provincial politics. . . . [Immigration from Ontario brought reinforcements for the agitation against separate schools. In 1890 they were abolished by the Public Schools Act, and in 1896 the whole matter had become a federal question, and the chief issue in Dominion politics. (See CANADA: 1890-1896.) The Public Schools Act was followed by the abolition of the use of French as an official language. The financial problem known as 'better terms,' arose from the fact that the Dominion had actually bought the territory of which Manitoba formed part. When the Province was created, her public lands were withheld, and in lieu thereof she received certain annual sums to be applied on the budget. The Province had little or no revenue from other sources, for the crown lands within its borders, the minerals, the timber, and the fisheries were all controlled by the Dominion.] From the organization of the Province the agitation for 'better terms' was almost continuous. . . . As early as 1873 it was contended that Manitoba 'should possess a seaport on Hudson Bay and a lake port on Lake Superior.' . . . [Various increases were made in the annual subsidy, and in 1881] the original boundaries, comprising less than 13,500 square miles were extended more than 100 miles to the westward, eastward to the undefined boundary of Ontario, and northward by more than 150 miles, the new boundaries comprising in all an area estimated at more than 150,000 square miles. It was found, however, that the final settlement of the eastern boundary with

Ontario left Manitoba with less than half that area. . . . [In 1883 the two Provinces came into collision over some of the disputed area, but the matter was submitted to the Privy Council, and was decided in favor of Ontario. Agitation continued, however, until 1912 when the boundary was extended to Hudson bay. (See CANADA: 1912.)] In right of this grant Manitoba extended full legislative authority over a new district estimated at 106,304,000 acres, extending from the northern boundary of the old province to the 60th parallel of north latitude, and from the eastern boundary of Saskatchewan to Hudson Bay and a line drawn from the coast at the 89th meridian of west longitude to the eastern extremity of Island Lake and the north-eastern extremity of the old province. There was a littoral on Hudson Bay of five hundred miles."—C. Martin, *Political history of Manitoba* (A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 19, pp. 110, 112, 124-125, 133-134, 137).

1876-1912.—Growth of grain and cattle trade.—The beginning of the great grain trade of Manitoba was made in 1876, when in spite of the ravages made by grasshoppers a small shipment was made to Toronto. In 1877, the first shipment of Manitoba wheat was made to Great Britain, and the following year 35,000 bushels were exported. "As early as 1881 grain commission houses had been established in Winnipeg. In 1883 an attempt was made to organize the trade; but this was not successful, and it was not until the crop of 1887 was ready for market, that a grain exchange was successfully organized. . . . From 1887 onward, there was a steady increase in the export trade. . . . At the end of 1888 there was a well established inspection department, a grain exchange, . . . elevators at all important points in the Province, and a steadily growing activity. . . . [In 1887, the whole crop of the year was under 13,000,000 bushels.] In 1912 about 400,000,000 bushels were traded in options through the grain exchange clearing house, and the cash grain exchange business was the largest on the continent of America. . . . The cattle trade has formed one of the great enterprises of Manitoba. When the second Riel rebellion broke out in 1885, cattle were so scarce in Manitoba that it was necessary to bring in supplies from eastern Canada and the United States to supply the troops with necessary meat. Between the years 1885 and 1908, the export trade in cattle of western Canada reached its maximum, namely 90,000 head."—F. H. Schofield, *Story of Manitoba*, v. 1, pp. 399-401.

1898-1918.—Attitude on prohibition. See CANADA: 1898 (September); 1914-1918: War time prohibition.

1902.—New parliamentary representation. See CANADA: 1901-1902.

1916.—Government control of telephone systems. See TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES: 1916.

1921.—Electoral system. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 1921.

MANITOBA ASSOCIATION. See COÖPERATION: Canada.

MANITOBA SCHOOL QUESTION. See CANADA: 1890-1896; 1898 (January).

MANN, Sir Donald (1853-), Canadian railway promoter. See RAILROADS: 1899-1919.

MANN, Horace (1796-1859), American educator. See EDUCATION: Modern: 10th century: United States: Evolution of the public school system.

MANN, Thomas (1875-), German novelist and short story writer. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1900-1922.

MANN ACT (1910). See WHITE SLAVE TRADE. MANNAHOACS, North American Indian tribe. See POWHATAN CONFEDERACY.

MANN-ELKINS ACT (1910). See RAILROAD: 1910-1916; U.S.A.: 1910 (March-June).

MANNERHEIM, Carl Gustav Emil, Finnish general. Regent of Finland, 1918-1919. See FINLAND: 1918; 1919-1920; 1920.

MANNESMANN MINING CONCESSION, granted to German exploiters by Sultan Mulai Hafid in Morocco. See MOROCCO: 1909.

MANNHEIM, town in Baden, Germany, fifty-five miles south of Frankfort-on-Main. The population was 229,576 in 1919.

1622.—Capture by Tilly. See GERMANY: 1621-1623.

1689.—Destroyed by the French. See FRANCE: 1689-1690.

1799.—Capture by Austrians. See FRANCE: 1799 (August-December).

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

1918.—Bombed by Allies, during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VIII. Aviation.

See also HOUSING: Germany: Difficulties of the housing problem.

MANNHEIM SYMPHONIES. See MUSIC: Modern: 1740.

MANNING, James (1738-1791), American educator. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1762-1769.

MANNY, Walter de Manny, Baron de (d. 1372), British soldier of fortune and founder of Charterhouse. Soldier under Edward III, and after 1337 served for many years in France; received a license to found a house of Carthusian monks, 1371. —See also AIGUILLON, SIEGE OF.

MANO NEGRA, secret society in Spain. See SPAIN: 1874-1885.

MANOA, fabled city in the El Dorado of the Spaniards. See EL DORADO.

MANOELISTS, political party in Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1011-1914.

MANORS.—"The name manor is of Norman origin, but the estate to which it was given existed, in its essential character, long before the Conquest; it received a new name as the shire also did, but neither the one nor the other was created by this change. The local jurisdictions of the thegns who had grants of sac and soc, or who exercised judicial functions amongst their free neighbours, were identical with the manorial jurisdictions of the new owners. . . . The manor itself was, as Ordericus tells us, nothing more nor less than the ancient township, now held by a lord who possessed certain judicial rights varying according to the terms of the grant by which he was infeoffed. Every manor had a court baron, the ancient gemot of the township, in which by-laws were made and other local business transacted, and a court customary in which the business of the villenage was despatched. Those manors whose lords had under the Anglo-Saxon laws possessed sac and soc, or who since the Conquest had had grants in which those terms were used, had also a court-leet, or criminal jurisdiction, cut out as it were from the criminal jurisdiction of the hundred, and excusing the suitors who attended it from going to the court-leet of the hundred."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 1, ch. 9, sect. 98; ch. 11, sect. 129.—"From the Conquest to the 14th century we find the same agricultural conditions prevailing over the greater part of England. Small gatherings of houses and cots appear as oases in the moorland and forest, more or less frequent according to the early or late settlement of the district, and its freedom from, or exposure to the ravages of war and the punishment

of rebellion. These oases, townships or vills if of some extent, hamlets if of but a few houses, gather round one or more mansions of superior size and importance, the Manor houses, or abodes of the Lords of the respective Manors. Round each township stretch the great ploughed fields, usually three in number, open and uninclosed. Each field is divided into a series of parallel strips a furlong in length, a rod wide, four of which would make an acre, the strips being separated by ridges of turf called balks, while along the head of each series of strips runs a broad band of turf known as a headland, on which the plough is turned, when it does not by custom turn on some fellow-tenant's land, and which serves as a road to the various strips in the fields. These strips are allotted in rotation to a certain number of the dwellers in the township, a very common holding being that known as a virgate or yardland, consisting of about 30 acres. . . . Mr. Seebohm's exhaustive researches have conclusively connected this system of open fields and rotation of strips with the system of common ploughing, each holder of land providing so many oxen for the common plough, two being the contribution of the holder of a virgate, and eight the normal number drawing the plough, though this would vary with the character of the soil. . . . At the date of Domesday (1086), the holders of land in the common fields comprise the Lord; the free tenants, socmanni or liberi homines, when there are any; the villani or saxon geburs, the holders of virgates or half virgates; and the bordarii or cotarii, holders of small plots of 5 acres or so, who have fewer rights and fewer duties. Besides ploughing the common-fields, the villani as part of their tenure have to supply the labour necessary to cultivate the arable land that the Lord of the Manor keeps in his own hands as his domain, dominicum, or demesne."—T. E. Scrutton, *Commons and common fields*, ch. I.—"The usual 'fief' or 'manor' consisted of a village with several hundred acres of arable land surrounding it. The cultivators of the soil lived in this village rather than in isolated farm houses, as do the agricultural folk in America to-day. Beyond the fields, there were stretches of pasture and waste land and of woodland, where the pigs might forage for food. The arable area was divided up into two portions. A considerable part was kept in the hands of the lord, and cultivated under his direction, or that of his representative, for his own personal benefit. This was known as the 'demesne.' The rest was parcelled out among the tenants. Now the holdings of the several tenants or villeins, as they frequently were called, were not compact fields but a number of acre or half-acre strips scattered over the whole of the tillable area. Each man had several separate strips in each of the three fields, which were not separated by fences or hedges, but simply by 'balks' of unplowed turf. The significant thing about the intermixed holdings in the open fields was that each man was bound to cultivate his strips in accordance with the rotation of crops observed by his neighbors. There were also other forms of common action and co-operation. The cattle of all the tenants were turned out to graze over the stubble after the grain was cut, as well as over the one great field whose turn it was to lie fallow in that particular year. They turned their cattle out upon the common pasture or waste, sometimes in proportion to the size of their holdings, and sometimes 'without stint.' They seem in many cases to have employed a village herdsman, shepherd or swincherd. Thus the whole land of the manor seems to have been cultivated on an elaborate system of joint labor, and even the raising

of stock seems to have been generally a co-operative enterprise. These common activities bound the people together in a manner far more effective than anything we know in the modern world. Everyone's work was so bound up with that of the entire community that he had exceedingly little opportunity for individuality or to use any initiative, and custom ruled supreme. But not only was the economic life a community rather than an individual affair; the same thing was true of the legal, religious and the general social life. As a usual thing, each manor had its own law courts for the maintenance of order. At frequent intervals court was held at the manor house or the castle, attended by all the villagers for the punishment of petty offences and the transfer of holdings. All the villagers attended the same church. Very often so large a portion of the tithes was taken by the bishop or other high ecclesiastical official that the priest had to be content with the altar dues, and was glad enough to get a few acres of land, and add to his income by joining in the common agriculture."—S. A. Queen, *Social work in the light of history* (E. C. Hayes, ed., *Lippincott's Sociological Series*, pp. 273-274).—See also AGRICULTURE: Medieval: Manorial system.—Relative to the origin of the manor and the development of the community from which it rose there are divergent views much discussed at the present day. "The interpretation, current fifteen years ago, was the natural outcome of the Mark theory and was somewhat as follows: The community was a voluntary association, a simple unit within which there were households or families of various degrees of wealth, rank and authority, but in point of status each was the equal of the other. Each was subject only to the customs and usages of the community and to the court of the Mark. The Mark was therefore a judicial and political as well as an agricultural unit, though cultivation of the soil was the primary bond of union. All offices were filled by election, but the incumbent in due time sank back into the general body of 'markgenossen.' He who was afterwards to be the lord of the manor was originally only 'the first Marksman,' who attained to this pre-eminence in part by the prestige of election to a position of headship, in part by usurpation, and in part by the prerogatives which protection and assistance to weaker Marksmen brought. Thus the first Marksman became the lord and held the others in a kind of subjection to himself, and received from them, though free, dues and services which grew increasingly more severe. [See also FEUDALISM: Organization.] The main difficulty here seems to be in the premise, and it is the evident artificiality of the voluntary association of freemen which has led to such adverse criticism upon the whole theory. . . . While the free village community was under fire at home as well as abroad, Mr. Seebohm presented a new view of an exactly opposite character, with the formula of the community in villeinage under a lord. Although this view has . . . divided thinkers on the subject, it has proved no more satisfactory than the other; for while it does explain the origin of the lord of the manor, it leaves wholly untouched the body of free Saxons whom Earle calls the rank and file of the invading army. Other theories have sought to supply the omissions in this vague non-documentary field, all erected with learning and skill, but unfortunately not in harmony with one another. Coote and Finlason have given to the manor an unqualified Roman origin. Lewis holds to a solid British foundation, the Teutonists would make it wholly Saxon, while Gomme is inclined to see an Aryo-British community under Saxon overlordship. Thus

there is a wide range from which to select; all cannot be true; no one is an explanation of all conditions, yet most of them have considerable sound evidence to support them. It is this lack of harmony which drives the student to discover some theory which shall be in touch with known tribal conditions and a natural consequence of their development, and which at the same time shall be sufficiently elastic to conform to the facts which confront us in the early historical period. An attempt has been made [in the work here quoted from] to lay down two premises, the first of which is the composite character of the tribal and village community, and the second the diverse ethnological conditions of Britain after the Conquest, conditions which would allow for different results. . . . Kemble in his chapter on Personal Rank has a remark which is ill in keeping with his peaceful Mark theory. He says: 'There can be no doubt that some kind of military organization preceded the peaceful settlement, and in many respects determined its mode and character.' To this statement Earle has added another equally pregnant: 'Of all principles of military regiment there is none so necessary or so elementary as this, that all men must be under a captain, and such a captain as is able to command prompt and willing obedience. Upon this military principle I conceive the English settlements were originally founded, that each several settlement was under a military leader, and that this military leader was the ancestor of the lord of the manor.' Professor Earle then continues in the endeavor to apply the suggestion contained in the above quotation. He shows that the 'hundreds' represent the first permanent encampment of the invading host, and that the military occupation preceded the civil organization, the latter falling into the mould which the former had prepared. According to this the manorial organization was based upon a composite military foundation, the rank and file composing the one element, the village community; the captain or military leader composing the other, settled with suitable provision by the side of his company; the lord by the side of free owners. In this attempt to give the manor a composite origin, as the only rational means whereby the chief difficulty can be removed, and in the attempt to carry the seigniorial element to the very beginning we believe him to be wholly right. But an objection must be raised to the way in which Professor Earle makes up his composite element. It is too artificial, too exclusively military; the occupiers of the village are the members of the 'company,' the occupier of the adjacent seat is the 'captain,' afterwards to become the lord. . . . We feel certain that the local community, the village, was simply the kindred, the sub-clan group, which had become a local habitation, yet when we attempt to test its presence in Anglo-Saxon Britain we meet with many difficulties."—C. McL. Andrews, *Old English manor*, pp. 7-51.

ALSO IN: F. Seeborn, *English village communities*, ch. 2, sect. 12.—H. Maine, *Village communities*, lect. 5.—W. J. Ashley, *Select pleas in manorial courts*.—P. Vinogradoff, *Villainage in England*.—W. Cunningham, *Growth of English industry and commerce*.

MANSFELD, Ernst, Graf von (c. 1580-1626), German soldier. See GERMANY: 1621-1623; 1624-1626; HUNGARY: 1606-1660.

MANSFIELD, William Murray, 1st Earl of (1705-1793), English judge. See COMMON LAW: 1756-1788; 1783; RHODE ISLAND: 1841.

MANSFIELD, or Sabine Cross Roads, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1864 (March-May: Louisiana).

MANSON, Sir Patrick (1844-1922), English

physician and parasitologist. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: 19th-20th centuries: Insect transmission of disease.

MANSUR, name for several caliphs. One of the most famous was Abu Ja'far ibn Mohammed, the second of the Abbassid House, ruled, 754-775; selected Bagdad as his capital. See CALIPHATE: 763; BAGDAD: 762-763.

MANSURA, or Mansourah, Battle of (1250). See AFRICA: Ancient and medieval civilization: Arab occupation; CRUSADES: 1248-1254.

MANTEGNA, Andrea (1431-1506), Italian painter. See PAINTING: Italian: Early Renaissance.

MANTEUFFEL, Edwin, Freiherr von (1800-1885), Prussian field marshal. Served in the Danish War, 1864; the Austrian War, 1866; and the Franco-Prussian War, 1870-1871; governor of Alsace-Lorraine, 1879-1885. See ALSACE-LORRRAINE: 1879-1894; FRANCE: 1870-1871; GERMANY: 1850-1851; 1871-1879.

MANTINEIA, or Mantinea, ancient city of Arcadia, Greece, about 43 miles southwest of Corinth. "Mantinea was the single city of Arcadia which had dared to pursue an independent line of policy. [See SPARTA: B. C. 743-510.] Not until the Persian Wars the community coalesced out of five villages into one fortified city; this being done at the instigation of Argos, which already at this early date entertained thoughts of forming for itself a confederation in its vicinity. Mantinea had endeavored to increase its city and territory by conquest, and after the Peace of Nicias had openly opposed Sparta."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 4, bk. 5, ch. 5.

B. C. 480.—Battle of Thermopylæ. See GREECE: B. C. 480: Persian Wars: Thermopylæ.

B. C. 419-416.—Alliance with Athens.—Victory of Sparta. See ATHENS: B. C. 419-416; Greece: B. C. 421-418.

B. C. 385.—Destruction by Spartans. See GREECE: B. C. 385-383.

B. C. 371-362.—Restoration of city.—Arcadian union and disunion.—Great battle.—Victory and death of Epaminondas. See GREECE: B. C. 371; B. C. 371-362.

B. C. 222.—Change of name.—In the war between Cleomenes of Sparta and the Achaean league, the city of Mantinea was, first, surprised by Aratus, the chief of the league, 226 B. C., and occupied by an Achaean garrison; then recaptured by Cleomenes and his partisans, 224 B. C., and finally, 222 B. C., stormed by Antigonus, king of Macedonia, acting in the name of the League, and given up to pillage. Its citizens were sold into slavery. "The dispeopled city was placed by the conqueror at the disposal of Argos, which decreed that a colony should be sent to take possession of it under the auspices of Aratus. The occasion enabled him to pay another courtly compliment to the king of Macedonia. On his proposal, the name of the 'lovely Mantinea'—as it was described in the Homeric catalogue—was exchanged for that of Antigonea, a symbol of its ruin and of the humiliation of Greece."—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 8, ch. 62.

B. C. 207.—Defeat of Lacedaemonians.—In the wars of the Achaean League, the Lacedaemonians were defeated under the walls of Mantinea with great slaughter, by the forces of the League, ably marshalled by Philopæmen, and the Lacedaemonian king Machanidas was slain. "It was the third great battle fought on the same, or nearly the same, ground. Here, in the interval between the two parts of the Peloponnesian War, had Agis restored the glory of Sparta after her humiliation at Sphacteria; here Epameinondas had fallen in the moment of victory; here now [207 B. C.] was to be fought the last great battle of independent Greece."—E. A.

Freeman, *History of federal government*, ch. 8, sect. 2.

MANTUA, fortified city of Lombardy, Italy, twenty-five miles southwest of Verona. In 1915 it had a population of 34,507. It was originally an Etruscan city, becoming a Roman municipium just before the time of Virgil, who was born near the city. The Lombards found Mantua a walled city, in 568. Recovered by the exarch of Ravenna in 590, it was again captured by Agilulf in 601. In the ninth century the city was in the hands of the church and in the eleventh century formed part of the vast possessions of Boniface, marquis of Canossa.

11th-12th centuries.—Rise and acquisition of republican independence. See ITALY: 1050-1152.

1077-1115.—Dominions of Countess Matilda. See PAPACY: 1077-1102.

14th century.—Control by Viscontis of Milan. See MILAN: 1277-1447.

15th-16th centuries.—Teaching of Vittorino da Feltre. See EDUCATION: Modern: 15th-16th centuries: Italy the center.

1627-1631.—War of France, Spain and the empire over disputed succession to the duchy.—Siege and capture of city by Imperialists.—Rights of Duke de Nevers established. See ITALY: 1627-1631; SAVOY AND PIEDMONT.

1635.—Alliance with France against Spain. See GERMANY: 1634-1639; ITALY: 1635-1659.

1749-1792.—Under Austrian rule after treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. See ITALY: 1749-1792.

1796-1797.—Siege and reduction by French. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October); 1796-1797 (October-April).

1797.—Ceded by Austria to Cisalpine republic. See FRANCE: 1797 (May-October).

1799.—Siege and capture by Suvarov. See FRANCE: 1709 (April-September).

1814.—Restoration to Austria. See FRANCE: 1814 (April-July).

1814-1866.—Austrian possession.—The Austrians retained Mantua until their final withdrawal from the peninsula in 1866, when it was absorbed in the new kingdom of Italy.

MANU, Laws of.—"The Indians [of Hindustan] possess a series of books of law, which, like that called after Manu, bear the name of a saint or seer of antiquity, or of a god. One is named after Gautama, another after Vasishtha, a third after Apastamba, a fourth after Yajnavalkya; others after Bandhayana and Vishnu. According to the tradition of the Indians the law of Manu is the oldest and most honourable. . . . The conclusion is . . . inevitable that the decisive precepts which we find in the collection must have been put together and written down about the year 600 [B. C.]."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, bk. 5, ch. 6.—"The name, 'Laws of Manu,' somewhat resembles a 'pious fraud,' for the 'Laws' are merely the laws or customs of a school or association of Hindus, called the Manavas, who lived in the country rendered holy by the Divine river Saraswati. In this district the Hindus first felt themselves a settled people, and in their neighbourhood they established colleges and hermitages, or 'asramas,' from some of which we may suppose Brahmanas, Upanishads, and other religious compositions may have issued; and under such influences we may imagine the Code of Manu to have been composed."—Mrs. Manning, *Ancient and mediæval India*, v. 1, p. 276.—See also HINDU LITERATURE: Legal writings.

MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOLS. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: United States: Industrial education: also Modern developments: 20th

century: Vocational education: Industrial education in the United States.

MANUEL I, Comnenus (c.1120-1180), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1143-1180.

Manuel II, Palaeologus (1350-1425), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1391-1425.

Manuel II (1889-), king of Portugal, 1908-1910. See PORTUGAL: 1906-1909; 1910.

MANUEL, Louis Pierre (1751-1793), French writer and revolutionist. See FRANCE: 1792 (September-November).

MANUS ISLAND, principal island in the Admiralty group. See ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

MANUSCRIPTS, Illuminated. See BIBLE: Sources; Modern biblical research; BOOKS: Books in mediæval times; EDUCATION, ART: Mediæval and Renaissance; PAINTING: Early Christian and Byzantine art.

MANUTIUS (also known as the Aldi), organizers of the Aldine press in Venice. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1469-1515.

MANX KINGDOM.—The Isle of Man in the Irish sea gets its English name, Man, by an abbreviation of the native name, Mannin, the origin of which is unknown. The language, called Manx (now little used), and the inhabitants, called Manxmen, are both of Gaelic, or Irish derivation. From the sixth to the tenth century the island was successively ruled by the Scots (Irish), the Welsh and the Norwegians, finally becoming a separate petty kingdom, with Norwegian claims upon it. In the thirteenth century the little kingdom was annexed to Scotland. Subsequently, after various vicissitudes, it passed under English control and was granted by Henry IV to Sir John Stanley. The Stanleys, after some generations, found a dignity which they esteemed higher, in the earldom of Derby, and relinquished the title of king of Man. This was done by the second Earl of Derby, 1505. In 1765 the sovereignty and revenues of the island were purchased by the British government; but its independent form of government has undergone little change. It enjoys "home rule" to perfection. It has its own legislature, called the Court of Tynwald, consisting of a council, or upper chamber, and a representative body called the House of Keys. Acts of the imperial parliament do not apply to the Isle of Man unless it is specifically named in them. It has its own courts, with judges called deemsters (who are the successors of the ancient Druidical priests), and its own governor, appointed by the crown. The divisions of the island, corresponding to English counties, are called sheadings.—Based on S. Walpole, *Land of home rule*. See MONAPIA; NORMANS: 8th-9th centuries: Island empire, etc.; PHILOLOGY: 11.

ALSO IN: H. I. Jenkinson, *Guide to Isle of Man*.—Hall Caine, *Little Manx nation*.—Idem, *Our own country*, v. 5.

MANYOSHU, name for type of Japanese poetry. See JAPANESE LITERATURE: 712-760.

MANZIKERT, or Melazkerd, Battle of (1071). See ARMENIA: 008-1085; TURKEY: 1063-1073.

MANZONI, Alessandro (1784-1873), Italian dramatist. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1710-1890; 1750-1873.

MAONITES.—"We must . . . regard them as a remnant of the Amorites, which, in later times, . . . spread to the west of Petra."—H. Ewald, *History of Israel*, introduction, sect. 4.

MAORI, branch of the Polynesian race in New Zealand. See NEW ZEALAND: 1375-1642; 1815-1840; 1818-1838; 1843-1850; 1853-1870; EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: New Zealand.

MAQUAHUITL.—This was a weapon in use among the Mexicans when the Spaniards found them. It "was a stout stick, three feet and a half long, and about four inches broad, armed on each side with a sort of razors of the stone itztlil (obsidian), extraordinarily sharp, fixed and firmly fastened to the stick with gum lack. . . . The first stroke only was to be feared, for the razors became soon blunt."—F. S. Clavigero, *History of Mexico*, bk. 7.

ALSO IN: A. Helps, *Spanish conquest of America*, v. 2, bk. 10.

MARACANDA, chief city of the ancient Sogdiani, in Central Asia, now Samarcand.

MARAGHA, town in the province of Azerbaijan, Persia. See PERSIA: 1258-1393.

Battle at. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VII. Persia and Germany.

MARAI DES CYGNES MASSACRE (1858). See KANSAS: 1858-1861.

MARANGA, Battle of (363).—One of the battles fought by the Romans with the Persians during the retreat from Julian's fatal expedition beyond the Tigris. The Persians were repulsed.—Based on G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy*, ch. 10.

MARANON, river in Peru, one of the sources of the Amazon. See AMAZON RIVER: Its course.

MARAPIANS, one of the tribes of the ancient Persians.

MARASH, chief town in the vilayet of Aleppo, at the foot of Mt. Taurus, Syria. See SYRIA: 1908-1921.

MARAT, Jean Paul (1743-1793), French physician and revolutionist. Founded a journal, *Le Publiciste Parisien*, 1789, which as *L'Ami du Peuple*, and after September 21, 1792, as *Le Journal de la République*, became one of the most famous papers of the revolutionary period; elected member of the Convention, 1792; assassinated by Charlotte Corday, July 13, 1792. See FRANCE: 1792 (September); 1793 (March-June); 1793 (July).

MARATA, name of mythical kingdom. See PUEBLOS.

MARATHAS. See MAHRATTAS.

MARATHON, Battle of. See GREECE: B. C. 490.

MARAVEDIS, name for Spanish coin. See SPANISH COINS.

MARBOIS, François Barbe de, Marquis de (1745-1837), French statesman. In the French embassy in the United States, 1779-1785. See U. S. A.: 1782 (September-November).

MARBURG CONFERENCE (1529). See SWITZERLAND: 1528-1531.

MARCEAU-DESGRAVIERS, François Severin (1760-1796), French general. Served in the French revolutionary wars as a brigade and division commander, often in association with his friend Kleber; helped to win many important battles, including Fleurus, 1794, and Coblenz, 1794.

MARCEL, Etienne (d. 1358), provost of the merchants of Paris. See FRANCE: 1356-1358.

MARCELLUS I (d. 309), pope, 308-309.

Marcellus II (1501-1555), pope, 1555.

MARCH, MARK, frontier or boundary of a territory; a border. Hence came the title of Marquis, which was originally that of an officer charged with the guarding of some March or border district of a kingdom. In Great Britain this title ranks second in the five orders of nobility, only the title of duke being superior to it. The old English kingdom of Mercia was formed by the Angles who were first called the "Men of the March," having settled on the Welsh border, and that was the origin of its name. The kingdom of

Prussia grew out of the "Mark of Brandenburg," which was originally a military border district formed on the skirts of the German empire to resist the Wends. Various other European states had the same origin.—See also MARGRAVE.

MARCH CLUB. See CLUBS: October and March.

MARCH LAW, Ireland. See IRELAND: 1327-1367.

MARCH LAWS OF 1848. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Hungary: 1222-1918.

MARCH OF BRANDENBURG. See AUSTRIA: Birthplace.

MARCHAND, Jean Baptiste (1863-), French general. Attempted to hold Fashoda for France, 1898. Commanded African troops on the western front during the World War; severely wounded in the Champagne offensive, 1915. See EGYPT: 1898 (September-November).

MARCHFELD, or Marschfeld, Battles of the (1278, 1809). See AUSTRIA: 1246-1282; BOHEMIA: 9th-13th centuries; GERMANY: 1809 (January-June).

MARCHIN, Ferdinand, Count de (1656-1706), Flemish marshal of France. See GERMANY: 1704.

MARCIAN (c. 391-457), Roman emperor (Eastern), 450-457.

MARCIANAPOLIS, ancient Roman town in Bulgaria. See GOTHS: 244-251.

MARCIANOPLE, Battle of. See GOTHS: 378.

MARCIANUS (fl. 400), Greek geographer. See ROME: Empire: 400-518.

MARCOING, town in northeastern France, four miles southwest of Cambrai. The British captured and held it for a short time in 1917. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: g, 4; 1918: II. Western front: o, 1; o, 2.

MARCOMANNI AND QUADI.—"The Marcomanni [an ancient German people who dwelt, first, on the Rhine, but afterwards occupied southern Bohemia] stand first in strength and renown, and their very territory, from which the Boii were driven in a former age, was won by valour. Nor are the Narisci [settled in the region of modern Ratisbon] and Quadi [who probably occupied Moravia] inferior to them. This I may call the frontier of Germany, so far as it is completed by the Danube. The Marcomanni and Quadi have, up to our time, been ruled by kings of their own nation, descended from the noble stock of Maroboduus and Tudrus. They now submit even to foreigners; but the strength and power of the monarch depend on Roman influence."—Tacitus, *Germany* (tr. by Church and Brodribb), ch. 42.—"The Marcomanni cannot be demonstrated as a distinct people before Marbod. It is very possible that the word up to that point indicates nothing but what it etymologically signifies—the land or frontier guard."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 5, ch. 7, foot-note.—See also AGRI DECUMATES.

War with Tiberius. See GERMANY: B. C. 8-A. D. 11.

Wars with Marcus Aurelius. See SARMATIAN AND MARCOMANNIAN WARS OF MARCUS AURELIUS.

MARCONI, Guglielmo (1874-), Italian electrical engineer, and inventor of the wireless telegraph. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Wireless or radio: 1864-1903; 1909; NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1909.

MARCOS DE NIZA (c. 1495-1558), Franciscan friar and explorer. See AMERICA: 1540-1541.

MARCUS AURELIUS ANTONINUS (121-180), Roman emperor, 161-180. Stoic philosopher adopted by the Emperor Antoninus Pius, whom he succeeded; on his succession, found war brewing along the northern and eastern frontiers; suc-

ceeded in winning a peace, 167; put down a revolt of Avidius Cassius in the East, 175; returned to the Danube and reconquered the Marcomanni, 178; most celebrated for his work, the "Meditations."—See also **ROME**: Empire: 138-180; **GREECE**: B. C. 146-A. D. 180; **GREEK LITERATURE**: Greco-Roman period: Lucian, etc.; **PLAGUE**: 78-266; **SARMATIAN AND MARCOMANNIAN WARS OF MARCUS AURELIUS**.

MARCY, William Learned (1786-1857), American statesman. Served in the war of 1812; associate justice of the New York supreme court, 1820-1831; United States senator, 1831-1832; governor of New York, 1833-1838; member of the claims commission appointed to negotiate with the Mexican government, 1830-1842; secretary of war, 1845-1849; secretary of state, 1853-1857. See **U. S. A.**: 1845-1846.

MARDAITES, term used for the Maronites in the Monothelite controversy. See **MONOTHELITE CONTROVERSY**.

MARDIA, Battle of (313). See **ROME**: Empire: 305-323.

MARDIANS, one of the tribes of the ancient Persians; also called Amardians. See also **TAPURIANS**.

MARDONIUS (d. 470 B. C.), Persian general. See **GREECE**: B. C. 479: Persian wars: Plataea.

MARDUK, Babylonian god. See **BABYLONIA**: Religion; **MYTHOLOGY**: Babylonian and Assyrian; **RELIGION**: B. C. 2000-200.

MARDYCK, town in the Netherlands. 1646.—Taken by the French. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1625-1647.

1657.—Siege and capture by the French.—Delivery to the English. See **FRANCE**: 1655-1658.

MARE CLAUSUM, term applied to seas over which a state has assumed exclusive jurisdiction. See **RIPARIAN RIGHTS**.

MARE LIBERUM. See **FREEDOM OF THE SEAS**: 1400-1650.

MARE SUEVICUM, ancient name of the Baltic sea. See **BALTIC SEA**.

MARENCO, Leopoldo (1836-1899), Italian dramatist. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1860-1920.

MARENCO, Battle of (1800). See **AUSTRIA**: 1798-1806; **FRANCE**: 1800-1801 (May-February); (June-February); **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 17.

MARENHOLTZ-BÜLOW, Bertha von (1810-1893), German educator. See **EDUCATION**: Modern: 19th century; Froebel.

MARET, Hugues-Bernard, Duke of Bassano (1763-1830), French publicist and statesman. Envoy to England, 1792, and 1797; to Naples, 1793; assisted Napoleon in the *coup d'état* of the 18th Brumaire, 1799; became secretary of state under Napoleon, and his confidential adviser, 1799; minister of foreign affairs, 1811; secretary of state, 1813, and during "the hundred days."

MARFÉE, Battle of (1641). See **FRANCE**: 1641-1642.

MARGARET (1353-1412), queen of Denmark and Norway, 1387-1412; of Sweden, 1388-1412. See **SCANDINAVIAN STATES**: 1018-1397.

MARGARET, Maid of Norway (1283-1290), queen of Scotland, 1286-1290. See **SCOTLAND**: 1290-1305.

MARGARET MAULTASCHE (1318-1369), countess of Tyrol. See **AUSTRIA**: 1330-1364.

MARGARET OF ANGOULEME, or of Valois, or of Alençon, or of Navarre (1492-1549), queen of Navarre, 1527-1540. See **PAPACY**: 1521-1535; **NAVARRÉ**: 1528-1563; **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1498-1550.

MARGARET OF ANJOU (1420-1482), queen of England, 1445-1476. Wife of Henry VI. See **ENGLAND**: 1455-1471.

MARGARET OF AUSTRIA (1522-1586), duchess of Parma and regent of the Netherlands, 1550-1567. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1566; 1567-1573.

MARGARET OF FLANDERS, or de Male (d. 1405), countess of Flanders. See **FLANDERS**: 1383; Joined to the dominions, etc.

MARGARET OF HAINAULT (d. 1356), empress of Germany. See **NETHERLANDS**: 889-1345; 1345-1354.

MARGARITA ISLAND, island belonging to Venezuela, about twenty miles off her coast, important for its pearl fisheries.

MARGIANA, ancient name of the valley of the Murghab or Moorghab (called the Margos). It is represented at the present day by the oasis now called Merv, formerly Bactrian Mouru.

MARGRAVE, Marquis.—"When Charles deposed the Duke of Bavaria [788], he did away with the last of the old tribal leaders of the other Germanic peoples absorbed by the Franks, and native dukes were left only in Celtic Brittany and among the Basques. He appointed a few new dukes, but they were exceptional; his regular local officer was the count. The Frankish territories were divided into counties, and in each the count was the royal representative, attending especially to judicial and military matters. Charles appointed whom he pleased, but the term of the office was for life, a dangerous feature liable to result in the office becoming hereditary. Charles also depended a great deal upon the bishops in the localities, and instructed his counts to co-operate with them. Newly conquered territory or districts needing to be kept in a state of military preparation for frontier defence were organized as marks under margraves, or counts of the marks. Sometimes a mark included more than one county and was placed under a duke. The chief marks at this time were the Breton, Spanish, Friulian, Avarian, Sorbian, and Saxon."—L. Thorndike, *Medieval Europe*, pp. 194-195.—"The title derived from the old imperial office of markgrave [margrave], 'comes marchensis,' or count of the marches, had belonged to several foreigners who were brought into relation with England in the twelfth century; . . . but in France the title was not commonly used until the seventeenth century, and it is possible that it came to England direct from Germany."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, ch. 20, sect. 751.—See **MARCH**; **GRAF**.

MARGUERITE OF NAVARRE. See **MARGARET OF ANGOULÈME**.

MARGUS, Treaty of. Treaty which Attila the Hun extorted from the Eastern Roman Emperor, Theodosius, 434.

MARHATTAS. See **MAHRATTAS**.

MARIA II (1819-1853), queen of Portugal, 1834-1853. See **PORTUGAL**: 1824-1880.

MARIA, Filippo. See **PHILIP (FILIPPO MARIA), VISCONTI OF MILAN**.

MARIA CHRISTINA (1818-), queen of Spain, and regent for Isabella, 1833-1840. See **SPAIN**: 1833-1846; 1885-1896; 1902-1906.

MARIA LOUISA, of Parma (1751-1810), queen of Spain, wife of Charles IV, 1788-1810. See **SPAIN**: 1788-1808.

MARIA THERESA (1717-1780), archduchess of Austria, Queen of Hungary and Bohemia, wife of the Holy Roman emperor, Francis I, and daughter of the emperor, Charles VI. By virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction succeeded to the hereditary possessions of the House of Hapsburg, 1740; her title being disputed by European Powers she was involved in the Wars of the Austrian Succession, 1740-1748, and the Seven Years' War, 1750-1763.—See also **AUSTRIA**: 1740 (October); 1741 (June-

September); 1743-1744; 1744-1745; CHARITIES: Austria: 1716-1764; POLAND: 1763-1790.

MARIA THERESA, Order of. See **WORLD WAR**: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VIII. War medals: a.

MARIAMPOL, town in Lithuania, forty miles southwest of Kovno. During the World War it was taken by the Russians. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: III. Eastern front: h; 1916: III. Eastern front: a, 3.

MARIANA, name given by Captain John Mason to a grant of land in Massachusetts. See **NEW ENGLAND**: 1621-1631.

MARIANA, Juan de (1536-1624), Spanish historian. See **HISTORY**: 23.

MARIANDYNIANS, branch of the Thracian race. See **BITHYNIANS**.

MARIANNE, or **LADRONE ISLANDS**, group of fifteen islands in the western Pacific, north of the Caroline islands and 1,500 miles east of the Philippines, disposed in a row almost due north and south, with a united area of approximately 250 square miles, and an estimated population, 1918, of over 15,000. The islands were discovered by Magellan in 1521, whose sailors name them the "Thieves" (Ladrones) islands; in 1668 they received the name of Mariana, or Marianne islands from the queen of Spain, Marianne of Austria, at whose expense Jesuit missionaries were sent over in 1667. By the treaty of February 12, 1899, the islands, excepting Guam (which was ceded by Spain to the United States in 1898), passed from Spanish into German possession, October 1, 1899, and were included in the German New Guinea Protectorate (see **CAROLINE ISLANDS**: 1899-1920). Early in the World War, 1914, the islands were captured by the Japanese. Under the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles, 1919, Japan was appointed mandatory to the former German possessions lying north of the equator.—See also **MICRONESIA**; **GUAM**; **PHILIPPINE ISLANDS**: 1901; **PACIFIC OCEAN**: 1919-1921.

ALSO IN: *Bulletin of the Bureau of American Republics*, Aug., 1898.

MARIANS, partisans of Marius. See **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 88-78.

MARICOPAS, North American Indian tribe. See **PUEBLOS**.

MARICOURT, town in France, near Peronne. It was captured by the Allies in 1916. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: II. Western front: d, 5.

MARIE. See **MARY**.

MARIE ADELAIDE THERESE HILDA ANTOINETTE WILHELMINA. See **ADELAIDE**, **MARIE**.

MARIE ANTOINETTE (1755-1793), queen of France, 1774-1792, consort of Louis XVI, and youngest daughter of Maria Theresa and Francis I. Acquired considerable influence in public affairs which was exercised to oppose the demands of the Third Estate; upheld the privileges of the clergy and aristocracy; conspired with her brother, Leopold II of Austria, for the reestablishment of the absolute monarchy, 1789; imprisoned, August, 1792; executed, October 16, 1793.—See also **FRANCE**: 1789 (June); 1790-1791: Oath of the clergy; 1793 (September-December).

MARIE DE FRANCE (fl. c. 1175-1190), French poet and fabulist. See **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1050-1350.

MARIE DE MEDICI. See **MEDICI**, **MARIE DE**.

MARIE LOUISE (1791-1847), second wife of Napoleon I of France. See **AUSTRIA**: 1809-1814; **FRANCE**: 1810-1812; **VIENNA**, CONGRESS OF.

MARIE LOUISES, nickname given to French soldiers. See **FRANCE**: 1814.

MARIENBURG, town in west Prussia, Germany, thirty miles southeast of Danzig.

1466.—Acquired by Poland. See **POLAND**: 1333-1572.

1626.—Surrender to Swedes. See **SWEDEN**: 1611-1629.

1815.—Joined to United Provinces. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1813-1830.

MARIETTA, city in the southeastern part of Ohio, situated on the Ohio river, settled in 1788. See **THIRTIETH TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES**: 1786-1788.

MARIGNANO, or **Melignano**, Battle of. See **FRANCE**: 1515.

MARILHAT, Prosper (1811-1847), French painter. See **PAINTING**: Europe (19th century).

MARINE, Secretary of. See **NAVY DEPARTMENT OF UNITED STATES**: Origin.

MARINE CORPS.—"Soldiers enlisted for service either on shore or on board ships of war are known by the distinctive name of 'marines.' In nearly all maritime countries claiming to be war powers they constitute a separate military body trained either to fight as infantrymen or artillerymen, and especially for participation in naval engagements. . . . The first authentic record of marines in America bears the date of 1740. Early in that year three additional regiments were raised when the royal standard was displayed at New York as a port to which any volunteer marine was to repair. . . . The field officers were appointed by the Crown; the company officers were nominated by the American provinces. On the 8th of June, 1775, the Continental Congress resolved 'that the compact between the Crown and Massachusetts Bay is dissolved,' and on the 10th of November, before a single vessel of the navy was sent to sea, the corps was organized by the following resolution: 'Resolved, That two battalions of marines be raised, consisting of one colonel, two lieutenant-colonels, two majors, and other officers as usual in other regiments; that they consist of an equal number of privates with other battalions; that particular care be taken that no person be appointed to officers or enlisted in said battalions but such as are good seamen or so acquainted with maritime affairs as to be able to serve to advantage by sea when required; . . . that they be distinguished by the name of the "first and second battalions of American marines."' . . . On the 13th of December, 1776, Congress directed 13 ships of war to be built. On the 22d of the same month Congress passed a resolution declaring Essex Hopkins commander in chief, and appointed officers for all the vessels then in service. This is the first step toward the creation of the Naval Establishment which has won imperishable fame for the United States, and upon which is based the claim of the Marine Corps to be 'the oldest in the service.'"—J. C. Burrows, *Marine Corps (Senate Document, no. 719, Feb. 15, 1909)*.

Part in World War.—Belleau Wood.—Chateau Thierry. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: g, 3; g, 4, i; IX. Naval operations: c, 12.

MARINE INSURANCE. See **INSURANCE**: Marine; also Early effects of World War; Government insurance.

MARINO, Giambattista (1569-1625), Italian author. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1600-1700.

MARINUS. See **MARTIN**.

MARIOLATRY, worship of the Virgin Mary. See **NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY**.

MARION, Francis (1732-1795), American general. See **U. S. A.**: 1780 (August-December); 1780-1781.

MARIPOSA FAMILY.—"Derivation: A Spanish word meaning 'butterfly,' applied to a county in California and subsequently taken for the family name. Latham mentions the remnants of three distinct bands of the Coconoon, each with its own language, in the north of Mariposa County. These are classed together under the above name. More recently the tribes speaking languages allied to the Coconūn have been treated of under the family name Yokut. As, however, the stock was established by Latham on a sound basis, his name is here restored."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report, Bureau of Ethnology*, p. 90.

MARITIME LAW. See ADMIRALTY LAW; FREEDOM OF THE SEAS; INTERNATIONAL LAW; Maritime codes; 1648-1714; LONDON, DECLARATION OF; PARIS, DECLARATION OF.

Rights of neutral commerce in time of war. See CONTINUOUS VOYAGE: Origin.

Powers of revenue cutter service. See REVENUE CUTTER SERVICE, UNITED STATES.

MARITIME PROVINCES.—British American provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, are commonly referred to as the Maritime Provinces. The three provinces first named form part of the Dominion of Canada, but Newfoundland has not joined that confederation.

MARITIME TERRITORY LAW. See RIPARIAN RIGHTS.

MARITIME WARFARE, Laws concerning. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1800; Convention for adaptation to maritime warfare.

MARITZ, Soloman, Boer leader. Fought against the British in the Boer War, 1890-1902; fought for the Germans against the Hereros; with German assistance started rebellion in Cape Colony against the British, 1914. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1914; WORLD WAR: 1914; VI. Africa: b, 1.

MARIUS, Caius (155-86 B. C.), Roman general. Served in Numantine War, B. C. 134; consul in 107, 104-102, 100, and 86 B. C.; commanded against Jugurtha, 107-106 B. C.; led against the Cimbri and Teutones, 104-101 B. C.; defeated the Marsi, 90 B. C.; rivalry with Sulla caused the first Civil war, 88 B. C.—See also ROME: Republic: 118-90 B. C.; 118-104; 113-101; 88-78; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 8.

MARIVAUX, Pierre Carlet de Chamblain de (1688-1763), French novelist and dramatist. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1700-1814; DRAMA: 1700-1709.

MARIZZA, Battle of (1363). See TURKEY: 1360-1380.

MARJ DABIK, Battle of (1516). See TURKEY: 1481-1520.

MARK, Saint, author of the second gospel. In 820 his body was removed from Alexandria to Venice. See VENICE: 820.

MARK, border, boundary or frontier. See GAU; MARCH.

MARK.—"The theory of the Mark, or as it is more generally called in its later form, the free village community, has been an accepted hypothesis for the historical and economic world for more than half a century. . . . The history of the hypothesis forms an interesting chapter in the relation between modern thought and the interpretation of past history, and shows that in the formation of an opinion both writer and reader are unconsciously dependent upon the spirit of the age in which they live. The free village community, as it is commonly understood, standing at the dawn of English and German history is discoverable in no historical documents, and for that reason it has

been accepted by prudent scholars with caution. But the causes which have made it a widely acceptable hypothesis and have served to entrench it firmly in the mind of scholar and reader alike, have easily supplied what was wanting in the way of exact material, and have led to conclusions which are now recognized as often too hazy, historically inaccurate, though agreeable to the thought tendencies of the age. . . . The Mark as defined by Kemble, who felt in this interpretation the influence of the German writers, . . . was a district large or small with a well-defined boundary, containing certain proportions of heath, forest, fen and pasture. Upon this tract of land were communities of families or households, originally bound by kindred or tribal ties, but who had early lost this blood relationship and were composed of freemen, voluntarily associated for mutual support and tillage of the soil, with commonable rights in the land within the Mark. The Marks were entirely independent, having nothing to do with each other, self-supporting and isolated, until by continual expansion they either federated or coalesced into larger communities. Such communities varying in size covered England, internally differing only in minor details, in all other respects similar. This view of the Mark had been taken already more or less independently by v. Maurer in Germany, and five years after the appearance of Kemble's work, there was published the first of the series of volumes which have rendered Maurer's name famous as the establisher of the theory. As his method was more exact, his results were built upon a more stable foundation than were those of Kemble, but in general the two writers did not greatly differ."—C. McL. Andrews, *Old English manor*, pp. 1-6.—See also MANORS.

Also in: J. M. Kemble, *Saxons in England*, bk. 1, ch. 2.—E. A. Freeman, *History of the Norman conquest*, ch. 3, sect. 2.—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 1, ch. 3, sect. 24.

MARK, German coin. See MONEY AND BANKING: Medieval: Coinage and banking in Middle Ages.

MARK, Gospel of. See CHRISTIANITY: Three stages in the development.

MARKET CROSS, emblem of market place which became an emblem of medieval cities. See HANSA TOWNS.

MARKHAM, William (c. 1635-1704), American colonial governor. See DELAWARE: 1601-1702.

MARKLAND, name given by Leif Ericsson to land explored in America. See AMERICA: 10th-11th centuries.

MARLBOROUGH, John Churchill, 1st Duke of (1650-1722), English general. Foremost commander in Europe during the War of the Spanish Succession; his principal victories were Blenheim, 1704; Ramillies, 1706; Oudenarde, 1708; and Malplaquet, 1700; deprived of his command and retired from political life, 1711. See NETHERLANDS: 1702-1704, to 1710-1712; ENGLAND: 1700; 1710-1712; GERMANY: 1704; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 17.

MARLBOROUGH, town in Massachusetts about twenty-eight miles west of Boston. It was sacked and burned by Indians in 1676. See NEW ENGLAND: 1676-1678.

MARLBOROUGH, British armored cruiser. It was disabled in the battle of Jutland. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a, 3; a, 9.

MARLOWE, Christopher (1564-1593), English dramatist. See DRAMA: 1558-1592.

MARMONT, Auguste Frédéric Louis Vieusse de, Duke of Ragusa (1774-1852). French marshal. Commanded the army in Holland, 1805; defended Ragusan territory against Russians and

Montenegrins, 1806-1807; governor-general of the Illyrian provinces, 1809-1811; took the offensive against Wellington in the Peninsular War; defeated at Salamanca, 1812; fought in campaigns of 1813; concluded a truce with Prince Schwarzenberg, 1814; honored by the Bourbons but fled when Napoleon returned from Elba; failed to suppress the Revolution of 1830 and became an exile. See FRANCE: 1805 (March-December); 1814 (January-March); GERMANY: 1813 (October).

MARMORA, inland sea between Europe and Asia. The Dardanelles connect it with the Aegean and the Bosphorus with the Black sea. See CONSTANTINOPLE: Map of the Dardanelles.

1920.—Declared neutral ground by Treaty of Sévres. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part III: Political clauses: The straits.

MARMORA CONFERENCE (1919). See RUSSIA: 1919.

MARNE, river in France flowing north and east of Paris into the Seine. It was the scene of the first and second battles of the Marne, 1914, and 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: o, 1; p, 2; p, 4; p, 5; X: a; 1918: II. Western front: f, 1; g, 8; g, 11; g, 13.

British account. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: o.

French account. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: p.

German account. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: q.

Comparison of first and second battles. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 12.

MARNE GROUP, name given to forestry corps in World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VI. Military and naval equipment: d, 1.

MARNIX, Philip. See SAINT ALDEGONDE.

MAROC. See MOROCCO.

MARONITES, name of religious order. See MONOTHELISTE CONTROVERSY.

MAROON WARS. See JAMAICA: 1655-1706.

MAROONERS, name given to pirates. See BUCCANEERS: English.

MAROT, Clement (1405-1544), French poet. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1408-1550.

MARQUAND, Henry Gurdon (1810-1902), American capitalist and philanthropist. See NEW YORK CITY: 1870-1921.

MARQUE, Letters of. See BUCCANEERS: Privateering caused by rigid restriction; PRIVATEERS; RETORSION.

MARQUESAS ISLANDS.—The Marquesas or Mendaña islands in the South Pacific, belong to the Polynesian group and consist of eleven islands, six of which are inhabited. The islands are mountainous and the valleys are filled with luxurious vegetation. The people of these islands are of pure Polynesian type with a language closely related to the dialects spoken on the Hawaiian islands. The culture and traditions of the Marquesans point to Samoa as the colonizing center from which they came. (See also MYTHOLOGY: Polynesian.) The Marquesas islands were first discovered in 1595 by Alvaro Mendaña, a Spanish explorer. Two centuries later Captain James Cook followed the same course and coming to the Marquesas islands in 1774 discovered the northern islands which Mendaña had not visited. The Marquesas islands have the distinction of being the first piece of noncontiguous territory claimed for the United States. Commodore David Porter came to the islands in 1813, but since he failed to plant a colony and because the claim was never acted upon at Washington, the right to the island was lost to France when in May, 1842, Rear-Admiral Dupetit-Thouars took

formal possession of the islands. There were many native rebellions and after much bloodshed the French lost interest in the islands and since 1870, the control has been nominal. There is a French civil governor whose residence is on the island of Nukahiva. The rapid decline of the native population has led the French to take steps to exclude the most immediate causes of native degeneracy. In 1894 the use of opium by the Marquesans was prohibited. In 1895, the sale and possession of alcohol was made a criminal offense. In 1896, attendance at school was made obligatory. But, in 1900, as a result of the passing of the Associations law in France, disbanding all schools maintained by the Catholic religious orders, the education of the natives was taken out of the hands of the Catholics who had been their first teachers, and whose schools were the oldest in the islands.—See also PACIFIC OCEAN: B. C. 2500-A. D. 1500.

MARQUETTE, Jacques (1637-1675), French missionary and explorer in Canada. See CANADA: 1634-1673; MICHIGAN: 1640-1671.

MARQUIS. See MARGRAVE; MARCH.

MARRAKESH, or Morocco city, town in Morocco, about ninety miles from the Atlantic coast. See MOROCCO: Geographic description; 1907-1909.

MARRANA, ancient ditch running from Alba to Rome, being part of a channel by which the Vale of Grotta was drained.

MARRANOS, name given to the Jews in Spain who adopted Christianity during the inquisition. See INQUISITION: 1203-1525; JEWS: Spain: 1498-1917.

MARRIAGE LAWS AND CUSTOMS.—Restriction of.—Errors in, as shown by Pius IX.—Feudal and medieval periods.—Modern attitude of women. See COMMON LAW: 1858; ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: 1857-1859; EQUITY LAW: 1920; EUGENICS: Early history; PAPACY: 1864; WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 300-1400; 1100-1400; 1867-1921.

Babylonia. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: B. C. 2250-538.

Egypt. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: B. C. 2000-500.

England. See ENGLAND: 1834-1837.

France. See FRANCE: 1793-1794 (October-April).

Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1894-1895.

India. See INDIA: People; ASIA: European influences, etc.: 5; WOMAN'S RIGHTS: B. C. 1200.

Mormons. See MORMONISM: 1847-1920.

Prussia. See PRUSSIA, CONSTITUTION OF.

Rome. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: B. C. 300-A. D. 300.

Russia. See RUSSIA: 1917-1920: Bolshevik laws.

United States. See UTAH: 1882-1893; 1895-1896.

MARRUCINIANS, Sabine tribe of Italy. See SABINES.

MARRUECOS. See MOROCCO: Geographic description.

MARS, Greek and Roman god. See MYTHOLOGY: Grecian; Anthropomorphic character; Germanic: Identification, etc.

MARS, name of a planet. See ASTRONOMY: 1781-1846.

MARS' HILL, Athens. See AREOPAGUS.

MARSAGLIA, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1693 (October).

MARSDEN, Samuel (1764-1838), English missionary. See NEW ZEALAND: 1815-1840.

MARSEILLAISE, national song of France. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: France; ALSACE-LORRAINE: 1780-1794.

MARSEILLES, chief seaport of France, and capital of the Department of Bouches-du-Rhône, twenty-five miles east of the principal mouth of the Rhône. In 1921 it had a population of 586,341.

Marseilles has been of commercial importance since early times and now shares with Genoa the commercial supremacy of the Mediterranean.

Founding of. See ASIA MINOR: B. C. 724-539; PHOENICIANS.

B. C. 125.—Conquest of the Salyes. See SALYES.

B. C. 49.—Conquest by Cæsar. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 49.

480.—Yields to Euric, king of the Visigoths. See GOTHIS: 453-484.

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

11th century.—Viscounts of. See BURGUNDY: 1032.

12th century.—Prosperity and freedom. See PROVENÇE: 1179-1207.

1524.—Unsuccessful siege by Spaniards and Constable Bourbon. See FRANCE: 1523-1525.

1793.—Revolt against revolutionary government at Paris.—Vengeance of Terrorists. See FRANCE: 1793 (June); (July-December): Civil war; 1793-1794 (October-April).

1795.—White terror. See FRANCE: 1794-1795 (July-April).

1902.—Projected canal.—In 1902 an appropriation was made by the Chamber of Commerce for a canal to the mouth of the Rhône, and one was projected between the Rhône and the Loire in order to bring Marseilles into connection with northern France.

MARSHAL, title given in several countries to various officers, usually of high military rank. In the Middle Ages, the marshal was second to the constable, but became a powerful military subordinate of the king. In England the office was for a time hereditary. In America a marshal is a law-court officer and in some places a local sheriff. In the modern English and German armies, a field-marshal ranks above a general, and commands a group of armies. The most distinguished application of the term has been made in France. Napoleon I and Napoleon III each created a number of marshals, who were of higher rank than ordinary generals. The kings of France created an increasing number of "marshals of France." After being in abeyance at various periods, it remained for the Third Republic, during the World War, to revive the famous title of "marshal of France." During the conflict the title was granted to Joffre, Foch and Pétain and since to other distinguished generals.—See also CONSTABLE.

MARSHALL, James Wilson (1810-1885), American wheelwright; discovered gold in California, 1848. See CALIFORNIA: 1848-1849.

MARSHALL, John (1755-1835), American jurist, served in the Revolutionary War; member of Virginia legislature, 1782-1791; member of Virginia Constitutional Ratifying Convention, 1788; envoy to France, 1797; member of the House of Representatives, 1799-1800; secretary of state, 1800-1801; chief justice of the United States Supreme Court, 1801-1835.

Ratification of federal constitution. See U. S. A.: 1787-1789.

Debates on federal constitution. See VIRGINIA: 1788.

Author of life of Washington. See VIRGINIA: 1900.

Appointment as chief justice. See SUPREME COURT: 1780-1835; U. S. A.: 1801: Appointment of John Marshall.

Decision in Fletcher vs. Peck. See FLETCHER VS. PECK.

Decision on Indian right of occupancy. See COMMON LAW: 1823.

Decision in Foster vs. Neilson case. See FLORIDA: 1819-1829.

ALSO IN: J. F. Dillon, *John Marshall*.—H. Flanders, *Life of John Marshall*.—J. E. Oster, *Political and economic doctrines of John Marshall*.—A. J. Beveridge, *Life of John Marshall*.

MARSHALL, Thomas Riley (1854-), American lawyer and public official. Governor of Indiana, 1909-1913; 28th vice-president of the United States, 1913-1921. See U. S. A.: 1916 (February-November).

MARSHALL, William. See PEMBROKE, WILLIAM MARSHALL.

MARSHALL, Sir William Raine (1865-), British general. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: a, 4, xvii; 1917: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1; a, 1, i; a, 1, iii; a, 3; 1918: VI. Turkish theater: a.

MARSHALL ISLANDS, archipelago in the Micronesian group of islands of the South Pacific ocean. They belonged to Germany until 1914, when they were taken by Australian forces. See MICRONESIA; PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914; 1914-1918; 1919-1921; WORLD WAR: 1914: VII. German Pacific islands.

MARSI, tribe in the Frankish confederation. See FRANKS: Origin; SAXONS.

War with the Romans. See GERMANY: A. D. 14-16.

MARSIANS, tribe in Italy. See ITALY: Ancient; SABINES.

War with the Romans. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 90-88.

MARSICK, Martin Pierre Joseph (1848-), Belgian violinist. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: The Netherlands; Belgium.

MARSIGLIO. See MARSILIUS.

MARSIGNI, ancient German tribe who inhabited "what is now Galatz, Jagerndorf and part of Silesia."—Tacitus, *Germany* (Oxford tr.), footnote.

MARSILIUS OF PADUA (c. 1270-1343), Italian scholar. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: 1300-1600.

MARSTON, John (1575-1634), English satirist. See DRAMA: 1592-1648.

MARSTON MOOR, Battle of. See ENGLAND: 1644 (January-July).

MARTABAN, town in lower Burma. It was taken by the British in 1852. See INDIA: 1852.

MARTHA'S VINEYARD, island three miles off the south coast of Massachusetts, named by Gosnold. See AMERICA: 1602-1605; also map.

MARTIAL (Marcus Valerius Martialis) (c. 40-c. 103), Latin epigrammatist and writer. See LATIN LITERATURE: A. D. 14-117.

MARTIAL LAW. See MILITARY LAW: Kinds; WAR POWERS OF THE UNITED STATES: Martial law.

MARTIN I, (d. 655), pope, 640-655.

Martin II, or Marinus I, (d. 884), pope, 882-884.

Martin III, or Marinus II, (d. 946), pope, 942-946.

Martin IV, (d. 1285), 1281-1285.

Martin V (1368-1431), pope, 1417-1431. See PAPACY: 1414-1418.

Martin I, (d. 1400), king of Sicily, 1402-1409.

Martin II, king of Sicily, 1409-1410.

MARTIN, Bienvenu (1847-), acting foreign minister of France, 1914. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 12.

MARTIN, Gregory (d. 1582), English Catholic writer and translator of the Bible. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: Bible used in Roman catholic churches.

MARTIN, Henri (1810-1883), French historian. See HISTORY: 29.

MARTIN, Homer Dodge (1836-1897), American landscape painter. See PAINTING: American.

MARTIN, Luther (1748-1826), American lawyer. Attorney-general of Maryland, 1778-1805; 1818-1820. See U.S.A.: 1787; 1787-1789.

MARTIN OF TOURS, Saint (c.316-400), Bishop of Tours and patron saint of France. Disciple of Hilary of Poitiers, where he founded a monastery, 360-370; gained repute as worker of miracles; opposed the execution of Priscillianist heretics; established the monastery of Marmoutien-les-Tours, 372-400. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: 4th-7th centuries.

MARTIN VS. HUNTER'S LESSEE (1816), Supreme Court decision. See SUPREME COURT: 1789-1835.

MARTINIQUE, French island colony in the Lesser Antilles, discovered by Columbus about 1502. It has been a French possession since 1635 when d'Esnabuc erected a fort. It was three times captured by the British and was held by them for a number of years during the wars with Napoleon. A decree of April 27, 1848, abolished slavery. St. Pierre, until then the chief town of the island was utterly destroyed and the surrounding district devastated by an eruption of Mont Pelée, in 1902. About one third of Martinique is under cultivation, sugar cane being the principal crop.

Jesuit missions. See JESUITS: 1761-1769.

1761-1762.—Captured by English. See SPAIN: 1761-1763.

1763.—Returned to France by treaty of Paris. See LOUISIANA: 1762-1766.

1815.—Restored to France through congress of Vienna. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1902.—Eruption of Mont Pelée. See WEST INDIES: 1902.

MARTINMAS, Scotch name for November 11. See QUARTER DAYS.

MARTINPUICH, village about five miles southwest of Bapaume, northeastern France. It was captured from the Germans by a Scottish division in 1916. See WORLD WAR: II. Western front: c, 3; d, 13.

MARTLING MEN.—In February, 1806, when DeWitt Clinton and his political followers were organizing opposition to Governor Lewis, and were forming an alliance to that end with the political friends of Aaron Burr, a meeting of Republicans (afterwards called Democrats) was held at "Martling's Long Room," in New York City. Hence Mr. Clinton's Democratic opponents, "for a long time afterwards, were known in other parts of the state by the name of Martling Men."—J. D. Hammond, *History of political parties in the state of New York*, v. 1, p. 230.

MARTYR, Peter. See VERMICLI, PIETRO MARTIRE.

MARTYRIUM, sacred building in Jerusalem. See HOLY LAND.

MARVIN, William, provisional governor of Florida, 1865. See FLORIDA: 1865-1868; U.S.A.: 1865 (May-July).

MARWITZ, Georg von der (1856-), German general. During the German offensive of 1918, he commanded an army operating on the front stretching from Cambrai to St. Quentin, northeastern France. See WORLD WAR: 1914: 1. Western front: g, 2; 1915: III. Eastern front: f, 5; g, 2; 1917: II. Western front: g, 19; 1918: II. Western front: g, 12; t, 1.

MARX, Heinrich Karl (1818-1883), German economist and Socialist and the founder of modern Socialism. In collaboration with Engels, published the "Communist Manifesto" on the eve of the

Revolution of 1848; author of the monumental work "Das Kapital."

Socialist theories.—Influence on anarchism.—Communist Manifesto. See SOCIALISM: 1843-1883; ANARCHISM: 1839-1894; COMMUNIST MANIFESTO.

In international movement. See INTERNATIONAL: Its forerunners; 1862-1872.

Economic interpretation of history. See HISTORY: 33.

Definition of proletarian dictatorship. See PROLETARIAN DICTATORSHIP.

MARY, mother of Jesus, known as the Virgin Mary. See JESUS CHRIST: Chronology; NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY; PAPACY: 1854.

Mary I (Mary Tudor) (1516-1558), queen of England, 1553-1558. For her persecution of the Protestants, known as "Bloody Mary." See ENGLAND: 1553: Right of succession; 1555-1558.

Mary II (1662-1694), queen of England, 1689-1694. Wife of King William III of Orange. See ENGLAND: 1688 (July); 1689 (January-February).

Mary (1496-1533), queen of France, 1514-1515. Daughter of Henry VIII of England and second wife of Louis XII of France. See FRANCE: 1513-1515.

Mary, queen of Scotland. See MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

MARY MAGDALENE, mentioned in the Gospels, especially by Luke, as a demoniac from whom the seven devils had been cast out. She is represented as being closely associated with Jesus, and was present at the Resurrection.

MARY OF BURGUNDY (1457-1482), daughter of Charles the Bold. See BURGUNDY: 1477; AUSTRIA: 1477-1495; NETHERLANDS: 1477: Austrian marriage; 1477: Severance from Burgundy.

MARY OF GUISE, or of Lorraine (1515-1560), queen of Scotland, 1538-1560. Wife of James V of Scotland and mother of Mary Queen of Scots. See SCOTLAND: 1558-1560.

MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS (Mary Stuart) (1542-1587), queen of Scotland, 1543-1567. Daughter of King James V; married the dauphin, Francis II, 1558; laid claim to the English throne on the death of Mary Tudor, 1558; Francis died, 1660; married Lord Darnley, 1665; labored to restore the Catholic faith in the kingdom; became estranged from Darnley and consented to his murder, 1567; married Bothwell, his murderer, 1567; imprisoned and forced to abdicate, 1567; escaped and fled to England, 1568; confined in various castles until her trial on a charge of conspiracy against the life of Elizabeth, 1587; beheaded at Fotheringay, 1587. See SCOTLAND: 1544-1548; 1558-1560; 1561-1568; ENGLAND: 1585-1587.

MARYLAND (nicknamed *Old Line*, or *Cockade*), one of the thirteen original states of the American union occupying a middle position on the Atlantic coast. It is bounded on the north by Pennsylvania and Delaware; on the east by Delaware and the Atlantic ocean; on the south by Virginia and West Virginia from which it is separated by the Potomac river; and on the west by West Virginia. The irregular southern boundary gives the state a varying breadth from north to south that ranges from two miles to one hundred and twenty-eight. The irregularity of Maryland's outline is further emphasized by Chesapeake bay that almost divides the eastern part of the state into two parts. The state has a total area of 12,327 square miles of which 2,386 are water, Chesapeake bay alone occupying 1,203 square miles. The population in 1920 was 1,449,661.

Resources.—Maryland is largely an agricultural state and of the total land surface of the state

about eighty-two per cent of the area is in farms, given over to the production of wheat, maize, hay, potatoes, tobacco, tomatoes, fruit, and vegetables. Of the live stock industry the state had a total of 1,143,000 head in 1920. The oyster fisheries of the state have a yield greater than any other state in the Union. Coal is the principal mineral product of the state and represents over one-half of the total mineral value produced in the United States.—See also U. S. A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests, etc.; SUSQUEHANNAS.

1524.—Touched by VEITAZANO. See AMERICA: 1524.

1606.—1620.—Part included in King James' grants to London and Plymouth Companies. See AMERICA: Map of King James' grants.

1608.—Explorations of Captain Smith around Baltimore. See BALTIMORE: 1608-1707.

1632.—Charter granted to Lord Baltimore.—**American palatinate.**—Powers of proprietary.—“Among those who had become interested in the London or Virginia Company, under its second charter, in 1609, was Sir George Calvert, afterwards the founder of Maryland. . . . Upon the dissolution of the Virginia Company . . . he was named by the king one of the royal commissioners to whom the government of that colony was confided. Hitherto he had been a Protestant, but in 1624, having become unsettled in his religious convictions, he renounced the church of England, in which he had been bred, and embraced the faith of the Catholic church. Moved by conscientious scruples, he determined no longer to hold the office of secretary of state [conferred on him in 1619], which would make him, in a manner, the instrument of persecution against those whose faith he had adopted, and tendered his resignation to the king. . . . The king, . . . while he accepted his resignation, continued him as a member of his privy council for life, and soon after created him Lord Baltimore, of Baltimore, in Ireland [1625. This was seven years before the grant of the Maryland charter and some years before the arrival of the first colonists. The title became extinct, 1771.] The spirit of intolerance at that time pervaded England. . . . The laws against the Catholics in England were particularly severe and cruel, and rendered it impossible for any man to practice his religion in quiet and safety. Sir George Calvert felt this, and although he was assured of protection from the gratitude and affection of the king, he determined to seek another land and to found a new state, where conscience should be free and every man might worship God according to his own heart, in peace and perfect security. . . . At first he fixed his eyes on New-found-land, in the settlement of which he had been interested before his conversion. . . . Having purchased a ship, he sailed with his family to that island, in which, a few years before, he had obtained a grant of a province under the name of Avalon. [The charter was liberal in its terms and in the powers conferred upon the proprietary. The province was erected into a county palatine, held of the Crown by strictly feudal tenure *in capite* by knights service.] Here he only resided two years [see NEWFOUNDLAND: 1610-1651], when he found the climate and soil unsuited for the establishment of a flourishing community, and determined to seek a more genial country in the south. Accordingly, in 1628, he sailed to Virginia, with the intention of settling in the limits of that colony, or more probably to explore the uninhabited country on its borders, in order to secure a grant of it from the king. Upon his arrival within the jurisdiction

of the colony, the authorities tendered him the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, to which, as then framed, no Catholic could subscribe. Lord Baltimore refused to take them, but prepared a form of an oath of allegiance which he and all his followers were willing to accept. His proposal was rejected, and being compelled to leave their waters, he explored the Chesapeake above the settlements. He was pleased with the beautiful and well wooded country, which surrounded the noble inlets and indentations of the great bay, and determined there to found his principality. . . . He returned to England to obtain a grant from Charles I, who had succeeded his father, James I, upon the throne. Remembering his services to his father, and perhaps moved by the intercessions of Henrietta Maria, his Catholic queen, who desired to secure an asylum abroad for the persecuted members of her church in England, Charles directed the patent to be issued. It was prepared by Lord Baltimore himself; but before it was finally executed that truly great and good man died, and the patent was delivered to his son



GEORGE CALVERT, FIRST LORD BALTIMORE.

Cecilus, [second Lord Baltimore] who succeeded as well to his noble designs as to his titles and estates [and who thus at the age of twenty-six, became the First Lord Proprietary of Maryland]. The charter was issued on the 20th of June, 1632, and the new province, in honor of Queen Henrietta Maria, was named 'Terra Mariae'—Maryland."—J. McSherry, *History of Maryland, introduction.*—"The boundaries of Maryland, unlike those of the other colonies, were precisely defined. Its limits were: on the north, the fortieth parallel of north latitude; on the west and southwest, a line running south from this parallel to the farthest source of the Potomac, and thence by the farther or western bank of that river to Chesapeake Bay; on the south by a line running across the bay and peninsula to the Atlantic; and on the east by the ocean and the Delaware Bay and River. It included, therefore, all the present State of Delaware, a large tract of land now forming part of Pennsylvania, and another now occupied and claimed by West Virginia. The charter of Maryland [modelled after that of Avalon] contained the most ample rights and privileges ever conferred by a sovereign of England. It erected Maryland into a palatinate, equivalent to a principality, reserving only the feudal supremacy of the

crown. The Proprietary was made absolute lord of the land and water within his boundaries, could erect towns, cities, and ports, make war or peace, call the whole fighting population to arms, and declare martial law, levy tolls and duties, establish courts of justice, appoint judges, magistrates, and other civil officers, execute the laws, and pardon offenders. He could erect manors with courts-baron and courts-leet, and confer titles and dignities, so that they differed from those of England. He could make laws with the assent of the freemen of the province, and, in cases of emergency, ordinances not impairing life, limb, or property, without their assent. He could found churches and chapels, have them consecrated according to the ecclesiastical laws of England, and appoint the incumbents. All this territory, with these royal rights, 'jura regalia,' was to be held of the crown in free socage [which differs from *in capite* by knights service, in that uncertain military service required by the latter is commuted for a fixed tribute], by the delivery of two Indian arrows yearly at the palace of Windsor, and the fifth of all gold or silver mined. The colonists and their descendants were to remain English subjects. . . . The King furthermore bound himself and his successors to lay no taxes, customs, subsidies, or contributions whatever upon the people of the province. . . . This charter, by which Maryland was virtually an independent and self-governed community, placed the destinies of the colonists in their own hands. . . . Though often attacked, and at times held in abeyance, the charter was never revoked."—W. H. Browne, *Maryland*, ch. 2.—The intention to create a palatine principality in Maryland is distinctly expressed in the fourth section of the charter, which grants to Lord Baltimore, his heirs and assigns, "as ample rights, jurisdictions, privileges, prerogatives, royalties, liberties, immunities, and royal rights . . . as any bishop of Durham, within the bishoprick or county palatine of Durham, in our kingdom of England, ever heretofore hath had, held, used, or enjoyed, or of right could, or ought to have, hold, use, or enjoy."—J. L. Bozman, *History of Maryland*, v. 2, p. 11.

Also in: C. C. Hall, *Lords Baltimore and the Maryland palatinate*.—C. Lippencott, *Maryland as a palatinate*.—H. W. Preston, *Documents illustrative of American history*.

1633-1637.—Planting of the colony at St. Mary's.—Leonard Calvert appointed governor.—"Cecil, Lord Baltimore, after receiving his charter for Maryland, in June, 1632, prepared to carry out his father's plans. Terms of settlement were issued to attract colonists, and a body of emigrants was soon collected to begin the foundation of the new province. The leading gentlemen who were induced to take part in the project were Catholics; those whom they took out to till the soil, or ply various trades, were not all or, indeed, mainly Catholics, but they could not have been very strongly Protestant to embark in a venture so absolutely under Catholic control. At Avalon Sir George Calvert, anxious for the religious life of his colonists, had taken over both Catholic and Protestant clergymen, and was ill repaid for his liberal conduct. To avoid a similar ground of reproach, Baron Cecil left each part of his colonists free to take their own clergymen. It is a significant fact that the Protestant portion were so indifferent that they neither took over any minister of religion, nor for several years after Maryland settlements began made any attempt to procure one. On behalf of the Catholic settlers, Lord Baltimore applied to Father Richard Blount, at that

time provincial of the Jesuits in England, and wrote to the General of the Society, at Rome, to excite their zeal in behalf of the English Catholics who were about to proceed to Maryland. He could offer the clergy no support. . . . The Jesuits did not shrink from a mission field where they were to look for no support from the proprietary or their flock, and were to live amid dangers. It was decided that two Fathers were to go as gentlemen adventurers, taking artisans with them, and acquiring lands like others, from which they were to draw their support. . . . The Maryland pilgrims under Leonard Calvert, brother of the lord proprietary, consisted of his brother George, some 20 other gentlemen, and 200 laboring men well provided. To convey these to the land of Mary, Lord Baltimore had his own pinnace, the Dove, of 50 tons, commanded by Robert Winter, and the Ark, a chartered vessel of 350 tons burthen, Richard Lowe being captain. Leonard Calvert was appointed governor, Jerome Hawley and Thomas Cornwaleys being joined in the commission. . . . [After many hindrances and delays, the two vessels sailed from Cowes, November 22, 1633, and made their voyage in safety, though encountering heavy storms. They came to anchor in Chesapeake bay, near one of the Heron Islands, which they named St. Clement; and on that island they raised a cross and celebrated mass.] Catholicity thus planted her cross and her altar in the heart of the English colonies in America, March 25, 1634. The land was consecrated, and then preparations were made to select a spot for the settlement. Leaving Father White at St. Clement's, the governor, with Father Altham, ran up the river in a pinnace, and at Potomac on the southern shore met Archihau, regent of the powerful tribe that held sway over that part of the land. . . . [Having won the goodwill of the savages], Leonard Calvert sailed back to Saint Clement's. Then the pilgrims entered the Saint Mary's, a bold, broad stream, emptying into the Potomac about 12 miles from its mouth. For the first settlement of the new province, Leonard Calvert, who had landed, selected a spot a short distance above about a mile from the eastern shore of the river. Here stood an Indian town, whose inhabitants, harassed by the Susquehannas, had already begun to emigrate to the westward. To observe strict justice with the Indian tribes, Calvert purchased from the werowance, or king, Yaocomoco, 30 miles of territory. The Indians gradually gave up some of their houses to the colonists, agreeing to leave the rest also after they had gathered in their harvest. . . . The new settlement began with Catholic and Protestant dwelling together in harmony, neither attempting to interfere with the religious rights of the other, and religious liberty obtained a home, its only home in the wide world, at the humble village which bore the name of St. Mary's' [Bancroft, i, 247]. . . . The settlers were soon at work. Houses for their use were erected, crops were planted, activity and industry prevailed. St. Mary's chapel was dedicated to the worship of Almighty God, and near it a fort stood, ready to protect the settlers. It was required by the fact that Clayborne [a trading adventurer and a member of the Virginia Council, who refused to render allegiance to Lord Baltimore, or to accept title to land from him], the fanatical enemy of Lord Baltimore and his Catholic projects, who had already settled on Kent Island, was exciting the Indians against the colonists of Maryland. The little community gave the priests a field too limited for their zeal. . . . The Indian tribes were

to be reached. . . . Another priest, with a lay brother, came to share their labors before the close of the year 1635; and the next year four priests were reported as the number assigned to the Maryland mission. Of their early labors no record is preserved. . . . Sickness prevailed in the colony, and the missionaries did not escape. Within two months after his arrival Father Knolles, a talented young priest of much hope, sank a victim to the climate, and Brother Gervase, one of the original band of settlers, also died. . . . Lord Baltimore's scheme embraced not only religious but legislative freedom, and his charter provided for a colonial assembly. . . . In less than three years an assembly of the freemen of the little colony was convened and opened its sessions on the 25-26th of January, 1637. All who had taken up lands were summoned to attend in person. . . . [Some of the resulting legislation was disapproved by the missionaries, and] the variance of opinion was most unfortunate in its results to the colony, as impairing the harmony which had hitherto prevailed."—J. G. Shea, *Catholic church in colonial days*, ch. 2.—"The Acts of this session [1637], Baltimore refused to approve; because, as he claimed, the right to originate laws resided, under the charter, exclusively in himself; the power of the Assembly being limited to assent and dissent to such as he propounded. The freemen of Maryland, convinced that they possessed equal and co-ordinate rights, in matters of legislation, with the Proprietary, with the courage of their conviction, vindicated their position, by rejecting, at the next session of the Assembly, the whole body of bills drafted and submitted by him for their adoption, and enacted in their stead, a code which emanated from themselves, though substantially the same as the one that he had propounded. After this, the right of the Assembly to initiate legislation was not contested, and the right of the Proprietary was, in practice, limited to his veto. This right he always retained the privilege of exercising personally, and, while the Governor of the Province was invested with the power of assenting to or rejecting laws passed by the Assembly, his assent only gave them efficacy until the Proprietary's dissent was declared. The freemen, successful in their opposition to what they deemed an encroachment upon their charter rights, thus planted in Maryland, at the session of 1637, that germ of liberty which underlies the right of free self-government."—J. W. Thomas, *Chronicles of colonial Maryland*, pp. 55-56.

ALSO IN: C. C. Hall, *Lords Baltimore and the Maryland palatinate*.—J. L. Bozman, *History of Maryland*, ch. 1.—W. H. Browne, *George Calvert and Cecilus Calvert*, ch. 3-4.

1634.—Embraced in palatine grant of New Albion. See NEW ALBION.

1635-1638.—Troubles with Clayborne of Virginia.—William Clayborne "was the person most aggrieved by the Maryland charter. Under a general license from Charles I. to trade, he had established a lucrative post on Kent Island. The King, as he had unquestioned right to do under the theory of English law, granted to Lord Baltimore a certain tract of wild land, including Kent Island. Clayborne had no legal right there except as the subject of Baltimore; but, since his real injuries coincided with the fancied ones of the Virginians generally, his claim assumed importance. . . . There was . . . so strong a feeling in favor of Clayborne in Virginia that he was soon able to send an armed pinnace up the Chesapeake to defend his invaded rights at Kent Island, but the

expedition was unfortunate. Governor [Leonard] Calvert, after a sharp encounter, captured Clayborne's pinnace, and proclaimed its owner a rebel. Calvert then demanded that the author of this trouble should be given up by Virginia; but Harvey [the governor of Virginia], who had been in difficulties himself on account of his lukewarmness toward Clayborne, refused to comply. Clayborne, however, solved the problem in his own way, by going at once to England to attack his enemies in their stronghold. . . . On his arrival in England he . . . presented a petition to the King, and by adroitly working on the cupidity of Charles, not only came near recovering Kent Island, but almost obtained a large grant besides. After involving Lord Baltimore in a good deal of litigation, Clayborne was obliged, by an adverse decision of the Lords Commissioners of Plantations, to abandon all hopes in England, and therefore withdrew to Virginia to wait for better times."—H. C. Lodge, *Short history of the English colonies in America*, ch. 3.—See also VIRGINIA: 1630-1652.

ALSO IN: J. L. Bozman, *History of Maryland*, v. 2, ch. 1.

1639-1692.—Composition of legislature.—Changes in basis of representation.—"The Legislature consisted at first of one branch, and until 1639, was composed of the Council and all the freemen in the Province, either in person or by proxy, convened by proclamation and summons, with the Governor as its President. In 1639, burgesses were elected from every hundred, who with the Governor and Council, composed the House of Assembly. With this change from a primary to a representative Assembly, two curious anomalies still existed—the one conceding to the Governor the right of every freeman who failed to vote for the burgess elected, to claim representation in person. In 1650, the organization of an Upper and a Lower House of Assembly was established; the Governor, Council, and those summoned by special writ, constituting the Upper House, and the burgesses elected, the Lower House. The number of delegates to be elected was within the Governor's discretion, and was regulated by the proclamation for the election, usually from two to four from each hundred [subsequently, each county], until 1681, when the number was uniformly fixed, and reduced to two, which continued until 1692, when it was, for the first time, regulated by Act of Assembly, and when the number was increased to four from every county—a basis of representation which continued until the Revolution. It should here be said that the legislation enacted at the little Capital of Saint Mary's, during the sixty-one years in which it was the seat of Government, forms, to a great extent, the foundation and outlines of the present legal, civil, and social structures of Maryland, and of some of its most cherished institutions."—J. W. Thomas, *Chronicles of colonial Maryland*, pp. 56-57.

1643-1649.—Colonial disturbances from English Civil War.—Lord Baltimore and the Puritans.—The struggle of parties incident to the overthrow of the monarchy and the civil war, in England, was attended in Maryland "with a degree of violence disproportionate to its substantial results. It is difficult to fasten the blame of the first attack definitely on either party. In 1643 or 1644 the King gave letters of marque to [Governor Leonard Calvert commissioning him to seize upon all ships belonging to the Parliament. It would seem, however, as if the other side had begun to be active, since only three months later

we find the Governor issuing a proclamation for the arrest of Richard Ingle, a sea-captain, apparently a Puritan and an ally of Clayborne. [Ingle had been arrested by the authorities on the charge of using violent and treasonable language concerning the king. He] . . . landed at St. Mary's [1645], while Clayborne at the same time made a fresh attempt upon Kent Island. Later events showed that under a resolute leader the Maryland Royalists were capable of a determined resistance, but now either no such leader was forthcoming, or the party was taken by surprise. Cornwallis, who seems to have been the most energetic man in the colony, was absent in England, and Leonard Calvert fled into Virginia, apparently without an effort to maintain his authority. Ingle and his followers landed and seized upon St. Mary's, took possession of the government, and plundered Cornwallis's house and goods to the value of £300. Their success was short-lived. Calvert returned, rallied his party, and ejected Clayborne and Ingle. The Parliament made no attempt to back the proceedings of its supporters, and the matter dwindled into a petty dispute between Ingle and Cornwallis, in which the latter obtained at least some redress for his losses. The Isle of Kent held out somewhat longer, but in the course of the next year it was brought back to its allegiance. [The authority of the Proprietary, was thus restored.] This event was followed in less than a twelvemonth by the death of . . . Governor [Calvert, on June 9, 1647, who before his death had named Thomas Greene as his successor. Lord] Baltimore now began to see that in the existing position of parties he must choose between his fidelity to a fallen cause and his position as the Proprietor of Maryland. As early as 1642 we find him warning the Roman Catholic priests in his colony that they must expect no privileges beyond those which they would enjoy in England. He now showed his anxiety to propitiate the rising powers by his choice of a successor to his brother. The new Governor, William Stone [who served from 1649 to 1654] was a Protestant. The Council was also reconstituted and only two Papists appeared among its members. . . . Furthermore he [Lord Baltimore] exacted from Stone an oath that he would not molest any persons on the ground of their religion, provided they accepted the fundamental dogmas of Christianity. The Roman Catholics were singled out as the special objects of this protection, though we may reasonably suppose that it was also intended to check religious dissensions. So far Baltimore only acted like a prudent, unenthusiastic man, who was willing to make the best of a defeat and save what he could out of it by a seemingly free sacrifice of what was already lost. . . . The internal condition of the colony had now been substantially changed since the failure of Ingle and Clayborne. The Puritan party there had received an important addition. . . . A number of Nonconformists had made an attempt to establish themselves on the shores of the Chesapeake Bay. . . . The toleration which was denied them by the rigid and narrow-minded Anglicanism of Virginia was conceded by the liberality or the indifference of Baltimore. The precise date and manner of their immigration cannot be discovered, but we know that by 1650 their settlement was important enough to be made into a separate county under the name of Ann Arundel, and by 1653 they formed two distinct communities, numbering between them close upon 140 householders. All that was required of them was an oath of fidelity to the Proprietor, and it seems

doubtful whether even that was exacted at the outset. They seem, in the unsettled and anarchical condition of the colony, to have been allowed to form a separate and well-nigh independent body, holding political views openly at variance with those of the Proprietor. To what extent the settlers on the Isle of Kent were avowedly hostile to Baltimore's government is doubtful. But it is clear that discontent was rife among them, and that in conjunction with the new-comers they made up a formidable body, prepared to oppose the Proprietor and support the Parliament. Symptoms of internal disaffection were seen in the proceedings of the Assembly of 1649."—J. A. Doyle, *English in America: Virginia, Maryland, etc.*, ch. 10.

ALSO IN: G. P. Fisher, *Colonial era*, ch. 5.

1649.—Act of Toleration.—"Religious liberty was a vital part of the earliest common-law of the province. At the date of the charter, Toleration existed in the heart of the proprietary. And it appeared in the earliest administration of the affairs of the province. But an oath was soon prepared by him, including a pledge from the governor and the privy counsellors 'directly or indirectly' to 'trouble, molest, or discountenance' no 'person whatever,' in the province, 'professing to believe in Jesus Christ.' Its date is still an open question—some writers supposing it was imposed in 1637; and others, in 1648. I am inclined to think the oath of the latter was but 'an augmented edition' of the one in the former year. The grant of the charter marks the era of a special Toleration. But the earliest practice of the government presents the first, the official oath the second, the action of the Assembly in 1649 the third, and to advocates of a republican government the most important phasis, in the history of the general Toleration. . . . To the legislators of 1649 was it given . . . to take their own rank among the foremost spirits of the age. Near the close of the session, . . . by a solemn act [the 'Act Concerning Religion'], they endorsed that policy which ever since has shed the brightest lustre upon the legislative annals of the province. . . . The design was five-fold:—to guard by an express penalty 'the most sacred things of God'; to inculcate the principle of religious decency and order; to establish, upon a firmer basis, the harmony already existing between the colonists; to secure, in the fullest sense, freedom as well as protection to all believers in Christianity; and to protect quiet disbelievers against every sort of reproach or ignominy."—G. L. Davis, *Daystar of American freedom*, ch. 4-7.—"In the wording of this act we see evident marks of a compromise between the differing sentiments in the Assembly. . . . It was as good a compromise as could be made at the time, and an immense advance upon the principles and practice of the age. In reality, it simply formulated in a statute what had been Baltimore's policy from the first. . . . From the foundation of the colony no man was molested under Baltimore's rule on account of religion. Whenever the Proprietary's power was overthrown, religious persecution began, and was checked so soon as he was reinstated."—W. H. Browne, *Maryland*, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: C. C. Hall, *Lords Baltimore and the Maryland palatinate*.—W. H. Browne, *George Calvert and Cecilius Calvert*, ch. 8.

1650-1675.—Uncertainty of Lord Baltimore's tenure under Puritan commonwealth.—Commissioners of the English parliament.—Repeal of the Act of Toleration and final restoration.—"To whatever causes . . . toleration was due, it

worked well in populating Maryland. There was an influx of immigration [1650], composed in part of the Puritans driven from Virginia by Berkeley. These people, although refusing the oath of fidelity, settled at Providence, near the site of Annapolis. Not merely the Protestant but the Puritan interest was now predominant in Maryland, and in the next Assembly the Puritan faction had control. They elected one of their leaders Speaker, and expelled a Catholic who refused to take an oath requiring secrecy on the part of the Burgesses. . . . Yet they passed stringent laws against Clayborne, and an act reciting their affection for Lord Baltimore, who had so vivid an idea of their power that he deemed it best to assent to sumptuary laws of a typically Puritan character. The Assembly appears to have acknowledged the supremacy of Parliament, while their proprietary went so far in the same direction that his loyalty was doubted, and Charles II. afterward appointed Sir William Davenant in his place to govern Maryland. This discreet conduct on the part of Lord Baltimore served, however, as a protection neither to the colonists nor to the proprietary rights. To the next Assembly, the Puritans of Providence refused to send delegates, evidently expecting a dissolution of the proprietary government, and the consequent supremacy of their faction. Nor were they deceived. Such had been the prudence of the Assembly and of Lord Baltimore that Maryland was not expressly named in the Parliamentary commission for the 'reducement' of the colonies, but, unfortunately, Clayborne was the ruling spirit among the Parliamentary commissioners, and he was not the man to let any informality of wording in a document stand between him and his revenge."—H. C. Lodge, *Short history of English colonies*, ch. 3.—"In 1652, the Commissioners of the English Parliament, arrived at Saint Mary's, deposed Governor William Stone, who had been appointed Governor of the Province in 1648, and named a Board of Councilors, for the government of Maryland, of whom Robert Brooke, of De La Brooke, was President, and, as such, acting Governor of the Province. On the dissolution of Parliament, however, Stone, in 1654, proclaimed Cromwell 'Lord Protector,' and reorganized the Proprietary government. This excited the violent opposition of the Puritan element in Maryland, who, with all available forces, invaded Saint Mary's, and finding Governor Stone without the means of effectual resistance, removed the records to Mr. Richard Preston's, near Saint Leonard's, on the Patuxent River, appointed from their own party, officials for the government of the Province, and passed laws ignoring Lord Baltimore's territorial rights, disfranchising Roman Catholics, and repealing the Toleration Act, of 1640, enacting in place of the latter, an Act concerning religion in obedience to the inspiration of their own philosophy. Governor Stone succeeded in capturing the records and restored them to the Provincial Capital, as well, also, the magazine and arms designed for the defense of Saint Leonard's, but in his effort, through the memorable battle at Providence [1655]—the first land engagement in Maryland—to reduce the insurgents to subjection, he was overwhelmingly defeated, and they continued to hold the reins of government until 1657, when, through an agreement, induced by the turn of affairs in England against Puritans, it was formerly surrendered and re-instated at Saint Mary's."—J. W. Thomas, *Chronicles of colonial Maryland*, pp. 63-64.—The proprietary government was re-established 1658, and Josias Fendall, whom Balti-

more had appointed Governor in place of Stone, was recognized. "The results of all this turbulence were the right to carry arms, the practical assertion of the right to make laws and lay taxes, relief from the oath of fealty with the obnoxious clauses, and the breakdown of the Catholic interest in Maryland politics. Toleration was wisely restored. The solid advantages were gained by the Puritan minority at the expense of the lord proprietary. In the interregnum which ensued on the abdication of Richard Cromwell, the Assembly met and claimed supreme authority in the province, and denied their responsibility to any one but the sovereign in England. Fendall, a weak man of the agitator species, acceded to the claims of the Assembly; but Baltimore removed Fendall, and kept the power which the Assembly had attempted to take away."—H. C. Lodge, *Short history of the English colonies*, ch. 3.—"When in 1658, the government of the Province was restored to the Lord Proprietary, the Acts which had been passed by the Assembly since the overthrow of his authority, and to none of which his assent had been given, were treated as nullities; and so the old law of 1649 revived. And eighteen years later, at an Assembly held in 1676, the first one after the death of Cecilius, in order to clear up the records and give certainty as to what laws were in force in the Province, an Act was passed enumerating all previous laws which had been repealed, as well as all laws which remained in force. Among the latter is found the Act of 1649 concerning Religion. The Act of 1654 is not mentioned in either category. It was recognized only during the sway of the commissioners of Parliament."—C. C. Hall, *Lords Baltimore and the Maryland palatinate*, pp. 94-95.—"Maryland did not suffer by the Restoration, as was the case with her sister colonies, but gained many solid advantages. The factious strife of years was at last allayed, and order, peace, and stability of government supervened. Philip Calvert, an illegitimate son of the first proprietary, was governor for nearly two years, and was then succeeded [1661] by his nephew, Charles, the oldest son of Lord Baltimore, whose administration lasted for fourteen. It would have been difficult to find at that time better governors than these Calverts proved themselves. Moderate and just, they administered the affairs of Maryland sensibly and well. Population increased, and the immigration of Quakers and foreigners, and of the oppressed of all nations, was greatly stimulated by a renewal of the old policy of religious toleration. The prosperity of the colony was marked."—H. C. Lodge, *Short history of the English colonies*, ch. 3.—"Upon the death of Cecilius, Lord Baltimore, in 1675, Charles succeeded to his title and estates and as third Lord Baltimore resided in the province and assumed authority in person.

ALSO IN: J. Grahame, *History of the United States (Colonial)*, v. 1, bk. 3.—D. R. Randall, *Puritan colony in Maryland (Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, 4th series, no. 6)*.—W. H. Browne, *George Calvert and Cecilius Calvert*, ch. 8-o.

1660-1776.—Colonial trade and agriculture.—Tobacco as staple product.—Attempts to encourage production of naval stores.—Supremacy of tobacco industry.—"Tobacco was almost the only product [of Maryland] grown for profit, and . . . the inhabitants were exclusively occupied in its production. While the royal governors were in Maryland the amount grown for export averaged about 25,320 hogsheads annually. The price

of tobacco in England was low and the province was far from prosperous. Toward the end of the period of royal government, however, the price in the colony rose from one and three fourths pence per pound in 1710 to two and one fourth pence in 1711,—a fact which argued hopefully for the colonists. Almost all the tobacco raised in Maryland was apparently shipped directly to England, and the large revenue, nearly 100,000 pounds annually received from colonial tobacco by the duties on its import gave rise to the greatest care in the protection of the industry and eventually in 1713 to the law easing the conditions of import into England. The slight rise in price, combined with this improvement in the arrangements made for collecting the duties on tobacco in England, while not altering conditions during the twenty-five years of royal government, certainly would seem to foreshadow prosperity for the future. It was thus in line with England's general colonial policy that Maryland should devote herself exclusively to the production of tobacco, and should neglect to exploit her natural resources of fur and fish or to raise food-stuffs for exportation. There was, however, one important respect in which this attitude of the government was qualified, to wit, in regard to naval stores, to the production of which the English statesmen at the end of the century were more than willing to give definite encouragement. Indeed, from the beginnings of English colonization it had been considered desirable that the colonies should furnish naval stores in order that the English navy might not be dependent for its existence on imports from foreign and possibly hostile countries. At first in the southern colonies the production of such stores was encouraged even at the expense of tobacco as being more directly profitable to England. Maryland promoters from the beginning reported that the soil of the province was suitable for the growth of hemp and flax, and that pitch and tar could be easily obtained from the neighboring woods. . . . In 1664, when the price of tobacco had fallen very low and the colonists were greatly in debt, the English government directed that hemp, pitch, and tar be brought into the kingdom customs free for five years, for the purpose, as the Lords Committee of Trade of the Privy Council put it of encouraging 'the planters to apply themselves to the planting of other commodities which may be of more benefit than tobacco.' In Maryland the colonial legislature supported the effort to grow hemp and flax by the passage of a number of laws, in 1671, 1683, and 1688. Unfortunately this legislation had but little effect, and the amount of hemp and flax raised in the province during the proprietary period was inconsiderable. By the end of the century the point of view of England concerning tobacco had radically changed, but the question of securing naval stores for her fleet continued to be a vital consideration. She was at war with France, and the trade for naval stores with the Baltic was in a most unsatisfactory condition. All the colonies, whatever their chief occupation, must be encouraged to produce naval stores also. The commissions sent to America by the Board of Trade in 1698 confined its attention to the investigation of the conditions for the production of such stores in the northern colonies, and at first no emphasis was laid on producing them in Maryland. The importance assigned to the whole question in England, however, did influence the resident royal officials in Maryland to emphasize strongly in their letters to the home government the suitability of

that province for the production of naval stores as well as of tobacco. . . . The conclusions . . . on the staple products of Maryland may be broadly stated. The colonial authorities never succeeded in inducing the inhabitants to turn their attention to exporting furs or fish or food-stuffs, and the royal governors at the end of the century not only acquiesced in the natural line of economic development in the colony, but did everything in their power to foster the growth of tobacco. This was to an even greater extent the aim of the English government which the colonial governors represented, but on account of the necessities of the English fleet the home authorities were forced to make one exception to their policy in the encouragement of the production of naval stores in Maryland as well as in the other colonies,—an effort that proved to be futile. The staple commodity of Maryland was, and continued to be, tobacco, and with a few minor exceptions it was tobacco only that was produced in sufficiently large quantities to be exported to England or to the English colonies."—M. S. Morris, *Colonial trade of Maryland*, pp. 51-53.—See also AGRICULTURE: Modern; United States: Beginnings.

1664-1682.—Claims to Delaware disputed by duke of York.—Grant of Delaware by the duke to William Penn. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1682.

1675-1691.—Charles, third Lord Baltimore and second proprietary.—Codification of laws.—Indian troubles.—Friction with revenue collectors.—Protestant associators.—"Charles, the third Lord Baltimore and second Proprietary of Maryland, succeeded to the title upon the death of his father, in November, 1675. . . . In 1676, the year after his accession, he convened the Assembly for the purpose of revising the laws of the Province, and at this session an Act was passed which was practically a codification of the existing laws, as it enumerated all previous laws which remained in force. . . . In 1675, the Susquehannough Indians, whose hunting grounds were to the north of Maryland, and who had by treaties been taken to a certain extent under the protection of the Province, had become greatly reduced in power, and their numbers diminished, by the ravages of small-pox. At this time a fierce descent was made upon them by their ancient enemies, the warlike Senecas, and the Susquehannoughs fled in dismay across Maryland to the old camping grounds of the Piscataways. . . . Shortly after, several murders were committed by Indians on both sides of the Potomac. Of these the Susquehannoughs were accused, and a number of them were killed in reprisals in Virginia. A force was raised,—of Virginians, commanded by Colonel John Washington, and of Marylanders, commanded by Major Thomas Truman, who was a member of the Council. A party of Indians was besieged in a blockhouse near the Potomac, in which they had taken refuge. They insisted that they were innocent of the murders, and five of their chiefs came to a parley. . . . Their protestations failed to convince Colonel Washington, and it came about that these five men, who, though savages, had come as envoys on an errand of peace, were put to death with the consent and by the authority of Major Truman. For this act of treachery he was impeached by the Maryland Assembly, but escaped punishment by that body on account of a disagreement between the two houses as to the character of his crime. . . . It was unfortunate for Lord Baltimore that at a time when his presence was urgently required in England, it was no less needed in Maryland.

Upon his departure,—his eldest son, Cecilius, having died a few years before,—he appointed his infant son, Benedict Leonard, Governor, with a board of Deputy Governors, of which George Talbot, an Irishman and a kinsman of Lord Baltimore's cousin, Sir William Talbot, was named as first, or President. . . . Much friction had been caused by the behavior of the collectors of the royal revenues from customs, and charges and countercharges of misconduct were made. . . . Disputes and antagonisms naturally arose, and upon the representations of the collectors, Lord Baltimore was required to pay a fine of £2500 for losses to the royal revenues alleged to have resulted from his negligence in suppressing smuggling and failing to render assistance to the collectors. . . . Upon the accession of William and Mary, Lord Baltimore at once despatched a special messenger from England with an order to the Council to proclaim the new Sovereigns. The messenger died on the voyage and the order was not delivered. Consequently, William and Mary were proclaimed in Virginia and New England while Maryland remained silent. . . . The malcontents seized upon it as evidence of Lord Baltimore's adherence to the cause of the dethroned monarch. . . . In addition to the charges brought against him in relation to the customs revenues, Lord Baltimore had been accused of treating the Protestants unfairly; and now the time to strike was ripe. A rumor was started that the Roman Catholics had entered into a conspiracy with the Indians to murder all the Protestants in the Province, and that large bodies of the savages were actually moving on the settlements. . . . John Coode, who had been associated with Fendall in sedition and an attempted insurrection ten years before, was the chief instigator. Coode had been a Roman Catholic and then a Protestant. . . . He gathered an armed force, and with his associates put forth a declaration replete with the well-worn cries of 'popery' and 'Jesuit,' and in which the tyrannical character of the popish government of Lord Baltimore was duly dilated upon. . . . The force led by Coode besieged the members of the Council in a fort at Mattapony, in which they had taken refuge, and obtained their surrender [August, 1689]. These insurgents then organized themselves under the title of Associators, and for a while carried things with a high hand, imprisoning not only Roman Catholics, but also any Protestants who resisted their lawless proceedings."—C. C. Hall, *Lords Baltimore and the Maryland palatinate*, pp. 101-103, 118-123.—"With the power in their own hands, Coode and his associates, issued the famous 'Declaration of the Protestant Associators,' selected a Council for the government of the Province, of which Nehemiah Blackiston, of 'Longworth Point,' was President, and sent an address to William and Mary, in which they detailed the results of the revolution, assigned the 'defense of the Protestant religion' as the reason for it, and asked that the Province be placed under the protection of the English Government."—J. W. Thomas, *Chronicles of colonial Maryland*, pp. 60-70.

1681-1685.—Boundary dispute with William Penn, in its first stages. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1685.

1688-1757.—Lord Baltimore deprived of the government.—Change of faith and restoration of his son.—Intolerance revived.—Lord Baltimore, "though guilty of no maladministration in his government, though a zealous Roman catholic, and firmly attached to the cause, of king James II., could not prevent his charter from being questioned in that arbitrary reign, and a suit from

being commenced to deprive him of the property and jurisdiction of a province granted by the royal favour, and peopled at such a vast expense of his own. But it was the error of that weak and unfortunate reign, neither to know its friends, nor its enemies; but by a blind precipitate conduct to hurry on everything of whatever consequence with almost equal heat, and to imagine that the sound of the royal authority was sufficient to justify every sort of conduct to every sort of people. But these injuries could not shake the honour and constancy of lord Baltimore, nor tempt him to desert the cause of his master. Upon the revolution [1688] he had no reason to expect any favour; yet he met with more than king James had intended him; he was deprived indeed of all his jurisdiction [1691], but he was left the profits of his province, which were by no means inconsiderable."—W. H. Browne, *Maryland*, ch. 11.—"From this time, that is from 1602, until 1715, a period of twenty-three years, the administration of the Province was in the hands of governors appointed by the Crown. The authority of the Lords Baltimore was in abeyance. They were no longer Absolute Lords as prescribed in the charter of Maryland, but they remained Proprietaries, in the sense that they were lords of the soil. They were deprived of the right of government, but their territorial rights were not infringed. . . . King William decided to assume control of the Province for the Crown, and appointed as Governor, Sir Lionel Copley, the first royal governor of Maryland. Upon arriving in the colony, Sir Lionel immediately terminated the provisional government . . . and convened an Assembly. . . . The first Act of the Assembly was naturally one of recognition of the authority of William and Mary. . . . The second law passed was one for the establishment of the Church of England, and the imposition of a tax of forty pounds of tobacco per poll for the support of the clergy of that Church. . . . [This act was amended in 1695 and in 1696 an entirely new act was passed by which the acts of 1602 and 1605 were repealed, but with their principal provisions re-enacted in greater detail.] While the government of the Lord Proprietary had been overthrown, the Crown respected his rights as Proprietor. . . . The Maryland Assembly undertook to dispute these rights, and to harass Lord Baltimore's agents in their attempts to collect his private revenues. He had again to appeal to the King, who specially instructed Sir Lionel Copley to take care that the agents of Lord Baltimore should be permitted to live peaceably and quietly, and to act as formerly in receiving his Lordship's dues and revenues in the Province. . . . The City of St. Mary's . . . was situated at a remote corner of the Province and was inconvenient of access to settlers established along the upper portion of the bay, and at the heads of the rivers. A more central location, near the old Puritan settlement on the banks of the Severn, was selected as the future seat of the government and thither it was removed in 1604. To this place was given the name of Anne Arundel Town, afterwards changed to Annapolis. . . . Sir Lionel Copley died in 1603, and Francis Nicholson, who had been commissioned Lieutenant-Governor, was absent in England. Sir Edmund Andros, who was then serving as Governor of Virginia, thereupon assumed the Governorship of Maryland. . . . The Assembly, however, objected, . . . and Sir Edmund retired, leaving the government to be administered by the President of the Council until Nicholson's arrival. . . . [Governor Nicholson] secured the foundation of William and Mary College

in Virginia, and his efforts in Maryland resulted, in 1696, in the establishment of King William School at Annapolis, to the support of which he was himself a generous contributor. He was succeeded in 1698 by Nathaniel Blackstone, who retired in 1701, on account of enfeebled health. It is an indication of the esteem in which he was held in the colony that, upon his departure for England, he was requested by the Assembly to act as its agent, to look after the interests of the Province with Crown and Parliament. The next royal governor was John Seymour, who was appointed in 1704, the office having been, meanwhile, administered by Thomas Tench, President of the Council. . . . In 1709, Governor Seymour died, and the Governorship then devolved upon Edward Lloyd, President of the Council, and so remained until the appointment of John Hart, the last of the royal governors, in 1714, one year before the restoration of the Proprietary government. The period of the royal governors witnessed a marked change in the constitutional character of the government of the Province. The lower house of the Assembly acquired larger powers as a coordinate branch of the legislative body, and sought continually to extend those powers. It called in question the powers of the governors, as in the case of Governor Seymour's attempt to grant a charter to Annapolis, and held them to the letter of their commissions."—C. C. Hall, *Lords Baltimore and the Maryland palatinate*, pp. 125, 128-135.—"One of the last acts of the royal government was also one of the best. The laws of the province, many of which had been enacted for limited times, while alterations and amendments had frequently taken place, had fallen into great confusion. By the Assembly of 1715 a complete revision was made. . . . So well was this work done that it laid the foundations of legislation that has lasted almost to the present day."—J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events of Maryland history*, p. 71.—"Upon the death of Charles, third Baron, which occurred on February 20th, 1714/5, his son, Benedict Leonard, succeeded to the title, which he held, however, for a few weeks only, as his own death followed on April 5th, of the same year (1715). Benedict Leonard had, in 1713, publicly renounced the Roman Catholic faith and attached himself to the Church of England. . . . Charles, the fifth Baron, succeeded to the title. . . . He was then sixteen years of age, and his guardian, Lord Guilford, lost no time in representing to the King, George I., the fact that his ward was a Protestant, and that therefore no political reason existed for delaying the restoration to him of the government of the Maryland Province. The King was equally prompt to act, and in May, 1715, the palatinate authority was restored to the infant Lord Baltimore under the terms of the original charter granted eighty-three years before."—C. C. Hall, *Lords Baltimore and the Maryland palatinate*, pp. 135, 140.—"When his descendants had conformed to the church of England, they were restored [1741] to all their rights as fully as the legislature had thought fit that any proprietor should enjoy them. When upon the revolution power changed hands in that province, the new men made but an indifferent requital for the liberties and indulgences they had enjoyed under the old administration. They not only deprived the Roman Catholics of all share in the government, but of all the rights of freemen; they have even adopted the whole body of the penal laws of England against them; they are at this day [1757] meditating new laws in the same spirit, and they would undoubtedly go to the greatest lengths in

this respect, if the moderation and good sense of the government in England did not set some bounds to their bigotry."—E. Burke, *Account of the European settlements in America*, v. 2, p. 7, ch. 18.—"We may now place side by side the three tolerations of Maryland. The toleration of the Proprietaries lasted fifty years, and under it all believers in Christ were equal before the law, and all support to churches or ministers was voluntary; the Puritan toleration lasted six years, and included all but Papists, Prelatists, and those who held objectionable doctrines; the Anglican toleration lasted eighty years, and had glebes and churches for the Establishment, connivance for Dissenters, the penal laws for Catholics."—W. H. Browne, *Maryland*, ch. 11.

1690.—First Colonial Congress.—King William's War. See U.S.A.: 1690.

1715-1751.—Rule of fourth proprietary.—"The rule [1715-1751] of the fourth proprietary [Charles] was, on the whole, mild and just. The royal governor, Hart, was continued in office for a time. He was succeeded in turn by Charles Calvert, probably a relative of the proprietary, and Benedict Leonard Calvert, brother of the proprietary. The latter was succeeded, on his resignation in 1731, by Samuel Ogle. Lord Baltimore was present and governed personally from December, 1732, to June, 1733. The period was one of peace and prosperity, but was marked by struggles between the two houses of Assembly, the lower house jealously guarding the rights and liberties of the people. Highly significant was the determined stand made by the people and their representatives in Maryland for all the rights and privileges of the people of England, in particular their contention that Maryland was entitled to the benefit of the common and statute law of England. This was undoubtedly one of the far-off beginnings of the American Revolution."—J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events of Maryland history*, p. 72.—"During the lifetime of Charles, Lord Baltimore, the requisitions of the Crown upon the American colonies for troops and money were frequent, and the lower house of the Assembly in Maryland persisted in finding means for withholding the supplies, by coupling to the appropriation bills conditions which the upper house would not accept. They were generally framed so that the duties levied for the use of the Proprietary should be reduced by an amount sufficient to offset the levy made for the Crown."—C. C. Hall, *Lords Baltimore and the Maryland palatinate*, p. 160.

1718-1776.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1621-1776.

1729-1730.—Founding of Baltimore.—"Maryland had never taken kindly to towns, and though in Queen Anne's reign, in conformity with the royal wish, a number were founded, the reluctant Assembly 'erecting' them by batches—42 at once in 1706—scarcely any passed beyond the embryonic stage. . . . St. Mary's and Annapolis, the one waning as the other waxed, remained the only real towns of the colony for the first 90 years of its existence. Joppa, on the Gunpowder, was the next, and had a fair share of prosperity for 50 years and more, until her young and more vigorous rival, Baltimore, drew off her trade, and she gradually dwindled, peaked, and pined away to a solitary house and a grass-grown grave-yard, wherein slumber the mortal remains of her ancient citizens. Baltimore on the Patapsco was not the first to bear that appellation. At least two Baltimores had a name, if not a local habitation, and perished, if they can be said ever to have rightly existed, before

their younger sister saw the light. . . . In 1729, the planters near the Patapsco, feeling the need of a convenient port, made application to the Assembly, and an act was passed authorising the purchase of the necessary land, whereupon 60 acres bounding on the northwest branch of the river, at the part of the harbor now called the Basin, were bought of Daniel and Charles Carroll at 40 shillings the acre. The streets and lots were laid off in the following January, and purchasers invited. The water-fronts were immediately taken up."—W. H. Browne, *Maryland*, ch. 12.

Also in: J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events of Maryland history*, pp. 74-76.

1751-1775.—All vestige of power gradually lost to proprietary government.—"Upon the death of Charles, Lord Baltimore, on April 24th, 1751 . . . the title and estates devolved upon his son Frederick, who was then a minor. . . . History records little, if anything, concerning Frederick that is to his credit. . . . In 1768, Frederick was tried at the Kingston Assizes for an infamous crime. . . . He was acquitted. . . . The news of the charge against him, and of the trial, extinguished in the Maryland Province whatever vestige of regard or loyalty remained for the Proprietary, whom the people had never seen, and whose exactions had been long resented. His death occurred in Naples, September 14th, 1771. . . . Frederick, Lord Baltimore, left no legitimate offspring. . . . [By his will] Frederick devised the Province to his natural son, Henry Harford . . . [and the executors] secured his recognition by the Assembly of Maryland."—C. C. Hall, *Lords Baltimore and the Maryland palatinate*, pp. 158, 162, 168-169.—"The proprietary government gradually lost power, and ceased to rule except in name, as the people assumed control of their own affairs. A temporary government was formed. The supreme authority was in the hands of a Convention, composed of delegates from all the counties; the executive power was vested in a Council of Safety; and county affairs were controlled by Committees of Observation. In July, 1775, the Convention formally assumed the control of affairs. A declaration was drawn up in which the wrongs committed by the British government were recited, and it was declared that the choice now lay between 'base submission or manly opposition to uncontrollable tyranny,' and that the framers were 'firmly persuaded that it is necessary and justifiable to repel force by force.' The authority of the Convention was supreme, yet its exercise was always characterized by moderation and a respect for the forms of law. Its management of affairs was just and admirable."—J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events of Maryland history*, pp. 80-90.

1754.—Colonial Congress at Albany, and Franklin's plan of Union. See U.S.A.: 1754.

1755-1760.—French and Indian War. See CANADA: 1750-1753, to 1750; OHIO: 1748-1754; 1754; 1755; NOVA SCOTIA: 1749-1755; 1755; CAPE BRETON ISLAND: 1758-1760.

1760-1767.—Settlement of the boundary dispute with Pennsylvania.—Mason and Dixon's line. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1760-1767.

1760-1775.—Opening events of Revolution. See U.S.A.: 1760-1775, to 1776; BOSTON: 1768, to 1773.

1763-1776.—Proprietary tax dispute.—Resistance to "Stamp Act."—Burning of the Peggy Stewart.—Proclamation of Freeman.—Declaration of Independence adopted.—"During the French and Indian War there were many sharp disputes between the governor [Horatio Sharpe] and the lower house of Assembly. The lower house

resisted the demands of the king and insisted that the proprietary should pay a share of the expenses for the defense of the province by paying taxes on his estates. This was of course resisted by the governor, who was bound to protect the interests of the proprietary, but after a severe struggle he was obliged to yield. . . . When the time came for the Stamp Act to go into operation, the court of Frederick county boldly declared that its business should be carried on without stamped paper, and other courts followed the example. . . . Governor Sharpe was succeeded in June, 1769, by Sir Robert Eden, the last proprietary governor of Maryland. . . . The new governor was scarcely seated before he met with opposition. There was a heated dispute between the houses of Assembly in 1770, as a result of which the session ended without the renewal of the acts fixing the fees of officers of the government and imposing the tax for the support of the Episcopal church, these acts having expired in that year. The Governor thereupon revived the old acts by proclamation, which the people regarded as an invasion of their rights, and resisted accordingly."—J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events of Maryland history*, pp. 82, 84-86.—"It has been said that Maryland was slow in voting for independence, but her emphatic resistance of all attempts toward an infringement of her rights and liberties are direct contradictions to any suggestion of a want of patriotism. In open day her Sons of Liberty had burned [Oct. 14, 1774] the Peggy Stewart and put the tax collector to flight more than two years before the Declaration of Independence. . . . A year before the final break the Convention of Maryland subscribed to the Declaration of the Association of Freeman, and public meetings were held in the counties and resolutions adopted and representative citizens named as committees of correspondence and observation to carry the resolutions of the convention into effect. The Proclamation of the Freeman of Maryland, which was signed July 26, 1775, reads [in part] as follows: . . . 'Resolved, That the said colonies be put into a state of defense, and now support, at the point of expense, an army to restrain the further violence and repel the future attacks of a disappointed and exasperated enemy. We, therefore, inhabitants of the Province of Maryland, firmly persuaded that it is necessary and justifiable to repel force by force, do approve of the opposition by arms to the British troops employed to enforce obedience to the late acts and statutes of the British Parliament for raising revenue in America, and altering and changing the Charter and Constitution of Massachusetts Bay, and for destroying the essential securities for the lives, liberties and properties of the subjects in the United Colonies. And we do unite and associate as one land, and firmly and solemnly engage and pledge ourselves to each other and to America that we will to the utmost of our power promote and support the present opposition, carrying on as well by arms as by the Continental Association restraining our commerce.' . . . Maryland proposed the Continental Congress, selected Philadelphia as its place of meeting, fixed the time as September (1774) and chose the first delegates. . . . John Rogers and Thomas Stone cast the vote of Maryland on the momentous Fourth of July, 1776, when the Declaration of Independence was formally adopted."—H. D. Richardson, *Side-lights on Maryland history, with sketches of early Maryland families*, pp. 374-372, 375-376.

1776.—End of proprietary and royal government.—Formation and adoption of state constitution.—"In Maryland the . . . political power

was vested in a Convention which created the Council of Safety and provided for the common defence. This was, however, so much under the control of the proprietary party and timid Whigs that, on the 21st of May [1776], it renewed its former instructions against independence. . . . The popular leaders determined 'to take the sense of the people.' . . . Meetings were called in the counties," which promptly declared for independence, with so much effect that on the 23d of June "the British man-of-war, Fowey, with a flag of truce at her top-gallant mast, anchored before Annapolis; the next day, Governor Eden was on board; and so closed the series of royal governors on Maryland soil."—R. Frothingham, *Rise of the republic*, pp. 525-527.—"Elections were held throughout the state on the 1st day of August, 1776, for delegates to a new convention to form a constitution and state government. . . . On the 14th of August this new body assembled. . . . On the 3d of November the bill of rights was adopted. On the 8th of the same month the constitution of the State was finally agreed to, and elections ordered to carry it into effect."—J. McSherry, *History of Maryland*, ch. 10.—See also U.S.A.: 1776-1779.

1776-1783.—War of Independence, to Peace with Great Britain. See U.S.A.: 1776, to 1783 (June).

1776-1783.—Formation of state government.—Reforms inaugurated.—Annapolis temporary capital of the United States.—The bill of rights "set forth in a general way the rights of the people, such as freedom of worship, the right to make their own laws, and to alter the form of their own government; . . . [the constitution] replaced the charter, fixing the form of government. There were three departments of the government: the legislative, or lawmaking; the executive, or law-enforcing; and the judicial which explains the laws and by applying them directly to men's actions dispenses justice. The legislative power was vested in a General Assembly, composed of two branches, the senate and the house of delegates. The chief executive power was vested in a governor. The judicial power was vested in the judges of the various courts. The delegates were elected by the people, while the senators were elected by a college of electors who were chosen by the people, nine senators to be chosen from the Western Shore and six from the Eastern. The governor was elected annually by the legislature, and had no veto power; he had an executive council to assist him, and he could not serve for more than three years at a time. The judges were appointed by the governor with the advice of the senate. A man must be worth a certain amount in order to vote, in order to be a delegate he must be worth more, in order to be a senator he must be worth still more, while to be a governor he must be yet richer. These restrictions have long since been removed. Under this Constitution Thomas Johnson was elected first governor of Maryland. He was proclaimed as such at Annapolis on March 21, 1777, amid the rejoicings of the people."—J. M. Gambrell, *Leading events of Maryland history*, pp. 94-95.—"The firmness and energy of Thomas Johnson, the first governor, proved fully equal to the task of organization, and of enforcing the measures adopted by the Assembly. The administration of his successor, Thomas Sim Lee, was also efficient. The reforms introduced in the judiciary carried out the programme of separating the three departments of the government. The right of justices of the peace to hear petty cases with an appeal to the county court, the ordinary *nisi prius* tribunal, was not disturbed. The Provincial Court was merged into a

General Court, which had formerly been held by one of the Provincial Court justices. A new official, the chancellor, was provided to preside over the Chancery Court in place of the governor. Instead of the governor and council the constitution established a court of appeals to hear cases from the General Courts, from the Admiralty Court, and from the Court of Chancery. The Assembly completed the judicial reorganization by substituting for the old probate system of a commissary general and his deputies an orphans' court in each county to be held by justices of the peace. The constitution had already ordered the appointment of a registrar of wills for every county. Nominations were made by the Assembly April 3, 1777, for a chancellor, for judges of the General and Admiralty Courts, or registrars of wills and for justices of the peace. The governor and council appointed the justices to serve in the orphans' courts, June 4, 1777. There is no record of a choice for the five judges of the Court of Appeals before December 12, 1778. . . . The reestablishment of judicial procedure constituted a very necessary measure. The suspension of all suits by order of the convention had greatly confused judicial business. The Assembly decreed that after July 1, 1777, suits might be begun, and that all civil actions pending July 26, 1775, should be reinstated in their former conditions. Legal procedure under the Provincial government was declared valid under the new administration. The county courts were to meet as under former laws. The first sitting of the General Court was fixed, for the Eastern Shore at Talbot courthouse the second Tuesday in September, for the Western Shore at Annapolis the second Tuesday in October. Two annual sittings on each shore were provided. Although the Assembly appointed the first Tuesday in October, 1777, for the initial session of the Court of Appeals, as has already been shown, the justices of this court were not named until late in 1778. Two annual sessions of the Court of Appeals were held. . . . Needed reforms in judicial procedure were not altogether neglected. A proposal of the House of Delegates to revise completely the criminal law failed, although the Senate proposed a joint recess committee to consider this undertaking. As the records of the Assembly for this period show no further action, this revision was probably overshadowed by the many important matters for the consideration of the Assembly."—B. W. Bond, *State Government in Maryland (Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, March-April, 1905)*.—The legislature elected William Paca as successor to Governor Lee on November 22, 1782. "By invitation of the state, Annapolis became temporarily the capital of the United States. There, in the Senate Chamber of the State House, December 23, 1783, George Washington surrendered his commission to Congress."—J. M. Gambrell, *Leading events of Maryland history*, p. 95.

1776-1784.—Influence of Maryland in founding Western domain.—"The immense importance of the region northwest of the Ohio as a source of national revenue, when the tide of emigration should set in, was recognized as early as 1776. Silas Deane, the agent whom the Continental Congress had sent to France, addressed a communication to the Committee of Secret Correspondence, calling the attention of Congress to that triangular region described in general, by the Ohio, the Mississippi, and the parallel of Fort Detroit. 'These three lines,' he says, 'of near one thousand miles each, include an immense territory, in a fine climate, well watered, and, by accounts, exceed-

ingly fertile. To this I ask your attention, as a resource amply adequate, under proper regulations, for defraying the whole expense of the war.' The first move that was ever made in Congress towards the assertion of national sovereignty over this western country, was made by Maryland. On the 15th of October, 1777, exactly one month before the Articles of Confederation were proposed to the Legislature for ratification, it was moved 'that the United States in Congress assembled, shall have the sole and exclusive right and power to ascertain and fix the western boundary of such States as claim to the Mississippi or South Sea, and lay out the land beyond the boundary, so ascertained, into separate and independent States, from time to time, as the numbers and circumstances of the people may require.' Only Maryland voted in the affirmative. But in this motion was suggested that idea of political expansion under the sovereign control of Congress, which ultimately prevailed and constituted, upon grounds of necessity, a truly National Republic. Not only the suggestion of a firm and lasting union upon the basis of a territorial commonwealth, but the chief influence in founding such a union, must be ascribed to Maryland. . . . The original proposition that Congress should exercise sovereign power over the western country was a pioneer thought. . . . We have discovered by a careful examination of the Journals of the Old Congress, that Maryland was not only the first, but for a long time the only State, to advocate national jurisdiction over the western lands. The opposition to the establishment of a public domain, under the sovereign control of Congress was so great, at the outset, that the States possessing land claims succeeded, a few days after Maryland's motion, in adding a clause to the Ninth Article of the Confederation, to the effect that no State should be deprived of territory for the benefit of the United States. . . . What these States desired was either a share in the revenues arising from the western country, or, that the funds accruing from the sale of western lands should be applied towards defraying the expenses of the war. But of the western lands as the basis of republican expansion under the national jurisdiction of Congress, these States seemed to have no conception whatever. Rhode Island, in a proposed amendment to the Articles of Confederation, expressly declared that all lands within those States, the property of which before the war was vested in the Crown of Great Britain, should be disposed of for the benefit of the whole confederacy, 'reserving, however, to the States within whose limits such Crown lands may be, the entire and complete jurisdiction thereof.' New Jersey, in her remonstrance to the Ninth Article, while demanding that the Crown lands should be sold by Congress for defraying the expenses of the war, admits that, 'The jurisdiction ought, in every instance, to belong to the respective States within the charter or determined limits of which such lands may be seated.' Delaware also had a keen sense of the common interest of all the States in the sale of the unoccupied western lands, but of that interest as the basis of a truly national commonwealth, she seems to have had no appreciation whatever. The credit of suggesting and successfully urging in Congress, that policy which has made this country a great national commonwealth, composed of 'free, convenient, and independent governments,' bound together by ties of permanent territorial interests, the credit of originating this policy belongs to Maryland, and to her alone. Absolutely nothing had been effected by Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Delaware, before they ratified the Articles,

towards breaking down the selfish claims of the larger States and placing the Confederation upon a national basis. Delaware, the last of all the States, except Maryland, to ratify the Articles, acceded to the latter, February 22, 1779, under a mild protest, which Congress allowed to be placed on file, 'provided,' as was said, 'it should never be considered as admitting any claim.' Maryland was left to fight out the battle alone. . . . The 'Instructions' of Maryland to her delegates, which were read in Congress, May 21, 1779, after the accession of Delaware, as above stated, forbidding them to ratify the Articles of Confederation before the land-claims had been placed upon a different basis, must be regarded as one of the most important documents in our early constitutional history, for it marks the point of departure for those congressional enactments of the 6th of September and 10th of October, 1780, which were followed by such vital results for the constitutional as well as the material development of this country. From the effect of these instructions upon the acts and policy of Congress, we shall be able to trace out, from documentary evidence, that line of events which led to the great land-cessions of Virginia and New York, and to the Ordinance of 1784 for the government of the ceded territory, which Ordinance was termed 'a charter of compact,' the articles of which should stand as 'fundamental constitutions' between the thirteen original States and each of the new States therein described. The following brief citations from the original document will suffice to convey its tenor and spirit, and to indicate the attitude of Maryland towards the Confederation: 'Although the pressure of immediate calamities, the dread of their continuance from the appearance of disunion, and some other peculiar circumstances, may have induced some States to accede to the present confederation, contrary to their own interests and judgments, it requires no great share of foresight to predict that when those causes cease to operate, the States which have thus acceded to the confederation will consider it no longer binding, and will eagerly embrace the first occasion of asserting their just rights and securing their independence. Is it possible that those States, who are ambitiously grasping at territories, to which, in our judgment, they have not the least shadow of exclusive right, will use with greater moderation the increase of wealth and power derived from those territories, when acquired, than what they have displayed in their endeavors to acquire them? We think not. . . . Suppose, for instance, Virginia, indisputably possessed of the extensive and fertile country to which she has set up a claim, what would be the probably consequences to Maryland? . . . Virginia, by selling on the most moderate terms, a small proportion of the lands in question, would draw into her treasury vast sums of money and . . . would be enabled to lessen her taxes: lands comparatively cheap and taxes comparatively low, with the lands and taxes of an adjacent State, would quickly drain the State thus disadvantageously circumstanced, of its most useful inhabitants, its wealth; and its consequence, in the scale of the confederated States, would sink of course. A claim so injurious to more than one-half, if not the whole of the United States, ought to be supported by the clearest evidence of the right. Yet what evidences of that right have been produced? . . . We are convinced, policy and justice require that a country unsettled at the commencement of this war, claimed by the British crown, and ceded to it by the treaty of Paris, if wrested from the common enemy by the blood and treasure of the thirteen States, should be con-

sidered as a common property, subject to be parcelled out by Congress into free, convenient and independent governments, in such manner and at such times as the wisdom of that assembly shall hereafter direct. . . . We have spoken with freedom, as becomes freemen, and we sincerely wish that these our representations may make such an impression on that assembly [Congress] as to induce them to make such addition to the articles of confederation as may bring about a permanent union."—H. B. Adams, *Maryland's influence in founding a national commonwealth*, pp. 27-33.—See also U.S.A.: 1781-1786; also Historical geography.

ALSO IN: J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events of Maryland history*, pp. 135-137.

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

1777-1781.—State aid to Continental army.—"The aid to the Continental army during the period 1777 to 1781 forms probably the most important phase of the support which Maryland accorded Congress. Situated between the northern and southern campaigns, the abundant resources of Maryland were not exhausted by much actual conflict, or by the presence of large bodies of troops. . . . The exhaustion of the resources of many States by the trying winter of 1780 to 1781 induced a request on June 2, 1780, for a large monthly supply from Maryland. . . . Large quantities of wheat, flour, and other provisions were sent to the New England States, to Virginia, to the Bermudas, and to the French fleet."—B. W. Bond, *State government in Maryland (Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, Mar.-Apr., 1905)*.

1787-1788.—Opposition to slave trade at constitutional convention.—At the time of the constitutional convention, Maryland made an effort to stop the traffic in African slaves. "The slave trade was then actively carried on by the North, and to check it, Maryland, through Luther Martin, her representative in the convention, appealed to that body to stop this pernicious traffic. . . . This was the first word said in the convention of 1787 against the above proposition to permit the indefinite continuance of the slave trade to all the States in the Union. Maryland, . . . acting in her own sovereign capacity, had in fact as early as 1783, prohibited the African slave trade, and her representative now wished the Federal Union to have the power to imitate her example."—J. T. Scharf, *History of Maryland*, v. 3, pp. 295-296.

1787-1788.—Adoption and ratification of Federal constitution. See U.S.A.: 1787; 1787-1780.

1788.—Cedes land for District of Columbia. See DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA: Location.

1800-1864.—Manhood suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1800-1864.

1812-1814.—War of 1812.—Coast of Chesapeake bay harried by British.—Movement of British fleet against Baltimore.—In a series of disputes with England which brought on the war of 1812, Maryland took an active part. Upon Maryland, the New England states laid the blame of the conflict, and against Maryland the British offensive was especially directed. (See also U.S.A.: 1812 [June-October].) "In the spring of 1813, the enemy's naval force left their anchorage at Lynn Haven, and moved up the Chesapeake Bay. [See U.S.A.: 1812-1813: Indifference to the Navy.] A general alarm was excited amongst the inhabitants of its shores; and unused as they were to a state of war, the first demonstrations of outrage and the system of plunder and destruction

which Cockburn began, were of a nature to terrify a people who had so long enjoyed tranquillity and peace. . . . About the first of April, the enemy moving up the bay, and as he advanced, sending his tenders and barges into most of the navigable inlets, the case of invasion or threatened invasion occurred at almost every point; and parties of militia were hastily formed to repel it, and disbanded when the danger seemed past. . . . On the 16th of April, the fleet threatened the city of Baltimore, which was 'pointed out for military execution in papers published by citizens of the United States,' and the jealousies and animosities of other cities scarcely concealed their joy of her impending ruin. . . . Maryland had already been notified by the secretary of war that she was to expect little, if any help from the Federal Government. Nothing was then left her to depend on but her local militia. . . . [In 1814] General Ross openly boasted, that though the heavens 'rained militia,' he would make his winter quarters in Baltimore. . . . About two o'clock on Tuesday morning, September 13th, the enemy opened fire [on Fort McHenry] from his five bomb vessels at the distance of about two miles; and the whole of Tuesday and Tuesday night was employed in an effort to subdue the passive resistance of the fort by an incessant shower of shell. [See U.S.A.: 1814 (August-September).]—J. T. Scharf, *History of Maryland*, v. 3, pp. 37-38, 99, 116.

ALSO IN: J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events of Maryland history*.

1820-1860.—Movement toward extinction of slavery.—Objection to Abolition movement.—Interests at stake in attempt to preserve union.—Between 1820 and 1860 the chief item of general historical interest in Maryland was the development of the feeling of the state on the subject of the slavery issue which was agitating the Union. Though Maryland, from the first, had been permeated with anti-slavery sentiments, she was separated from the Northern states by a variety of commercial, economic, and social jealousies, which had been obvious enough during the War of 1812, and which did not tend to decrease. Consequently she was quite prepared to look upon the growth of the abolition movement in New England and the rest of the North as unwarranted meddling on the part of her ancient enemies. At the same time the lot of the negro slave in Maryland steadily improved. "Before 1840, all persons of color were slaves. In 1790, not quite one out of every fourteen was free. In thirty years from that period (1820) the number of free had increased to 44,730, and here the proportion of considerably more than one-fourth of the total number of their race in the State. During the same period the entire increase of the slaves was but 3,968, being less than four per cent. In 1830, more than one-third of the colored people of the State were free, and in 1840, the proportion of free colored to the slaves was as 64 to 69—or more than two-fifths of the whole. It will also be seen that for thirty years, from 1810, the number of slaves diminished 21,796. . . . Slaves in Maryland had become very uncertain and uncomfortable property. In fact, public sentiment was in favor of the gradual extinction of slavery in the State; but in consequence of the violent denunciation and improper interference of Northern abolitionists, a reaction had taken place, not in public sentiment, but in public policy. . . . [This excitement] compelled the passage of the most stringent laws against slaves at the very moment when they were rapidly acquiring public sympathy, and when the Legislature was making

the most liberal appropriations for the comfort of the colored race. . . . Maryland, as an exposed and frontier slaveholding State, had a larger practical interest in the maintenance of the guarantees of the Constitution in regard to slavery than South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi put together. From her geographical position, she had a heavier stake, proportionately, in the preservation of the Union, so far as her material prosperity was concerned, than any of her sister commonwealths. This was clearly demonstrated by a consideration of the sources of her wealth, the nature and direction of her industry and of her commerce, external and internal."—J. T. Scharf, *History of Maryland*, v. 3, pp. 319-320, 331-332, 361.

1824-1847.—Interest in project of Liberia. See LIBERIA: 1824-1847.

1837-1851.—Constitutional changes.—Agitation over repudiation of state bonds.—Payments resumed.—"The Constitution, in 1837, was revised. Representation was more fairly apportioned; the counties sent delegates according to population. Annapolis lost her delegates, and Baltimore sent the same number as the largest counties. The electoral college was abolished, and the election of the senators given to the people. The governor's council was abolished, and the governor elected by the people. In 1802 the property qualification for voting was abolished, and that for holding office followed in 1810; in 1825 Jews, who before this time were not allowed to hold any public office, were placed on the same footing with Christians; and in 1846 the sessions of the General Assembly were made biennial. The old Constitution having become 'a thing of shreds and patches,' a new one was adopted by the people in 1851. The term of the governor and of senators was made four years, and it was provided that the judges and many other officers should be elected by the people. Imprisonment for debt was abolished. It is apparent that the general tendency of all these reform movements was to place the control of affairs more directly in the hands of the people."—J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events of Maryland history*, pp. 162-163.—"In 1842 Maryland was forced to suspend payment on its bonds, and this gave rise to a somewhat marked agitation for repudiation. Although neither [Governors] Grason nor Thomas can be regarded as other than the most pronounced enemies of repudiation, it was not until the administration of Governor Pratt—the whig successor of Mr. Thomas—that the idea of repudiation was finally disposed of. . . . Governor Thomas retired from the executive mansion on January 6, 1845. . . . [Governor Pratt] was inaugurated . . . on January 6, 1845, and his term expired on January 3, 1848. During these three years he was untiring in his endeavors to have Maryland resume her interest payments, which had been passed continuously since 1842, and within a few days of his retirement from the gubernatorial office the state did resume these payments."—H. E. Buchholz, *Governors of Maryland from the revolution to the year 1908*, pp. 141, 144, 147.

1850.—Attitude on slavery question. See U. S. A.: 1850 (June).

1860-1864.—Part played in Civil War.—Throughout the war Maryland occupied a curious position. Though she never joined the seceding states, her loyalty to the union was from the first exceedingly suspicious, and the federal government at Washington never dared allow her full popular rights. This action was felt to be the more necessary because the safety of the federal capital depended on keeping Maryland out of the control of

the South. Moreover the normal path of the federal armies en route to Washington lay through Maryland. "While four-fifths of the people of Maryland at this time regarded the course which had been adopted by the cotton States as rash, hasty, unadvised and uncalled for, yet there was one point upon which we believe the people of this State were almost unanimous, and that was against the idea of coercing the Southern States by the physical power of the Federal government or the northern people."—J. T. Scharf, *History of Maryland*, v. 3, p. 363.—Accordingly, there was trouble when the first federal troops passed through Baltimore in April, 1861, en route to Washington. "Neither of these men [Governor Hicks nor Mayor Brown of Baltimore] . . . failed in loyal sentiment to the Union, but both felt the peculiar environment of Southern interests, and bent before a tempest that nearly swept the State from its safe moorings. [See also U. S. A.: 1861 (April): President Lincoln's call to arms.] For Baltimore was the one populous community of this genial and hospitable State, and in its society surged all the crests of opposition to Lincoln's policy of coercion, from dislike to the maddest avowal of secession and Southern sympathies. Allowance should be made for an executive under such conditions; and of all governors in the border slave States, except Delaware, at this crisis, Hicks was the only one tractable and true, and his record, on the whole, in time of trial, did him lasting honor. President Lincoln, who appreciated his good intentions, and humored his moods yielded far enough, upon General Scott's advice, to march troops around Baltimore for a time, instead of through it, on their way to the capital. . . . The New York 7th reached Washington on Friday, April 26th, and the 8th Massachusetts with other troops followed the next day. Washington, in the meanwhile, cut off for nearly a week from the outer world after the Baltimore riot, felt all the anxieties of isolation. . . . National officials and the inhabitants prepared for a siege. . . . With the Massachusetts quota, Governor Andrew had despatched, as brigadier commander, General Benjamin F. Butler of the State militia. . . . Having directed at Annapolis with the 8th Massachusetts, Butler was now detailed to guard the railroad connections which flanked Baltimore, and gradually to reopen a free highway. Governor Hicks, while in a yielding frame of mind, had been persuaded to call an extra session of the legislature, and that session meant mischief. President Lincoln watched the movement and prepared to counteract disloyal designs by military stress. Construing the Federal Constitution in favor of his executive discretion in the existing emergency, he authorized General Scott and his deputies to suspend the writ of *habeas corpus*. On the 4th of May, Butler advanced with his military force to Relay House, nine miles south of Baltimore, menacing the city and controlling the railway approaches. The Maryland legislature convened at Frederick, April 26th, and remained in session until May 14th; disunion projects were broached, but no decisive step was taken. Late on the evening of the 13th, Butler made a sudden entry into Baltimore, which was unopposed. Proceeding next to make vindictive civil arrests, he was promptly displaced by General Scott, who deputed this 'high and delicate trust' of suspending *habeas corpus* to Cadwalader of Pennsylvania, another militia general. In vain did Chief Justice Taney record his protest against such suspension, when the mandate he issued on his circuit was disregarded at Fort McHenry in a test case. Nathaniel P. Banks, who took command still later, commissioned a major-

general, pursued by orders from Washington the same stern military course. . . . He prevented the State legislature from meeting once more in September by boldly arresting its disunion members and preventing a quorum. But the secession spirit of Maryland waned speedily. . . . By midsummer, transit from the North was restored. . . . Hicks in the autumn was reelected governor by a very large majority, and when in December a newly chosen legislature, loyal in its composition, convened at Annapolis, this executive, no longer wavering, announced with emphasis that Maryland had no sympathy with rebellion, but desired to do her full share in the duty of suppressing it."—J. Schouler, *History of the United States, under the constitution*, v. 6, pp. 45-48—See also U. S. A.: 1861 (April): Activity of rebellion; 1861 (April-May: Maryland); BORDER STATES.

1862.—Lee's first invasion.—His message to people of Maryland.—In 1862 the invasion of Maryland by Lee's army threw the federal district into terror (See U. S. A.: 1862 [September: Maryland]: Lee's first invasion). Lee had counted upon the sympathies of the Marylanders themselves and had expected his troops to be re-enforced by the secret devotion of the people. In anticipation of this he addressed to the citizens of Maryland the following letter: "The people of the Confederate States have long watched with the deepest sympathy the wrongs and outrages that have been inflicted upon the citizens of a Commonwealth allied to the States of the South by the strongest social, political and commercial ties. They have seen with profound indignation their sister State deprived of every right, and reduced to the condition of a conquered province. Under the pretence of supporting the Constitution, but in violation of its most valuable provisions, your citizens have been arrested and imprisoned upon no charge, and contrary to all forms of law; the faithful and manly protest against this outrage, made by the venerable and illustrious Marylander to whom in better days no citizen appealed for right in vain, was treated with scorn and contempt; the Government of your chief city has been usurped by armed strangers; your Legislature has been dissolved by the unlawful arrest of its members; freedom of the press and of speech has been suppressed; words have been declared offences by an arbitrary decree of the Federal Executive, and citizens ordered to be tried by a military commission for what they may dare to speak.—R. E. Lee, *General Commanding*."—J. T. Scharf, *History of Maryland*, v. 3, p. 408.

1863.—Lee's second invasion.—Gettysburg. See U. S. A.: 1863 (June-July: Pennsylvania).

1864.—Early's invasion. See U. S. A.: 1864 (July: Virginia-Maryland).

1864-1867. — Reconstruction. — Abolition of slavery and declaration of loyalty.—Disfranchisement of citizens.—New constitution and declaration of rights.—In 1864 the wavering loyalty of Maryland was brought to some apparent stability by the adoption of a new constitution. "The Declaration of Rights and Constitution adopted by the Convention of 1864, made radical changes in the organic law of the State. Of these, the most important were the articles abolishing slavery, and declaring 'paramount allegiance' to be due to the Constitution and Government of the United States."—J. T. Scharf, *History of Maryland*, v. 3, p. 582.—"The close of the war brought cessation of armed hostilities, but it was far from bringing political peace. Of some 95,000 persons entitled to vote about 60,000 were disfranchised under one pretext or another, and of the 35,000 qualified voters it was estimated that 15,000 were

of the opposition, so that the State was ruled by little more than one-fifth of its voters. This state of things of course could not continue after the rule of law had replaced the rule of force, and although the beneficiaries of the existing state of things made desperate efforts to perpetuate their power by registration laws framed to exclude all but their partisans, and even by beseeching the Federal government to restore military law, that they might rule their fellow-citizens by the bayonet, if they could not by the ballot, their efforts were in vain. However, it was only the radical portion of the 'Union' party that urged such measures; many of the fairer-minded men of that party (who took the title of Conservatives) approved the movement for the repeal of the iniquitous registration law, and the officers of registration, seeing that the tide was turning, became very lenient in its application. In May, 1867, a constitutional convention duly elected, assembled in Annapolis and drew up a new Declaration of Rights announcing 'That the provisions of the Constitution of the United States and of this State apply as well in time of war as of peace; and any departure therefrom or violation thereof under the plea of necessity or any other plea is subversive of good government and tends to anarchy and despotism.' The Constitution conferred the franchise upon every male citizen of the United States of lawful age, who had been a resident of the State for one year, and imposed no other test or qualification beyond the exclusion of convicts and lunatics. Persons elected to office were required to swear to support the Constitution of the United States, and bear true allegiance to the State of Maryland."—W. H. Browne, *Maryland, the history of a palatinate*, pp. 360-362.—"The Constitution is composed of two parts. The first, called the Declaration of Rights, consists of forty-five articles. It is a statement of the general rights which the people of the state consider of special importance to their freedom. . . . The second part of the Constitution is the Form of Government. The legislative power is vested in a General Assembly, composed of two Houses, the Senate and the House of Delegates. In the former each county is represented by one member, and the city of Baltimore by four; in the latter each county is represented according to its population, Baltimore sending four times as many delegates as the most populous county. The Assembly meets biennially on the first Wednesday of January. If he deems it necessary, the governor may call the legislature together in special session. The chief executive power is vested in a governor; he is elected by the people for four years. . . . To the governor is given the appointment of many important officials, and he has the power to appoint all officials whose appointment is not otherwise provided for in the Constitution or by law. In most cases the appointments are made by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. . . . For the administration of justice the state is divided into eight districts called circuits. Baltimore, which composes the eighth circuit, has a separate system of courts. In each of the other circuits three judges are elected, —a chief and two associates. The chief judges of these circuits, together with a special judge from Baltimore city, form the Court of Appeals, the highest court of the state."—J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events of Maryland history*, pp. 182-184.

1865-1868. — Establishment of comprehensive school system.—Centralization of school administration.—Provisions of school law.—Decentralization of system.—"It was not until 1865 however that the state secured a comprehensive

school system. The system then adopted was strongly centralized. Instead of the school funds being divided among the several counties and administered according to different systems there was created a state Board of Education. This was to consist of the governor, lieutenant-governor, speaker of the House of Delegates, and a state superintendent, an appointee of the governor. This formidable assemblage of dignitaries was given supervision of all colleges and schools receiving state donations. They had the selection of the school equipment, prepared a code of regulations for the government of the county school boards, appointed such school commissioners for each county as the state superintendent might direct and had the power of removal of any commissioners found guilty of failing to act in harmony with the superintendent. 'All property, estate, and effects, all money, all funds, all claims, all state donations, now vested by law in any county or school district, any board of school commissioners, any board of inspectors of primary schools, any trustee or trustees of primary schools, or any other body of persons whatsoever, for the use and benefit of public, primary, free, or high schools in the county,' was transferred to the board of school commissioners of the county. The counties were divided into school districts with one commissioner in control of each, who had the appropriate duties of such an office, the appointing of teachers from persons having proper certificates, the supervision of certificates and the hearing of charges affecting the morals or competency of teachers. The law provided for the establishment of a high school in each county, and St. John's College, Washington College, the Agricultural College, the Faculty of Arts and Sciences, and the Law School were brought together to constitute the University of Maryland. It was designed that the courses of instruction in the county high schools should prepare students for matriculation in some one of the schools comprising that University. The school law of 1865 further provided that the state appropriations to the counties for the maintenance of the academies and schools should constitute 'together with such other donations as from time to time may be made and annually appropriated by the county board,' a high school fund. In its operation it was soon found that the Act of 1865 had carried centralization too far and a new school law was passed in 1868 which restored the right of local self-government in school matters and left the endowed schools as they had been before 1865."

—J. McSherry, *History of Maryland*, pp. 405-406.
1867-1914.—Era of general progress.—Founding of Johns Hopkins University.—Baltimore and Ohio railroad strike.—Disfranchising of negroes.—Legislation.—As Maryland began to recover from the depression of the Civil War and to restore full self-government, her history becomes an almost indistinguishable part of the general stream of American development. Here and there some special achievement stands out amidst the quiet course of the state life. The founding of Johns Hopkins in 1867 (see UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1867) established in Maryland one of the greatest of the American universities and an important center of medical science. In 1877 the greatest railroad strike the country had known centered in Maryland. "In July, 1877, the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad lowered the wages of its employees for the fourth time in seven years, and thus precipitated the greatest strike the country had yet known. The strike began at Martinsburg, West Virginia (July 16, 1877), and spread rapidly to other States and other lines. Transportation

and industry were speedily paralyzed. Bloody clashes between the strikers and the police and militia took place at Baltimore, Pittsburgh, and other towns; at Pittsburgh the mob completely controlled the city, pillaged property at will, and destroyed 100 locomotives and 2,000 cars. In many instances the police and even the militia proved powerless to preserve the peace; in a dozen States a situation developed resembling civil war. . . . In some places determined citizens formed committees of safety and organized special forces to save the country from anarchy, while the governors of several States called on the President for federal troops, and in most instances he complied. Owing to the hard times, many railroads were in the hands of federal receivers, and in several cases federal judges enjoined the strikers from interfering with the operation of such roads."—P. L. Haworth, *United States in our own times*, pp. 146-147.—"In 1890 the state adopted a plan known as the Australian ballot, by which voting might be entirely secret, and in 1896 a law was passed to throw additional safeguards about voting. . . . In March, 1901, the General Assembly, being in special session, passed a new election law, which has since been amended from time to time, especially in 1912 and 1914. The voter is not permitted to use any ballot except the one prepared by the state officers, on which the names of all candidates must be printed in alphabetical order under the head of the respective offices. The ballot shows the party of each candidate by printing the party name in plain type, but no symbol or emblem of any kind is allowed."—J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events in Maryland history*, pp. 185-186.—In 1901 Maryland joined the southern states in the disenfranchisement of the negro. A new election law for the purpose of disfranchising the majority of colored citizens, was passed by both houses on the 20th of March, 1901. It is said to be "considerably more fair than the North Carolina and similar laws in States farther south. It disfranchises by means of regulations which practically make it necessary for a voter to be able to read his ballot. The illiterate are denied any assistance when they go into the booths, and all emblems are omitted from the ticket. The color line is not drawn. It is believed that there are about 32,000 negroes and 16,000 whites who will not be able to vote under this law. Practically all of the negroes are supposed to be Republicans, while it is estimated that the whites are divided about evenly between the parties. In 1902 the General Assembly passed a compulsory education act, applying only to Baltimore city and Allegany county, but its provisions were gradually improved and extended throughout the state. . . . At the session of 1914 the General Assembly created the Maryland State University. This was not a new institution of learning, but a new body of officials with power to bring about a closer association between existing colleges and professional schools. . . . In 1908 a Public-Service Commission, consisting of three members appointed by the governor, was created. Its duty is to exercise supervision over the corporations that perform some important service for the general public, such as furnishing transportation (as do the railroads, electric lines, and steamboats), telephone service, gas, electricity, etc. . . . A stringent Corrupt Practices Act was passed in 1908 and extended in 1912, imposing severe penalties for bribery and other dishonest acts committed in connection with elections. In 1914 a law was passed authorizing the use of voting machines whenever the election supervisors of Baltimore city or of the respective counties so desire. . . . In 1914 a Workmen's Compensation

Law went into effect."—J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events of Maryland history*, pp. 186, 196, 199, 203.—In 1908 a special senatorial primary-election law was enacted; this law was amended, 1914, to conform with the provisions of the Seventeenth Amendment of the Federal constitution. In 1909-1910, efforts were made to disfranchise the negro vote. In 1911, all state officers were nominated at direct primaries. In 1912 a measure was passed providing for the election of presidential electors. In 1913, six amendments to the state constitution were ratified.

1871-1915.—Negro population.—Baltimore segregation ordinance. See BALTIMORE: 1871-1915.

1902.—Coöperative accident insurance. See SOCIAL INSURANCE; Details for various countries: United States: 1893-1918.

1915-1916.—Home rule for cities and referendum adopted.—Revision of school code.—Welfare laws.—"In 1915 two amendments of special importance were added [to the constitution]: one is a 'home rule' law giving the people of Baltimore city or of a county a large amount of freedom in deciding upon the form of their local government and in the making of local laws, the other establishes the 'referendum.'"—J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events in Maryland history*, p. 184.—"A State Board of Agriculture, consisting of nine members appointed by the governor, was created in 1916. Besides serving as trustees of the State College of Agriculture, the board performs a number of duties to promote the prosperity of farmers and protect the food supply of the people. . . . In 1914 an act of the legislature provided for a commission to conduct a 'school survey,' that is, a careful study by experts of the entire educational work of the state. The result was a series of recommendations for improvements that were adopted by the legislature of 1916 in a completely revised code of school laws that is one of the best in the United States. Under the present organization there is a State Board of Education composed of seven members appointed by the governor. This board elects the state superintendent of schools, who serves as secretary, treasurer, and chief executive of the board and has large powers in the general direction and supervision of public education. For each county the governor appoints a County Board of Education, which elects a county superintendent of schools, who serves the county board as secretary, treasurer, and chief executive officer, advises them regarding the appointment of teachers and adoption of textbooks, and has general supervision of education in the county."—J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events in Maryland history*, pp. 196-197.—"The . . . child labor law was amended, in the face of influential opposition, so as to forbid work permits to children who cannot read and write; employment of children under 14 in all industries except canning; employment of children under 16 for more than 8 hours a day, 48 hours a week, or between 7 P. M. and 7 A. M.; also on the stage, in theaters or motion picture establishments, or on any machine operated by any power other than foot or hand, or in tobacco factories. The age of newsboys is raised from 10 to 12 years. . . . Adult children who are financially able to do so are now compelled to support their dependent parents, instead of being permitted to shift responsibility upon the community. Adults, whether parents, guardians, employers or others, who contribute to the delinquency of children, may be haled into court by any interested or responsible party. Circuit court judges are empowered to designate one of their number to sit in juvenile cases, thereby making

possible the extension of the juvenile court system to all the counties. . . . The boards of directors of the Maryland House of Correction and the penitentiary are abolished, and the management of both prisons is placed under a new Board of Prison Control which is to devise a plan for doing away with contract labor and is authorized to work prisoners on roads. It is also to recommend a plan by which the state may secure a penal farm. . . . A mothers' pension bill was passed at the last moment. It appropriates \$5,000 to be distributed among the commissioners of the counties for cost of administration of pension funds, and \$10,000 to a Board of Mothers' Relief for like purpose in Baltimore. Baltimore, however, may elect to have the funds administered by the supervisors of city charities. The Board of State Aid and Charities was reorganized with the governor made a member and the other members so classified that half of them retire every two years. The most important provision of this bill—and of the session, for that matter—was the substitution of per capita appropriations to institutions in place of the present lump sums. This was a change for which leading social agencies have been agitating for years. The rates, under the new plan, are to be fixed by the State Board of Public Affairs."—*Survey*, May 13, 1916, p. 175.

1916-1918.—Establishment of executive budget.—Faults of old fiscal system of state.—Executive budget amendment.—Absence of lobbying.—Difficulties.—Advantages.—"The Executive Budget was established in Maryland by an amendment to our state constitution. The legislature of Maryland at its regular session of 1916 passed a bill amending the constitution of the state so as to provide for an Executive Budget for Maryland, and as acquired under our constitution, this amendment was submitted to the people of our state for their approval or rejection. At the general election of 1916 it was approved by the people by an overwhelming majority, and therefore all appropriations thereafter had to be made in accordance with the Budget Amendment. The manner of passing appropriations, leading as it did to appropriations by the legislature of 1914, for the fiscal years intervening from one legislature to another, of over \$1,500,000 in excess of the revenues for the same time, at a time when the governor was of one political faith and the legislature of another, had caused both political parties to make the fiscal condition of the state the leading issue, and thereby both of the two great political parties declared in favor of an Executive Budget. The result was that the passage of the amendment by the legislature and its ratification by the people was proposed and carried most opportunely. Our legislatures meet every two years, so that the real test or try-out occurred at the last legislature, the legislature of 1918. . . . Our Budget Amendment was drawn after the most careful consideration by a Budget Committee . . . [appointed by Governor Harrington], with President Goodnow, of Johns Hopkins University, as chairman. . . . The [chief] points of this amendment are:

"Section 52. The general assembly shall not appropriate any money out of the Treasury except with the following provisions: *Sub-Section A*: Every Appropriation Bill shall be either a Budget Bill, or a Supplementary Appropriation Bill, as hereinafter mentioned. *Sub-Section B*: Within twenty days after the convening of the general assembly (except in the case of a newly elected governor) and then within thirty days after his inauguration (unless such time shall be extended by the general assembly for the session at which

the Budget is to be submitted), the governor shall submit to the general assembly two budgets, one for each of the ensuing fiscal years. Each budget shall contain a complete plan of proposed expenditures and estimated revenues for the particular fiscal year to which it relates; and shall show the estimated surplus or deficit of revenue at the end of such year. Accompanying each budget shall be a statement showing: (1) the revenues and expenditures for each of the two fiscal years next preceding; (2) the current assets, liabilities, reserves and surplus or deficit of the state; (3) the debts and funds of the state; (4) an estimate of the state's financial condition as of the beginning and end of each of the fiscal years covered by the two budgets above provided; (5) any explanation the governor may desire to make as to the important features of any budget and any suggestion as to methods for the reduction or increase of the state's revenue. *Second.*—Each budget shall be divided into two parts, and the first part shall be designated 'governmental appropriations' and shall embrace an itemized estimate of the appropriations; (1) for the general assembly as certified to the governor in the manner hereinafter provided (2) for the executive department; (3) for the judiciary department as provided by law, certified to the governor by the comptroller; (4) to pay and discharge the principal and interest of the debt of the state of Maryland in conformity with Section 34 of Article III of the constitution, and all laws enacted in pursuance thereof; (5) for the salaries payable by the state under the constitution and laws of the state; (6) for the establishment and maintenance throughout the state of a thorough and efficient system of public schools in conformity with Article VIII of the constitution and with the laws of the state; (7) for such other purposes as are set forth in the constitution of the state. *Third.*—The second part shall be designated 'general appropriations,' and shall include all other estimates of appropriations. The governor shall deliver to the presiding officer of each house the budgets and a bill for all the proposed appropriations of the budgets clearly itemized and classified; and the presiding officer of each house shall promptly cause said bill to be introduced therein, and such bill shall be known as the 'Budget Bill.' The governor may, before final action thereon by the general assembly, amend or supplement either of said budgets to correct an oversight or in case of an emergency, with the consent of the general assembly, by delivering such an amendment or supplement to the presiding officers of both houses; and such amendment or supplement shall thereby become a part of said budget bill as an addition to the items of said bill or as a modification of or a substitute for any item of said bill such amendment or supplement may affect. The general assembly shall not amend the budget bill so as to affect either the obligations of the state under Section 34 of Article III of the constitution, or the provision made by the laws of the state for the establishment and maintenance of a system of public schools, or the payment of any salaries required to be paid by the state of Maryland by the constitution thereof. The general assembly may increase or diminish the items relating to the general assembly and may increase, but not decrease, the items therein relating to the judiciary. In all other respects the legislature cannot increase any items of appropriation, but may strike out or decrease, with one exception, that is, it cannot decrease the salary of a public official during his legal tenure of office. The budget bill as then passed by both houses becomes a law without the governor's signature. The gov-

ernor or any one of the department heads designated by the governor has the right to appear and be heard in respect to any budget bills while they are being considered, and still further it is made his duty to do so if requested by either house of the legislature, to answer inquiries relating thereto. *Sub-Section C; Supplementary Appropriation Bills:* Neither house shall consider other appropriations until the Budget Bill has been finally acted upon by both houses, and no such other appropriation shall be valid except in accordance with the provisions following: (1) Every such appropriation shall be embodied in a separate bill limited to some single work, object or purpose therein stated and called herein a supplementary appropriation bill; (2) Each supplementary appropriation bill shall provide the revenue necessary to pay the appropriation thereby made by a tax, direct or indirect, to be laid and collected as shall be decided in said Bill.

"A majority in each house of the whole number elected is required to pass a supplementary bill and the yeas and nays must be recorded. The requirement for the revenue to be provided in the bill places the responsibility, whether the tax be a direct or an indirect one. Moreover, all supplementary bills are to be presented to the governor and are subject to his veto under the same conditions as now apply. Nothing, however, shall be construed to prevent the legislature, under the same conditions and qualifications as now, from passing any bill to pay for any obligation of the state of Maryland under the provisions of section 10 of article 1 of the Constitution of the United States. Should the budget bill not be finally acted upon within three days before the expiration of the regular session, the governor can by proclamation extend the term, but no other matter save the budget bill shall be considered except as to its cost. Likewise, the governor is given full power to require all departments and heads to report to him and all institutions applying for or receiving state aid to give such itemized estimates and information as, and in such form as he may desire. The governor has the power to provide for public hearings and to compel attendance of all necessary parties. The legislature may enact such laws as may be found necessary from time to time to carry out the provisions of this constitutional amendment. In the case of any inconsistency between any provisions of this amendment and any other of the constitution, the provision of this amendment shall prevail. Nothing in the amendment, however, shall affect any obligations as to the public debt as provided for in section 34 of article 10 of our Constitution; and the governor may as heretofore call an extra session of the legislature for the same purposes as now provided, and in such a case the legislature can consider any emergency appropriation or appropriations. In our budget system, the items of the budget can be reduced or eliminated, but not increased by the legislature. This limitation is fundamental in my opinion for any sound budget system. It will be noticed that the governor has to include the salaries provided for by law for the public officials, also the salaries and expenses of the judiciary have to be included as certified to him by the comptroller as fixed by statute, and third, that the legislature has control of its own running expenses, the governor having to put into the budget what the presiding officers of the legislature estimate as the proper expenditures for the succeeding legislature. The idea was that the governor should not have the power to reduce salaries fixed by the constitu-

tion or by law, and that the independence of the judiciary and the legislature as to their own expenses should be maintained. The Budget Bill provides: "That the items and amounts which hereinafter follow the sums appropriated, and which are, respectively, entitled "Schedule," do not constitute appropriations, but represent the initial plan of distribution and apportionment of the appropriations to which they, respectively, refer. Each appropriation shall be paid out only in accordance with the schedule therefor, if any, unless such schedule be amended in the following manner: any department, board, commission or officer may at any time submit in writing to the governor an amended schedule for the distribution and apportionment of the appropriations made to it or him, or any unexpended balance thereof, different from the manner set forth in the schedule contained in this act. The governor may himself make such an amended schedule, if the same be necessary, with respect to the appropriations for the Executive Department. If the governor shall make such an amended schedule with respect to the appropriations for the Executive Department or if he shall approve an amended schedule when submitted to him as aforesaid, then he shall transmit the same with his certificate of approval to the comptroller, and thereafter the appropriation, or the unexpended balance thereof, shall be paid out in accordance with such amended schedule. Any amended schedule, so submitted to the governor may be withdrawn and amended to meet any objections of the governor, and then resubmitted. Any such amended schedule may be again amended, at any time, in like manner and with like effect. All amendments and schedules thus made or approved by the governor shall be reported by him to the next session of the general assembly." The legislature of 1918 kept its own expenditures down to estimated expenditures and well within the appropriation of 1916, and no extra bills for the fiscal years 1919 and 1920 were passed. There was a total absence of lobbying in the interest of appropriations or of personal solicitations by departments or institutions upon the members of the legislature. The state institutions and departments and the state-aided or benevolent institutions accepted the allowances of the governor without any protest. The chief difficulty . . . in making up a budget in Maryland was that some of our departments, such as the Insurance Department, the State Accident Commission, the Conservation Commission and the Automobile Commission, were accustomed to collect their own revenues and pay their own expenses and turn over balances to the treasurer. There could not be an effective budget unless all of the revenues were paid into the general treasury and all expenditures made therefrom, so it became necessary for legislation to be passed turning all the receipts into the general treasury, which was done. Another embarrassment, equally great to one kind of a budget as to another, is that some of our institutions, such as our insane asylums, not only get an appropriation from the state, but a proportional per patient appropriation from Baltimore city and from the different counties. In our budget in such cases we have fixed the salaries and expenses in detail to be allowed, and with their statement of the revenues from the counties and from other sources, such as their farms, the state has appropriated the difference between such total and the total of the expenditures allowed for salaries and expenses. For the first time in our state the budget gives us a con-

crete statement of our fiscal condition and a concrete statement of all our revenues and expenditures in every detail."—E. C. Harrington, *First state executive budget* (*Proceedings, American Academy of Political Science, July, 1918*).

1918-1920.—Legislation.—Part played in World War.—In 1918, the legislative enactments included the regulation of hours of labor for women and children, and the ratification of the Federal Prohibition Amendment. In 1920, a commission was created to revise and prepare industrial and welfare laws; a merit system for state employes was put in operation; and Albert C. Ritchie was elected governor. During the World War the state furnished 47,054 men, or 1.25 per cent of the whole force. Several military establishments were located in the state, the most important ones being Camp Meade, Camp Holabird, the Edgewood Arsenal, and the Aberdeen Proving Grounds.

ALSO IN: J. M. Gambrill, *Leading events of Maryland history*.—H. D. Richardson, *Side-lights on Maryland history, with sketches of early Maryland families*.

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

1920.—Merit system adopted.—Sunday laws. See CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: United States: 1920; SUNDAY OBSERVANCES: United States.

ALSO IN: J. McSherry, *History of Maryland*.—E. S. Riley, *History of the General Assembly*.—Lady Edgar, *Colonial governor in Maryland*.

MARZOCCO, name given to the Florentine lion, emblem of the republic.

MASACCIO (Tommaso Guidi) (1401-c. 1428), Florentine painter. See PAINTING: Italian: Early Renaissance.

MASAIID, town in Sinai peninsula. It was held by the British in 1916 of the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: b, 2, i; b, 2, ii.

MASANIELLO (Tommaso Aniello) (c. 1622-1647), Italian revolutionist. Headed a revolt in Naples against the duke of Arcos, Spanish viceroy, 1647. See ITALY: 1646-1654.

MASARYK, Thomas Garrigue (1850-), Bohemian scholar and statesman, first president of Czecho-Slovakia. Professor at Bohemian University, Prague, 1882; founder of the Progressive party at Prague and member of the Austrian parliament, 1891-1893; prominent leader in the Czecho-Slovak movement for independence; became president of the republic, 1918. Among his works are: "Philosophical and sociological foundation of Marxism," 1898, "Problem of small nations in the European crisis," 1915, and "Spirit of Russia," 1919.—See also CZECHO-SLOVAKIA: 1914-1918; WORLD WAR: 1918: III. Russia: c.

MASBATE, one of the Philippine islands, about thirty miles southeast of Luzon. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Map; Geographical features and natural resources.

MASCAGNI, Paolo (1752-1815), Italian anatomist. Noted for his study of lymphatics. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th century: Discovery of the lymphatic circulation.

MASCAGNI, Pietro (1863-), Italian composer. Composed the operas, "Cavalleria Rusticana," "L'Amico Fritz," and "I Rantzau." See MUSIC: Modern: 1842-1921: Modern Italian school.

MASCARA, or *Maskara*, province of Algeria, lying at the foot of the Atlas mountains; also a fortified town in Algeria, about sixty miles southeast of Oran, the residence of Alb-el-Kader in 1832.—See also BARBARY STATES: 1830-1846.

MASCARENE ISLANDS.—The three contiguous islands of Mauritius, Réunion and Rodrigues, in the Indian ocean, east of Madagascar, are collectively so called from the Portuguese navigator Mascarenhas, who discovered them in the sixteenth century. See MAURITIUS; INDIA: 1743-1752.

MASCOTENS, or **Mascoutins,** tribe of North American Indians. See SACS.

MASEFIELD, John (1875-), English poet and dramatist. See DRAMA: 1888-1921.

MASHONALAND, part of southern Rhodesia, South Africa. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1894-1895.

MASKOKI FAMILY. See MUSKIOGEAN, OR MASKOKI, FAMILY.

MASNIÈRES, town in France, about six miles south of Cambrai. It was captured by the British, and by the Germans in 1917 and was recaptured by the Allies in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: g, 4; g, 6; g, 11; g, 15; 1918: II. Western front: o, 2.

MASON, Charles (c. 1730-1787), English astronomer. Employed with Dixon by Lord Baltimore and William Penn to establish the boundary between Maryland and Pennsylvania, known as "Mason and Dixon's Line." See PENNSYLVANIA: 1760-1767.

MASON, George (1725-1792), American statesman. Drafted Virginia Declaration of Rights and constitution, 1776; member of the national constitutional convention, 1787; refused to sign the constitution and, with Patrick Henry, led the opposition to its ratification in Virginia. See U.S.A.: 1787; 1787-1789; VIRGINIA: 1788.

MASON, James Murray (1798-1871), American lawyer and senator. Representative of the Confederate government in Europe during the Civil War; seized with Slidell on the British steamer *Trent*, 1862. See TRENT AFFAIR; U.S.A.: 1861 (November).

MASON, John (1586-1635), founder of New Hampshire. See NEW HAMPSHIRE: 1622-1679; NEW ENGLAND: 1621-1631; U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

MASON, John (1600-1672), American colonial commander. Led expedition against Pequot Indians, 1637; deputy governor of Connecticut, 1660-1670; chief judge of colonial court, 1642-1668. See NEW ENGLAND: 1637.

MASON, John Alden (1885-), American anthropologist. Assistant curator of the Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago, since 1917; leader of expedition to Colombia, 1922. See COLOMBIA: 1922: Ancient city excavated.

MASON AND DIXON'S LINE. See U.S.A.: 1607-1752; PENNSYLVANIA: 1760-1767.

MASON AND SLIDELL, Seizure of. See TRENT AFFAIR; U.S.A.: 1861 (November).

MASONIC SOCIETIES: Definitions of status and objects.—"Freemasonry is an order whose leading star is philanthropy, and whose principles inculcate an unceasing devotion to the cause of virtue and morality."—Marquis De Lafayette, quoted by *Masonic Standard*, Nov. 27, 1920.—"Freemasonry is an establishment founded on the benevolent intention of extending and conferring mutual happiness upon the best and truest principles of moral life and social virtue."—Calcott, quoted *Ibid.*—"Freemasonry is in no sense a club. It was never intended to supply amusement and entertainment for the members. Its field of endeavor is in the moral and intellectual sphere of mankind."—*Masonic Journal of South Africa*, Sept., 1920.—"Where devotion to the well-being to the community is asked of the Freemason he will feel it to be his duty to afford support and cooperation to those of like mind who are already

at work in his field. In other words it is the duty of the Freemason to accord his support to social work wherever possible."—*Ibid.*, Feb., 1920.—"Masonry is the activity of closely-united men, who employing symbolical forms borrowed principally from the Mason's trade and from architecture, work for the welfare of mankind, striving morally to ennoble themselves and others; and thereby to bring about a universal league of mankind, which they aspire to exhibit even now on a small scale."—*Freemason (Toronto) Mar.*, 1920.—"The Right Reverend Henry C. Potter, bishop of New York in the Episcopal Church, in 1901 wrote a letter in which he said: 'Freemasonry, however, is in my view of it, a great deal more than a mutual benefit association. In one sense, wild and extravagant as the words may sound, it is the most remarkable and altogether unique institution on earth. Will you tell me of any other that girdles the world with its fellowship and gathers all races and the most ancient religions, as well as our own, into its brotherhood? Will you tell me of any other that is as old or older; more brilliant in its history; more picturesque in its traditions? Today it lies in the hand of the modern man, largely an unused tool, capable of great achievements for God, for country, for mankind, but doing very little.'"—W. G. Sibley, *Story of Freemasonry*, pp. 49-50.

Legend and fact in Masonic history.—Problem of origin.—Alleged connection with Knights Templars.—Early kindred societies.—Legendary documents and "Constitutions."—Revelations of modern historical research.—Foundation traced to England.—"Who the early Freemasons really were, and whence they came, may afford a tempting theme for inquiry to the speculative antiquary. But it is enveloped in obscurity, and lies far outside the domain of authentic history. In proceeding retrogressively, and attempting to trace the origin of the Society, when we reach the fourteenth century the genealogical proofs are exhausted. Still, from the documentary evidence which has carried us thus far, we shall at least be justified in assuming that the Masonry practised in the Lodges of that period was of no recent institution. Beyond this conclusion, nothing further can be confidently laid down with regard to the more remote past of the sodality. . . . Freemasonry has exercised a remarkable influence over all other oath-bound societies for a long period. What that period is cannot be absolutely, though it may be approximately, determined. The second quarter of the eighteenth century constitutes a sort of zone that will illustrate my meaning. About the year 1725 Freemasonry was beginning to be widely known, and about the year 1750 it had become thoroughly so. If, therefore, we can trace the customs of any other oath-bound societies as they existed, let us say before 1725, there is strong probability, amounting almost to certainty, that such were in no way influenced or affected by Freemasonry. . . . Evidence of customs now existing by no means proves that they are of very old standing. If the ceremonial of the Craft to a certain extent finds a parallel in the present observances of the Druses and the Ansariyeh—that is to say, if the writers, by whom we are so informed, have not been misled by resemblances more or less fanciful and imaginary—then I believe that these secretaries of Mount Lebanon adopted some of the practices of the Freemasons. The same may be said with respect to the rites of many other secret societies of current date—for example, the Begtaschi of Turkey, and the Yesidis of Armenia and Asia Minor. Though I must not

pass over in silence an alternative supposition, namely, what has been called 'the doctrine of chance coincidences,' which may possibly be held to apply in some of the cases I have already cited, and certainly appears to myself to fully account for the great bulk of stories that are related of so-called 'Masonic signs' having been exchanged by travellers with Arabs, Abyssinians, Dervishes, North American Indians, Australian natives, and the various tribes of Africa. Examples of older types of such associations may be found in the Soofees [Sufi] of Persia; in the Komosô of Japan (now extinct), who challenged one another by signs; and very possibly in the leading secret societies of China, which claim to have existed for several centuries, and admit their members with ceremonies approximating more or less closely to our own."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 1-3.—"For years writers and speakers have been projecting all sorts of theories concerning the beginnings of Freemasonry until the Masonic world is flooded with fantastic tales and the great men from time immemorial charged with having been identified with the fraternity and contributing to its ritual and philosophy. Adam has been referred to as the first Mason, probably for no other reason than that he wore an apron made of fig leaves. Noah has been declared a member of the Craft and given credit for having organized the first lodge in the ark. Moses has been frequently acknowledged as a Mason because the Ten Commandments shadow forth Masonic principles and of course the Masonic enthusiast can think of no one but a Freemason as having conceived them. So much reference is made to King Solomon and his Temple in Masonic Ritualism that many Masons honestly place the origin of the fraternity at the building of this great monument of architecture, and readily accept the Son of David as the first Grand Master. Some Masonic enthusiasts have even been bold enough to assert that Jesus Christ was a Mason, and received His instruction in a society of philosophers similar to the present system of Freemasonry and that in many of His sayings are thinly veiled the doctrines of the mystic art.

"It is a matter of sincere regret and not at all to the credit of Freemasonry that there are many Masons who seem to prefer to have the fraternity draped in tradition and mysticism rather than to have the truth elicited and understood. It is inconsistent that Freemasonry, the embodiment of veracity, should allow allegory and symbolism, which are its methods of illustration and instruction, to be confounded with the history and doctrines of the fraternity. To understand Freemasonry, the ideal must be separated from the real. . . . And when one listens to the many exorbitant statements so often made concerning Freemasonry, he is led to exclaim that the fraternity must have wonderful capacity for adaptability. A Masonic tradition is simply a parable and makes no more claim to historical accuracy than does the parable."—D. D. Darrah, *Evolution of Freemasonry*, pp. 20-22.—"The fall of the Knights Templars has been connected with the origin of the Freemasons, and the idea has prevailed that the only secret purpose of the latter was the re-establishment of the suppressed order. Jacques de Molai, while a prisoner in Paris, is said to have created four new lodges, and the day after his execution, eight knights, disguised as masons, are said to have gone to gather up the ashes of their late Grand Master. To conceal their designs, the new Templars assumed the symbols of the trade, but took, it is said, the name of Francs 'Maçons' to distinguish

themselves from ordinary craftsmen, and also in memory of the general appellation given to them in Palestine. Even the allegories of Freemasonry, and the ceremonies of its initiations, have been explained by a reference to the history of the persecutions of the Templars. The Abbé Barruel says, that 'every thing—the signs, the language, the names of grand master, of knight, of temple—all, in a word, betray the Freemasons as descendants of the proscribed knights.' Lessing, in Germany, gave some authority to this opinion, by asserting positively that 'the lodges of the Templars were in the very highest repute in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and that out of such a lodge, which had been constantly kept up in London, was established the society of Freemasons, in the seventeenth century, by Sir Christopher Wren.' Lessing is of opinion that the name Mason has nothing to do with the English meaning of the word, but comes from Massonney, a 'lodge' of the Knights Templars. This idea may have caused the Freemasons to amalgamate the external ritual of the Templars with their own, and to found the higher French degrees which have given colour to the very hypothesis which gave rise to their introduction. But the whole story appears to be most improbable, and only rests upon the slight foundation of fancied or accidental analogies. Attempts have also been made to show that the Freemasons are only a continuation of the fraternities of architects which are supposed to have originated at the time of the building of Solomon's Temple. The Egyptian priests are supposed to have taught those who were initiated a secret and sacred system of architecture; this is said to have been transmitted to the Dionysiac architects, of whom the first historical traces are to be found in Asia Minor, where they were organized into a secret fraternity. . . . It is, however, a mere matter of speculation whether the Jewish and Dionysiac architects were closely connected, but there is some analogy between the latter and the Roman guilds, which Numa is said to have first introduced, and which were probably the prototypes of the later associations of masons which flourished until the end of the Roman Empire. The hordes of barbarians which then ruthlessly swept away whatever bore the semblance of luxury and elegance, did not spare the noblest specimens of art, and it was only when they became converted to Christianity, that the guilds were re-established. During the Lombard rule they became numerous in Italy. . . . As their numbers increased, Lombardy no longer sufficed for the exercise of their art, and they travelled into all the countries where Christianity, only recently established, required religious buildings. . . . These associations, however, became nearly crushed by the power of the monastic institutions, so that in the early part of the Middle Ages the words artist and priest became nearly synonymous; but in the twelfth century they emancipated themselves, and sprang into new life. The names of the authors of the great architectural creations of this period are almost all unknown; for these were not the work of individuals, but of fraternities. . . . In England guilds of masons are said to have existed in the year 926, but this tradition is not supported by history; in Scotland similar associations were established towards the end of the fifteenth century. The Abbé Grandidier regards Freemasonry as nothing more than a servile imitation of the ancient and useful fraternity of true masons established during the building of the Cathedral of Strasburg, one of the masterpieces of Gothic architecture, and which caused the

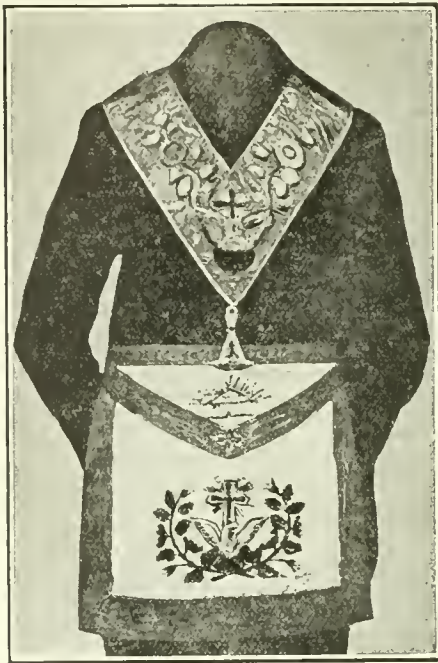
fame of its builders to spread throughout Europe. In many towns similar fraternities were established. . . . The origin of the Freemasons of the present day is not to be attributed to these fraternities, but to the Rosicrucians [see ROSICRUCIANS] who first appeared at the beginning of the seventeenth century."—A. P. Matras, *Secret fraternities of the Middle Ages*, ch. 7-8.—"Although manuscripts containing the legendary history of the Masonic body have come down to us in great profusion and variety, neither the testimony of history nor the voice of legend can be relied upon as affording any distinct clue to the *incunabula* of the Craft mythology. These ancient writings are described in various ways: e. g., as the Manuscript (or Masonic) Constitutions, the Constitution of the Craft, the History of Freemasonry, the Story of the Guild, and the Legend of the Craft. . . . Besides these compilations, of which the majority now extant are in roll or scroll form, there are two manuscripts—the Regius and Cooke—of higher antiquity, possessing many characteristics of the Masonic 'Constitutions.' . . . [These] must be classified rather as histories of, or disquisitions upon, Geometry (or Masonry) than as 'Constitutions' of the Craft or Society. Of the ordinary versions of the Masonic Constitutions, the oldest dated form is the 'Grand Lodge' MS. No. 1 of the year 1583. The readings or texts, however, of these documents, as distinguished from the forms or writings in which they have been preserved, exhibit many discrepancies, whereby some confusion and much disputation have arisen. . . . Leaving the old 'Constitutions' (properly so-called), and passing to the next group of documents in the ascending scale, we come in the first instance to the Cooke MS., and, a little higher, reach the Masonic Poem, or Regius MS., after which the genealogical proofs are exhausted. These two manuscripts, however, afford conclusive evidence of their having been—at the time from which they speak—pre-existing 'histories' of Geometry (or Masonry) of much earlier date."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 125, 127.

"In the nineteenth century, a new class of historians came into prominence who refused to accept the legendary history of the fraternity as fact, but who demanded documentary evidence in order to prove any given claim concerning the remote antiquity of the society. Among this class of writers may be mentioned Mackey, Gould, Hughan, Speth, Crawley, Robbins, and others. These men have perhaps rendered the Craft a greater service than any known writers for they dispelled much of the doubt concerning the origin and early history of the Society and destroyed many false notions which have been held by Masons concerning the institution. . . . It is strange but nevertheless true that many Masons, in the absence of authentic data concerning the early history of the society, have seized upon the obscure origin of the fraternity as an excuse for their exorbitant claims. They have assumed the same right to set up the Solomonic theory as has the critical student to place its beginnings with the formation of the Grand Lodge of England in the year 1717. . . . Of the many books and articles which have been written concerning Freemasonry, there are but few which will stand the cold test of modern criticism."—D. D. Darrah, *Evolution of Freemasonry*, pp. 30-31.—"The Freemasonry of the present day, organized as we now have it with its associations of Lodges (as the various units are called) grouped territorially under what are known as 'Grand Lodges' with their

hierarchies of 'Grand officers' took its rise from very humble beginnings in London in the year 1717, when the famous 'Four Old Lodges' combined in order to establish the first 'Grand Lodge' of the world. Until that time there had been isolated Lodges of Masons working for the most part independently of each other, so far as is now known, in different parts of Great Britain. . . . This 'Revival' in 1717 forms the starting point from which continuous Masonic history dates. The founders of the premier Grand Lodge were quickly able to get 'a Noble Brother at their Head,' for in 1721 the Duke of Montague was their Grand Master, and from that time onward an unbroken succession of noblemen or members of the Royal Family have presided over the Craft in England. . . . In 1751 a rival Grand Lodge was established in London by some Irish Masons, who claimed that they alone preserved the ancient tenets and practices of Masonry, and that the regular Lodge had made innovations; so they called themselves 'Ancient' Masons, and styled the members of the 1717 Grand Lodge 'Moderns'; the two bodies continued in rivalry until 1813, when the 'United Grand Lodge of Ancient Free and Accepted Masons of England' was formed, and this body has continued ever since."—E. L. Hawkins, *Freemasonry* (J. Hastings, ed., *Encyclopaedia of religion and ethics*, v. 6, pp. 118, 120).—C. W. Moore, Grand Secretary of the Grand Lodge of Massachusetts, in an address in Boston, December 29, 1856, said: "At the reorganization of the Craft and the establishment of the present Grand Lodge of England in 1717, we laid aside our operative character, and with it all pretensions to extraordinary skill and architectural science. We then became a purely moral and benevolent association, whose great aim was the development and cultivation of the moral sentiment, the social principal, and the benevolent affections, a higher reverence for God, and a warmer love for man. New laws and regulations, adapted to the changed condition of the Institution, were then made,—an entire revolution in its governmental policy took place, order and system obtained where neither had previously existed, and England became the great central point of Masonry for the whole world. From this source have Lodges, Grand and Subordinate, at various times, been established, and still exist and flourish."

Symbolism.—Primitive simplicity.—Sources of later elaboration.—"The Masonic student needs but to consider the primitive condition of Masonry as it was given to the world in 1717 to understand how the early writers took everything for granted and cared little for authentic proofs. The first Masonic ceremonies consisted of one very simple rite, that of initiation, and it was not until the second decade of the Eighteenth Century that what, in a modern sense, are called degrees were known. Fellowcraft and Master were simply honorary distinctions which existed for quite a period in the early years of the fraternity, and were in no sense degrees but distinguishing titles which were accorded to certain members of the craft and when conferred involved no additional secrets, no ceremonies, and no retirement from the lodge of even the youngest entered apprentice. It cannot be doubted that as the fraternity grew older and gained in prestige that its ritual, however simple it may have been in the beginning, commenced to receive the attention of those who sought to elaborate upon it. In order to do so these ritual builders drew upon old world societies, mysteries and traditions. If there is in Freemasonry any similarity between

any of its customs and those of the practices of several thousand years ago, it does not mean that Freemasonry had any connection whatsoever with those rites but that they were woven into the fraternity in modern times with a view to enhancing the ritual and investing the fraternity with an atmosphere of antiquity."—D. D. Darrah, *Evolution of Freemasonry*, pp. 35-36.—"By the Jew, the [acacia] tree from whose wood the sanctuary of the tabernacle and the holy arc had been constructed would ever be viewed as more sacred than ordinary trees. The early Masons, therefore, very naturally appropriated this hallowed plant to the equally sacred purpose of a symbol, which was to teach an important divine truth in all ages to come. . . . The acacia in the mystic system of Freemasonry is pre-eminently the symbol of the immortality of the Soul—that important doctrine



ROSE CROIX REGALIA

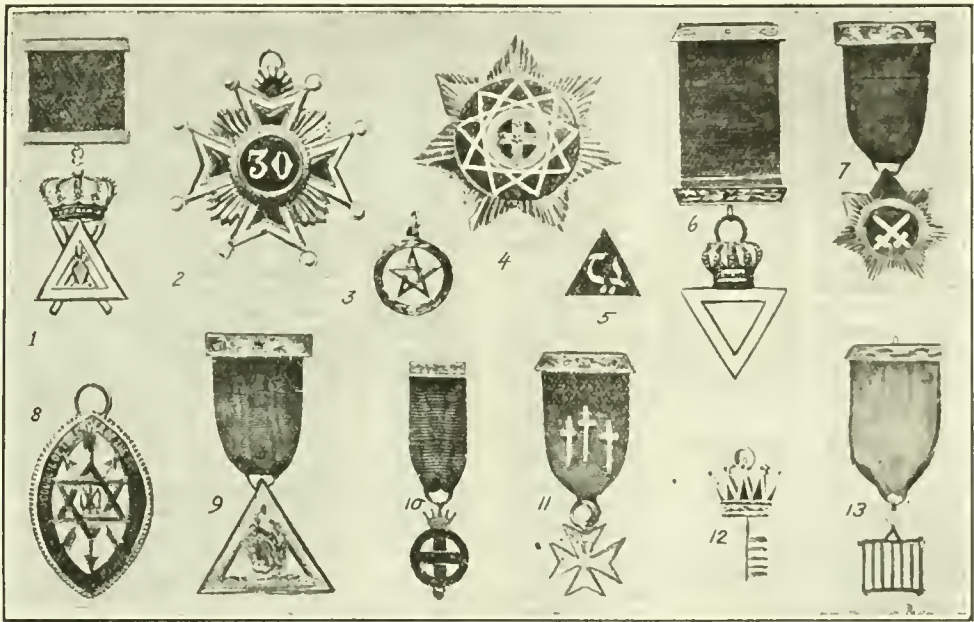
which it is the great design of the Institution to teach."—A. G. Mackey, *Encyclopædia of Freemasonry*, v. 2, p. 7.—"The speculative successors to the ancient English operative Freemasons added to their symbolism, drawn from the workingmen's guilds of the middle ages, many of the characteristics of the older religious and mystical societies. Thus, there may be found in modern Freemasonry traces of the Egyptian, Eleusinian, Mithraic, Adonic, Cabiric, and Druidic Mysteries, all of which, when undefiled, taught purity, immortality, and the existence of an ever-living and true God. Their ceremonials were divided into degrees in which were conferred secret means of recognition, and each had a legend which, by dramatic representation, impressed upon the novice the lesson that the way to life is by death. Masonic symbolism and ceremonials show also the influence of the teachings of the Gnostics, the Kabbalists, Pythagoreans, Druses, Manicheans, and the earlier Rosicrucians."—A. C. Stevens, ed., *Cyclopædia of fraternities*, p. xvi.—"In Freemasonry,

all the instructions in its mysteries are communicated in the form of symbols. Founded, as a speculative science, on an operative art, it has taken the working-tools of the profession which it spiritualizes, the terms of architecture, the Temple of Solomon, and everything that is connected with its traditional history, and adopting them as symbols, it teaches its great moral and philosophical lessons by this system of symbolism. But its symbols are not confined to material objects as were the hieroglyphics of the Egyptians. Its myths and legend, unauthenticated by history, distorted by anachronisms, and possibly absurd in its pretensions if viewed historically or as a narrative of actual occurrences, when interpreted as a symbol, is found to impress the mind with some great spiritual and philosophical truth. The legends of Masonry are parables, and a parable is only a spoken symbol. . . . The first three degrees of Freemasonry, namely, those of Entered Apprentice, Fellow-Craft, and Master Mason are known, by way of distinction, as the 'symbolic degrees.'"—A. C. Mackey, *Encyclopædia of Freemasonry*, v. 2, p. 752.—"It was between 1723 and 1740 that the parent modern secret society spread from England throughout Europe and into the British colonies. After the American War of the Revolution it became, with one or two political secret societies founded by Freemasons, the direct or indirect source of all secret societies founded in America since that time. With a few exceptions, the like is true concerning secret societies in Europe formed since 1740."—A. C. Stevens, ed., *Cyclopædia of fraternities*, p. xvi.

Masonic bodies.—Ancient Arabic Order of the Mystic Shrine.—Secret Monitor.—Cryptic Councils.—Order of the Scarlet Cord.—Friendly societies, Masonic offspring.—From the parent society a considerable number of kindred organizations have grown up. Fundamentally masonic, these regular bodies accept only Freemasons as members and are, in a sense, extraneous adjuncts to the craft. The essence of Masonry is contained in the three degrees of the so-called "Blue Lodge," while other degrees beyond these are optional and may voluntarily be taken by a Master Mason, i. e., one who has passed through the original three degrees, which alone are obligatory. Among the greater divisions are the American Rite, the Scottish Rite, the York Rite; Concordant Orders are the Royal Order of Scotland, Knights of the Red Cross of Constantine; non-masonic bodies to which only Freemasons are eligible are the Modern Society of Rosicrucians, Sovereign College of Allied Masonic Degrees, Ancient Arabic Order of Nobles of the Mystic Shrine, the Mystic Order, the Veiled Prophets of the Enchanted Realm, Independent, International Order of Owls, and the "side degree," Tall Cedars of Lebanon. The dead or dormant bodies include the Rite of Memphis, Oriental Rite of Memphis and Misraim, Rite of Swedenborg, Order of Martinists. Among the "irregular or spurious" Masonic bodies are accounted the American and "Scottish Rite" bodies among Negroes and the Cerneau and Seymour-Cerneau "Scottish Rite" bodies.—Based on A. C. Stevens, ed., *Cyclopædia of Fraternities*, p. xvi.—The Ancient Arabic Order of Nobles of the Mystic Shrine is "a social and benevolent society with a ritual and history linked to Arabic traditions, in which Oriental mysticism, names, legends, and titles are freely employed. It has also a secret purpose, made known only to those who encircle the Mystic Shrine. None except Masonic Knights Templars or those who have attained the Scottish Rite of Freemasonry, are eligible to membership. It is

not a Masonic Order and forms no part of Freemasonry, is independent in origin and government, and is associated with the Craft only because it was established by eminent Freemasons and because none but Freemasons of high degree may become acquainted with its mysteries. [There is also the Ancient Arabic Order of Nobles of the Mystic Shrine of North and South America.] This is a social and fraternal organization of negroes, which seeks to parallel the Ancient Arabic Order of Nobles of the Mystic Shrine. As the A. A. O. N. M. S. admits only Freemasons who are Knights Templars or have received the thirty-second degree, Ancient and Accepted Scottish Rite, so the A. A. O. N. M. S. of North and South America receives only those who have taken the higher degrees conferred in negro Masonic bodies. The

following year in the West Indies, in 1848 in Jerusalem, and in 1865 it became known to English Freemasons. It was not until April, 1887, however, that a definite attempt was made to organize the order in England, by the *Bon Accord* Lodge of Mark Master Masons. In July 1887 a Grand Council was formed, and in the same year four Conclaves (or 'Lodges') came into being. . . . Seven other Conclaves were established in the following year, and there are now forty-two Conclaves under the jurisdiction of the Grand Conclave of the United Kingdom. Conclaves of the Order now exist in many of the larger cities throughout the British Empire."—Masonic Correspondent, *Evening Standard* (London), June 19, 1913.—In the Cryptic Councils "the Cryptic Degrees are an important branch of Masonry, and



JEWELS OF SOME MASONIC DEGREES

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| 1. Scotch Jewel of the Cryptic Degrees. | 7. Red Cross of Babylon. |
| 2. Cross of the 30. | 8. Secret Monitor of the Supreme Council. |
| 3. Master Mason Charm. | 9. The High Priest. |
| 4. Royal Order of Scotland Star. | 10. Jewel of the Past M. W. S. |
| 5. Grand Tyler of King Solomon. | 11. Knight of Constantinople. |
| 6. English Jewel of the Cryptic Degrees. | 12. Secret Monitor of the Allied Degrees. |
| | 13. St. Lawrence the Martyr. |

Grand Council of the A. A. O. N. M. S. of North and South America was instituted at Chicago, June 10, 1893, by John G. Jones and others. It is declared that it was conferred upon him by 'several members of the Grand Council of Arabia' who were in Chicago 'in attendance at the World's Fair.' It is likely that Jones and associate negro Nobles received their Shrine ritual in the same manner as the negro Knights Templars obtained theirs."—*Ibid.*, p. 6.—The Order of the Secret Monitor developed from the Brotherhood of David and Jonathan, which, it is claimed, "is as old as Freemasonry itself. The earliest existing records of an organized system of the Brotherhood was found in Holland, where it is said to have been founded in 1773. It was carried by Dutch emigrants to America, where it spread rapidly throughout the Republic. In 1845 the Order was established in Malta, in the fol-

lowing year in the West Indies, in 1848 in Jerusalem, and in 1865 it became known to English Freemasons. The degrees were first conferred in Albany, N. Y., in 1766, and there is absolute proof of their conferment in Charleston, S. C., in 1783. Formerly, Councils of the Cryptic Rite were working in Toronto, Barrie, St. Thomas and other Masonic centers in this Province, but are now dormant. Montreal has an active Council, and there is a Grand Council of the Rite for Eastern Canada."—*Freemason (Toronto)*, Feb., 1920.

"An order very little known either in or outside Masonry [is] that of the Order of the Scarlet Cord. . . . This prosperous body, founded on records in the archives of Amsterdam dated 1760, was reestablished in this country in 1900 and has made healthy progress. The members consist of those

who have shown the greatest interest in the benevolent fund of the Order of the Secret Monitor, and the possession of a badge of the order in the button-hole is a necessary preliminary to admission."—*Christian Science Monitor*, Aug. 12, 1921.—"The earlier offspring of the Masonic Fraternity included the Odd Fellows (England), 1739; Druids, 1761; and the Foresters, 1780, 'friendly' societies, with Masonic thumbmarks on their rituals and in their ceremonials, but differing in that their primary purposes were to pay to members specified sick, disability, funeral, and other benefits. They are conspicuous among hundreds of other English friendly societies, and are the forerunners of the American insurance or secret beneficiary societies, of which there are more than one hundred and fifty."—A. C. Stevens, ed., *Cyclopædia of fraternities*, pp. xx.

Anti-Masonic agitations.—Publications against the craft.—Forms of organized opposition.—Roman Catholic bulls.—Persecution in Holland.—Presbyterian antagonism.—Pennsylvania Christian Reform Convention.—"The hundred years preceding 1793 were prolific in amusing publications that profess to be exposures of Freemasonry, written by French and English romancers. No less than forty-five of these productions are to be found in Masonic libraries, where they are preserved as curiosities: They bear such titles as 'An Account of the Freemasons,' 'The Grand Mystery of Freemasons Discovered,' 'The Secrets of Masonry Made Known,' 'Masonry Dissected,' 'A Master Key to Freemasonry,' 'The Three Distinct Knocks,' 'Freemasonry of the Ladies,' and 'The Veil Withdrawn.'"—W. G. Sibley, *Story of Freemasonry*, pp. 17-18.—"Organized opposition to Freemasonry has shown itself in three forms since the revival in 1717, when the four London Lodges united to form a Grand Lodge. The first came and still emanates from the Roman Catholic Church; the second, from one or more offshoots of the Scotch Presbyterian Church [and several other Protestant sects or communities] and the third was conspicuous in the United States for a decade after the disappearance of William Morgan of Batavia, N. Y., who, it was said, was about to disclose the secrets of the Fraternity. [See below: United States: Abduction of William Morgan, 1826.] Almost all political antagonism to Freemasonry in Europe may be traced to the influence of the Roman Catholic Church. During the seven years from 1717 to 1724 the Fraternity attracted the attention of many Englishmen of learning and title, when, on September 3, 1724, the London 'Daily Post' announced the appearance in that city of a secret society described as the Ancient and Noble, or, the August and Noble Order of Gormogons. It was declared to be of Chinese origin, founded 'thousands of years' prior to Adam, and the printed account set forth that a Chapter would be held at Castle Tavern, Fleet Street, where 'no Mason' would be received as a member 'till he had renounced' his 'novel Order' and been 'properly degraded.' Six weeks later the same paper stated that 'many eminent Freemasons' had 'degraded' themselves (renounced their Fraternity and burned their gloves and aprons) and joined the Gormogons. Several theories have been advanced to account for the existence of the Gormogons. The first, that it was a creation of the Chevalier Ramsey, an ardent Freemason and a Roman Catholic, and another, that it was the beginning of what took shape as the schismatic branch of English Freemasonry about the middle of the last century, are both regarded as un-

worthy of consideration. The third theory, that it was a 'Jesuistic,' that is, Roman Catholic, invention, designed to offset the growing popularity of Freemasonry, was, and still is, believed to be the true explanation, particularly as the Society of Gormogons disappeared in 1738, the year in which Pope Clement XII. issued his famous bull against Freemasonry. It was on April 28, 1738, that Pope Clement XII. published his bull, entitled *In Eminenti Apostolatus Specula*, containing the following words: 'For which reason the temporal and spiritual communities are enjoined, in the name of holy obedience, neither to enter the society of Freemasons, to disseminate its principles, to defend it, nor to admit nor conceal it within their houses or palaces or elsewhere, under pain of excommunication *ipso facto* for all acting in contradiction of this, and from which only the Pope can absolve the dying.' On January 14, 1739, a still more stringent edict was issued for the Papal States, death and confiscation of property, without hope of mercy, being the penalty. De Cormenin, in his 'History of the Popes,' refers to the 'pleiad of philosophers' which had ranged itself around Voltaire, 'battling in the breach against the civil and religious authority of popes, bishops and priests,' Montesquieu, Rousseau, Diderot, d'Alembert, and others compelling 'the third estate, the nobility, and even a great part of the French clergy to march in their progressive route to the conquest of a new order of things.' The political movement, he declared, 'though less apparent than the religious, was not the less real. Secret associations were everywhere organized to labor for the overthrow of kings and priests,' and 'Rome was so moved' by this revolutionary tendency that 'Clement XII. declared war on secret societies and fulminated a terrible bull against the Freemasons who had established Lodges in England, Scotland, France, Germany, and Italy.' These statements indicate that Clement was unable to distinguish between a secret, pacific, non-political, benevolent brotherhood and secret political associations. De Cormenin relates that Pope Clement's bull against Freemasonry prohibited 'his subjects' from affiliating with or being present at Masonic assemblies, from inducing anyone to join the Fraternity, and from 'rendering aid, succor, counsel, or a retreat' to a Freemason 'under penalty of death:' which, in part, refers, probably, to the supplementary bull of 1739, applying to the Papal States. 'These proscriptions,' De Cormenin says, gave Freemasonry an 'extraordinary lustre, and Europe was soon covered by a prodigious number of Lodges.' The reasons for issuing this, the first of a long list of bulls against Freemasonry, are thus set forth in the document itself:

"We have learned, and public rumor does not permit us to doubt the truth of the report, that a certain society has been formed under the name of Freemasons into which persons of all religions and all sects are indiscriminately admitted, and whose members have established certain laws which bind themselves to each other, and which, in particular, compel their members, under the severest penalties, by virtue of an oath taken on the Holy Scriptures, to preserve an inviolable secrecy in relation to everything that passes in their meetings.' The bull further declares that these societies had become suspected of being hurtful to the tranquillity of the state and to the safety of the soul; that if the actions of Freemasons were irreproachable they would not so carefully conceal them from the light; and all bishops, superiors, and ordinaries were enjoined to punish the Free-

masons 'with the penalties which they deserve, as people greatly suspected of heresy, having recourse, if necessary, to the secular arm.' . . . Although Clement's bull did not meet with a favorable reception in France, in Italy many suspected of being Freemasons were arrested and placed in dungeons, as well as some accused of having furnished an asylum to Masonic Lodges. Like measures to crush the Fraternity were resorted to in Spain and in Portugal, and in 1745 Masonic assemblies were prohibited throughout Switzerland under the severest penalties. In 1748 a Masonic Lodge at Constantinople was demolished and its members were arrested, but ultimately discharged through the interposition of the British Minister. . . . The Papal bull of 1738 was confirmed and renewed by Benedict XIV. in 1751, and by Pius VII. in 1821. Leo XII., in his Apostolic Edict, *Quo Graviora*, 1826, included the acts and decrees of the earlier popes on this subject, and ordered them to be ratified forever. As noted by Gould, in his 'History of Freemasonry,' Pius VIII. spoke to the same effect in 1820, Gregory XVI. in 1832, and Pius IX. in 1846, 1864, and at other dates; Leo XIII. again confirmed these decrees of his predecessors in 1884, and extended the opposition of the Roman Church to the Odd Fellows, the Knights of Pythias, and the Sons of Temperance."—A. C. Stevens, ed., *Cyclopædia of fraternities*, pp. 8-10.—"One of the first persecutions to which Masonry, in its present organization, was subjected, occurred in the year 1735, in Holland. On the 16th of October of that year, a crowd of ignorant fanatics, whose zeal had been enkindled by the denunciations of some of the clergy, broke into a house in Amsterdam, where a Lodge was accustomed to be held and destroyed all the furniture and ornaments of the Lodge. The States General yielding to the popular excitement, or rather desirous of giving no occasion for its action prohibited the future meetings of the Lodges. One, however, continuing, regardless of the edict, to meet at a private house, the members were arrested and brought before the Court of Justice. Here, in the presence of the whole city, the Masters and Wardens defended themselves with great dexterity; and while acknowledging their inability to prove the innocence of their Institution by a public exposure of their secret doctrines, they freely offered to receive and initiate any person in the confidence of the magistrates, and who could then give them information upon which they might depend, relative to the true designs of the Institution. The proposal was acceded to, and the town clerk was chosen. He was immediately initiated, and his report so pleased his superior, that all the magistrates and principal persons of the city became members and zealous patrons of the Order."—A. G. Mackey, *Encyclopædia of Freemasonry*, v. 2, pp. 556-557.—"In Scotland, in 1757, the Synod of Stirling debarred all adhering Freemasons from the ordinances of religion, whence, possibly, may be found the origin of some of the opposition to the Fraternity in one or more branches of the Scotch Church."—A. C. Stevens, ed., *Cyclopædia of fraternities*, p. 10.—"The Pennsylvania Christian Reform Convention, opposed to secret societies, held at the First United Presbyterian Church, Philadelphia, February, 1894, declared Freemasonry, so-called, the Society of Jesuits, and all societies which impose an oath on members to obey unknown laws, unscriptural, un-Christian and un-American, and membership in them degrading, and implored the State and Nation to declare members of all such societies outlaws. . . . Organized opposition to Freemasonry among Protestant religious bodies

has not been of sufficient importance to attract public attention during the past fifty years, being largely confined to a few of the minor schismatic sects."—A. C. Stevens, ed., *Cyclopædia of fraternities*, p. 12.

Africa: North and South.—Proposed Masonic colony on Lake Nyasa.—"In the North of the 'Dark Continent' we find at Alexandria a Grand Orient of Egypt, with a membership of about 100; and at Cairo a Grand National Lodge, with a following of 68 Lodges. Several European Masonic powers, including England, Scotland, Italy, and France, are also represented in the valley of the Nile, England having a Provincial Grand Lodge for Egypt and the Soudan, with 14 Lodges. In Algeria and Morocco, Masonry may be said to fall exclusively within the French sphere of influence, and in Tunis mainly so, though in this Regency an independent Grand Lodge was established in 1881. On the West Coast of Africa there are several Lodges under England and one under Ireland. Others exist in Senegal, the Azores, and St. Helena, holding French, Portuguese, and English warrants respectively. In the Negro Republic of Liberia there is a Grand Lodge—constituted in 1867—with 8 daughter Lodges, and a membership of 250."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 324-325.—"The first of a long series of Dutch Lodges was established at Cape Town in 1772, and since the final cession of the Cape Settlement to Great Britain in 1814, the Freemasons owning fealty to the Grand Orient of the Netherlands have always acted in perfect harmony with those working under warrants from the Grand Lodges of the British Isles. At the present time, in Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal, the Orange River Colony, Rhodesia, Nigeria, Mashonaland, etc., there are 185 English, 35 Scottish, 23 Dutch, and 4 others—more or less clandestine—which are not recognized by the dominant Masonic Powers. In the South African Islands, there are French Lodges at Réunion (or Bourbon) and Madagascar. A Portuguese Lodge exists at Mozambique. At the Mauritius there are (or were) three Lodges holding French charters, and until quite lately an equal number under the Grand Lodges of the British Isles, but one of these, Independent, No. 236 on the roll of the Grand Lodge of Ireland, has, at the present time of writing [1904], disappeared from the list."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 325-326.—"Most, though not all, coöperative colonies have failed. Perhaps the cement of brotherly love has been lacking in such undertakings. It will be supplied in an experiment about to be tried on the border of Lake Nyasa in the country that was formerly German East Africa. None but Freemasons are to be admitted to the colony, which is to be governed Masonically. Masons from New Zealand are the prime movers in the enterprise. It is proposed that every settler shall acquire 5,000 acres or more of plantation land at less than one shilling an acre. Tobacco, rice, cotton, tea, coffee, wheat, tropical and subtropical fruits, can be raised abundantly in the allotted territory; labor is cheap there, and strikes are unknown. It will not take long in that rich soil to put nature through the 32°."—*New York Globe*, quoted in *Masonic Standard*, Mar. 27, 1920.—"Bro. Captain Willis, M.C., a native of . . . New Zealand, . . . experienced in tobacco planting in South and East Africa, has been appointed commandant of a portion of the conquered [former German] territory in East Africa, and is also supervising a scheme for the establishment of a Masonic coöperative settlement there. The territory he pro-

poses the settlement should occupy is the hilly country contiguous to the north end of Lake Nyasa, a 'pool' 360 miles long, between thirty and sixty miles wide, and the second deepest lake in the world."—*Freemason (London)*, Aug. 21, 1920.

Asia: Persia and India.—"Askeri Khan, a Prince of Persia, ambassador of the Shah at Paris, was admitted a member of the Craft in that city in 1808. A similar experience befell the Mirza Abul Hassam Khan—also a Persian Ambassador—who was made a Mason by the Earl of Moira, in London, in 1810. During the same year Sir Gore Ouseley, English Ambassador at the Court of the Shah, was appointed Provincial Grand Master for Persia, but there is no evidence to show that any Lodges were ever established in that country by any external authority. [Light in Iram is the name of a Lodge working in Shiraz, Persia.]—*Freemason (Toronto)*, May, 1920.] The earliest stationary Lodges in India, which must all have partaken more or less of a military character, were established at Calcutta in 1730, at Madras in 1752, and at Bombay in 1758. The rivalry between the two Grand Lodges of England was reflected in the Indian Lodges, but the 'Brethren' of Madras anticipated in a very happy manner the complete 'Union' of 1813, by the 'Atholl' or 'Ancient' Masons, and the Regular Masons or titular 'Moderns,' who amalgamated under General Horne, in 1786. In the senior Presidency, however, the animosities between the Regular Masons and the Schismatics lingered until 1813, when, under the benignant sway of the Earl of Moira, Acting Grand Master of India, Masonry in Bengal took firm root in the land, and flourished as it had never done before. In Bombay, the most brilliant era of the Craft is inseparably connected with the memory of Dr. James Burnes, by whom, in order to throw open the portals of Freemasonry to native gentlemen, a Lodge—Rising Star of Western India—was established in December, 1843. . . . In the three Presidencies—with Aden and Burma—there are at the present time 130 Lodges under the English, and 44 under the Scottish jurisdiction."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 317-318.

Asia: East Indies.—Far East.—"Lodges holding charters from European jurisdictions exist at Ceylon, Sumatra, Java, Celebes, and Borneo. In the Philippines there were, until the recent political changes, four Spanish Lodges at Manila, the capital, but the activity of the Craft is gradually being resumed under charters from the American Grand Lodges. [See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1837-1806.] A system of corrupted Freemasonry is practised in these islands by the members of the Katapunan Society. This was originally a revolutionary association formed by the leaders of the people during their revolt against Spanish rule. . . . Lodges constituted from Great Britain or Ireland exist in the Straits Settlements, Siam, China, and Japan, and at the most important treaty-port in the Chinese Empire—namely, Shanghai—there are two Lodges under other foreign jurisdictions, which hold German and American warrants respectively. In China, moreover, there exists what by many persons is regarded as a kind of indigenous Masonry, which has likewise penetrated into some of the Colonies and dependencies of certain European powers, for example, Sumatra, Java, the Straits Settlements, and Burma."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, p. 320.

Australasia.—Oceania.—"The 'Mother City' of Australasian Masonry, as might naturally be ex-

pected, is Sydney, the capital of the parent colony. Regimental, in the first instance, paved the way for Stationary Lodges, and the earliest of the latter—Australian Social—was established by warrant of the Grand Lodge of Ireland, in 1820. Many Lodges were afterwards formed in all parts of Australasia by the three jurisdictions of the British Isles, and after some hasty declarations of independence by unruly minorities, Grand Lodges have now been established, in strict accordance with Masonic usage, in all of the Colonies. . . . In Queensland there is a Grand Lodge, but there are English, Scottish, and Irish District (or Provincial) Grand Lodges, with a following of 54, 58, and 23 Lodges respectively, forming a total of 135. Probably all will soon unite. Western Australia is also the seat of a Scottish Masonic Province, with 34 Lodges, and there is a solitary representative (in each case) of the English and Irish jurisdictions, making an aggregate of 36 in addition to those on the roll of the Grand Lodge. Apart from the above, England still retains control over two Lodges—one in New South Wales and the other in Victoria—and Ireland over one, in South Australia. Tasmania has no Lodges under the authority of other Masonic powers, working side by side with those on the roll of its own Grand Lodge. In New Zealand the English, Scottish, and Irish Lodges have united, and formed a Grand Lodge, which flourishes with 267 Lodges and 15,000 members. There are four Lodges holding British warrants in the Fiji Archipelago; two, one English and the other French, in New Caledonia; and one Scottish and two (or more) American Lodges in the Sandwich or Hawaiian Islands."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 348-349.

Austria-Hungary: Creation of Grand Lodges.—Suppression and revival of the craft.—Abolition in Hungarian republic.—"A Lodge—The Three Stars—is said to have been established at Prague by Count F. A. Sporck, afterwards Governor of Bohemia, on returning from his travels in 1726, or at all events prior to 1729. Other Lodges were subsequently constituted from Prague, in Galicia, Hungary, Luxembourg, Styria, and Moravia. The first Vienna Lodge—The Three Firing Glasses—was established in 1742, but closed, by order of Maria Theresa, in the following year. The members, however, among whom was her husband, Francis of Lorraine (afterwards Emperor) continued to meet in secret. A second Lodge—The Three Hearts—was formed at the Austrian capital, in 1754; and a third, Royal Militaire, in 1761. Maria Theresa regarded Freemasonry with disfavour, but the influence of her Consort was sufficiently potent to procure for it a certain measure of toleration, though powerless to protect it from occasional outbursts of persecution. Other Lodges were founded at Vienna, in the Tyrol, Lombardy, and Illyria, but Freemasonry in Austria had passed under the yoke of the Strict Observance when the Empress Maria Theresa died, in 1780. The territory of St. Stephen in the eighteenth century comprised the Kingdom of Hungary, or 'Mother Country,' the Principality of Transylvania, and the Kingdoms of Croatia and Slavonia. The first Lodge in the 'Mother Country'—*Taciturnitas*—at Pressburg, is known to have existed in 1766, and eight other Hungarian Lodges were established between 1769 and 1771. Four Lodges were also formed in Transylvania, the first in 1750 and the last (of which the name has been preserved) in 1769. One

of these, bearing the curious title of St. Andrew of the Three Sea-Leaves, gave birth to some daughter Lodges. The Three Dragons was established at Varasd (Croatia) in 1774. In Southern Hungary, under the influence of the two Counts, John Draskovitch and Stephen Niczky, Lodges were founded at Glina (1764-69) and Agram (1771), and (also in Croatia) a 'Free Carpenters' Lodge' was established at Varasd (1772), which was soon afterwards transformed into a Masonic one, under the name of Perfect Union. Lodges were likewise formed at Eszek, the capital of Slavonia, and at Kreutz (a country centre). These Lodges, in 1775, created a National Masonic Rite, under the name of Masonry of Freedom, or Province (*i. e.*, *Grand Lodge*) of Liberty, but it was commonly known as 'The Draskovitch Observance, or Rite.' The new power was short lived, but did much good during its brief span of life. Under the Emperor Joseph II—1780-83—four Lodges were instituted at Vienna, and nine in other Austrian States. During the same period two Lodges each were constituted in Bohemia and Moravia, three in Galicia, eleven in Hungary, and one in Transylvania. A Grand Lodge—ruling over forty-five Lodges—for Austria and its dependencies was established in 1784. An Imperial Edict in the following year ordered that not more than three Lodges should exist in any single town, while those that were at work in any place which was not a 'Seat of Government' were summarily suppressed. The consequences may be supposed. The newly-formed Austrian Grand Lodge, together with its Provincial Grand Lodges, passed off the scene, and the general discontent of the Craft betokened the beginning of the end. Then came the French Revolution. The Freemasons were regarded with suspicion. The Austrian Lodges voluntarily closed in 1792, and those in Bohemia during the following year.

"Masonry in Hungary had a slightly longer life, but by an Edict of 1795 all Secret Societies in the Austrian dominions were ordered to dissolve. There was a short Masonic revival at Vienna during the French occupation of 1805, and again in 1800-12. In 1867, after the Civil War, Masonry revived in Hungary, though in Austria it continued to be forbidden. In 1918, after the Great War, a Grand Lodge of Vienna was formed with 14 Lodges and 1,010 members. . . . A Lodge, Unity in the Mother Land, was founded at Budapest in 1868, and this, with six daughter Lodges, formed, on January 30th, 1870, the St. John's Grand Lodge of Hungary. The three Craft degrees only were recognized or tolerated by this governing body. In 1869, however, a Lodge, Matthias Corvinus, established under the auspices of the so-called 'Ancient and Accepted *Scottish Rite*' (after a vain application to the Grand Lodge of *Scotland*) obtained a warrant from the Grand Orient of France. This likewise warranted daughter Lodges, and the united body, in November, 1871, founded the Grand Orient of Hungary. Ultimately the Grand Lodge and the Grand Orient amalgamated under the title of the Symbolic Grand Lodge of Hungary, on March 23rd, 1886. 'Freedom of Conscience' is acclaimed by this Grand Lodge, and the preamble of its Statutes follows rather closely that of the Grand Orient of France. There are 82 Lodges, with a total membership of 6,134."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 296-299.—"The renewal of the Hungarian Constitution in 1868, sanctioning the statutes of Freemasonry, produced a new splendor for it. The aim of the statutes was defined as the development of public morals,

of popular instruction, of love of neighbor, and practice of charity. During the war the lodges organized hospitals at Budapest; they rebuilt one of the villages which had been destroyed by the Russians; they procured situations for demobilized officers; they assisted soldiers who returned from the front; and after the armistice, did all they could to obtain just and kindly treatment for their unhappy country. In addition Hungarian Masonry created a large number of social and beneficent societies which occupied themselves with the protection and succour of men, women and children, as well as with education, but these societies were not connected with the craft nor was its name advertised in connection therewith. . . . But about three years ago Hungarian Masonry ended violently and abruptly. Communists occupied their buildings and during the Rumanian occupation the military authorities prohibited all meetings. Ultimately, on May 14, 1921, the order was dissolved by the command of the Ministry of the Interior. Since that date Hungarian Masonry acted officially on only one occasion, viz., when, by permission of the National Assembly, the last administrators of the Grand Lodge addressed a request to the foreign Masonic bodies to assist in the sending home of their countrymen who were imprisoned in Russia. Thus Freemasonry no longer exists in Hungary."—D. Wright, *News of Freemasonry (Christian Science Monitor, Feb. 6, 1922)*.

Canada and Newfoundland.—"Tradition marks the year 1738 as the date of the constitution of the first Masonic Lodge, in what is now the Dominion of Canada. This Lodge was warranted at Annapolis Royal, in Nova Scotia, by Erasmus J. Phillips, Fort Major of the pioneer fortress, under the authority of Henry Price, the Prov. G. M. of St. John's Grand Lodge at Boston, Massachusetts. Phillips was initiated in 'the first Lodge in Boston' in 1737, while on a visit to that town. On his return to Annapolis, he opened the Lodge, thus sowing the first seeds of Craft fellowship in the Maritime Provinces. The position given him by Price was that of Deputy Grand Master—but within a short period he became Provincial G. M.—and by his authority the first Lodge at Halifax was warranted in 1740-50, with Brigadier-General Edward Cornwallis as Master. A Grand Lodge was formed by a minority of the Lodges, in 1866, but it was shortly afterwards merged in the existing Grand Lodge of Nova Scotia, which was regularly organized in 1860. The first Province west of the Maritime Provinces to constitute Lodges was Quebec, in 1750-60. These Lodges were military and civil—military for a short time after the conquest, and civil from 1761-2. They were governed by a Provincial Grand Lodge (*Moderns*'). This body had an active existence until 1791, when the 'Ancients' warranted a Provincial Grand Lodge under Prince Edward, afterwards Duke of Kent, who was in command of the forces at Quebec. Both these organizations did good work, but that of the Moderns was not an active factor after 1800. In 1813, when the rival Grand Lodges of England joined hands, a Provincial Grand Lodge, under the present United Grand Lodge of England, took charge of the jurisdiction of Quebec. In 1701 the Province of Canada (Quebec) had been divided into Upper and Lower Canada, under William Jarvis and Prince Edward, as Provincial Grand Masters respectively. Both these appointments were made by the Ancients. In 1822-3 the Provincial Grand Lodge of Lower Canada was divided for Masonic purposes into two districts, one—Quebec and Three Rivers, the other—Montreal and William Henry. The

two Provinces had separate Legislatures until 1841, when for civil purposes they were united, Lower Canada being afterwards known as Canada East, and Upper Canada as Canada West. The dividing line between these Provinces from 1791 was the Ottawa River, and no change was made when they were united in 1841. In 1855 a secession took place from the Provincial Grand Lodge of Upper Canada, and an independent Grand Lodge was established. Two years later, the Provincial Grand Lodge (dating from 1792), formed 'The Ancient Grand Lodge of Canada.' In 1858 these two bodies united under the title of the Grand Lodge of Canada, by which organization Lodges were formed, not only in Canada West, but also in Canada East. The Grand Lodge of Quebec was formed in 1869, and exercises Masonic jurisdiction over the Province of Quebec, formerly Canada East. But three of the Lodges in Montreal still retain their English warrants, and have hitherto declined to affiliate with the Colonial Grand Lodge. At a later period, in recognition of the position attained by the Grand Lodge of Quebec (Canada East), the words 'In the Province of Ontario' (Canada West) were added by the Grand Lodge of Canada to its title. The Grand Lodge of Alberta was formed in 1905, and that of Saskatchewan in 1906.—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 346-347.—"There are ten English and two Scottish Lodges in this island [Newfoundland]."—*Ibid.*, p. 348.

Central and South America.—"In 1804 the Comte de Grasse introduced a new system or Rite of thirty-three degrees into France, under the title of the Ancient and Accepted Scottish Rite. Its success in France was instantaneous and phenomenal, and it speedily became a favourite with the Latin races. The Rite penetrated and made its ground secure in Spain, Portugal, Mexico [see MEXICO: 1822-1828] and South America, while, to come to our own day (with the exceptions that will be presently noticed), what Lodges there are in the Republics of Central and South America are governed either by Supreme Councils or by Grand Orient, of which Supreme Councils form part. Supreme Councils and Sovereign Grand Inspectors General, 33°, were each supposed by members of the Rite to possess, on the whole, powers greatly in excess of those appertaining to Grand Lodges and Grand Masters. Supreme Councils could confer at pleasure the 33rd degree, and the persons so honoured could not only create Supreme Councils where none existed, and add to the number of their own degree (S.G.I.G.), but it was extensively believed that, like the Scots Masters—whose assumed powers were afterwards, in some shape or form, successively exercised by the Chapter of Clermont, the Knights of the East, the Emperors of the East and West, and the Strict Observance—they could, at any time or place, personally impart, either with or without a ceremony, the secrets of the three Craft degrees. The Grand Orient system was a French invention, and has since been adopted by other Latin nations. *In theory*, a Grand Orient is an organization consisting of several sections, usually a Supreme Council, Grand Chapter, and Grand Lodge, each with exclusive power over its own degrees. *In practice*, the Supreme Council is always the predominant partner, and its Grand Commander is the Grand Master of the united body. In Mexico, besides a Supreme Council, there are several distinct Grand Lodges. A circular, issued—June 14th, 1901—by one of the latter, declares:—"That the Bible, the

Great Light of Masonry, is to be formed on its altars; and that no women are admitted into the Lodges;—from which an opinion may be formed of the so-called 'Masonry' of the Republic, as practised under the ægis of the Gran Dieta Simbolica, now happily defunct. The most important, founded 1865, has 15 Lodges, with over 1,000 members. A Grand Orient for Central America—comprising the Republics of Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, and San Salvador, was established in Guatemala, in 1887. Under it are 18 Lodges, exclusive of 7 which are ruled by the Grand Lodge of Costa Rica—formed in 1899—and 3, holding British charters, in Nicaragua. A Grand Lodge of Guatemala has 12 Lodges; that of Salvador has 5; that of Panama 6 Lodges; and that of Yucatan has 9.

"In South America, there is in Brazil the Grand Orient of Brazil at the capital, and of the Rio Grande Do Sul, at Porto Alegre, with a following of 390 and 39 Lodges respectively. Single Grand Orient exist in Argentina (115), Chili (40), Colombia (5), Paraguay (9), Paraná (13), Uruguay (18), and Venezuela (9). The figures within parentheses denote the number of Lodges in the several jurisdictions, so far as I have been able to discover them. There is a Grand Lodge of Peru—reorganized in 1852—with a following of 6 Lodges. Besides the national organizations, Lodges under various European jurisdictions exist in many of the Republics, and in all of the larger capitals. England is represented by 22 Lodges in South America, and America by 3—under charters granted from Massachusetts—in the 'District of Chili.' In Guiana, Lodges have been, from time to time, constituted by Holland and France within their respective spheres of influence, and British Guiana, at the present moment, besides having a Scottish Lodge at Demerara, is itself the seat of an English Province, with a roll of 6 Lodges, one of which, however, is at work in Chili (*Valparaiso*) and another in Uruguay (*Montevideo*)."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 329-331.—"A Masonic school has been founded in Bahia, Brazil, to promote and supervise farms, libraries, workshops and schools."—*New Masonic Advocate*, Nov., 1920.—"As a result of the report of Charles A. Adams, past grand master, to the seventy-second annual convention of the California Masonic Grand Lodge, in session here [San Francisco], the York Rite Grand Lodge of Mexico will be recognized, and the York Rite Lodge of the Valley of Mexico urged to amalgamate with the Grand Lodge of the Valley of Mexico, thus bringing harmony out of the differences which have existed between the two Mexican lodges for some years."—*Christian Science Monitor*, Oct. 13, 1921.

China: Ancient forms of Masonry.—**Ceremonial in the Temple of Heaven.**—"The late Sir Chaloner Alabaster, who was not only one of our most respected sinologues, but also an indefatigable student of Freemasonry, tells us:—"Going then to the records we possess of the earliest historic times in China, I find clear evidence of the existence of a mystic faith expressed in allegorical form, and illustrated, as with us, by symbols. The secrets of this faith were orally transmitted, the chiefs alone pretending to have full knowledge of them. I find, moreover, that in these earliest ages this faith took a Masonic form, the secrets being recorded in symbol buildings like the Tabernacle Moses put up in the desert, and the Temple his successor, Solomon, built in Jerusalem; that the various offices of the hierarchy

of this religion were distinguished by the symbolic jewels held by them during their term of office, and that, as with us, at the rites of their religion they wore leather aprons, such as have come down to us, marked with the insignia of their rank. I find in the earliest works that have come down to us . . . the compasses and the square used as the symbol of right conduct, the man who had the compasses and square, and regulated his life thereby, being then, as now, considered to possess the secrets and to carry out the principles of true propriety. Finally, I find one of the most ancient names by which the Deity is spoken of in China is that of the First Builder, or, as Masons say, the 'Great Architect of the Universe.' According to the same authority, 'the Mysteries of this ancient Faith have now become lost, or at best obscured, though attempts at a revival may be traced in the proceedings of existing brotherhoods, whose various rituals and signs are supposed to be in some measure founded on ancient rites and symbols which have been handed down from the earliest ages.'—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 3-4.—"Walter Curner, who has just been on a journey to the East, gives an interesting description of Chinese lodges in the following words: 'A form of Freemasonry has been in vogue among the Chinese for thousands of years. The philosopher Mencius, 300 years before the Christian era, wrote: "A master mason makes use of the compasses and square, and ye who are engaged in the pursuit of wisdom must also make use of the compasses and square." In "Chinese Proverbial Philosophy" we read: "The Honly Doctrine (Confucianism) in its education of mankind uses the compasses and the square." The Triad Society have working tools, and among them the 12-inch gauge. They have a worshipful master, a great brother and a second brother, corresponding to our senior and junior wardens, a first point and a second point, corresponding to our senior and junior deacons, and also an inner and outer guard. They recognize three degrees—affiliated younger brother, affiliated elder brother, and obligated uncle, or the E. A., F. C., and M. M. degrees. They have a book of constitutions, issue certificates, and give badges to each member in the form of a medal to carry about with him. At initiations the candidate is purified by ablution. The obligation consists of 36 articles. A white cock is sacrificed, the bird being an emblem of vigilance. The candidate performs eight salutations—to heaven, the earth, the sun, the moon, to the five founders of the society, to Wan Yun Lung, a former grand master, to the brethren present and absent, and to the glorious representatives of the order. In Shanghai the English, Scottish, Irish, and American constitutions in Freemasonry are all working together amicably, and they have among their members Parsees and Chinese.'"—*Christian Science Monitor*, Aug. 11, 1921.

Denmark.—The first Danish Lodge, St. Martin, was established in Copenhagen in 1743; seceders from this lodge founded the second, Zerubbabel, in 1744. Both received English charters and subsequently amalgamated. Most of the kings and princes of Denmark have been and still are members or patrons of the craft. Frederick VII became Grand Master on his accession in 1848, when he remodeled Danish Masonry on the Swedish system. There are about 6,000 members in the fraternity.—Based on R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, p. 304.

England: Origins of Freemasonry.—Establishment of first Grand Lodge. See above: Legend and fact in Masonic history.

England: Recent events.—Declaration of principles.—Policy of Grand Lodge.—English, Scottish and Irish Grand Lodges: Closer relations.—In 1920 a public statement clarifying the principles guiding the policy of the Grand Lodge was made by the Grand Secretary: "As a great deal of misapprehension appears to be entertained in some quarters concerning the aims and relationships of the United Grand Lodge of Antient, Free and Accepted Masons of England, I have been desired by the Grand Master [the Duke of Connaught] to make the following statement regarding them. The Grand Lodge of England, of which H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught has been for twenty years Grand Master, in succession to the late King Edward VII.—himself Grand Master as Prince of Wales from 1875 to 1901—has held strictly aloof throughout its history, which dates from 1717, from participation in public or political affairs, either national or international, considering itself precluded from taking any share in discussions on State policy. While thus standing aside from party divisions, it has always inculcated patriotism in the citizen and loyalty in the individual. It had not long been established when it publicly gave assurance of this to one of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State. The assurance thus given in the reign of George I. is emphasised in a special degree in that of George V. Everyone who comes into Freemasonry is strictly enjoined at the outset not to countenance any act which may have a tendency to subvert the peace and good order of society, to pay due obedience to the law of any State in which he resides, and never to be remiss in the allegiance due to his Sovereign. No secret is attached to these duties, which are of the essence of Masonry as practised under the Jurisdiction of the United Grand Lodge of England, as well as by the Sister Grand Lodges of Ireland, Scotland, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, and, I have reason to believe, of the remainder of the English-speaking world. Every English Lodge at his consecration is dedicated to God and to His Service; no one can become a Mason until he has declared faith in the Supreme Being. As a consequence, men of every shade of political opinion and ministers of all religious denominations are members of and office-bearers in our Organisation, and Masonry thus provides a platform on which men of all conditions, classes, and creeds can work together for the common welfare. In Masonic Lodges all discussions on topics of a political or theological nature are strictly forbidden. Because of its determination to preserve the position it has upheld for over two centuries, the Grand Lodge of England never takes part in any Masonic or quasi-Masonic gathering in which the fundamental Antient Landmarks of Freemasonry—which have been indicated above—are allowed to be regarded as open questions.—Yours faithfully and fraternally, P. Colville Smith, Grand Secretary. 5th August, 1920."—*Freemason (London)*, Aug., 1920.—"The Grand Lodges of England, Scotland, and Ireland are arranging the details of their new and closer relationship, and there seems no question that the greatest harmony will prevail from now on. The working agreement . . . provides: The Grand Lodges of England, Scotland, and Ireland will in future not recognize or enter into relation with any Masonic body or society which claims to be Masonic without previous consultation and agreement. They will confer together before deciding any question affecting the Landmarks of the order which may arise within any or either of these Grand Lodges. In order to maintain this co-operation there shall be a regular annual conference

among five leading representatives of each of the three Grand Lodges at London, Dublin and Edinburgh in rotation. General fraternization shall, if possible, be arranged at the period of these conferences. The first conference shall be held in London in 1920."—*Masonic Standard*, Feb. 28, 1920.

England: Ideals of universal Freemasonry.—Bicentenary of English Masonry.—In a speech delivered at Birmingham, England, in March, 1913, the Pro-Grand Master of the Grand Lodge of England, Lord Amptill, declared: "Every one of us has from time to time asked himself whether Freemasonry has done all it could, all it ought, and all it pretends to do, and I feel certain that many of us must agree that it has not. . . . We live in a time when ancient institutions are being attacked and exposed to the searchlight of criticism, and it is only right to expect that our own ancient Institution will come under that searchlight. Has Freemasonry justified its position? We have done very good benevolent work, but what we have to remember always is that, if we were first and foremost a benevolent institution, all the pomp and ceremonial associated with Masonry would be out of place; we could do without it. Our Association claims to be, first of all, a philosophical Society—a body of thinking men—and, I ask, is this sufficiently expressed in the Craft, and impressed upon the Initiates? Before we can advance we must put our own house in order. We must see that every one admitted to Freemasonry is not only a good fellow, but that those who come into the Craft are prepared to give more than they receive. The Master of a Lodge should be one who is capable of influencing the higher mental attitude of the whole of the members of his Lodge, and inspiring them with the true and real spirit of Freemasonry, so that every Mason should become a power in the world. I may be a dreamer, but I consider that there is great scope in Freemasonry for improving the relationship among nations." In response to this appeal there was formed in London during June, 1913, an international society with the objects of cultivating every form of Masonic knowledge and forwarding the universal application of Masonic principles. The "constitution" of the society is in part as follows: "1. The motto of this Society will be *Altiora Peto*—I seek higher things. 2. The title suggested for the Society is The International Masonic, Rendezvous, and Polyglot Lodge of Improvement. 3. The place selected for its home is the Hampden Club, St. Pancras, [which] . . . contains, in addition to the ordinary appointments of a well-conducted Club, a Masonic Temple. . . . 4. The work of the Society, as a Lodge of Improvement, will include the enhancement of ceremonial effectiveness by proper attention to Lodge æsthetics and deportment, and the practice of ritual in English, French, German and Italian to such an extent as may be found needful and helpful to the members. 5. Masonic history, English, American, and Continental, will be the subject of special study, so that the Brethren may become familiarized with the original aims of Freemasonry, and be enabled to profit by the examples of the past in all that is worthy of emulation, and to avoid the errors of omission and commission which experience has condemned. 6. Research, in so far as it is of practical value, will receive due attention, but no time will be wasted on studies which involve Freemasonry in esoteric entanglements, or which begin and end in turning over rubbish heaps of speculative theory and unbased assertion. . . . 7. To carry out the aims of the Society it will be necessary to organize a correspondence section, so that co-operation may in

time be secured throughout Greater Britain, Europe, and America. . . . 8. It may also be found desirable to arrange international tours, serving the double purpose of providing pleasure and education for Brethren on holiday, and of assisting the objects of the Society by personal inter-communication. 9. It is the intention of the Committee to follow the example of the early English Masons in the matter of moderate fees and expenses. . . . [The prospectus concluded thus]: The organisers of this movement . . . while they keep before their eyes, as their supreme ambition, the accomplishment of some part in the grand scheme of welding the Freemasons of the world into an associated body moved by a single impulse, they may hope, as an indispensable first step in that direction, to attract many spirited helpers to the work of 'setting our own house in order,' by a determined endeavour to redeem Freemasonry in England from the reproach of intellectual sluggishness."

France: Introduction of Freemasonry.—Grand Orient Lodge.—Freemasonry was introduced into France in 1725 by Lord Derwentwater. The first French Masonic authority was founded in 1736 and took the name of 'Grand Lodge of France.' In 1772 the Grand Lodge split into two groups, and for a time each group bore the title of 'Grand Lodge.' Then, in 1773, the more important of the two factions adopted the name of 'Grand Orient, Grande Loge Nationale de France.'—*Annuaire général de la France et de l'étranger*, 1920-1921, p. 209.—"In 1877 the Grand Orient of France removed the Bible from its altar and erased from its ritual all reference to Deity; and for so doing it was disfellowshipped by nearly every Grand Lodge in the world. . . . It was felt [according to apologists for this action] that France needed the aid of every man who was an enemy of Latin ecclesiasticism in order to bring about a separation of Church and State; hence the attitude of the Grand Orient."—J. F. Newton, *Builders*, p. 261, note.—As a result, a storm of criticism broke from all sides, accusing the French organization not only of irreligion but of political activity and of pursuing subversive aims. "All Masonic lodges throughout the world except the Grand Orient do homage to a Divine Being, symbolized as Horani, the Great Architect of the Universe, and in the beginning the French lodge also recognized the designer of the Temple. But forty years ago the Grand Orient formally repudiated the Great Architect of the Universe, and the first condition of initiation is Atheism. The 'Frères Trois Points,' as they are commonly called in France, the Brothers of the Three Dots (···), are credited with all the revolutions of modern times in France, Italy, Portugal, Turkey, Persia, and China. . . . The 'serious' objects of the Grand Orient, symbolised by the Three Dots, were the triple liberation of humanity from religious, political, and social points of view. And here came the crux, for Freemasonry is a 'bourgeois' affair, and social liberation it abhors. The Grand Orient, with its lodges, had grown enormously wealthy, and did not want to grow poor again. The Confédération Générale du Travail, the great Socialist machine, rose up against it, and latterly all the better feeling of France revolts against its tyranny."—*Standard* (London), Jan. 27, 1913.

France: American criticism of French Masonry.—Defense of Grand Orient by its president.—French Lodges re-opened in Alsace-Lorraine.—American relations with Grand Lodge of France.—Charges against the Grand Orient of France stigmatizing it as a political and irreligious institution have in recent years been raised in the United States as in England. The following criti-

cism is by a past District Deputy Grand-Master of the Grand Lodge of the State of New York: "For a great part of the time since 1870, the real centre of power has been, not in the Palace of the Elysian Fields [Champs-Élysées, Paris], the official residence of the President of the Republic; not in the Bourbon Palace, the meeting-place of the Chamber of Deputies, but in the Rue Cadet, the headquarters of the 'Grand Orient'—the life centre of 'Latin Freemasonry' in France. And in this Temple of Mystery in the Rue Cadet, Joseph Caillaux has been one of the Chief Priests. In its policies, this great secret society has had three watchwords, as enunciated by its own leaders: 'Anticlericalism, Antimilitarism, Socialism.' In following out the first, it has tried to impose upon France, not genuine religious liberty, as we understand it in America, but a despotism of atheism and materialism, for a striking characteristic of this 'Latin Freemasonry,' which markedly distinguishes it from the reverent and religious brotherhood of England and the United States, is the deliberate elimination from its ritual and teaching of every allusion to 'the Grand Architect of the Universe.' . . . At the present moment, it is estimated that 300 Deputies (out of 580) and 180 Senators (out of 300) are Freemasons. Freemasonry thus disposes of an absolute majority in both legislative assemblies. As for the Ministries, for the last twenty-five years they have constantly contained a majority of Freemasons."—C. Johnston, *Caillaux's secret power through French Masonry* (*New York Times Magazine*, Feb. 24, 1918).—The above charges were refuted in a long letter defending the principles and policies of the Grand Orient of France by its President, M. Corneau, which appeared in the *New York Times* of May 14, 1918. Herein it was stated that M. Caillaux was not a Freemason at all; that "atheism," so-called by the Grand Orient's critics, was apparently confounded with the "absolute liberty of conscience" recommended by the society's constitution; that the Grand Orient, so far from serving one political party, represented all factions of republican opinion "in order to work together for the emancipation of human intelligence, for the independence of peoples, and for the social happiness of humanity"; and that allegations representing the French Masons as unpatriotic in the World War were unjustified. He pointed out that Marshal Joffre was a member. Documentary evidence showing the consistently patriotic attitude of the Grand Orient during the war was included in the letter and made public. "There are, in France, as in Italy, two bodies, each claiming to be the genuine representative of Freemasonry. There is, on the one hand, the body affiliated with the Ancient and Accepted Scottish Rite, which was established in Paris, I believe, in 1804. This is so distinctly a religious body that many lodges will accept only professing Christians as members. . . . [It is] . . . doubtless correct [to say] that Caillaux does not belong to it. But there is, besides, an older body, . . . the body which, on Sept. 13, 1877, erased from its rules the paragraph declaring that the existence of God and the immortality of the soul were the basis of Freemasonry; which, on Sept. 10, 1878, expunged from its ritual the symbols of the Grand Architect of the Universe. This is the body which I described as irreligious."—C. Johnston, *French Masons and their critics* (*New York Times*, May 12, 1918).—"The return of Alsace and Lorraine to France, has caused the dissolution of the German Masonic Lodges. The Grand Orient of France has re-opened the French Lodges which were closed in 1871, when these provinces were annexed to the German Em-

pire."—*Freemason* (*Toronto*), May, 1920.—As distinct from the Grand Orient of France, the other authoritative body, the Grand Lodge of France, received favorable consideration from American Masonry, as the following paragraph from *The Trestle Board* of July, 1920, would indicate: "The Knights Templar of the United States having made a special investigation of Masonic conditions in France have decided to maintain fraternal communications with the Grand Lodge of France and have appointed Edward P. Denny, the Grand Secretary of the Grand Lodge of France, to represent and advise the American Knights Templar."

Germany: Introduction of Masonry.—**Fredrick the Great a member.—Formation of Grand Lodges.**—"The first mention of Freemasonry in connection with Germany is the appointment of *Fredericus du Thom* as Provincial G. M. for the circle of Lower Saxony, by the Duke of Norfolk in 1729-30, but this appears to have been a sort of honorary appointment, as Du Thom is a person entirely unknown in German Masonic history. Next, the Earl of Strathmore, 1733, is stated to have granted to 'eleven German Masons, good brothers,' a deputation to open a Lodge at Hamburg; but the deputation was evidently not acted upon, as no trace of a Lodge between 1733-1737 can be found. The first German Lodge was established at Hamburg on December 6th, 1737, under Charles Sarry. It consisted of 7 members then, and no mention is made of any English Warrant. In point of fact, the W. M., Luttmann, only had it registered in England in October, 1740, and he was a few days later appointed Prov. G. Master. On his return to Hamburg, the Lodge—in July, 1741—took the name of Absalom. The first German Lodge had the honour of initiating at Brunswick, on the 14th of August, 1738, the Crown Prince of Prussia (later Frederick the Great), who thereupon opened a private Lodge of his own at his castle of Rheinsberg. This is the starting point of Freemasonry in Prussia. The King's Lodge ceased when Frederick left for the first Silesian War, but with the King's permission another was then—September 13th, 1740—formed at Berlin. Out of this Lodge originated the oldest of the Prussian Grand Lodges: The Grand National Mother Lodge of the Three Globes, in Berlin. . . . This was originally formed at Berlin, as a private Lodge, on September 13th, 1740, under the name of 'Aux Trois Globes.' It soon erected Lodges itself at Meiningen, Frankfort-on-the-Maine, Breslau, and Halle, after the fashion of those times, and thereupon styled itself, from June 24th, 1744, the Grand Royal Mother Lodge. It also founded two Lodges at Berlin: Eintracht, which is the oldest of the *Berlin* daughter Lodges (1754), and Aux Trois Colombes (1760). The latter is now the Grand Lodge Royal York (No. III). After this time there was a great confusion of Masonic systems at Berlin, and in August, 1766, the Rite of the Strict Observance was adopted. In 1772 the title was altered to Grand National Mother Lodge, when Prince Frederick August, of Brunswick, was appointed Grand Master, who remained in that position till 1790. In 1772 the Prince's uncle, Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, was appointed Grand Master of the Strict Observance, and there can be no doubt that when the Convent of Wilhelmsbad was held, in 1782, the Three Globes expected the centre of gravity to be shifted to Berlin. But the Convent decided otherwise, Ferdinand remained as nominal Grand Master of the Strict Observance, and the Three Globes formally declared themselves independent of that Order in 1783. In 1707 a new system of 7 degrees was adopted, which, with a few

alterations, is still in force, and forms the basis of the present Masonic edifice; it was revised in 1883. In 1798 a Royal Edict was issued granting certain privileges to the three Prussian Grand Lodges. In 1799 the present Masonic Hall was bought. In 1839 the Grand Lodge joined the 'Prussian Grand Master's Union,' and in 1873, together with the two other Prussian Grand Lodges, the 'Grand Lodge League of Germany.' Under this Grand Lodge are 156 St. John's (*i.e.*, Craft) Lodges, 69 Scottish Lodges, 354 Benevolent Institutions, and 16,346 active members; 116 of the St. John's Lodges are domiciled in Prussia proper, 16 in other German States, 1 in the Brazils, and 1 in China."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 282-284.

Germany: Grand National Lodge of German Freemasons in Berlin.—Allied Masons sever communication with German Masonry.—"This Grand Lodge was founded by J. W. von Zinnendorf, one of the most remarkable Masons that ever existed, on December 27th, 1770. Zinnendorf was instrumental in bringing about the connection between the Three Globes and the Strict Observance. He was Grand Master of the former, and a warm supporter of the latter, but in 1766 he renounced the Strict Observance, and in the following year retired altogether from the Three Globes. Zinnendorf had obtained from C. F. von Eckleff (1765) the Swedish Ritual, and also a warrant of constitution, on the strength of which he founded—commencing in 1768—about twelve Lodges. These, in 1770, formed a new Grand Lodge. A compact with the Grand Lodge of England, by which (Frankfort alone dissenting) all Germany was virtually handed over to the Zinnendorf body, was concluded in 1773, and the new Grand Lodge obtained the protection of Frederick the Great in 1774. It also benefited by the Royal Edict of 1798, already mentioned. Disputes with the Grand Lodge of Sweden arose, but were eventually settled, and a formal treaty between the two Masonic powers was concluded in 1819. A revision of the Ritual took place about 1840, but only so far as words and expressions were concerned—nothing else was altered. Since then the assertion that the Society of Freemasons is directly descended from the Order of the Knights Templar has been dropped, and a spiritual succession is now only maintained. In 1840 Prince William of Prussia (later Emperor Wilhelm I) was initiated, and in 1853 his son (later Emperor Frederic III) joined the Society. The latter, as 'Master of the Order,' presided over the Grand Lodge from 1860 until 1874. In 1889 Prince Frederick Leopold of Prussia was initiated, in 1894 he was appointed Protector of the three Prussian Grand Lodges, and in 1895 'Master of the Order' (or Grand Master). In this jurisdiction there are 7 chapters, 28 St. Andrew's Lodges, 151 St. John's Lodges, 148 Benevolent Institutions, and 15,300 active members; 84 of the Craft Lodges are in Prussia proper, and the others in the different German States."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 284-285.—"Owing to the Great War, and the attitude adopted by the German Lodges, no intercourse between them and the Allies is allowed at present (1920), nor is this likely to be quickly altered."—*Ibid.*, p. 283, note.—Relations had not been resumed at the close of 1922.

Greece.—"Lodges were founded by the Grand Orient of France at Corfu, in 1809 and 1810, and by the Grand Lodge of England—Pythagoras, still existing—in 1837. A Grand Lodge of Greece—of which all traces have vanished—is supposed to have been formed at the same island about 1840. On

the mainland there were, in 1867, eight (Italian) Lodges, which met and constituted themselves into an independent Grand Lodge. Irregular Masonic centres were subsequently established, but in 1898 the Grand Lodge of 1867, by a combination with its only surviving rival, became the sole governing body of the jurisdiction, with the title of the Grand Orient and Supreme Council 33° for Greece. It rules over eighteen Lodges, with a membership of about 1,000."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, p. 315.

India. See above: Asia.

Ireland: Early traces of Freemasonry.—Grand Lodge of Ireland in 1725.—Decrees and regulations.—Schism of 1805 and Grand Lodge of Ulster.—Recent statistics.—"A Masonic medallion, bearing date 1516 . . . discovered in Ireland some years ago, was unknown to the Masonic authorities until recently. . . . The members of the Dublin Masonic Lodge of Research believe that it is one of the oldest Masonic emblems in Ireland, and the date it bears is 101 years prior to the establishment of the Grand Lodge of England, the mother Grand Lodge of the world, in 1717."—*Christian Science Monitor*, May 25, 1821.—"The recent research of Dr. Chetwode Crawley has clearly established, that in Irish academical circles Freemasonry was well known before the landing of William of Orange at Carrickfergus in 1690. . . . Of the Freemasonry existing in Ireland before the era of Grand Lodges, merely a passing glance is afforded, and the glimpse we obtain of it is supplied by Dr. Chetwode Crawley in an introductory chapter to a recent Masonic work [Chetwode Crawley MS. in Grand Lodge Library, Dublin, published 1904]. He tells us that a custom prevailed during the seventeenth century in certain Universities of allowing a representative of the undergraduates to make a satirical speech, called a *Tripes*, at the annual meeting for conferring degrees. At Trinity College, Dublin, the '*Tripes*' (or speech) delivered, July 11th, 1688, amounts, in fact, to an attack on the authorities of the University, by the use of illustrations drawn from the Freemasonry of the day. For example: 'It was lately ordered that for the honour and dignity of the University there should be introduced a Society of Freemasons, consisting of gentlemen, mechanics, porters, parsons, tinkers, freshmen [and others], who shall bind themselves by an oath never to discover their mighty no-secret; and to relieve . . . distressed brethren they meet with, after the example of the Fraternity of Freemasons in and about Trinity College, by whom a collection was lately made for a reduced Brother, who received [among other gifts], from Sir Warren, for being Freemasonized the new way, five shillings. . . .' According to Dr. Chetwode Crawley, with whom I am wholly in accord, and whose words I reproduce: 'All Freemasonry in existence to-day can be traced, through one channel or another, to the Grand Lodge of England. This general statement is particularly true of Ireland. The Freemasonry of Ireland in the days immediately succeeding the erection of the Grand Lodge for London and Westminster seems rather a part than a counterpart of the new system. In less than eight years from the foundation of the Premier Grand Lodge, the Sister Grand Lodge of Ireland stands forth as the compeer of the Grand Lodge of England, to which alone it owes precedence.' To the research of the same talented writer we are indebted for the fact that in 1725 the Grand Lodge of Ireland was in existence in Dublin. . . . There is no list of the Officers of the Grand Lodge of Ireland for the years 1726-29, but the Earl of Rosse, who was

Grand Master in 1725, filled the same position in 1730. In the latter year John Pennell, Grand Secretary, published *The Constitutions of the [Irish] Free Masons*. This work is almost an exact counterpart of the English original, and the slight differences which exist are mainly due to the compilation of John Pennell being intermediate in point of date between Dr. Anderson's 'Constitutions' of 1723 and 1738. In 1731 the Grand Lodge of Munster passed under the sway of James, fourth Lord Kingston (who had been Grand Master of England in 1729), and during the same year (1731) this nobleman was elected to the chair of the Grand Lodge of Ireland, in connection with what appears to have been a re-organization of the latter body. The Grand Lodge of Munster is heard of no more, and from 1731 to the present date the succession of the Grand Officers of the Grand Lodge of Ireland is plain and distinct. The first Warrant of Constitution ever issued by a Grand Lodge was granted to the First Lodge of Ireland in 1731. . . . In 1740, under the Grand Lodge of Ireland, as the Masons of that country still showed a want of alacrity in applying for what may be termed 'Charters of Confirmation,' the decree of 1732 [that 'true and perfect Warrants should be taken out by all the Irish Lodges'] was re-enacted, but in more peremptory terms: 'Such Lodges as have not already taken out Warrants are ordered to apply for them to John Baldwin, Esq., Secretary to Grand Lodge, or they will be proceeded against as Rebel Masons.' The next event of importance was the promulgation of the Irish Regulations of 1741, which are a virtual reproduction of Dr. Anderson's second *Book of Constitutions*, published in 1738. . . .

"New regulations for the better government of the Freemasons in Ireland were published in 1768. These ordain that 'Every Master and Warden at his first Entrance [into the Grand Lodge] shall stand such Examination as the Grand Master . . . shall appoint' (IX); That, 'Any Person who has been made a Mason in a Clandestine Manner, contrary to the Rules of the Grand Lodge, shall not . . . sit in any Regular Lodge, until such Lodge . . . shall have him first entered and passed over the usual Courses over again, as if the same had never been performed before' (XXV); That, 'No Army Lodge on the Registry of this Kingdom, shall be charged with . . . annual Contributions, except for the Time they remain on *Dublin Duty*' (XXVI); And, that 'No Army Lodge shall for the future make any Townsman a Mason, where there is a registered Lodge held in any Town where such Lodge do meet; and No Town's Lodge shall make any Man in the Army a Mason, where there is a warranted Lodge held in the Regiment, Troop, or Company, or in the Quarters to which such Man belongs' (XXVII). These Regulations eventually gave place to *The Constitution of FREE-MASONRY, or AHIMAN REZON*, published in 1807. . . . The Laws passed in the interval between the two publications are given in the later one, from which I extract the following: Oct. 1, 1780.—'That no Masonic transaction be inserted in a newspaper by a brother, without permission from the Grand Lodge.' In 1805, a schism blazed forth in the Grand Lodge of Ireland. It had smouldered since 1800, when Alexander Seton, an unscrupulous barrister, had been appointed Deputy Grand Secretary, but without the additional emoluments of Deputy Grand Treasurer, which he had expected. Seton fomented local jealousies, seized the Grand Lodge archives, and retained adverse possession of the Grand Lodge premises. Many of the Lodges in the North of Ireland followed his standard, and were

joined by others misled by his specious circulars. Driven from Dublin in 1807, after a struggle, conducted with unseemly virulence on his part, he organized at Dungannon a schismatic body, which he called the Grand Lodge of Ulster. Worsted in a law suit, in which he sought to recover damages from the Grand Lodge of Ireland for his expulsion, his influence rapidly waned, and the Grand Officers whom he had attracted by misrepresentations, repudiated the short-lived Masonic power. The final blow was dealt in 1814, when it was agreed between the Grand Lodges of England and Ireland that no countenance should be shown to Seton's adherents. The disaffected Lodges speedily returned to their obedience, and the Grand Lodge of Ireland received their submission with wisdom and toleration. The roll of Irish Lodges probably reached its highest figure about the year 1797, when scarcely a village in the Kingdom was without its 'Masonic Assembly.' Afterwards, however, a period of dormancy set in. . . . At the present time of writing [1920] there are 530 Irish Lodges, of which 59 are in Dublin, 43 abroad, and six in Military Corps. There are about 28,000 members under the Irish Constitution. Of a grand total of at least 409 Ambulatory Lodges, which are *known* to have been constituted by the Grand Lodges of the British Isles, it may be remarked in conclusion, a much larger number were warranted by the Irish than by any other Grand Lodge."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 124, 187, 192, 198, 266-268.

Italy: Introduction of Masonry.—Clerical opposition.—Temporary extinction.—Its contribution to national unity.—"In the uncertain period of Italian Freemasonry, a Lodge is said to have been founded at Florence by Lord George Sackville, in 1733, and others are also traditionally reported to have existed at Milan, Verona, Padua, Vicenza, Venice, and Naples, in 1735. But the minutes are still preserved of the Roman Lodge, in the States of the Church, from the year 1735 down to the time of its final closure—when the Earl of Winton was 'Grand Master'—in 1737. Shortly afterwards (1738) the thunders of the Vatican were launched against the Freemasons, and the series of Bulls issued against the Society by successive Pontiffs have been carefully enumerated by the present Pope [Leo XIII], from whose *Encyclical Letter* of April 20th, 1884, I transcribe the following:—'The first warning of danger was given by Clement XII in 1738, and his Edict was confirmed and renewed by Benedict XIV (1751). Pius VII followed in their steps (1821); and Leo XIII, in his Apostolic Edict '*Quo Graviora*' (1825), embraced the acts and decrees of the earlier Popes on this subject, and ordered them to be ratified forever. To the same effect, Gregory XVI (1832), and very often Pius IX (1846, 1865, etc.), have spoken.' (*De Secta Massonum*.) In the opening years of the second half of the eighteenth century, Lodges under England were established in the Two Sicilies, Tuscany, Venetia, Genoa, and Sardinia. The Strict Observance swept over Italy in 1777, and a little later there was a general cessation of Masonic work. Then came the French domination, and with it a system of Grand Orientals. After the fall of Napoleon, edicts of suppression were issued by the various States, and from 1821 to 1856 not a Lodge existed in any part of what is now the Kingdom of Italy. In 1850 some Masons congregated in a Lodge at Turin, and the example was followed at Genoa, Milan, Pisa, Florence, Lehorn, and Rome. On the 1st of January, 1862, twenty-two Lodges being represented, the Grand Orient of Italy was proclaimed at Turin. This body has been

several times reconstructed, and absorbed the Supreme Council, 33°, at Palermo, in 1873. There are 204 Lodges in the jurisdiction, of which 38 are in foreign countries (Roumania, Servia, Egypt, Barbary, North Africa, South America, and China). A new Grand Orient of Italy—at Milan—with a following of 42 Lodges, is mentioned in a circular of the Swiss Grand Lodge Alpina (1901). At present the Grand Orient is at Rome, and has 482 Lodges with 20,000 members.—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 311-313.—“Freemasonry, owing to the part it had played in the unification of Italy, was incorporated in the history and therefore in the public life of the nation. But from the day on which Freemasonry ceased to be regarded by the Italian people as one of the instruments of unity it was bound to lose its *raison d'être* and a great part of its prestige. However, it was no easy task to divorce the masonic ideal from the national ideal. If there was in Italy one historic memory which counted for something, one sentimental force which conspired to favour the anticlerical democracy, it was Garibaldiism. It took more than one campaign to outwear this tradition, and in these campaigns the Nationalists were the leaders. They succeeded in proving to their contemporaries that as far as Italian interests were concerned the masonic idea was an anachronism, and, as such, dangerous, and therefore to be eliminated. Revelations as to the influence of masonic elements in the Army produced a tremendous sensation, and were followed by a tremendous protest. Wounded to the heart, the Italian Grand Orient had to emerge from its secrecy and appeal to the public; we saw, in the summer of 1913, on all the walls of Italy, the manifesto by which it recalled the services which it had rendered to the nation. It had assumed a posture of defence, which enabled one to prophesy retreat, and the defeat which the elections ratified. . . . One might devote a whole chapter to the greatness and the decadence of Italian Freemasonry. Of late years numerous incidents have given evidence of a reaction against masonic influence. We need only recall the case of Signor Camera, a deputy, and some of his colleagues, whose indictment was demanded by the lodges of the Scottish rite, because they voted in favour of religious instruction in the schools. Signor Giolitti was then accused of having designedly caused dissension and discussion in the ranks of Freemasonry, by supporting moderates like Signor Fera against the more advanced section led by Dr. Ballori, then assistant to the Radical Mayor of Rome, Dr. Nathan [a Freemason]. The fall of Dr. Nathan's municipal government and of the Roman bloc was, by the way, one of the most notable episodes of this conflict.”—J. Bainville, *Italy and the war*, pp. 142-144.

Jugo-Slavia.—“Private Lodges, under foreign warrants, were established at Belgrade and elsewhere, and in 1910 the Grand Lodge of Serbia, Croatia, and Jugo-Slavia was formed, with seven Lodges and 270 members.”—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, p. 316.—“On June 3, 1910, a Grand Masonic Lodge for Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, ‘Jugo-slavia’ was formed. The Supreme Council transferred the symbolic lodges to the new Grand Lodge, but reserving to itself jurisdiction over all degrees from the 4th to the 32nd.”—*Freemason* (Toronto), Jan., 1920.

Malta.—“After early persecutions, caused by the Papal Bull of 1738, the Lodge of Secrecy and Harmony was formed on the island, and in 1789 reconstituted from England, as No. 539. All the officers were Knights of Malta. If we may credit

Besuchet, Napoleon Buonaparte was initiated at Valetta in 1798. (Précis histoire de la Franc-Maçonnerie.) Since 1815 the island has been the seat of an English Provincial (or, as now termed, a District) Grand Lodge. Tunis was incorporated with the Malta district in 1869.”—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, p. 316.—See also above: Africa.

Mexico. See above: Central and South America.

Norway.—The first Lodge, St. Olaus, was constituted about 1745. In 1814, on separation from Denmark, the Norwegian Lodges came under the jurisdiction of the Grand Lodge of Sweden. In 1905, when Norway became an independent kingdom, the Norwegian Grand Lodge also regained its freedom. There are 16 Lodges with a membership of about 6,000.—Based on R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, p. 305.

Persia. See above: Asia: Persia and India.

Poland.—“It is contemplated to establish a Masonic Lodge in Warsaw, Poland, by Poles belonging to lodges of other nationalities, and eventually to have a Grand Orient in that country.”—*Freemason* (Toronto), May, 1920.

Portugal: Introduction of Masonry.—Schisms and reconstruction.—“An English Lodge was established at Lisbon in 1735, and the progress of the Craft was uninterrupted, until suddenly arrested by a royal edict in 1743. On the banishment of the Jesuits in 1761 Masonry revived, but again declined on the death of Joseph II in 1777. Lodges, however, continued to exist at Lisbon, Coimbra, and Oporto, also in the shipping. The Lodge Regeneration was constituted on board the frigate Phoenix in 1797, and shortly afterwards created five other Lodges. The superior authority was then confided to a committee (*commissao do expediente*), consisting of six delegates, under whose benign rule Masonry penetrated into every part of the Kingdom. A Grand Lodge of Portugal was established in 1800 (or 1805). During the French invasions the Craft languished, and there were successive revivals, followed by intermittent and savage persecutions, in 1810, 1821, and 1834. In 1848 there were three Grand Lodges, a Grand Orient, and an Irish Provincial Grand Lodge. All the National organizations coalesced in 1860 and formed the United Grand Orient of Lusitania. This was joined by the four Irish Lodges in 1872, who thereupon laid down their *Provincial* title, and resolved themselves into a Single Lodge, Regeneração Irlandeza (*Irish Regeneration*). Eleven years later (1883) there was a schism, and a new Grand Lodge was established. Still more recently (1892) the Lodges Regeneração Irlandeza and Obreiros Do Trabalho seceded from the United Grand Orient (on the ground of its having departed from the fundamental principles of Freemasonry), and formed the Grande Loja De Portugal. The calendars, however, of current date, only mention the United Grand Orient of Lusitania, which has an apparent following of 70 Lodges, 34 Triangles, and 2,748 members.”—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 314-315.

Rumania.—“Twenty Lodges (of foreign origin) united in forming the National Grand Lodge of Roumania in 1880. The next year two Supreme Councils were established, one of the Rite of Memphis 95°, the other of the Ancient and Accepted Scottish Rite 33°. In 1882, a Grand Chapter of the Royal Arch was added; and in 1883, a Grand Lodge and Temple of the Swedenborgian Rite. The Grand Master of all these bodies is (or was) one and the same person. Statistics fail me with respect to the majority of these associations, but

the 'National Grand Lodge of Freemasons' had a following of twenty-seven Lodges before the war; no recent statistics are at present available."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, p. 316.

Russia: Introduction of Masonry.—Imperial patronage.—Persecution and extermination.—"The Order penetrated into Russia about 1731; there existed a Lodge in St. Petersburg [Petrograd] in 1740; another appeared at Riga in 1750, and from these the Order spread. The Tsar Peter III in 1762 extended special benevolence to the fraternity. Chapters of the High Grades were formed in 1765 and received with great enthusiasm. Masonry rose in splendor. . . . Prince Kurakin in 1777 constituted the Grand Lodge of the Russian Empire and Prince Gagarin became Grand Master. . . . Towards the end of the (18th) century, in consequence of events in France, the Empress Katherine II turned her animosity against the institution and the Lodges closed up. As soon as Paul I ascended the throne, he convoked an assembly of Freemasons at Moscow, at which he assisted in person, to discuss the advisability of re-opening the Lodges. After long debate the opinion of Bro. W. de Ungern-Sternberg prevailed, and the Tsar (accordingly) ordained that the Lodges remain closed until circumstances should be more favorable to permit of their being re-opened. The Tsar added, 'Write to me then without compliments and as to a brother.' He next embraced each of the officers and fraternally shook hands with all."—U. Bacci, *Il libro del Massone Italiano*, v. 2, pp. 31-32.—"It was during the reign of the stern, reactionary Czar Nicholas I. (1825-55) that Masonry began to occupy itself with strictly religious and political questions. After the mutiny in 1825 of the officers of the Guards, known as the Decembrists, in which many prominent Masons took an active part, the lodges of the latter were declared to be political, guilty of political sedition and intrigue against the Czar, and were put under the ban. Hundreds of Masons were sent to Siberia, most of them dying there in the convict mines. After this Masonry existed in Russia as an 'underground,' or secret organisation, in frank rebellion with the secret police. In the 'sixties it succumbed, from lack of fresh recruits to keep the movement going. Since that time no evidence has been obtainable that the organisation has come to life again anywhere in Russia, although the Government officials have often announced that lodges have been discovered. The party of the Extreme Right in the Duma, however, recently [in 1913] announced that Masonry had broken out in the Empire again, and should be ruthlessly exterminated."—*Masonic Correspondent*, *Evening Standard* (London), May 1, 1913.—See also RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1752-1816.

Scotland: Antiquity of the craft.—Famous Kilwinning Lodge.—Curious records of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.—"The most complete picture we possess of the early Masonry of Scotland is afforded by the Schaw Statutes of 1508 and 1509. These are Codes of Laws signed and promulgated by William Schaw, Master of the King's Work and General Warden of the Masons, the one directed to the craft in general, the other to the Lodge of Kilwinning. From these two codes we learn very little with regard to the entry of Apprentices—simply that in each case it was booked—but on other points they are more communicative. Thus a Master (or Fellow Craft, which was a term importing the same meaning) was to be received or admitted in the presence of six Masters and two Entered Apprentices: his name and mark were also to be booked, together with the names of those by whom he was admitted, and

of his Intenders (or instructors). No one was to be admitted, according to the earlier Code, without an Essay and sufficient trial of his skill and worthiness in his vocation and craft; or, according to the latter one, without a sufficient Essay and proof of memory and art of craft. A further regulation requires an annual trial of the art of memory and science thereof, of every Fellow Craft and Apprentice, according to their vocations, under a penalty if any of them shall have lost one point thereof. Some of the Lodges held a controlling or directing power over other Lodges in their districts. . . . Patrick Coipland, the Laird of Udaucht, was granted, in 1590, by James VI, the office of Warden and Justice over the Art and Craft of Masonry within the counties of Aberdeen, Banff, and Kincardine. This appointment, however, was clearly made for purposes of a purely local character, and, without a doubt, the powers granted to Coipland were entirely subordinate to the paramount authority of the Warden General. A more prominent holder of a similar office to that held by the Laird of Udaucht, was Sir William St. Clair of Roslin, with regard to whose family and its alleged hereditary connection with the ancient Masonry of Scotland, much disputation and not a little confusion have arisen. There are two 'St. Clair' Charters, neither of which are dated, but the earlier document has been assigned on the best authority to the year 1601, and the later one to 1628. . . . In a letter dated February 27th, 1635, Charles I instructed the Commissioners of the Exchequer to call before them Sir William St. Clair of Roslin and examine him as to his pretending 'anc heritable charge over the Maissons of our said Kingdome.' They were also to order 'that the Maissons be examined by the Magistrates of every town, and the Sheriffs of every schyre.' . . . Two of the Lodges mentioned in the Schaw Statutes (1509), those of Edinburgh and Kilwinning, and with fair probability that of Stirling—the 'third ludge of Scotland'—are in existence at this day. Several Lodges also, who figure in documents of only slightly later date—for example, the St. Clair Charters of 1601 and 1628—after undergoing vicissitudes of good and bad fortune, still live on, and are surrounded by a halo of antiquity, for which a parallel will be vainly sought in any other region of the globe. With the exception of the Lodge of Edinburgh, however, the minutes of which body extend back to July, 1599, none of the existing records of the old Scottish Lodges are of earlier date than the seventeenth century. But the documentary evidence of that period is fairly abundant. . . . It is most probable that, down to the close of the sixteenth century, there was only a single Lodge in each town or city which, as a matter of course, possessed all the rights and privileges belonging to the mason's trade. 'Not the slightest vestige of authentic evidence, however,' as we are well reminded by Mr. Lyon, 'has ever been adduced in support of the legends in regard to the time and place of the institution of the first Scottish Masonic Lodge.' To which may be added, that, while the entire group of really ancient Lodges in the Northern Kingdom are without any documents at all approximating to the dates of their foundation, several of them have occasion to deplore, not only the loss of their oldest records, but also the loss (in a historical sense) of any old records whatever. . . . The Lodge of Dundee asserts a traditional antiquity of more than a thousand years. It also claims as one of its former Masters, David, Earl of Huntington—afterwards King of Scotland. . . . Apart, however, from these genealogical *extravaganzas*, 'our lady'—i.e., St. Mary's—'ludge of

Dundee,' referred to in an indenture of 1583, is almost certainly represented by one of the two old Lodges, Nos. 47 or 49, which (claiming the same traditional antiquity) are working side by side in the mercantile capital of Forfarshire at this day. To the Lodge of Glasgow St. John, for a long time, was conceded (in certain districts) a singular pre-eminence, by virtue of a Charter alleged to have been granted by Malcolm III, King of Scots, so far back as the year 1057. But the earliest authentic record of the Lodge occurs in a document bearing the date of 1620, which refers to its existence in 1613. 'Ancient Stirling' claims a venerable antiquity, as representing the body of Masons who were engaged in the construction of Cambuskenneth Abbey, founded by David I, 1147. But . . . it is probably identified with the 'third lodge in Scotland,' referred to in the Schaw Statutes of 1599, and also with 'the Lodge of Stirling,' one of the parties to the St. Clair Charter of 1628. 'The masowns of the lodge'—of whose successors in an unbroken line we possibly read in the existing 'Lodge' minutes of 1670—are mentioned, under the year 1483, in the Burgh Records of Aberdeen. . . . There was a Masonic Convention at St. Andrews, in January, 1600, summoned by order of the Warden General. Of its proceedings no record has been preserved, but from a minute of the Lodge of Edinburgh, dated November 27th, 1590, we learn that the Lodge of St. Andrews was charged to attend, 'and that the Maisters of Dindie and Perth be alswa warnit to convene.' . . . No other Lodge, as we are rightly told, has such traditions as the Lodge of Kilwinning, and not the least splendid of the series, according to the Rev. W. Lee Ker, is the tradition, 'believed in so far back as 1658, in which the Lodge of Perth declares that the Kilwinning temple of Free Masons was the temple which was first instituted in Scotland, and that its foundation was laid about the year 1100.' . . . The same writer assures us—"that Kilwinning Lodge is the true Mother Lodge of Scotland is not a mere legend. On the contrary, a fair reading of Schaw's Statutes shows it to be a solemn truth." . . . It is quite possible, of course, that Kilwinning may have been the seat of the first Scottish Lodge, without that old court of Operative Masonry being the supreme Lodge in Scotland. . . . The customs of the old Scottish Lodges are of interest, as being in many instances, down to a comparatively recent period, survivals of usages pre-dating the era of Grand Lodges. . . . According to a diarist of the seventeenth century, at the sitting of the Assembly (or Synod) in 1649, 'Ther was something spoken aenat the meason word, which was recommended to the severall presbytries for tryall thereof' (*Chronicle of Fife*, 9). . . . What the old Scottish Mason Word was, however, remains a mystery, and . . . the historians of the Craft are silent on this subject."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 173-180, 182-183.

Spain: Introduction of Masonry.—Death penalty for Masons.—Decay of the craft.—"The first Lodge in Spain was founded in 1728 by the Duke of Wharton at Madrid, and the second was constituted later in the same year by the Grand Lodge of England at Gibraltar. In 1740 Philip V issued an edict against the Craft, and a further decree of Ferdinand VII, in 1751, condemned the Freemasons to death without the formality of a trial. Brighter times came, and in 1767 a Grand Lodge was formed, which in 1780 became a Grand Orient. In 1811 there were four governing Masonic bodies, two Grand Orients, and two Supreme Councils 33°. Another persecution took place in 1814, then came the popular movement under the

patriot Riego (1820), the Jesuits were expelled, the Inquisition abolished, and the old liberal constitution re-granted. For four years the Craft flourished, but a new insurrection broke out, and Ferdinand VII was charged by the populace with being a Freemason himself, because he had not re-established the Inquisition. By the aid of French troops the old prerogatives of the King were restored, and the Fraternity suppressed. Riego was shot, and in 1825, a Lodge at Granada having been forcibly entered, the seven Master Masons present were hanged, and an apprentice who had just been initiated was sent for five years to the galleys. The next period of Spanish Masonry extends to the year 1868, when Queen Isabella was deposed, and throughout the whole of it there is darkness and uncertainty. In 1869 the Craft once more emerged into the light of day, and in 1887 the names are mentioned of the Grand Orient of Spain, the Grand National Orient, and the Symbolical Grand Lodge, with a following of 247,220 and 28 Lodges respectively. These members, if, indeed, even approximately correct, have since declined, and at the present time there exists in Madrid a Grand Orient (or Grand Lodge), with 100 subordinate Lodges and 5,920 members. Grand Lodges were also mentioned as having their seats at Seville and Barcelona, the former with twenty-six, and the latter with fifteen daughter Lodges. These are not now known; but there is a Symbolic Regional Grand Lodge of Catalana-Balcar at Barcelona with 8 Lodges and 200 members, and a Supreme Council at Madrid."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 313-314.—"In Gibraltar there are eight English warranted Lodges, four Scottish, and one Irish. Three R. A. Chapters, one Preceptory, and the Scottish Rite are also working on the Rock."—*Freemason (Toronto)*, May, 1920.

Sweden.—"Masonry in Sweden is a very peculiar product and is an evolution of the Strict Observance or Templar System. It requires a belief in Christianity, and its teachings are a mixture of the Freemasonry of England, of Templarism and the mystic doctrines of Swedenborg."—*Freemason (Toronto)*, Nov., 1920.—"About the middle of the eighteenth century Swedish Masons found the English system of ritual too simple; they desired more pompous ceremonial and an elaboration of the "secrets." King Gustavus III took a hand in working out a new Swedish system, a compound of the materials noted above, plus some elements of "Rosicrucianism" and of a system introduced by the Comte de Clermont, French Grand Master.

Turkey.—"There were Lodges at Smyrna and Aleppo in 1738, and from about ten years later till the present time others have been constituted at irregular intervals by many of the European Grand Lodges or Grand Orients."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, p. 315.

United States: Introduction of Freemasonry.—"Symbolic Masonry was introduced into America by the British, and during the colonial period . . . was under English authority. After the Declaration of Independence in 1776 the question of allegiance became a serious one to American Masons, but they concluded that Masonic must be in accord with civil government, and in 1777 chose their own Grand Master to take the place of the British official. In 1776 a charter was granted to a military lodge in 'the Connecticut line,' called American Union Lodge, erected in Roxbury or wherever its body might remove on the continent of America. At the close of the Revolutionary War the master and a number of the members of this

lodge, of which George Washington was a member, settled at Marietta, Ohio. They had the charter, and reorganized the lodge there in 1790, two years after the settlement of that historic city. In 1816, the original charter having been lost by fire, the lodge was granted a new one by the Grand Lodge of Ohio, under the name of American Union Lodge No. 1, their new charter showing it to be a revival of the old lodge, undoubtedly the first one established under American authority."—W. G. Sibley, *Story of Freemasonry*, pp. 61-62.

United States: Abduction of William Morgan, 1826.—"The history of Freemasonry in the United States would have been uneventful and, for the most part, marked by harmonious development extending over a long period of years had it not been for something which transpired in Batavia, N. Y., in 1826. . . . The disappearance of William Morgan [a disaffected Mason] created a great furore and in due time knowledge of the circumstances was carried to all sections of the United

were the conditions of society and the feelings of men from 1825 to 1830. Middle New York was the storm center but the excitement extended eastward to Vermont and quite extensively through all the New England States. It reached as far west as Northeastern Ohio, and in some portions of that state, lodge halls were destroyed by mobs, jewels and records carried away, members ostracized, their business injured, and families slandered and abused. . . . It was not long until the excitement invaded politics and a political party was organized by individuals who were seeking to place themselves in the limelight and who seized upon the opposition to Freemasonry as the opportunity of accomplishing their purposes. The newly formed party held several conventions and endeavored to enlist the support of prominent statesmen. Desiring a candidate for president they wrote Henry Clay, the great commoner, asking if he was a Mason, and what his views were concerning the institution. His reply was that when a young man,



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Official headquarters of the Scottish Rite Supreme Council

States."—D. Darrah, *Evolution of Freemasonry*, pp. 235, 237.

United States: Aftermath of Morgan abduction.—Anti-Masonic party.—"As a result of the Morgan episode, hatred and opposition to the fraternity spread throughout the country and became almost uncontrollable. In order to arouse the people, and lead them to believe that the Anti-Masonic movement was one of very wide scope, numerous Anti-Masonic papers were published. Four of them were issued from a printing office in Boston under the names of *The Anti-Freemason*, the *Anti-Masonic Christian Herald*, the *Free Press* and the *Anti-Masonic Baptist Herald*. . . . The excitement ran so high that Anti-Masonic spelling books and readers were introduced into the schools and almanacs into the family. . . . So intense did the Anti-Masonic feeling grow that it rocked political parties, sundered churches and religious organizations and was carried into the social life of many communities. Even little children at school took it up and boys were sometimes beaten and abused because they were children of Freemasons. Such

he had become a Freemason but had given the Fraternity no attention for so long a time that he did not think he could gain admission to a lodge. . . . In 1831, the Anti-Masonic party nominated William Wirt and Amos Ellmaker as its candidates for President and Vice President of the United States. At the election each of these men received but seven votes, being the entire electoral vote of Vermont, the only state in the Union that voted for them. So overwhelming was the defeat that the party immediately disbanded and from 1833 was never heard of more. The Anti-Masonic party was purely a political move and however strong it may have become it simply used its vindictive spirit against Freemasonry as a means to an end regardless of the innocence or guilt of the Freemasons themselves. This is the only instance in the whole history of Freemasonry where opposition to the society assumed the form of a political agency."—D. D. Darrah, *Evolution of Freemasonry*, pp. 248-249, 253, 254.—See also NEW YORK: 1826-1832.

United States: Ten presidents, Freemasons.—Polyglot Masonry in New York City.—"It is a

lamentable fact that the early records of many of the Lodges existing in the American colonies previous to the Revolutionary War are lost to history. In the Royal forces at Louisburg, Crown Point, and Lake George were Lodges in which many of the King's soldiers (who were Americans) were initiated. Previous to the formation of several of the Grand Lodges there were no returns made as to many of the names of initiates, and military Lodges rarely ever made any such returns. This is a lamentable thing in Masonic history."—G. P. Brown, *Old American Masons (Freemason, London, July 10, 1913)*.—Darrah, in his "Evolution of Freemasonry" (Chicago, 1922), states that the authentic record to date gives ten presidents of the United States as members of the Masonic fraternity: George Washington, Andrew Jackson, James K. Polk, James Buchanan, Andrew Johnson, James A. Garfield, William McKinley, Theodore Roosevelt, William H. Taft, and Warren G. Harding.

West Indies: British and French.—"In the large group of islands lying east of Central and north of South America, there are 45 British Lodges, and a solitary Irish one. The districts where Masonry flourishes with the greatest luxuriance are Jamaica, Barbadoes, Bermuda, and Trinidad. Lodges holding French charters are (or were) existing at Martinique and Guadeloupe. A Grand Lodge of Cuba was established in the early part of the last century, and after a most chequered career was once more revived and reorganized in 1899. During its latest dormancy, however, a Gran Oriente Nacional sprang into temporary existence. The Grand Lodge had, in 1901, a following of 102 subordinates, with a total membership of 6,000. In Porto Rico, the other island in what was formerly the *Spanish West Indies*, a Grand Lodge was formed at Mayaguez in 1885. After a slumber of three years, this body met in 1899, and transferred its seat to San Juan. The Gran Logia Soberana De Puerto Rico has 15 Lodges within its jurisdiction, and a membership of 396. This is now under the U. S. A. Hispaniola, Hayti, or San Domingo, formerly included in the *French West Indies*, is now divided into two Negro Republics, one of which—in the west—has taken the name of Hayti, and the other—in the east—that of San [Santo] Domingo. In the former there are two Grand Orientes, the older of which (1836), at Port-au-Prince, has 75 Lodges on its roll; of the junior body (1886) no particulars are forthcoming. In the district now called San Domingo there is a Grand Orient (1866) with 13, and a Grand Lodge (1891) with 13 Lodges. If we go back, however, to the second half of the eighteenth century, it will be found that what is now one of the most popular and widely diffused of the vast array of Rites which claim to be Masonic, was cradled in what was then indifferently known as the island of Hispaniola, Hayti or San Domingo. Among the French colonists were four men, Stephen Morin, Germain Hacquet, the Comte Alexander F. A. de Grasse Tilly, and Jean Baptiste Marie de la Hogue. . . . In 1761 Stephen Morin received a patent from the Grand Council of the Emperors of the East and West, and the Grand Lodge of France, then temporarily united, power being given him to establish a symbolic Lodge, also to confer the higher degrees and the rank of Inspector. The 'Emperors of the East and West' controlled a Rite consisting of twenty-five degrees, which has ordinarily been known as the Rite of Perfection, or of Heredom. In 1763 Morin went from Paris to San Domingo, which he made his headquarters, or Grand Orient, for the 'High De-

grees' in the New World. He also created a Council of Princes of the Royal Secret (25°) at Kingston, Jamaica, in 1770, and appointed numerous Deputy Inspectors General for the purpose of propagating the Rite, granting them roving commissions with powers very similar to his own. Of the filiation of these powers there is no complete record, but the first Deputy Inspector appointed by Morin was Henry A. Francken, of Kingston, Jamaica, who afterwards went to New York, and established a Lodge of Perfection at Albany, in that State. At the outbreak of the revolution at San Domingo in 1791 (after which nothing further is heard of Stephen Morin), the French settlers were obliged to flee, and many of them sought refuge in America. The Comte de Grasse Tilly and his father-in-law, J. B. M. de la Hogue, were created Deputy Inspectors General at Charleston, in 1796, and a similar rank was conferred upon Germain Hacquet at Philadelphia in 1798. Down to the year 1801, the highest degree known either in the West Indies or America was that of Prince of the Royal Secret, the twenty-fifth and last of the Rite of Perfection. But on the 31st of May, 1801, there was organized a new governing body of a new Rite, into which the Rite of Perfection had been transformed. It was named the Supreme Council of Sovereign Grand Inspectors General of the Thirty-Third Degree for the United States of America. It recognized the 'Constitutions' of 1762, the 'Secret Constitutions,' and the 'Constitutions of 1786.' The last named are the supreme law of the Rite, and purport to have been sanctioned by Frederick the Great, as its Governor and head. Whether, indeed, the 'Grand Constitutions of 1786' more properly belong to the authentic, or to the legendary, history of this Rite is a question that has been fiercely debated. . . . De Grasse Tilly, as his patent informs us, was a member of the Supreme Council at Charleston, and Grand Commander for life of the *French West Indies*, in 1802, at the close of which year he returned with de la Hogue to San Domingo, and founded a Supreme Council at Port-au-Prince. Both men were then *Sovereign Grand Inspectors General* (S. G. I. G.)—*i.e.*, members of the 33rd degree: In 1803 the Negroes again attained the upper hand, and the Whites were once more driven out of San Domingo. Hacquet arrived in Paris early in 1804, and was adroit enough to induce the Grand Orient of France to accept the twenty-five degrees of the Rite of Perfection. . . . In September, 1804, De Grasse Tilly, aided by de la Hogue and three other S. G. I. G., who had also come from San Domingo, organized and established a Supreme Council for France at Paris; and in the following month a Grand Scots Lodge. The Grand Orient of France thought it advisable to make a Union with these bodies, and by a concordat the Grand Scots Lodge was merged in the Grand Orient, and the Supreme Council became a co-ordinate branch of it. But this arrangement came to an end in 1805. All the Supreme Councils of the so-called Ancient and Accepted Scottish Rite in the world trace their descent from Charleston, De Grasse, the Supreme Council, or the Grand Orient of France."—R. F. Gould, *Concise history of Freemasonry*, pp. 326-320.—See also ROSICRUCIANS.

MASORETES, or Massorettes.—When the Hebrew language had ceased to be a living language the "so-called Masorettes, or Jewish scribes, in the sixth century after the Christian era, invented a system of symbols which should represent the pronunciation of the Hebrew of the Old Testament as read, or rather chanted, at the time in the great synagogue of Tiberias in Palestine. It

is in accordance with this Masoretic mode of pronunciation that Hebrew is now taught."—A. H. Sayce, *Fresh light from the ancient monuments*, ch. 3.—"Massora denotes, in general, tradition . . . but more especially it denotes the tradition concerning the text of the Bible. Hence those who made this special tradition their object of study were called Massoretes. . . . As there was an eastern and western, or Babylonian and Palestinian Talmud, so likewise there developed itself a two-fold Massora,—a Babylonian, or eastern, and a Palestinian, or western: the more important is the former. At Tiberias the study of the Massora had been in a flourishing condition for a long time. Here lived the famous Massorete, Aaron ben-Moses ben-Asher, commonly called Ben-Asher, in the beginning of the tenth century, who finally fixed the so-called Massoretic text."—*Schaff-Herzog encyclopedia of religious knowledge*.

MASPIANS, one of the tribes of the ancient Persians.—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, bk. 8, ch. 3.

MASQUE, English. See **MUSIC**: Modern: 1750-1870.

MASS: In Roman Catholic church.—Mass is the ceremony used in celebrating the sacrament of the Eucharist.

6th-7th centuries.—Definite formation of doctrine by Gregory the Great.—"In the sixth century and in the early part of the seventh, doctrines were clearly enunciated which had been abundantly foreshadowed by earlier writers, but had not been fitted into an intelligible and practical system. These were especially the doctrine of purgatory and the sacrifice of the mass. . . . By the sacrifice of the mass the advantages of Christ's death were constantly applied, not merely to the sin of the world in general, but to specified objects; the believer was brought into closest contact with the great act of redemption and a center was placed around which the life of the individual and the authority of the hierarchy could be brought into relation." In the words of Gregory the Great who late in the sixth century formulated the canon of the mass as it is known today: "It should be considered that it is safer to do to men while one is living, the good which one hopes will be done by others after one's death. It is more blessed to depart free than to seek liberty after chains. We ought with our whole mind, despite the present world, especially since we see it already passing away. We ought to immolate to God the daily sacrifice of our tears, the daily offerings of His flesh and blood. For this offering peculiarly preserves the soul from eternal death, and it renews to us in a mystery the death of the Only Begotten, who although being risen from the dead, dieth no more, and death hath no more dominion over Him (Rom. 6:0); yet while in Himself He liveth immortal and incorruptible, for us He is immolated again in this mystery of the sacred oblation. For it is His body that is there given, His flesh that is divided for the salvation of the people, His blood that is poured, no longer into the hands of unbelievers, but into the mouths of the faithful. For this let us ever estimate what this sacrifice is for us, which for our absolution ever imitates the passion of the only begotten Son. For what one of the faithful can have any doubt that at the very hour of the offering (*immolatio*), at the word of the priest, the heavens are opened, the choirs of angels are present at the mystery of Jesus Christ, the lowest things are united to the highest, earthly things with heavenly, and from the invisible and the visible there is made one?" (Gregory the Great, *Dialogorum libri IV, de Vita et Miraculis*

Patrum Italicorum, IV, 56)."—J. C. Ayer, *Source book for ancient church history*, pp. 621-622.

7th-14th centuries.—Development of plenary missal.—Relation of doctrine of mass to medieval Christian thought.—"Indelible character" of priesthood essential.—Miracle of "transubstantiation."—Chantry priests.—Prowess of clergy and new philosophy.—Denial by heretical sects.—"The pre-eminence of the Roman See led to the substitution of the Roman rite for the Hispano-Gallican, the other great Liturgy of the West, which now survives only in Salamanca and Toledo under the name of Mozarabic where it was installed by Cardinal Ximenes. The Gallican rite ceased to exist in the ninth century, although it continued to leave a very definite impress on the medieval rituals of England, France and Germany, which were nominally Roman with Hispano-Gallic details. In the East, the political supremacy of Constantinople, and its doctrinal orthodoxy at the time of the great heresies, of which the mystery of the Incarnation was so long the storm-center, gave it also a liturgical ascendancy which established its ritual as the standard, according to which all Liturgies of the Orthodox church were constructed. Some of these in their very primitive form may still be found among the Nestorians and Monophysites. . . . The ancient books containing the rubrics and prayers to be observed and recited in the Mass . . . were combined into one volume in the ninth century. . . . The corporate volume was called a plenary Missal, because it contained, in full, all the prayers and lessons and rubrics necessary for a low Mass."—J. Walsh, *Mass and vestments of the Catholic church*, pp. 54-56.—"The theory of spiritual substances was very welcome to the Christian thinkers of the Middle Ages, since it confirmed their belief in a human soul separate from the mortal body and in a host of dreams and angels. That substance was something distinct from external appearance and particular qualities was also an attractive thought to them. It enabled them to explain that in the sacrament of the mass, while the bread and wine might retain their outward qualities such as are apparent to the senses of sight, taste, and touch, yet their inner nature had been 'transubstantiated' into the body and blood of Christ. This illustrates what important bearings logic or dialectic might have upon theology. . . . While the medieval Church recognized the great importance of having well-educated men of pure life and attractive personality in its priesthood, it regarded neither preaching ability nor executive capacity nor moral conduct as the essential thing for one entrusted with the care of souls. The essential was divine grace and power, and this the priest was believed to receive when he was ordained by the bishop. Henceforth, regardless of his natural capacity or incapacity, he possessed 'an indelible character' and could perform the sacraments upon which the obtaining of divine grace by his parishioners depended. The Church held that man could not save his soul by his own efforts; that he must also receive divine grace through partaking of the sacraments. In the *Sentences* of Peter Lombard, written in the twelfth century, we find the number of sacraments stated as seven, itself a sacred number. Two could be performed only by the bishop; namely, the ordination of priests, already mentioned, and the confirmation of children in their membership in the Church when they become old enough to distinguish good and evil. Of the five which an ordinary priest could perform, three, like the two already described, applied to some important epoch in life and would normally be received but once by a

given person; namely, baptism into the Church as soon as feasible after birth, the marriage ceremony which in the Middle Ages could be performed only by the clergy, and extreme unction just before death. The two remaining sacraments of the mass and penance were often repeated—indeed, the oftener the better. The mass was the central feature of the church service. Often the only preaching was done by the bishop when he paid a visit. By the saying of mass the priest was believed to perform a great miracle known as 'transubstantiation,' by which the bread and wine were changed into the body and blood of Christ and his memorable sacrifice of himself on the cross for sinful humanity was renewed and perpetuated for the benefit of those present and partaking of the host or consecrated bread. It became the custom for the clergy alone to drink the wine for fear lest some drops of the precious blood might be spilled in passing the cup about among the rude laity. It was explained to them that the bread or body contained full virtue. Indeed, the mere celebration of the sacrifice of the mass by the priest was beneficial and the people only occasionally actually received the communion. Moreover, masses might be said for the soul of an absent or dead person. In fact there was so great a demand and so much money left for the repetition of masses for such purposes that some priests had no parishes under their care, but devoted their entire time to chanting private masses and so were called 'chantry priests.' . . . These seven sacraments meant everything to medieval men. Most of them never questioned but that water could be made holy, that there were sacred places which it did one good to visit as a pilgrim, that bones of dead saints had wondrous virtues, and that living priests could perform such miracles as the mass. In their control of these sacraments the clergy had a tremendous weapon to use against the laity. By excommunication they cut off an individual from receiving the sacraments, besides, perhaps, launching additional curses and anathemas against him. By an interdict the clergy were ordered to cease the celebration of some or all of the sacraments in a given locality. . . . Such measures were effective so long as the people believed in the sacramental power of the priesthood. But what could be done if an entire region lost faith in the Church, its clergy, and its ceremonies? Such was threatening to become the situation in southern France when Innocent became pope. With the rise of towns, travel, and trade, and the reception of new ideas in science and philosophy, there had come in also through the eleventh and twelfth centuries strange religious doctrines and practices. Often they spread by the same routes as trade. The leading heresy of this period—that of the Cathari or Patarins or Albigensians, as they finally came to be called from the town of Albi in southern France where they were especially prominent—spread from the East across the Balkans to the Adriatic, and then across Lombardy to Provence and Languedoc. Here they flourished most, but they were also frequently heard of here and there in Germany, Flanders, Brittany, and other parts of northern France. . . . Another prominent heretical sect in southern France were the Waldensians, some of whom still survive. They were followers of Peter Waldo . . . [who] was not an ordained priest. When his disciples began to criticize the lives of the bishops and priests who did not adopt the life of poverty, and to say that laymen and women could preach, and that a prayer to God made in a barn was as likely to be heard as one made in a cathedral, and that the masses said for the dead did them no

good, and when they began to refuse to pay tithes, the Church began to condemn them as heretics. . . . Wyclif . . . proclaimed 'the universal priesthood of believers' and denied the special sacramental power of the clergy. Some of the seven sacraments, like confirmation and extreme unction, he rejected entirely, and he even dared to attack the theory of transubstantiation in the mass. He denied any material change in the bread and wine or any priestly miracle, and taught that in the sacrament one does not actually partake of the body of Christ, but sees Him through faith and communes with Him in spirit. . . . In 1381 his denial of transubstantiation lost him the favor of John of Gaunt and his position at Oxford."—L. Thorndike, *History of medieval Europe*, pp. 380, 438, 404.

16th-19th centuries.—Development of missal. —Influence of Reformation on doctrine of Church of England.—Position of Oxford School, nineteenth century.—"The Roman Missal . . . [had been] published and substituted for other missals because, with the exception of the Canon of the Mass, which had remained unchanged from the time of Pope Gregory the Great, the older missals had introduced into the Mass many unauthorized changes and additions which were departures from the purity and simplicity of the Gregorian Liturgy. . . . [Therefore] the Council of Trent (Session XVIII) February 16, 1562, entrusted the correction of the Missal to a special committee, and after its adjournment, to the reigning Pope, Pius V. This Pope assigned the duty to certain learned scholars, who, after a studious research and comparison of the various liturgical manuscripts in the Vatican library, and consultation with the experts in sacred Liturgy, submitted their report to the Pope. The report became a Roman Missal, and was published with a Papal Bull, July 14, 1570. . . . [The Pope] forbade any priest, subject to the Roman rite, to say or sing Mass otherwise than according to the formula of the Roman Missal, and he ordered that all other Missals be rejected and their use discontinued. . . . Those Missals . . . [might], but not necessarily, be retained, which remained in uninterrupted use for two hundred years, from the time of their approval by the Holy See to the adoption of the new Missal in 1570. Under this exception the Carthusians and Dominicans use their own Missal. Others, like the Franciscans, have a special mass-book called the Roman-Seraphic Missal, because whilst conforming to the Roman Missal in the manner of saying Mass they are allowed special Masses for the saints of their own Order and also special Prefaces. . . . As the Vulgate version of the New Testament did not appear till 1590-1592, Pius V. followed in his Missal the reading of the version called Itala. Afterwards, without consulting the Holy See, certain publishers issued new missals adapted to the Vulgate. The Pope interdicted these missals, and restored the Roman Missal to its former integrity and gave copious comments on its rubrics. Urban VIII. (1634) adapted the Roman Missal to the Vulgate. Leo XIII. (1884) issued a Missal which he called typical of all other editions. It contains the following: the text of the rubrics according to the changes made in 1882; the Masses for the Universal church; the votive Masses conceded in 1883; the Diocesan and Provincial Masses allowed by the Holy See in their proper place; the chant to which all other Missals must conform; a new revision of the rubrics in harmony with recent decrees as late as 1807."—J. Walsh, *Mass and vestments of the Catholic church*, pp. 57-59.

—"It was because the reformers held the doctrine known as 'the sacrifice of the Mass' to be neither 'primitive' nor 'protestant' that they ended by evicting the word 'mass' from the Liturgy of the Church of England and from the lips of her people."—J. H. Round, *Sacrifice of the mass (Nineteenth Century, May, 1897)*.—In the nineteenth century "a certain sacrificial character is attributed by the Oxford School to the Eucharist. . . . The Bishop of Brechin argues that, as the Same Body, which is naturally in heaven, is 'supra-locally and mystically' taken and received, its 'faculty of impetration'—that is, its intercessory appeal—continues, while yet there is no repetition of the sacrifice of the Cross. The twenty-first of the Articles affirms that masses for 'the remission of pain or guilt' are 'blasphemous fables and dangerous conceits.' Pusey, in a letter to Bishop Bloomfield, states that he had termed the Eucharist a proprietary sacrifice, but in the sense that the Church in this act pleads the efficacy of the one sacrifice. As to the adoration of the Lord in the Eucharist, he cites with approval a saying of Andrews that wherever Christ is present, He is 'truly to be adored.' . . . It is evident, not only from his writings, but from his practise . . . that he made such an approach to the Roman Catholic system, doctrinal and practical, as is certainly not compatible with the principles and spirit of the Reformers."—G. P. Fisher, *History of Christian doctrine*, pp. 465-466.

ALSO IN: A. Fortescue, *Mass (Catholic encyclopedia, v. 9, pp. 700-800)*.—A. Harnack, *History of dogma*.—F. E. Brightman, *Eastern liturgies*.—J. Martineau, *Seat of authority in religion, bk. 4*.—C. Gore, *Dissertations*.

MASSACHUSET INDIANS. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Eastern woodlands area.

MASSACHUSETTS: Geographic description.—Area.—Population.—Massachusetts, belonging to the New England group of the United States, presents an irregular eastern coast line to the Atlantic ocean. To the north of the state lie Vermont and New Hampshire, to the west, New York, and on the south, Connecticut, Rhode Island and the Atlantic ocean. About one-half of the coast line, which is nearly 300 miles in length, belongs to Cape Cod, the "great right arm" of Massachusetts. Inland, the surface of the country is hilly and rocky except along the water courses, and in the west, the elevations are mountainous, the loftiest being Greylock mountain in northern Berkshire, 3,500 feet above sea-level. The climate of the state is generally called "severe" although on the southeastern coast and islands it is modified by the gulf stream. The total area is about 8,266 square miles of which 227 square miles are water surface. The population in 1920 was 3,852,356, an increase of 14.4 per cent since 1910 as against 20 per cent in the previous ten years.

Resources.—The state is one of the wealthiest in the union and has developed its resources chiefly along the line of manufacturing, although most of the raw material required is imported. The earlier history of Massachusetts was associated with a renown for maritime commerce which has become much less important since the Civil War, due partly to the general paralysis of American foreign trade at that time and partly to the unusual facilities for industrial growth in the state. Important industries are textiles, boots and shoes, and writing paper. Agriculture is secondary to manufacturing, the soil being little adapted to specialized efforts in its cultivation. A few valleys of limited area, however, can boast very rich

soil. Granite and stone are the chief mineral products. The fishing industry is important, Boston and Gloucester forming the main centers. Education has always been considered one of Massachusetts' unusual assets.—See also U.S.A.: Economic map.

Name.—The name Massachusetts, so far as I have observed, is first mentioned by Captain Smith in his 'Description of New England,' 1616. He spells the word variously, but he appears to use the term Massachusetts and Massachewset to denote the country, while he adds a final 's' when he is speaking of the inhabitants. He speaks of Massachusetts Mount and Massachusetts River, using the word also in its possessive form; while in another place he calls the former 'the high mountain of Massachusit.' To this mountain, on his map, he gives the English name, of 'Chevyot Hills.' Hutchinson (i. 460) supposes the Blue Hills of Milton to be intended. He says that a small hill near Squantum, the former seat of a great Indian sachem, was called Massachusetts Hill, or Mount Massachusetts, down to his time. Cotton, in his Indian vocabulary, says the word means 'a hill in the form of an arrow's head.' See, also, Neal's 'New England,' ii. 215, 216. In the Massachusetts charter the name is spelled in three or four different ways, to make sure of a description of the territory."—C. Deane, *New England (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 3, p. 342, footnote)*.

1602.—Bay visited by Gosnold. See AMERICA: 1602-1605.

1605.—Bay visited by Champlain. See CANADA: 1603-1605.

1606-1620.—Part of King James' grant to Plymouth Company. See AMERICA: Map of King James' grants.

1620.—Pilgrim Fathers.—Whence and why they came to New England. See INDEPENDENTS OR SEPARATISTS; CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH: Origin and early growth.

1620.—Voyage of the Mayflower.—Landing of the Pilgrims.—Founding of Plymouth colony.—The congregation of John Robinson, at Leyden, having, after long efforts, procured from the London Company for Virginia a patent or grant of land which proved useless to them, and having closed a hard bargain with certain merchants of London who supplied to some limited extent the means necessary for their emigration and settlement (see INDEPENDENTS OR SEPARATISTS: 1617-1620), were prepared, in the summer of 1620, to send forth the first pilgrims from their community, across the ocean, seeking freedom in the worship of God. "The means at command provided only for sending a portion of the company; and 'those that stayed, being the greater number, required the pastor to stay with them,' while Elder Brewster accompanied, in the pastor's stead, the almost as numerous minority who were to constitute a church by themselves; and in every church, by Robinson's theories, the 'governing elder,' next in rank to the pastor and the teacher, must be 'apt to teach.' A small ship,—the 'Speedwell,'—of some 60 tons burden, was bought and fitted out in Holland, and early in July those who were ready for the formidable voyage, being 'the youngest and strongest part,' left Leyden for embarkation at Delt-Haven, nearly 20 miles to the southward,—sad at the parting, 'but,' says Bradford, 'they knew that they were pilgrims.' About the middle of the second week of the month the vessel sailed for Southampton, England. On the arrival there they found the 'Mayflower,' a ship of about 180 tons burden, which had been hired in London,

awaiting them with their fellow passengers,—partly laborers employed by the merchants, partly Englishmen like-minded with themselves, who were disposed to join the colony. Mr. Weston, also, was there, to represent the merchants; but, when discussion arose about the terms of the contract, he went off in anger, leaving the contract unsigned, and the arrangements so incomplete that the Pilgrims were forced to dispose of sixty pounds' worth of their not abundant stock of provisions to meet absolutely necessary charges. The ships, with perhaps 120 passengers, put to sea about August 5/15, with hopes of the colony being well settled before winter; but the 'Speedwell' was soon pronounced too leaky to proceed without being overhauled, and so both ships put in at Dartmouth, after eight days' sail. Repairs were made, and before the end of another week they started again; but when about a hundred leagues beyond Land's End, Reynolds, the master of the 'Speedwell,' declared her in imminent danger of sinking, so that both ships again put about. On reaching Plymouth Harbor it was decided to abandon the smaller vessel, and thus to send back those of the company whom such a succession of mishaps had disheartened. . . . It was not known till later that the alarm over the 'Speedwell's' condition was owing to deception practised by the master and crew. . . . At length, on Wednesday, September 6/16, the Mayflower left Plymouth, and nine weeks from the following day, on November 9/19, sighted the eastern coast of the flat, but at that time well-wooded shores of Cape Cod. She took from Plymouth 102 passengers, besides the master and crew; on the voyage one man-servant died and one child was born, making 102 (73 males and 29 females) who reached their destination. Of these, the colony proper consisted of 34 adult males, 18 of them accompanied by their wives and 14 by minor children (20 boys and 8 girls); besides these, there were 3 maid-servants and 19 men-servants, sailors, and craftsmen,—5 of them only half-grown boys,—who were hired for temporary service. Of the 34 men who were the nucleus of the colony, more than half are known to have come from Leyden; in fact, but 4 of the 34 are certainly known to be of the Southampton accessions. . . . And whither were they bound? As we have seen, a patent was secured in 1609 in Mr. Wincob's name; but 'God so disposed as he never went nor they ever made use of this patent,' says Bradford,—not however making it clear when the intention of colonizing under this instrument was abandoned. The 'merchant adventurers' while negotiating at Leyden seem to have taken out another patent from the Virginia Company, in February, 1620, in the names of John Peirce and of his associates; and this was more probably the authority under which the Mayflower voyage was undertaken. As the Pilgrims had known before leaving Holland of an intended grant of the northern parts of Virginia to a new company,—the Council of New England,—when they found themselves off Cape Cod, 'the patent they had being for Virginia and not for New England, which belonged to another Government, with which the Virginia Company had nothing to do,' they changed the ship's course, with intent, says Bradford, 'to find some place about Hudson's River for their habitation,' and so fulfil the conditions of their patent; but difficulties of navigation and opposition from the master and crew caused the exiles, after half a day's voyage, to retrace their course and seek a resting-place on the nearest shore. . . . Their radical change of destination ex-

posed the colonists to a new danger. As soon as it was known, some of the hired laborers threatened to break loose (upon landing) from their engagements, and to enjoy full license, as a result of the loss of the authority delegated in the Virginia Company's patent. The necessity of some mode of civil government had been enjoined on the Pilgrims in the farewell letter from their pastor, and was now availed of to restrain these insurgents and to unite visibly the well-affected. A compact, which has often been eulogized as the first written constitution in the world, was drawn up. . . . Of the 41 signers to this compact, 34 were the adults called above the nucleus of the colony, and seven were servants or hired workmen; the seven remaining adult males of the latter sort were perhaps too ill to sign with the rest (all of them soon died), or the list of signers may be imperfect. This needful preliminary step was taken on Saturday, November 11/21, by which time the Mayflower had rounded the Cape and found shelter in the quiet harbor on which now lies the village of Provincetown; and probably on the same day they 'chose, or rather confirmed,' as Bradford has it, . . . Mr. John Carver governor for the ensuing year. On the same day an armed delegation visited the neighboring shore, finding no inhabitants. There were no attractions, however, for a permanent settlement, nor even accommodations for a comfortable encampment while such a place was being sought." Some days were spent in exploring Cape Cod Bay, and the harbor since known as Plymouth Bay was chosen for the settlement of the colony. The exploring party landed, as is believed, at the famous Rock, on Monday December 11/21. "Through an unfortunate mistake, originating in the last century, the 22d has been commonly adopted as the true date. . . . Tradition divides the honor of being the first to step on Plymouth Rock between John Alden and Mary Chilton, but the date of their landing must have been subsequent to December 11 [N. S. 21]." It was not till the end of the week, December 16/26, that the Mayflower was anchored in the chosen haven. "The selection of a site and the preparation of materials, in uncertain weather, delayed till Monday, the 25th [Jan. 4, N. S.] the beginning of 'the first house for common use, to receive them and their goods.' Before the new year, house-lots were assigned to families, and by the middle of January most of the company had left the ship for a home on land."—F. B. Dexter, *Pilgrim church and Plymouth colony (Narrative and Critical history of America, v. 3, ch. 8, with footnotes)*.—"Before the Pilgrims landed, they by a solemn instrument founded the Puritan republic. The tone of this instrument and the success of its authors may afford a lesson to revolutionists who sever the present from the past with the guillotine, fling the illustrious dead out of their tombs, and begin history again with the year one. These men had been wronged as much as the Jacobins. 'In the name of God. Amen. We whose names are underwritten, the loyal subjects of our dread Sovereign Lord King James, by the grace of God of Great Britain and Ireland, defender of the faith, etc., having undertaken, for the glory of God and advancement of the Christian faith, and honour of our king and country, a voyage to plant the first colony in the northern parts of Virginia, do by these presents solemnly and mutually, in the presence of God and of one another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civil body politic for our better ordering and preservation, and for the furtherance of the ends aforesaid; and by virtue hereof to exact, constitute, and frame such

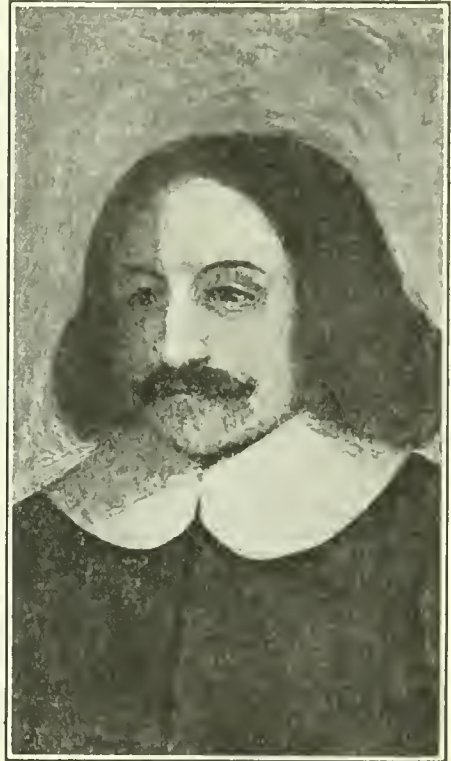
just and equal laws, ordinances and acts, constitutions and offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meet for the general good of the colony, unto which we promise all due submission and obedience.' And then follows the roll of plebeian names, to which the Roll of Battle Abbey is a poor record of nobility. There are points in history at which the spirit which moves the whole shows itself more clearly through the outward frame. This is one of them. Here we are passing from the feudal age of privilege and force to the age of due submission and obedience, to just and equal offices and laws, for our better ordering and preservation. In this political covenant of the Pilgrim fathers lies the American Declaration of Independence. From the American Declaration of Independence was borrowed the French Declaration of the Rights of Man. France, rushing ill-prepared, though with overweening confidence, on the great problems of the eighteenth century, shattered not her own hopes alone, but nearly at the same moment the Puritan Republic, breaking the last slight link that bound it to feudal Europe, and placing modern society firmly and tranquilly on its new foundation. To the free States of America we owe our best assurance that the oldest, the most famous, the most cherished of human institutions are not the life, nor would their fall be the death, of social man; that all which comes of Charlemagne, and all which comes of Constantine, might go to the tombs of Charlemagne and Constantine, and yet social duty and affection, religion and worship, free obedience to good government, free reverence for just laws, continue as before. They who have achieved this have little need to talk of Bunker's Hill."—G. Smith, *On the foundation of the American colonies (Lectures on the study of history)*.—See also U. S. A.: 1607-1620.

Also in: W. Bradford, *History of Plymouth plantation (Massachusetts Historical Society Collections, 4th series, v. 3, bk. 1)*.—H. M. Dexter, ed., *Mourt's Relation, or Journal of the Plantation at Plymouth*.—J. S. Barry, *History of Massachusetts, v. 1, ch. 3*.

1620-1776.—Early laws. See U. S. A.: 1620-1776.

1621.—First year of the Plymouth colony and its sufferings.—Pierce patent.—Naming of Plymouth.—"The labor of providing habitations had scarcely begun, when sickness set in, the consequence of exposure and bad food. Within four months it carried off nearly half their number. Six died in December, eight in January, seventeen in February, and thirteen in March. At one time during the winter, only six or seven had strength enough left to nurse the dying and bury the dead. Destitute of every provision, which the weakness and the daintiness of the invalid require, the sick lay crowded in the unwholesome vessel, or in half-built cabins heaped around with snow-drifts. The rude sailors refused them even a share of those coarse sea-stores which would have given a little variety to their diet, till disease spread among the crew, and the kind ministrations of those whom they had neglected and affronted brought them to a better temper. The dead were interred in a bluff by the water-side, the marks of burial being carefully effaced, lest the natives should discover how the colony had been weakened. . . . Meantime, courage and fidelity never gave out. The well carried out the dead through the cold and snow, and then hastened back from the burial to wait on the sick; and as the sick began to recover, they took the places of those whose strength had been exhausted." In March, the

first intercourse of the colonists with the few natives of the region was opened, through Samoset, a friendly Indian, who had learned from fishermen on the more eastern coast to speak a little English. Soon afterwards, they made a treaty of friendship and alliance with Massasoit, the chief of the nearest tribe, which treaty remained in force for fifty-four years. On April fifth the Mayflower set sail on her homeward voyage, "with scarcely more than half the crew which had navigated her to America, the rest having fallen victims to the epidemic of the winter. . . . She carried back not one of the emigrants, dispiriting as were the hardships which they had endured, and those they had still in prospect." Soon after the departure of the Mayflower, Carver, the Governor,



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WILLIAM BRADFORD

died. "Bradford was chosen to the vacant office, with Isaac Allerton, at his request, for his Assistant. Forty-six of the colonists of the Mayflower were now dead,—28 out of the 48 adult men. Before the arrival of the second party of emigrants in the autumn, the dead reached the number of 51, and only an equal number survived the first miseries of the enterprise. . . . Before the winter set in, tidings from England had come, to relieve the long year's lonesomeness; and a welcome addition was made to the sadly diminished number. The Fortune, a vessel of 55 tons' burden, reached Plymouth after a passage of four months, with Cushman and some 30 other emigrants. The men who now arrived outnumbered those of their predecessors who were still living. . . . Some were old friends of the colonists, at Leyden. Others were persons who added to the moral as well as to the numerical strength of the settlement. But there were not wanting such

as became subjects for anxiety and coercion." The Fortune also brought to the colonists a patent from the Council for New England, as it was commonly known—the corporation into which the old Plymouth Company, or North Virginia branch of the Virginia Company, had been transformed. (See NEW ENGLAND: 1620-1623.) "Upon lands of this corporation Bradford and his companions had sat down without leave, and were of course liable to be summarily expelled. Informed of their position by the return of the Mayflower to England in the spring, their friends obtained from the Council a patent which was brought by the Fortune. It was taken out in the name of 'John Pierce, citizen and cloth-worker of London, and his associates,' with the understanding that it should be held in trust for the Adventurers, of whom Pierce was one. It allowed 100 acres of land to every colonist gone and to go to New England, at a yearly rent of two shillings an acre after seven years. It granted 1,500 acres for public uses, and liberty to 'hawk, fish, and fowl'; to 'truck, trade, and traffic with the savages'; to 'establish such laws and ordinances as are for their better government, and the same, by such officer or officers as they shall by most voices elect and choose, to put in execution'; and 'to encounter, expulse, repel, and resist by force of arms' all intruders. . . . The instrument was signed for the Council by the Duke of Hamilton, the Duke of Lenox, the Earl of Warwick, Lord Sheffield, and Sir Ferdinando Gorges. . . . The precise time of the adoption of the name which the settlement has borne since its first year is not known. Plymouth is the name recorded on Smith's map as having been given to the spot by Prince Charles. It seems very likely that the emigrants had with them this map, which had been much circulated. . . . Morton (Memorial, 56) assigns as a reason for adopting it that 'Plymouth in Old England was the last town they left in their native country, and they received many kindnesses from some Christians there.' In Mourt, 'Plymouth' and 'the now well-defended town of New Plymouth' are used as equivalent. Later, the name Plymouth came to be appropriated to the town, and New Plymouth to the Colony."—J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 1, ch. 5, and footnote.

ALSO IN: J. A. Goodwin, *Pilgrim republic*, ch. 9-16.—F. Baylies, *Historical memoir of the colony of New Plymouth*, v. 1, ch. 5-6.—A. Young, *Chronicles of the Pilgrim Fathers*.

1621-1664.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1621-1776.

1622-1628.—Weston at Wessagusset, Morton at Merrymount, and other settlements.—"During the years immediately following the voyage of the Mayflower, several attempts at settlement were made about the shores of Massachusetts bay. One of the merchant adventurers, Thomas Weston, took it into his head in 1622 to separate from his partners and send out a colony of seventy men on his own account. These men made a settlement at Wessagusset, some twenty-five miles north of Plymouth. They were a disorderly, thriftless rabble, picked up from the London streets, and soon got into trouble with the Indians; after a year they were glad to get back to England as best they could, and in this the Plymouth settlers willingly aided them. In June of that same year 1622 there arrived on the scene a picturesque but ill understood personage, Thomas Morton, 'of Clifford's Inn, Gent.,' as he tells on the title-page of his quaint and delightful book, the 'New English Canaan.' Bradford disparagingly

says that he 'had been a kind of petiefogger of Furniell's Inn'; but the churchman Samuel Maverick declares that he was a 'gentleman of good qualitie.' He was an agent of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, and came with some thirty followers to make the beginnings of a royalist and Episcopal settlement in the Massachusetts bay. He was naturally regarded with ill favour by the Pilgrims as well as by the later Puritan settlers, and their accounts of him will probably bear taking with a grain or two of salt. In 1625 there came one Captain Wollaston, with a gang of indented white servants, and established himself on the site of the present town of Quincy. Finding this system of industry ill suited to northern agriculture, he carried most of his men off to Virginia, where he sold them. Morton took possession of the site of the settlement, which he called Merrymount. There, according to Bradford, he set up a 'schoole of athisme,' and his men did quaff strong waters and comport themselves 'as if they had anew revived and celebrated the feasts of ye Roman Goddes Flora, or the beastly practices of ye madd Bachanaliens.' Charges of atheism have been freely hurled about in all ages. In Morton's case the accusation seems to have been based upon the fact that he used the Book of Common Prayer. His men so far maintained the ancient customs of merry England as to plant a Maypole eighty feet high, about which they frolicked with the redskins, while furthermore they taught them the use of firearms and sold them muskets and rum. This was positively dangerous, and in the summer of 1628 the settlers at Merrymount were dispersed by Miles Standish. Morton was sent to England, but returned the next year, and presently again repaired to Merrymount. By this time other settlements were dotted about the coast. There were a few scattered cottages or cabins at Nantasket and at the mouth of the Piscataqua, while Samuel Maverick had fortified himself on Noddle's Island, and William Blackstone already lived upon the Shawmut peninsula, since called Boston. These two gentlemen were no friends to the Puritans; they were churchmen and representatives of Sir Ferdinando Gorges."—J. Fiske, *Beginnings of New England*, ch. 3.

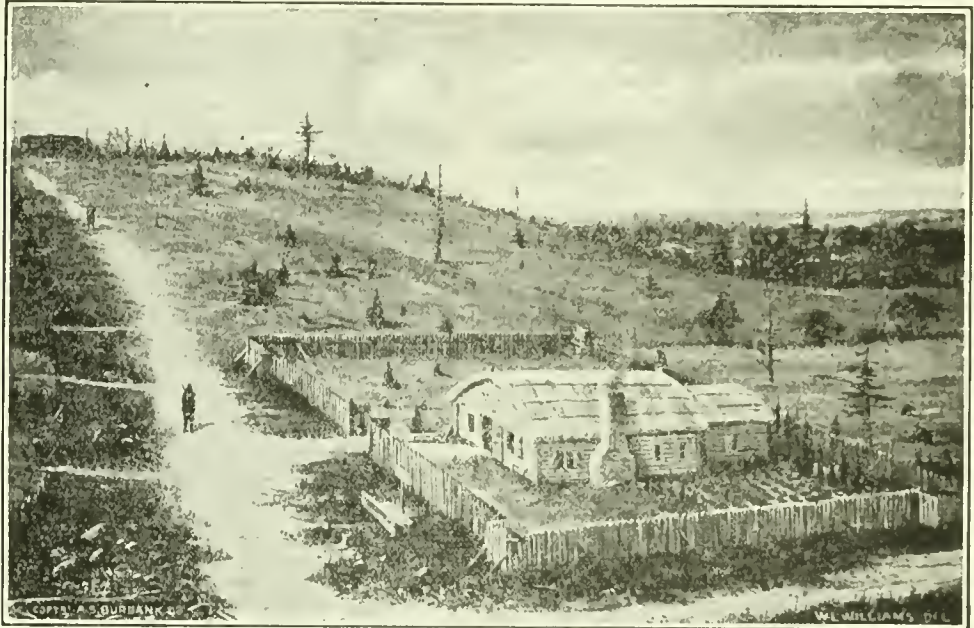
ALSO IN: C. F. Adams, Jr., *Old planters about Boston harbor (Massachusetts Historical Society's Proceedings, June, 1878)*.—Idem, *Introduction to Morton's New English Canaan (Prince Society, 1883)*.

1623.—Grant to Robert Gorges on the bay. See NEW ENGLAND: 1621-1631.

1623-1629.—Plymouth colony.—Land allotments.—Buying freedom from adventurers at London.—New patent.—"In 1623 the Ann and Little James, the former of 140 tons, and the latter of 44 tons, arrived with 60 persons to be added to the colony, and a number of others who had come at their own charge and on their own account. . . . The passengers in the Ann and Little James completed the list of those who are usually called the first-comers. The Ann returned to England in September, carrying Mr. Winslow to negotiate with the merchants for needful supplies, and the Little James remained at Plymouth in the service of the company. . . . Up to that time the company had worked together on the company lands, and, each sharing in the fruits of another's labors, felt little of that personal responsibility which was necessary to secure the largest returns. . . . 'At length, after much debate of things, the Governor (with the advise of the cheefest amongst them) gave way that they should set corne every man for his owne perticuler, and in that regard

trust to themselves; in all other things to go on in the generall way as before. And so assigned to every family a parcell of land, according to the proportion of their number for that end. . . . This had very good success; for it made all hands very industrious.' . . . Such is the language of Bradford concerning a measure which was adopted from motives of necessity, but which was, to a certain extent, an infringement of the provisions of the contract with the adventurers. Before the planting season of the next year a more emphatic violation of the contract was committed. 'They (the colony) begane now highly to prize corne as more pretious then silver, and those that had some to spare begane to trade one with another for smale things, by the quart, potle, & peck &C.: for money they had none, and if any had, corne was prefered before it. That they might therefore increase their tillage to better advantage,

gence, Capt. Standish was sent to England, followed next year by Mr. Allerton, "to make a composition with the adventurers," and obtain, if possible, a release from the seven years contract under which the colonists were bound. Allerton returned in 1627, having concluded an agreement with the adventurers at London for the purchase of all their rights and interests in the plantation, for the sum of £1,800. The agreement was approved by the colony, and Bradford, Standish, Allerton, Winslow, Brewster, Howland, Alden, and others, assumed the debt of £1,800, the trading privileges of the colony being assigned to them for their security. "In accordance with this agreement these gentlemen at once entered vigorously into the enterprise, and by the use of wampum, as a circulating medium, carried on so extensive a trade with the natives, in the purchase of furs and other articles for export to England



GOVERNOR BRADFORD'S HOUSE AT PLYMOUTH

The fort is shown at the top of the hill

(Drawing by W. L. Williams)

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they made suite to the Governor to have some portion of land given them for continuance, and not by yearly lotte. . . . Which being well considered, their request was granted. And to every person was given only one acre of land, to them and theirs, as nere the towne as might be, and they had no more till the 7 years were expired.' This experience gradually led the colony in the right track, and the growing necessity for some other circulating medium than silver secured abundant harvests." Winslow returned from England in 1624, "bringing, besides a good supply, '3 heifers & a bull the first beginning of any cattle of that kind in the land.' At that time there were 180 persons in the colony, 'some cattle and goats, but many swine and poultry and thirty-two dwelling houses.' In the latter part of the year Winslow sailed again for England in the Little James and returned in 1625. The news he brought was discouraging to the colonists. The debt due to the adventurers was £1,400, and the creditors had lost confidence in their enterprise." On this intelli-

as within the prescribed period [six years] to pay off the entire debt and leave the colony in the undisputed possession of their lands. No legal-tender scheme, in these later days, has been bolder in its conception, or more successful in its career, than that of the Pilgrim Fathers, which, with the shells of the shore, relieved their community from debt, and established on a permanent basis the wealth and prosperity of New England. . . . After the negotiations with the adventurers had been completed, the colonists were anxious to obtain another patent from the New England Company conferring larger powers and defining their territorial limits. After three visits to England, Allerton was sent a fourth time, in 1620, and secured a patent dated January 13, 1620 (old style), and signed by the Earl of Warwick on behalf of the Council of New England, enlarging the original grant, and establishing the boundaries of what has been since known as the Old Colony. It granted to William Bradford and his associates 'all that part of New England in America, the tract

and tracts of land that lie within or between a certain rivolet or rundlett, then commonly called Coahasset alias Conahasset, towards the north, and the river commonly called Naraganset river towards the south, and the great Western ocean towards the east, and between two lines described as extending, severally, from the mouth of the Naraganset and the mouth of the Coahasset, 'up into the mainland westward,' 'to the utmost limits and bounds of a country or place in New England called Pokernacutt, alias Puckenackick, alias Sawaamset.'"—W. T. Davis, *Ancient landmarks of Plymouth*, ch. 2.

1623-1629.—Dorchester Company and royal charter to the governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay.—"While the people of Plymouth were struggling to establish their colony, some of the English Puritans, restless under the growing despotism of Charles, began to turn their eyes to New England. Under the lead of the Rev. John White, the Dorchester Company was formed for trading and fishing, and a station was established at Cape Ann [1623]; but the enterprise did not prosper, the colonists were disorderly, and the Company made an arrangement for Roger Conant and others, driven from Plymouth by the rigid principles of the Separatists, to come to Cape Ann. Still matters did not improve and the Company was dissolved; but White held to his purpose, and Conant and a few others moved to Naumkeag, and determined to settle there. Conant induced his companions to persevere, and matters in England led to a fresh attempt; for discontent grew rapidly as Charles proceeded in his policy. A second Dorchester Company, not this time a small affair for fishing and trading, was formed, and a large grant of lands [from three miles north of the Merrimac to three miles south of the Charles, and to extend from the Atlantic to the Western ocean] was made by the Council for New England to Sir Henry Roswell and five others [March, 1628]. One of the six patentees, John Endicott, went out during the following summer with a small company, assumed the government at Naumkeag, which was now called Salem, and sent out exploring parties. The company thus formed in England was merely a voluntary partnership, but it paved the way for another and much larger scheme. Disaffection had become wide-spread. The Puritans began to fear that religious and political liberty alike were not only in danger but were doomed to destruction, and a large portion of the party resolved to combine for the preservation of all that was dearest to them by removal to the New World. The Dorchester Company was enlarged, and a royal charter was obtained incorporating the Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay," March 4, 1620.—H. C. Lodge, *Short history of the English colonies in America*, ch. 18.—"This [the royal charter named above] is the instrument under which the Colony of Massachusetts continued to conduct its affairs for 55 years. The patentees named in it were Roswell and his five associates, with 20 other persons, of whom White was not one. It gave power forever to the freemen of the Company to elect annually, from their own number, a Governor, Deputy-Governor, and 18 Assistants, on the last Wednesday of Easter term, and to make laws and ordinances not repugnant to the laws of England, for their own benefit and the government of persons inhabiting their territory. Four meetings of the Company were to be held in a year, and others might be convened in a manner prescribed. Meetings of the Governor, Deputy-Gov-

ernor, and Assistants, were to be held once a month or oftener. The Governor, Deputy-Governor, and any two Assistants, were authorized, but not required, to administer to freemen the oaths of supremacy and allegiance. The Company might transport settlers not 'restrained by special name.' They had authority to admit new associates, and establish the terms of their admission, and elect and constitute such officers as they should see fit for the ordering and managing of their affairs. They were empowered to 'encounter, repulse, repel, and resist by force of arms . . . all such person and persons as should at any time thereafter attempt or enterprise the destruction, invasion, detriment, or annoyance to the said plantation or inhabitants.' Nothing was said of religious liberty. The government may have relied upon its power to restrain it, and the emigrants from their distance and obscurity to protect it."—J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 1, ch. 8.—"In anticipation of a future want the grantees resisted the insertion of any condition which should fix the government of the Company in England. Winthrop explicitly states that the advisers of the Crown had originally imposed such a condition, but that the patentees succeeded, not without difficulty, in freeing themselves from it. That fact is a full answer to those who held that in transferring the government to America the patentees broke faith with the Crown."—J. A. Doyle, *English in America: The Puritan colonies*, v. 1, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: N. B. Shurtleff, ed., *Records of the Government and County of Massachusetts Bay*, v. 1 (containing the charter).—S. F. Haven, *Origin of the company* (*Archæologia Americana*, v. 3).

1629-1630.—Immigration of the governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay, with their royal charter.—"Several persons, of considerable importance in the English nation, were now enlisted among the adventurers, who, for the unmolested enjoyment of their religion, were resolved to remove into Massachusetts. Foreseeing, however, and dreading the inconvenience of being governed by laws made for them without their own consent, they judged it more reasonable that the colony should be ruled by men residing in the plantation, than by those dwelling at a distance of three thousand miles, and over whom they should have no control. At a meeting of the company on the 28th of July [1629], Matthew Cradock, the governor, proposed that the charter should be transferred to those of the freemen who should become inhabitants of the colony, and the powers conferred by it be executed for the future in New England. An agreement was accordingly made at Cambridge, in England, on the 26th of August, between Sir Richard Saltonstall, Thomas Dudley, Isaac Johnson, John Winthrop, and a few others, that, on those conditions, they would be ready the ensuing March, with their persons and families, to embark for New England, for the purpose of settling in the country. The governor and company, entirely disposed to promote the measure, called a general court [at which, after a serious debate, adjourned from one day to the next,] . . . it was decreed that the government and the patent of the plantation should be transferred from London to Massachusetts Bay. An order was drawn up for that purpose, in pursuance of which a court was holden on the 20th of October for a new election of officers, who would be willing to remove with their families; and 'the court having received extraordinary great commendation of Mr. John Winthrop, both for his integrity and sufficiency, as being one very well fitted for the place, with a

full consent chose him governor for the year ensuing.' . . . Preparations were now made for the removal of a large number of colonists, and in the spring of 1630 a fleet of 14 sail was got ready. Mr. Winthrop having by the consent of all been chosen for their leader, immediately set about making preparations for his departure. He converted a fine estate of £600 or £700 per annum into money and in March embarked on board the *Arbella*, one of the principal ships. Before leaving Yarmouth, an address to their fathers and brethren remaining in England was drawn up, and subscribed on the 7th of April by Governor Winthrop and others, breathing an affectionate farewell to the Church of England and their native land. . . . In the same ship with Governor Winthrop came Thomas Dudley, who had been chosen deputy governor after the embarkation, and several other gentlemen of wealth and quality; the fleet containing about 840 passengers, of various occupations, some of whom were from the west of England, but most from the neighborhood of London. The fleet sailed early in April; and the *Arbella* arrived off Cape Ann on Friday, the 11th of June, and on the following day entered the harbor of Salem. A few days after their arrival, the governor, and several of the principal persons of the colony, made an excursion some 20 miles along the bay, for the purpose of selecting a convenient site for a town. They finally pitched down on the north side of Charles river (Charlestown), and took lodgings in the great house built there the preceding year; the rest of the company erected cottages, booths, and tents, for present accommodation, about the town hill. Their place of assembling for divine service was under a spreading tree. On the 8th of July, a day of thanksgiving was kept for the safe arrival of the fleet. On the 30th of the same month, after a day of solemn prayer and fasting, the foundation of a church was laid at Charlestown, afterwards the first church of Boston, and Governor Winthrop, Deputy Governor Dudley, and the Rev. Mr. Wilson, entered into church covenant. The first court of assistants was held at Charlestown, on the 23d of August, and the first question proposed was a suitable provision for the support of the gospel. Towards the close of autumn, Governor Winthrop and most of the assistants removed to the peninsula of Shawmut (Boston), and lived there the first winter, intending in the spring to build a fortified town, but undetermined as to its situation. On the 6th of December they resolved to fortify the isthmus of that peninsula; but, changing their minds before the month expired, they agreed upon a place about three miles above Charlestown, which they called first Newtown, and afterwards Cambridge, where they engaged to build houses the ensuing spring. The rest of the winter they suffered much by the severity of the season, and were obliged to live upon acorns, groundnuts, and shell-fish. . . . They had appointed the 6th of February for a fast, in consequence of their alarm for the safety of a ship which had been sent to Ireland for provisions; but fortunately the vessel arrived on the 5th, and they ordered a public thanksgiving instead thereof."—J. B. Moore, *Lives of the governors of New Plymouth and Massachusetts bay*, pt. 2: Winthrop.

Also in: R. C. Winthrop, *Life and Letters of John Winthrop*, v. 1, ch. 15-19, v. 2, ch. 1-4.—A. Young, *Chronicles of the first planters of Massachusetts bay*, ch. 14-19.—J. S. Barry, *History of Massachusetts*, v. 1, ch. 7.

1630.—Founding of Boston.—"The English people who came with Governor Winthrop first located upon the peninsula of Mishawum, which they

called Charlestown. . . . They found here a single white man named Thomas Walford, living very peaceably and contentedly among the Indians. They also discovered that the peninsula of Shawmut had one solitary white inhabitant whose name was William Blackstone. They could see every day the smoke curling above this man's lonely cabin. He, too, was a Puritan clergyman, like many of those who had now come to make a home in the New World, free from the tyranny of the English bishops. Still another Englishman, Samuel Maverick by name, had built a house, and with the help of David Thompson, a fort which mounted four small cannon, truly called 'murderers,' and was living very comfortably on the island that is now East Boston. And again, by looking across the bay, to the south, the smoke of an English cottage, on Thompson's Island, was probably seen stealing upward to the sky. So that we certainly know these people were the first settlers of Boston. But scarcity of water, and sickness, which soon broke out among them, made the settlers at Charlestown very discontented. They began to scatter. Indeed this peninsula was too small properly to accommodate all of them with their cattle. Therefore good William Blackstone, with true hospitality, came in their distress to tell them there was a fine spring of pure water at Shawmut, and to invite them there. Probably his account induced quite a number to remove at once; while others, wishing to make farms, looked out homes along the shores of the mainland, at Medford, Newtown (Cambridge), Watertown and Roxbury. A separate company of colonists also settled at Mattapan, or Dorchester. The dissatisfaction with Charlestown was so general that at last only a few of the original settlers remained there. . . . While those in chief authority were still undecided, Isaac Johnson, one of the most influential and honored men among the colonists, began, with others, in earnest, the settlement of Boston. He chose for himself the square of land now enclosed by Tremont, Court, Washington and School Streets. Unfortunately this gentleman, who was much beloved, died before the removal to Boston became general. . . . Although the chief men of the colony continued for some time yet to favor the plan of a fortified town farther inland, Boston had now become too firmly rooted, and the people too unwilling, to make a second change of location practicable, or even desirable. So this project was abandoned, though not before high words passed between Winthrop and Dudley about it. The governor then removed the frame of his new house from Cambridge, or Newtown, to Boston, setting it up on the land between Milk Street, Spring Lane, and Washington Street. One of the finest springs being upon his lot, the name Spring Lane is easily traced. The people first located themselves within the space now comprised between Milk, Bromfield, Tremont, and Hanover Streets, and the water, or, in general terms, upon the southeasterly slope of Beacon Hill. Pemberton Hill soon became a favorite locality. The North End, including that portion of the town north of Union Street, was soon built up by the new emigrants coming in, or by removals from the South End, as all the town south of this district was called. In time a third district on the north side of Beacon Hill grew up, and was called the West End. And in the old city these general divisions continue to-day. Shawmut, we remember, was the first name Boston had. Now the settlers at Charlestown, seeing always before them a high hill topped with three little peaks, had already, and very aptly too, we think, named

Shawmut Trimountain [the origin of the name Tremont in Boston]. But when they began to remove there they called it Boston, after a place of that name in England, and because they had determined beforehand to give to their chief town this name. So says the second highest person among them, Deputy Governor Thomas Dudley. The settlers built their first church on the ground now covered by Brazer's Building, in State Street. . . . Directly in front of the meeting-house was the town market-place. Where Quincy Market is was the principal landing-place. The Common was set apart as a pasture-ground and training-field. . . . A beacon was set up on the summit of Trimountain and a fort upon the southernmost hill of the town. From this time these hills took the names of Windmill, Beacon, and Fort Hills."—S. A. Drake, *Around the Hub*, ch. 2.—"The order of the Court of Assistants,—Governor Winthrop presiding,—'That Trimontaine shall be called Boston,' was passed on the 7th of September, old style, or, as we now count it, the 17th of September, 1630. The name of Boston was specially dear to the Massachusetts colonists, from its association with the old St. Botolphs' town, or Boston, of Lincolnshire, England, from which the Lady Arbella Johnson and her husband had come, and where John Cotton was still preaching in its noble parish church. But the precise date of the removal of the Governor and Company to the peninsula is nowhere given."—R. C. Winthrop, *Boston founded* (J. Winsor, ed., *Memorial History of Boston*, v. 1, pp. 116-117).

ALSO IN: C. F. Adams, Jr., *Earliest exploration and settlement of Boston harbor* (*Memorial History*, pp. 63-86).

1631-1636.—Puritan theocracy and its intolerance.—"The charter of the Massachusetts Company had prescribed no condition of investment with its franchise,—or with what under the circumstances which had arisen was the same thing, the prerogatives of citizenship in the plantation,—except the will and vote of those who were already freemen. At the first Cisatlantic General Court for election, 'to the end the body of the commons may be preserved of honest and good men,' it was 'ordered and agreed, that, for the time to come, no man shall be admitted to the freedom of this body politic, but such as are members of some of the churches within the limits of the same.' The men who laid this singular foundation for the commonwealth which they were instituting, had been accustomed to feel responsibility, and to act upon well-considered reasons. By charter from the English crown, the land was theirs as against all other civilized people, and they had a right to choose according to their own rules the associates who should help them to occupy and govern it. Exercising this right, they determined that magistracy and citizenship should belong only to Christian men, ascertained to be such by the best test which they knew how to apply. They established a kind of aristocracy hitherto unknown."—J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 1, ch. 9.—"The aim of Winthrop and his friends in coming to Massachusetts was the construction of a theocratic state which should be to Christians, under the New Testament dispensation, all that the theocracy of Moses and Joshua and Samuel had been to the Jews in Old Testament days. They should be to all intents and purposes freed from the jurisdiction of the Stuart king, and so far as possible the text of the Holy Scriptures should be their guide both in weighty matters of general legislation and in the shaping of the smallest details of daily life. In

such a scheme there was no room for religious liberty as we understand it."—J. Fiske, *Beginnings of New England*, ch. 4.—"The projected religious commonwealth was to be founded and administered by the Bible, the whole Bible, not by the New Testament alone. . . . They revered and used and treated the Holy Book as one whole. A single sentence from any part of it was an oracle to them: it was as a slice or crumb from any part of a loaf of bread, all of the same consistency. God, as King, had been the Lawgiver of Israel: he should be their Lawgiver too. . . . The Church should fashion the State and be identical with it. Only experienced and covenanted Christian believers, pledged by their profession to accordance of opinion and purpose with the original proprietors and exiles, should be admitted as freemen, or full citizens of the commonwealth. They would restrain and limit their own liberty of conscience, as well as their own freedom of action, within Bible rules. In fact,—in spirit even more than in the letter,—they did adopt all of the Jewish code which was in any way practicable for them. The leading minister of the colony was formally appointed by the General Court to adapt the Jewish law to their case [1636]; and it was enacted that, till that work was really done, 'Moses, his Judicials,' should be in full force. Mr. Cotton in due time presented the results of his labor in a code of laws illustrated by Scripture texts. This code was not formally adopted by the Court; but the spirit of it, soon rewrought into another body, had full sway. . . . That frankly avowed and practically applied purpose of the Fathers, of establishing here a Bible Commonwealth, 'under a due form of government, both civil and ecclesiastical,' furnishes the key to, the explanation of, all dark things and all the bright things in their early history. The young people educated among us ought to read our history by that simple, plain interpretation. The consciences of our Fathers were not free in our sense of that word. They were held under rigid subjection to what they regarded as God's Holy Word, through and through in every sentence of it, just as the consciences of their Fathers were held, under the sway of the Pope and the Roman Church. The Bible was to them supreme. Their church was based on it, modelled by it, governed by it; and they intended their State should be also."—G. E. Ellis, *Lowell Institute Lectures on the early history of Massachusetts*, pp. 50-55.—"Though communicants were not necessarily voters, no one could be a voter who was not a communicant; therefore the town-meeting was nothing but the church meeting, possibly somewhat attenuated, and called by a different name. By this insidious statute the clergy seized the temporal power, which they held till the charter fell. The minister stood at the head of the congregation and moulded it to suit his purposes and to do his will. . . . Common men could not have kept this hold upon the inhabitants of New England, but the clergy were learned, resolute, and able, and their strong but narrow minds hurned with fanaticism and love of power; with their beliefs and under their temptations persecution seemed to them not only their most potent weapon, but a duty they owed to Christ—and that duty they unflinchingly performed."—B. Adams, *Emancipation of Massachusetts*, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: J. S. Barry, *History of Massachusetts*, v. 1, ch. 10.—P. Oliver, *Puritan commonwealth*, ch. 2, pt. 1.—D. Campbell, *Puritan in Holland, England, and America*, v. 2, ch. 22.

1631-1636.—Roger Williams.—His offenses

against Puritanism. See RHODE ISLAND: 1631-1636.

1633-1635.—Hostilities between Plymouth colony and the French on the Maine coast. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1621-1668.

1634-1637.—Threatening movements in England.—Charter demanded.—“That the government of Charles I. should view with a hostile eye the growth of a Puritan state in New England is not at all surprising. The only fit ground for wonder would seem to be that Charles should have been willing at the outset to grant a charter to the able and influential Puritans who organized the Company of Massachusetts Bay. Probably, however, the king thought at first it would relieve him at home if a few dozen of the Puritan leaders could be allowed to concentrate their minds upon a project of colonization in America. It might divert attention for a moment from his own despotic schemes. Very likely the scheme would prove a failure and the Massachusetts colony incur a fate like that of Roanoke Island; and at all events the wealth of the Puritans might better be sunk in a remote and perilous enterprise than employed at home in organizing resistance to the crown. Such, very likely, may have been the king's motive in granting the Massachusetts charter two days after turning his Parliament out of doors. But the events of the last half-dozen years had come to present the case in a new light. The young colony was not languishing. It was full of sturdy life; it had wrought mischief to the schemes of Gorges; and what was more, it had begun to take unheard-of liberties with things ecclesiastical and political. Its example was getting to be a dangerous one. It was evidently worth while to put a strong curb upon Massachusetts. Any promise made to his subjects Charles regarded as a promise made under duress which he was quite justified in breaking whenever it suited his purpose to do so. Enemies of Massachusetts were busy in England. Schismatics from Salem and revellers from Merrymount were ready with their tales of woe, and now Gorges and Mason were vigorously pressing their territorial claims.”—J. Fiske, *Beginnings of New England*, ch. 3.—In April, 1634, “the superintendence of the colonies was . . . removed from the privy council to an arbitrary special commission, of which William Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, and the archbishop of York, were the chiefs. These, with ten of the highest officers of State, were invested with full power to make laws and orders . . . to appoint judges and magistrates and establish courts for civil and ecclesiastical affairs . . . to revoke all charters and patents which had been surreptitiously obtained, or which conceded liberties prejudicial to the royal prerogative. Cradock, who had been governor of the corporation in England before the transfer of the charter of Massachusetts, was strictly charged to deliver it up; and he wrote to the governor and council to send it home. Upon receipt of his letter, they resolved ‘not to return any answer or excuse at that time.’ In September, a copy of the commission to Archbishop Laud and his associates was brought to Boston; and it was at the same time rumored that the colonists were to be compelled by force to accept a new governor, the discipline of the church of England, and the laws of the commissioners. The intelligence awakened ‘the magistrates and deputies to discover their minds each to other, and to hasten their fortifications,’ towards which, poor as was the colony, £600 were raised. In January, 1635, all the ministers assembled at Boston; and they unanimously de-

clared against the reception of a general governor, saying: ‘We ought to defend our lawful possessions, if we are able; if not, to avoid and protract.’ In the month before this declaration, it is not strange that Laud and his associates should have esteemed the inhabitants of Massachusetts to be men of refractory humors. . . . Restraints were placed upon emigration; no one above the rank of a serving man might remove to the colony without the special leave of Laud and his associates. . . . Willingly as these acts were enforced by religious bigotry, they were promoted by another cause. A change had come over the character of the great Plymouth council for the colonization of New England,” which now schemed and bargained with the English court to surrender its general charter, on the condition that the vast territory which it had already ceded to the Massachusetts Company and others should be reclaimed by the king and granted anew, in severalty, to its members. (See NEW ENGLAND: 1635). “At the Trinity term of the court of king's bench, a quo warranto was brought against the Company of the Massachusetts bay. At the ensuing Michaelmas, several of its members who resided in England made their appearance, and judgment was pronounced against them individually; the rest of the patentees stood outlawed, but no judgment was entered against them. The unexpected death of Mason, the proprietary of New Hampshire, in December, 1635, removed the chief instigator of these aggressions. In July, 1637, the king, professing ‘to redress the mischiefs that had arisen out of the many different humours,’ took the government of New England into his own hands, and appointed over it Sir Ferdinando Gorges as governor-general. . . . But the measure was feeble and ineffectual. [Gorges] . . . never left England, and was hardly heard of except by petitions to its government.” Troubles had thickened about king Charles and his creature Laud until they no longer had time or disposition to bestow more of their thoughts on Massachusetts. A long-suffering nation was making ready to put an end to their malignant activities, and the Puritans of New England and Old England were alike delivered.”—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, v. 1, pt. 1, ch. 17.

ALSO IN: T. Hutchinson, *History of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay*, v. 1, pp. 51, 86-80.

1635.—First use of caucus system. See CAUCUS: Origin.

1635-1636.—Founding of Boston Latin school and Harvard College. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: United States; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1636.

1635-1637.—Migration to Connecticut. See CONNECTICUT: 1634-1637.

1636.—Banishment of Roger Williams.—“The intolerance of England had established the New England colonies. The time was at hand when those colonies should in their turn alienate from them their own children, and be the unwilling parents of a fresh state. In 1631, there arrived at Boston a young minister, Roger Williams, ‘godly and zealous, having precious gifts.’ . . . His theological doctrines seem to have been those generally received among the Puritans, but in questions of church discipline he went far beyond most of his sect. He was a rigid separatist, and carried the doctrine of toleration, or, as perhaps it might be more properly called, state indifference, to its fullest length. Accordingly it was impossible to employ him as a minister at Boston. He went to Salem, which was then without a preacher, and was appointed to the vacant office. But a message

from Winthrop and the assistants compelled the church of Salem to retract its choice, and the young enthusiast withdrew to Plymouth," where he remained two years, until August, 1633, when he returned to Salem. "In 1634, he incurred the displeasure of some of his congregation by putting forward the doctrine that no tenure of land could be valid which had not the sanction of the natives. His doctrine was censured by the court at Boston, but on his satisfying the court of his 'loyalty,' the matter passed over. But before long he put forward doctrines, in the opinion of the government, yet more dangerous. He advocated complete separation from the Church of England, and denounced compulsory worship and a compulsory church establishment. Carrying the doctrine of individual liberty to its fullest extent, he asserted that the magistrate was only the agent of the people, and had no right to protect the people against itself; that his power extends only as far as such cases as disturb the public peace. . . . On the 8th of August, 1635, Williams was summoned before the general court; his opinions were denounced as 'erroneous and very dangerous,' and notice was given to the church at Salem that, unless it could explain the matter to the satisfaction of the court, Williams must be dismissed. In October, Williams was again brought before the court, and after a 'disputation' with Mr. Hooker, which failed to reduce him from any of his errors, he was sentenced to depart out of the jurisdiction of Massachusetts in six weeks. The church of Salem acquiesced in the condemnation of their pastor. Their own experience might have taught the fathers of New England that the best way to strengthen heresy is to oppose it. The natural result followed: the people were 'much taken with the apprehension of Williams' godliness,' and a large congregation, including 'many devout women,' gathered round him. Since they had failed to check the evil, the Massachusetts government resolved to exterminate it and to ship Williams for England. The crew of a pinnace was sent to arrest him, but, fortunately for the future of New England, he had escaped. . . . He had set out [January, 1636] for the territory of Narragansett, and there founded the village of Providence."—J. A. Doyle, *American colonies*, ch. 2.—"His [Roger Williams'] own statement is, it was 'only for the holy truth of Christ Jesus that he was denied the common air to breathe in, and a civil cohabitation upon the same common earth.' But the facts of the case seem to show that it was because his opinions differed from the opinions of those among whom he lived, and were considered by them as dangerous and seditious, tending to the utter destruction of their community, that he was a sacrifice to honest convictions of truth and duty. . . . The sentence of banishment, however, was not passed without reluctance. Governor Winthrop remained his friend to the day of his death, and even proposed, in view of his services in the Pequot war, that his sentence should be revoked. Governor Haynes, of Connecticut, who pronounced his sentence, afterwards regretted it. Governor Winslow, of Plymouth, who had no hand in his expulsion, 'put a piece of gold in the hands of his wife,' to relieve his necessities, and though Mr. Cotton hardly clears himself from the charge of having procured his sentence, there was no private feud between them. Cotton Mather concedes that 'many judicious persons judged him to have had the root of the matter in him.' Later writers declare him, 'from the whole course and tenor of his life and conduct, to have been one of the most

disinterested men that ever lived, a most pious and heavenly-minded soul.' And the magnanimous exile himself says, 'I did ever from my soul honor and love them, even when their judgment led them to afflict me.'"—J. S. Barry, *History of Massachusetts*, v. 1, ch. 9.—See also RHODE ISLAND: 1631-1636; 1636.

ALSO IN: J. D. Knowles, *Memoir of Roger Williams*, ch. 3-5.—G. E. Ellis, *Puritan age and rule*, ch. 8.

1636-1638.—Mrs. Anne Hutchinson and the Antinomian troubles.—"The agitation and strife connected with the Antinomian controversy, opened by Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, came dangerously near to bringing the fortunes of the young Massachusetts colony to a most disastrous ruin. . . . The peril overhung at a time when the proprietary colonists had the most reasonable and fearful forebodings of the loss of their charter by the interference of a Privy Council Commission. . . . Ominously enough, too, Mrs. Hutchinson arrived here, Sept. 18, 1634, in the vessel which brought the copy of that commission. Winthrop describes her as a woman of a 'ready wit and bold spirit.' Strongly gifted herself, she had a gentle and weak husband, who was guided by her. She had at home enjoyed no ministrations so much as those of Cotton, and her brother-in-law, Mr. Wheelwright. She came here to put herself again under the preaching of the former. . . . She had been here for two years, known as a ready, kindly, and most servicable woman, especially to her own sex in their straits and sicknesses. But she anticipated the introduction of 'the woman question' among the colonists in a more troublesome form than it has yet assumed for us. Joined by her brother-in-law, who was also admitted to the church, after those two quiet years she soon made her influence felt for trouble, as he did likewise. . . . The male members of the Boston Church had a weekly meeting, in which they discussed the ministrations of Cotton and Wilson. Mrs. Hutchinson organized and presided over one, held soon twice in a week, for her own sex, attended by nearly a hundred of the principal women on the peninsula and in the neighborhood. It was easy to foresee what would come of it, through one so able and earnest as herself, even if she had no novel or disjointed or disproportioned doctrine to inculcate; which, however, it proved that she had. Antinomian means a denying, or, at least, a weakening, of the obligation to observe the moral law, and to comply with the external duties; to do the works associated with the idea of internal, spiritual righteousness. It was a false or disproportioned construction of Saint Paul's great doctrine of justification by faith, without the works of the law. . . . Mrs. Hutchinson was understood to teach, that one who was graciously justified by a spiritual assurance, need not be greatly concerned for outward sanctification by works. She judged and approved, or censured and discredited, the preachers whom she heard, according as they favored or repudiated that view. Her admirers accepted her opinions. . . . Word soon went forth that Mrs. Hutchinson had pronounced in her meetings, that Mr. Cotton and her brother-in-law Wheelwright, alone of all the ministers in the colony, were under 'a covenant of grace,' the rest being 'legalists,' or under 'a covenant of works.' These reports, which soon became more than opinions, were blazing brands that it would be impossible to keep from reaching inflammable material. . . . As the contention extended it involved all the principal persons of the colony. Cotton and all but five members of the

Boston Church—though one of these five was Winthrop, and another was Wilson—proved to be sympathizers with Mrs. Hutchinson; while the ministers and leading people outside in the other hamlets were strongly opposed to her. She had a partisan, moreover, of transcending influence in the young Governor, Sir Henry Vane," who had come over from England the year before, and who had been chosen at the next election for Governor, with Winthrop as deputy. "Though pure and devout, and ardent in zeal, he had not then the practical wisdom for which Milton afterwards praised him in his noble sonnet:—'Vane, young in years, but in sage counsels old.' . . . With his strong support, and that of two other prominent magistrates, and of so overwhelming a majority of the Boston Church, Mrs. Hutchinson naturally felt emboldened." But in the end her Church and party were overcome by the ministers and their supporters in the other parts of the colony; she was excommunicated and banished (November, 1637, and March, 1638), going forth to perish six years later at the hands of the Indians, while living on the shore of Long Island Sound, at a place now known as Pelham Neck, near New Rochelle. "As the summing up of the strife, 76 persons were disarmed; two were disfranchised and fined; 2 more were fined; 8 more were disfranchised; 3 were banished; and 11 who had asked permission to remove had leave, in the form of a limitation of time within which they must do it. The more estimable and considerable of them apologized and were received back."—G. E. Ellis, *Lowell Institute Lectures on the early history of Massachusetts*, pp. 95-100.

ALSO IN: B. Adams, *Emancipation of Massachusetts*, ch. 2.—*Ecclesiastical history of New England (Massachusetts Historical Society Collections, v. 9, series 1)*.—G. E. Ellis, *Life of Anne Hutchinson (Library of American Biographies, new series, v. 6)*.—J. Anderson, *Memorable women of Puritan times*, v. 1, pp. 185-220.

1637.—Pequot War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1637.

1637.—First synod of the churches and its dealings with heresy.—The election of Sir Harry Vane to be governor of the colony, in place of John Winthrop, "took place in the open air upon what is now Cambridge Common on the 27th day of May [1637]. Four months later it was followed by the gathering of the first Synod of Massachusetts churches; which again, meeting here in Cambridge, doubtless held its sessions in the original meeting-house standing on what is now called Mount Auburn Street. The Synod sat through twenty-four days, during which it busied itself unearthing heterodox opinions and making the situation uncomfortable for those suspected of heresy. . . . It broke up amid general congratulations 'that matters had been carried on so peaceably, and concluded so comfortably in all love.' . . . As the twig is bent, the tree inclines. The Massachusetts twig was here and then bent; and, as it was bent, it during hard upon two centuries inclined. [During this period the clergy had a strong influence on the policies of the government, and suffrage was denied to all who could not pass certain strict religious tests.] The question of Religious Toleration was, so far as Massachusetts could decide it, decided in 1637 in the negative. . . . The turning point in the history of early Massachusetts was the Cambridge Synod of September, 1637, . . . which succeeded in spreading on its record, as then prevailing in the infant settlement, eighty-two 'opinions, some blasphemous, others erroneous and all unsafe,' be-

sides 'nine unwholesome expressions,' the whole mighty mass of which was then incontinently dismissed, in the language of one of the leading divines who figured in that Assembly, 'to the devil of hell, from whence they came.' The mere enumeration of this long list of heresies as then somewhere prevailing is strong evidence of intellectual activity in early Massachusetts,—an activity which found ready expression through such men as Roger Williams, John Cotton, John Wheelwright and Sir Henry Vane, to say nothing of Mrs. Hutchinson, while the receptive condition of the mental soil is likewise seen in the hold the new opinions took. It was plainly a period of intellectual quickening,—a dawn of promise. Of this there can no doubt exist. It was freely acknowledged at the time; it has been stated as one of the conditions of that period by all writers on it since. The body of those who listened to him stood by Roger Williams; and the magistrates drove him away for that reason. Anne Hutchinson so held the ear of the whole Boston community that she had 'some of all sorts and quality, in all places to defend and patronize' her opinions; 'some of the magistrates, some gentlemen, some scholars and men of learning, some Burgesses of our General Court, some of our captains and soldiers, some chief men in towns, and some men eminent for religion, parts and wit.' These words of a leader of the clerical faction,—one of those most active in the work of repression,—describe to the life an active-minded, intelligent community quick to receive and ready to assimilate that which is new. Then came the Synod. It was a premonition. It was as if the fresh new sap,—the young budding leaves,—the possible, incipient flowers, had felt the chill of an approaching glacier. And that was exactly what it was;—a theological glacier then slowly settled down upon Massachusetts,—a glacier lasting through a period of nearly one hundred and fifty years."—C. F. Adams, *Massachusetts: Its historians and its history*, pp. 10-50.

1638-1641.—Introduction of slavery. See SLAVERY: 1638-1781

1639.—First printing press set up. See PRINTING: 1535-1700.

1640-1644.—End of the Puritan exodus.—Numerical growth and political development. See NEW ENGLAND: 1640-1644.

1641.—Jurisdiction extended over New Hampshire. See NEW HAMPSHIRE: 1622-1670; 1641-1670.

1641-1647.—Claims jurisdiction over Pawtuxet.—Gorton's disturbances. See RHODE ISLAND: 1641-1647.

1642-1779.—Poor relief. See CHARITIES: United States: 1642-1770.

1643.—Confederation of colonies.—Growth of Plymouth. See NEW ENGLAND: 1643.

1643-1654.—Interest in Acadia and temporary conquest of the province. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1621-1668.

1646-1651.—Presbyterian Cabal and Cambridge platform.—"There had now come to be many persons in Massachusetts who disapproved of the provision which restricted the suffrage to members of the Independent or Congregational churches of New England, and in 1646 the views of these people were presented in a petition to the General Court. . . . The leading signers of this menacing petition were William Vassall, Samuel Maverick, and Dr. Robert Child. . . . Their request would seem at first sight reasonable enough. At a superficial glance it seemed conceived in a modern spirit of liberalism. In reality it was

nothing of the sort. In England it was just the critical moment of the struggle between Presbyterians and Independents which had come in to complicate the issues of the great civil war. Vassall, Child, and Maverick seem to have been the leading spirits in a cabal for the establishment of Presbyterianism in New England, and in their petition they simply took advantage of the discontent of the disfranchised citizens in Massachusetts in order to put in an entering wedge. This was thoroughly understood by the legislature of Massachusetts, and accordingly the petition was dismissed and the petitioners were roundly fined. Just as Child was about to start for England with his grievances, the magistrates overhauled his papers and discovered a petition to the parliamentary Board of Commissioners, suggesting that Presbyterianism should be established in New England, and that a viceroy or governor-general should be appointed to rule there. To the men of Massachusetts this last suggestion was a crowning horror. It seemed scarcely less than treason. The signers of this petition were the same who had signed the petition to the General Court. They were now fined still more heavily and imprisoned for six months. By and by they found their way, one after another, to London, while the colonists sent Edward Winslow, of Plymouth, as an advocate to thwart their schemes. . . . The cabal accomplished nothing because of the decisive defeat of Presbyterianism in England. 'Pride's Purge' settled all that. The petition of Vassall and his friends was the occasion for the meeting of a synod of churches at Cambridge, in order to complete the organization of Congregationalism. In 1648 the work of the synod was embodied in the famous Cambridge Platform, which adopted the Westminster Confession as its creed, carefully defined the powers of the clergy, and declared it to be the duty of magistrates to suppress heresy. In 1649 the General Court laid this platform before the congregations; in 1651 it was adopted; and this event may be regarded as completing the theocratic organization of the Puritan commonwealth in Massachusetts. It was immediately preceded and followed by the deaths of the two foremost men in that commonwealth. John Winthrop died in 1649 and John Cotton in 1652."—J. Fiske, *Beginnings of New England*, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: C. Mather, *Magnalia Christi Americana*, bk. 5, pt. 2.—B. Adams, *Emancipation of Massachusetts*, ch. 3.

1649-1651.—Under Cromwell and the Commonwealth of England.—"Massachusetts had, from the outset, sympathized with Parliament in its contest with the king, and had blended her fortunes with the fortunes of the reformers. She had expressed her willingness to 'rise and fall with them,' and 'sent over useful men, others going voluntarily, to their aid, who were of good use, and did acceptable service to the army.' Her loyalty, therefore, procured for her the protection of Parliament. Yet the execution of Charles, which royalists have ever regarded with the utmost abhorrence, was not openly approved here. 'I find,' says Hutchinson, 'scarce any marks of approbation of the tragical scene of which this year they received intelligence.' The few allusions we have discovered are none of them couched in terms of exultation. Virginia pursued a different course, and openly resisted Parliament, refused to submit to its decrees, and adhered to the cause of royalty. . . . Yet the legislation of the commonwealth was not wholly favorable even to Massachusetts. The proclamation relative to Virginia asserted, in general terms, the power of appointing

governors and commissioners to be placed in all the English colonies, without exception; and by Mr. Winslow, their agent in England, they were informed that it was the pleasure of Parliament the patent of Massachusetts should be returned, and a new one taken out, under which courts were to be held and warrants issued. With this request the people were indisposed to comply; and, too wary to hazard the liberties so dearly purchased, a petition was drawn up, pleading the cause of the colony with great force, setting forth its allegiance, and expressing the hope that, under the new government, things might not go worse with them than under that of the king, and that their charter might not be recalled, as they desired no better. This remonstrance was successful; the measure was dropped, and the charter of Charles continued in force. Parliament was not 'foiled' by the colony. Its request was deemed reasonable; and there was no disposition to invade forcibly its liberties. We have evidence of this in the course of Cromwell. After his success in the 'Emerald Isle,' conceiving the project of introducing Puritanism into Ireland, an invitation was extended to the people of Massachusetts to remove thither and settle. But they were too strongly attached to the land of their adoption, and to its government, 'the happiest and wisest this day in the world,' readily to desert it. Hence the politic proposal of the lord protector was respectfully declined."—J. S. Barry, *History of Massachusetts*, v. 1, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: J. A. Doyle, *English in America: Puritan colonies*, v. 1, ch. 9.

1651-1660.—Absorption of Maine. See MAINE: 1643-1677.

1656-1661.—Persecution of Quakers.—"In July, 1656, Mary Fisher and Ann Austin came to Boston from Barbadoes; and shortly after, nine others, men and women, arrived in the ship Speedwell from London. It was at once known, for they did not wish to conceal it, that they were 'Friends,' vulgarly called 'Quakers'; and the Magistrates at once took them in hand, determined that no people holding (as they considered them) such damnable opinions, should come into the Colony. A great crowd collected to hear them questioned, and Boston was stirred up by a few illiterate enthusiasts. They stood up before the Court with their hats on, apparently without fear, and had no hesitation in calling governor Endicott plain 'John.' . . . The replies which these men and women made were direct and bold, and were considered rude and contemptuous. . . . They . . . were committed to prison for their 'Rudeness and Insolence'; there being no law then under which they could be punished for being Quakers. [Before the year closed, this defect of law was remedied by severe enactments] . . . laying a penalty of £100 for bringing any Quaker into the Colony: forty shillings for entertaining them for an hour; Quaker men who came against these prohibitions were, upon first conviction, to lose one ear, upon the second, the other ear; and women were to be whipped. Upon the third conviction, their tongues were to be bored with a hot iron. But these things seemed useless, for the Quakers, knowing their fate, swarmed into Massachusetts; and the Magistrates were fast getting more business than they could attend to. It was then determined to try greater severity, and in October, 1658, a law was passed in Massachusetts (resisted by the Deputies, urged by the Magistrates), punishing Quakers, who had been banished, with death." The first to challenge the dread penalty were a woman, Mary Dyer, and two men, William Robinson and Marmaduke Stevenson, who,

after being banished (September, 1659), came defiantly back the next month. "Governor Endicott pronounced sentence of death against them. . . . On the 27th of October, in the afternoon, a guard of 200 men, attended with a drummer, conducted them to the gallows. [Stevenson and Robinson were hanged; but Mary Dyer was reprieved]. . . . Her mind was made up for death, and her reprieve brought her no joy. She was taken away by her son. . . . Mary Dyer was a 'comely and valiant woman,' and in the next Spring she returned. What was now to be done? The law said she must be hung, and Endicott again pronounced sentence, and she was led out to die a felon's death. Some scoffed and jeered her, but the most pitied; she died bravely, fearing nothing. . . . There seemed no end; for Quaker after Quaker came; they were tried, they were whipped, and the prison was full. . . . William Ledra [banished in 1657] came back (September, 1660), and was subject to death. They offered him his life, if he would go away and promise not to return; he said: 'I came here to bear my testimony, and to tell the truth of the Lord, in the ears of this people. I refuse to go.' So he was hanged in the succeeding March (14th). Wenlock Christopherson, or Christison, came, and was tried and condemned to die. . . . The death of Ledra, and the return of Wenlock Christison, brought confusion among the Magistrates, and some said 'Where will this end?' and declared it was time to stop. Governor Endicott found it difficult to get a Court to agree to sentence Christison to death; but he halted not, and pronounced the sentence. . . . But a few days afterward the jailor opened the prison doors, and Wenlock (with 27 others) was set at liberty, much to his and their surprise." The friends of the Quakers in England had prevailed upon King Charles II., then lately restored, "to order the persecutions to cease in New England (Sept. 1661). Samuel Shattock, a banished Quaker, was sent from England by Charles, with a letter to Governor Endicott [the subject of Whittier's poem, 'The King's Missive'], commanding that no more Quakers should be hanged or imprisoned in New England, but should be sent to England for trial. This ended the persecutions; for, on the 9th of December, 1661, the Court ordered all Quakers to be set at liberty."—C. W. Elliott, *New England history*, v. 1, ch. 36.—"Some of our writers, alike in prose and in poetry, have assumed, and have written on the assumption, that the deliverance of the Quakers was effected by the interposition in their behalf of King Charles II. . . . The royal letter . . . had . . . been substantially anticipated as to its principal demand by the action of the Court [in Massachusetts]. The general jail delivery of 31 Quakers, including the three under the death sentence who had voluntarily agreed to go off, was ordered by the Court in October, 1660. The King's letter was dated at Whitehall a year afterward. Let us claim whatever of relief we can find in reminding ourselves that it was the stern opposition and protest of the majority of the people of the Puritan Colony, and not the King's command, that had opened the gates of mercy."—G. E. Ellis, *Puritan age and rule*, pp. 477-479.—While the Quakers first arrested at Boston were lying in jail, "the Federal Commissioners, then in session at Plymouth, recommended that laws be forthwith enacted to keep these dreaded heretics out of the land. Next year they stooped so far as to seek the aid of Rhode Island, the colony which they had refused to admit into their confederacy. . . . Roger Williams was then president of Rhode Island, and in full accord with his noble spirit was the reply of the assembly.

'We have no law amongst us whereby to punish any for only declaring by words their minds and understandings concerning the things and ways of God as to salvation and our eternal condition.' As for these Quakers, we find that where they are 'most of all suffered to declare themselves freely and only opposed by arguments in discourse, there they least of all desire to come.' Any breach of the civil law shall be punished, but the 'freedom of different consciences shall be respected.' This reply enraged the confederated colonies, and Massachusetts, as the strongest and most overbearing, threatened to cut off the trade of Rhode Island, which forthwith appealed to Cromwell for protection. . . . In thus protecting the Quakers, Williams never for a moment concealed his antipathy to their doctrines. . . . The four confederated colonies all proceeded to pass laws banishing Quakers. . . . Those of Connecticut . . . were the mildest."—J. Fiske, *Beginnings of New England*, ch. 4.

Also in: B. Adams, *Emancipation of Massachusetts*, ch. 5.—R. P. Hallowell, *Quaker Invasion of Massachusetts*.

1657-1662.—Halfway covenant. See BOSTON: 1657-1669.

1660-1665.—Under restored monarchy.—First collision with the crown.—"In May, 1660, Charles II. mounted the throne of his ancestors. . . . In December of this year, intelligence of the accession of a new king had reached Massachusetts; the General Court convened and prepared addresses to his majesty. . . . In the following May a reply, signed by Mr. Secretary Morrice, together with a mandate for the arrest of Goffe and Whalley, the regicides who had escaped to Massachusetts, was received in Boston. The king's response contained a general expression of good will, which, however, did not quiet the apprehensions of the colonists. The air was filled with rumors, and something seemed to forebode an early collision with the crown. At a special session of the court, held in June, 'a declaration of natural and chartered rights' was approved and published. In this document the people affirmed their right 'to choose their own governor, deputy governor, and representatives; to admit freemen on terms to be prescribed at their own pleasure; to set up all sorts of officers, superior and inferior, and point out their power and places; to exercise, by their annually elected magistrates and deputies, all power and authority, legislative, executive, and judicial; to defend themselves by force of arms against every aggression; and to reject, as an infringement of their rights, any parliamentary or royal imposition, prejudicial to the country, and contrary to any just act of colonial legislation.' More than a year elapsed from the restoration of Charles II. to his public recognition at Boston. . . . Even the drinking of his health was forbidden, and the event was celebrated only amid the coldest formalities. Meanwhile the colonists not only declared, but openly assumed, their rights; and in consequence complaints were almost daily instituted by those who were hostile to the government. Political opinion was diversified; and while 'a majority were for sustaining, with the charter, an independent government in undiminished force, a minority were willing to make some concessions.' In the midst of the discussions, John Norton, 'a friend to moderate counsels,' and Simon Bradstreet were induced to go to England as agents of the colony. Having been instructed to convince the king of the loyalty of the people of Massachusetts, and to 'engage to nothing prejudicial to their present standing according to their patent, and to endeavor the establishment of the rights and privileges then enjoyed,' the commissioners sailed

from Boston on the 10th of February, 1662. In England they were courteously received by King Charles, and from him obtained, in a letter dated June 28, a confirmation of their charter, and an amnesty for all past offences. At the same time the king rebuked them for the irregularities which had been complained of in the government; directed 'a repeal of all laws derogatory to his authority'; the taking of the oath of allegiance; the administration of justice in his name; a concession of the elective franchise to all freeholders of competent estate; and as 'the principle of the charter was the freedom of the liberty of conscience,' the allowance of that freedom to those who desired to use 'the booke of common prayer, and perform their devotion in the manner established in England.' These requisitions of the king proved anything but acceptable to the people of Massachusetts. With them the question of obedience became a question of freedom, and gave rise to the parties which continued to divide the colony until the establishment of actual independence. It was not thought best to comply immediately with his majesty's demands; on the other hand, no refusal to do so was promulgated. [Presently a rumor reached America] . . . that royal commissioners were to be appointed to regulate the affairs of New England. Precautionary measures were now taken. The patent and a duplicate of the same were delivered to a committee of four, with instructions to hold them in safe keeping. Captain Davenport, at Castle Fort, was ordered to give early announcement of the arrival of his majesty's ships. Officers and soldiers were forbidden to land from ships, except in small parties. . . . On the 23d of July, 1664, 'about five or six of the clock at night,' the 'Guinea,' followed by three other ships of the line, arrived in Boston harbor. They were well manned and equipped for the reduction of the Dutch settlements on the Hudson, and brought commissioners hostile to colonial freedom, and who were charged by the king to determine 'all complaints and appeals in all causes and matters, as well military as criminal and civil,' and to 'proceed in all things for the providing for and settling the peace and security of the country, according to their good and sound discretions.' Colonel Richard Nichols and Colonel George Cartwright were the chief members of the commission. At the earliest possible moment they produced their legal warrant, the king's letter of April 23, and requested the assistance of the colonies in the reduction of the Dutch. Shortly afterwards the fleet set out for New Netherlands. On the 3d of August the General Court convened, and the state of affairs was discussed." As the result of the discussion it was agreed that a force of 200 men should be raised to serve against the Dutch, and that the old law of citizenship should be so far modified as to provide "that all English subjects, being freeholders, and of a competent estate, and certified by the ministers of the place to be orthodox in faith, and not vicious in their lives, should be made freemen, although not members of the church." Before the session closed, Massachusetts published an order forbidding the making of complaints to the commissioners," and adopted a spirited address to the king. When, in February, 1665, three of the commissioners returned to Boston, they soon found that they were not to be permitted to take any proceedings which would call in question "the privilege of government within themselves" which the colony claimed. Attempting in May to hold a court for the hearing of charges against a Boston merchant, they were interrupted by a herald from the governor who sounded his trumpet and forbade, in the name of the king, any abetting of their

proceedings. On this they wrathfully departed for the north, after sending reports of the contumacy of Massachusetts to the king. The latter now summoned governor Bellingham to England, but the summons was not obeyed. "We have already furnished our views in writing [said the General Court], so that the ablest persons among us could not declare our case more fully." . . . The defiance of Massachusetts was followed by no immediate danger. For a season the contest with the crown ceased. The king himself was too much engaged with his women to bestow his attention upon matters of state; and thus, while England was lamenting the want of a good government, the colonies, true to themselves, their country, and their God, flourished in purity and peace."—G. L. Austin, *History of Massachusetts*, ch. 4.—*Records of the Government and Colony of Massachusetts Bay*, v. 4, pt. 2.—See also NEW YORK: 1664.

1671-1686.—*Struggle for the charter and its overthrow.*—"Although the colonists were alarmed at their own success, there was nothing to fear. At no time before or since could England have been so safely defied. . . . The discord between the crown and Parliament paralyzed the nation, and the wastefulness of Charles kept him always poor. By the treaty of Dover in 1670 he became a pensioner of Louis XIV. The Cabal followed, probably the worst ministry England ever saw; and in 1672, at Clifford's suggestion, the exchequer was closed and the debt repudiated to provide funds for the second Dutch war. In March fighting began, and the tremendous battles with De Ruyter kept the navy in the Channel. At length, in 1673, the Cabal fell, and Danby became prime minister. Although during these years of disaster and disgrace Massachusetts was not molested by Great Britain, they were not all years during which the theocracy could tranquilly enjoy its victory. . . . With the rise of Danby a more regular administration opened, and, as usual, the attention of the government was fixed upon Massachusetts by the clamors of those who demanded redress for injuries alleged to have been received at her hands. In 1674 the heirs of Mason and Gorges, in despair at the reoccupation of Maine, proposed to surrender their claim to the king, reserving one third of the product of the customs for themselves. The London merchants also had become restive under the systematic violation of the Navigation Acts. The breach in the revenue laws had, indeed, been long a subject of complaint, and the commissioners had received instructions relating thereto; but it was not till this year that these questions became serious. . . . New England was fast getting its share of the carrying trade. London merchants already began to feel the competition of its cheap and untaxed ships, and manufacturers to complain that they were undersold in the American market, by goods brought direct from the Continental ports. A petition, therefore, was presented to the king, to carry the law into effect. . . . The famous Edward Randolph now appears. The government was still too deeply embarrassed to act with energy. A temporizing policy was therefore adopted; and as the experiment of a commission had failed, Randolph was chosen as a messenger to carry the petitions and opinions to Massachusetts; together with a letter from the king, directing that agents should be sent in answer thereto. After delivering them, he was ordered to devote himself to preparing a report upon the country. He reached Boston June 10, 1676. Although it was a time of terrible suffering from the ravages of the Indian war, the temper of the magistrates was harsher than ever. The repulse of the commissioners had convinced

them that Charles was not only lazy and ignorant, but too poor to use force; and they also believed him to be so embroiled with Parliament as to make his overthrow probable. Filled with such feelings, their reception of Randolph was almost brutal. John Leverett was governor, who seems to have taken pains to mark his contempt in every way in his power. Randolph was an able, but an unscrupulous man, and probably it would not have been difficult to have secured his good-will. Far however from bribing, or even flattering him, they so treated him as to make him the bitterest enemy the Puritan Commonwealth ever knew. . . . The legislature met in August, 1676, and a decision had to be made concerning agents. On the whole, the clergy concluded it would be wiser to obey the crown, 'provided they be, with utmost care & caution, qualified as to their instructions.' Accordingly, after a short adjournment, the General Court chose William Stoughton and Peter Bulkeley; and having strictly limited their power to a settlement of the territorial controversy, they sent them on their mission. . . . The controversy concerning the boundary was referred to the two chief justices, who promptly decided against the Company; and the easy acquiescence of the General Court must raise a doubt as to their faith in the soundness of their claims. And now again the fatality which seemed to pursue the theocracy in all its dealings with England led it to give fresh provocation to the king by secretly buying the title of Gorges for 1,250 pounds. Charles had intended to settle Maine on the Duke of Monmouth. It was a worthless possession, whose revenue never paid for its defence; yet so stubborn was the colony that it made haste to anticipate the crown and thus became 'Lord Proprietary' of a burdensome province at the cost of a slight which was never forgiven. Almost immediately the Privy Council had begun to open other matters, such as coining and illicit trade; and the attorney-general drew up a list of statutes which, in his opinion, were contrary to the laws of England. . . . In the spring the law officers gave an opinion that the misdemeanors alleged against Massachusetts were sufficient to avoid her patent; and the Privy Council, in view of the encroachments and injuries which she had continually practised on her neighbors, and her contempt of his majesty's commands, advised that a 'quo warranto' should be brought against the charter. Randolph was appointed collector at Boston. Even Leverett now saw that some concessions must be made, and the General Court ordered the oath of allegiance to be taken; nothing but perversity seems to have caused the long delay. The royal arms were also carved in the courthouse; and this was all, for the clergy were determined upon those matters touching their authority. . . . Nearly half a century had elapsed since the emigration, and with the growth of wealth and population changes had come. In March, John Leverett, who had long been the head of the high-church party, died, and the election of Simon Bradstreet as his successor was a triumph for the opposition. Great as the clerical influence still was, it had lost much of its old despotic power, and the congregations were no longer united in support of the policy of their pastors. . . . Boston and the larger towns favored concession, while the country was the ministers' stronghold. The result of this divergence of opinion was that the moderate party, to which Bradstreet and Dudley belonged, predominated in the Board of Assistants, while the deputies remained immovable. The branches of the legislature thus became opposed; no course of action could be agreed on, and the theocracy drifted to its

destruction. . . . Meanwhile Randolph had renewed his attack. He declared that in spite of promises and excuses the revenue laws were not enforced; that his men were beaten, and that he hourly expected to be thrown into prison; whereas in other colonies, he asserted, he was treated with great respect. There can be no doubt ingenuity was used to devise means of annoyance; and certainly the life he was made to lead was hard. In March he sailed for home, and while in London he made a series of reports to the government which seem to have produced the conviction that the moment for action had come. In December he returned, commissioned as deputy-surveyor and auditor-general for all New England, except New Hampshire. . . . Hitherto the clerical party had procrastinated, buoyed up by the hope that in the fierce struggle with the commons Charles might be overthrown; but this dream ended with the dissolution of the Oxford Parliament, and further inaction became impossible. Joseph Dudley and John Richards were chosen agents, and provided with instructions bearing the peculiar tinge of ecclesiastical statesmanship. . . . The agents were urged to do what was possible to avert, or at least delay, the stroke; but they were forbidden to consent to appeals, or to alterations in the qualifications required for the admission of freemen. They had previously been directed to pacify the king by a present of 2,000 pounds; and this ill-judged attempt at bribery had covered them with ridicule. Further negotiation would have been futile. Proceedings were begun at once, and Randolph was sent to Boston to serve the writ of 'quo warranto'; he was also charged with a royal declaration promising that, even then, were submission made, the charter should be restored with only such changes as the public welfare demanded. Dudley, who was a man of much political sagacity, had returned and strongly urged moderation. The magistrates were not without the instincts of statesmanship: they saw that a breach with England must destroy all safeguards of the common freedom, and they voted an address to the crown accepting the proffered terms. But the clergy strove against them: the privileges of their order were at stake; they felt that the loss of their importance would be 'destructive to the interest of religion and of Christ's kingdom in the colony,' and they roused their congregations to resist. The deputies did not represent the people, but the church. . . . The influence which had moulded their minds and guided their actions controlled them still, and they rejected the address. . . . All that could be resolved on was to retain Robert Humphrys of the Middle Temple to interpose such delays as the law permitted; but no attempt was made at defence upon the merits of their cause, probably because all knew well that no such defence was possible. Meanwhile, for technical reasons, the 'quo warranto' had been abandoned, and a writ of 'scire facias' had been issued out of chancery. On June 18, 1684, the lord keeper ordered the defendant to appear and plead on the first day of the next Michaelmas Term. The time allowed was too short for an answer from America, and judgment was entered by default. . . . So perished the Puritan Commonwealth. The child of the Reformation, its life sprang from the assertion of the freedom of the mind; but this great and noble principle is fatal to the temporal power of a priesthood, and during the supremacy of the clergy the government was doomed to be both persecuting and repressive. Under no circumstance could the theocracy have endured: it must have fallen by revolt from within if not by attack from without."

—B. Adams, *Emancipation of Massachusetts*, ch. 6.—“December 19, 1686, Sir Edmund Andros arrived at Nantasket, in the *Kingfisher*, a 50 gun ship, with commissions from King James for the government of New England.”—T. Hutchinson, *History of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay*, v. 1, ch. 3.—See also NEW ENGLAND: 1686.

ALSO IN: G. E. Ellis, *Puritan age and rule in Massachusetts*, ch. 13.—C. Deane, *Struggle to maintain the Charter of Charles I (Memorial History of Boston*, v. 1, pp. 329-382).—*Records of the Government and Colony of Massachusetts Bay*, v. 5.

1674-1678.—King Philip's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1674-1675; 1675 (October-December); 1676-1678.

1679.—Severance of New Hampshire. See NEW HAMPSHIRE: 1622-1679; 1641-1679.

1686-1689.—Tyranny of Andros and its downfall.—“With the charter were swept away representative government, and every right and every

service, and introducing swearing by the Book in courts of justice. He left nothing undone to engage the people and prepare for revolution; and when he returned from unsuccessful Indian warfare in the east, the storm was ready to burst. News came of the landing of the Prince of Orange. Andros arrested the bearer of the tidings, and issued a proclamation against the Prince; but the act was vain. Without apparent concert or preparation Boston rose in arms, the signal-fire blazed on Beacon Hill, and the country people poured in, hot for revenge. Some of the old magistrates met at the town-house, and read a ‘declaration of the gentlemen, merchants, and inhabitants,’ setting forth the misdeeds of Andros, the illegality of the Dudley government by commission, and the wrongful suppression of the charter. Andros and Dudley were arrested and thrown into prison, together with the captain of the *Rose* frigate, which lay helpless beneath the guns of the fort, and a provisional government was established, with Bradstreet at its head. William and Mary were proclaimed, the revolution was complete, and Andros soon went back a prisoner to England.”—H. C. Lodge, *Short history of the English colonies*, ch. 18.

ALSO IN: J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 3, bk. 3, ch. 13-14.—W. H. Whitmore, ed., *Andros tracts (Prince Society, 1868)*.

1689-1692.—Procuring of new charter.—Colonial republic transformed into a royal province.—Absorption of Plymouth.—“A little more than a month from the overthrow of Andros a ship from England arrived at Boston, with news of the proclamation of William and Mary. This was joyful intelligence to the body of the people. The magistrates were at once relieved from their fears, for the revolution in the old world justified that in the new. Three days later the proclamation was published with unusual ceremony. . . . A week later the representatives of the several towns, upon a new choice, met at Boston, and proposals were made that charges should be forthwith drawn up against Andros, or that all the prisoners but Andros should be liberated on bail; but both propositions were rejected. The representatives likewise urged the unconditional resumption of the charter, declaring that they could not act in any thing until this was conceded. Many opposed the motion; but it was finally adopted; and it was resolved that all the laws in force May 12, 1686, should be continued until further orders. Yet the magistrates, conscious of the insecurity of the position they occupied, used prudently the powers intrusted to them.” Meantime, Increase Mather, who had gone to England before the revolution took place, as agent for the colony, had procured an audience with the new king, William III, and received from him an assurance that he would remove Andros from the government of New England and call him to an account for his administration. “Anxious for the restoration of the old charter and its privileges, under which the colony had prospered so well, the agent applied himself diligently to that object, advising with the wisest statesmen for its accomplishment. It was the concurrent judgment of all that the best course would be to obtain first a reversion of the judgment against the charter by an act of Parliament, and then apply to the king for such additional privileges as were necessary. Accordingly, in the House of Commons, where the whole subject of seizing charters in the reign of Charles II. was up for discussion, the charters of New England were inserted with the rest; and, though enemies opposed the measure, it was voted that their abrogation was a grievance, and that they should be forthwith restored.” But before



SIR EDMUND ANDROS

political institution reared during half a century of conflict. The rule of Andros was on the model dear to the heart of his royal master—a harsh despotism, but neither strong nor wise; it was wretched misgovernment, and stupid, blundering oppression. And this arbitrary and miserable system Andros undertook to force upon a people of English race, who had been independent and self-governing for fifty years. He laid taxes at his own pleasure, and not even according to previous rates, as he had promised; he denied the Habeas Corpus to John Wise, the intrepid minister of Ipswich, arrested for preaching against taxation without representation, and he awakened a like resistance in all directions. He instituted fees, was believed to pack juries, and made Randolph licenser of the press. Worst of all, he struck at property, demanded the examination of the old titles, declared them worthless, extorted quitrents for renewal, and issued writs of intrusion against those who resisted; while, not content with attacking political liberty and the rights of property, he excited religious animosity by forbidding civil marriages, seizing the old South church for the Episcopal

the bill having this most satisfactory effect had been acted on in the House of Lords, the Convention Parliament was prorogued, then dissolved, and the next parliament proved to be less friendly. An order was obtained, however, from the king, continuing the government of the colony under the old charter until a new one was settled, and requiring Andros and his fellow prisoners to be sent to England for trial. On the trial, much court influence seemed to go in favor of Sir Edmund; the proceedings against him were summarily quashed, and he was discharged. Soon afterwards he was made governor of Virginia, while Dudley received appointment to the office of chief justice at New York. Contending against the intrigues of the Andros party, and many other adverse influences, the agents of Massachusetts were reluctantly forced at last to relinquish all hopes of the restoration of the old charter, and "application was made for a new grant, which should confirm the privileges of the old instrument, and such in addition as the experience of the people had taught them would be of benefit. . . . The king was prevailed upon to refer the affairs of New England to the two lords chief justices and the attorney and solicitor-general, all of whom were supposed to be friendly to the applicants. Mr. Mather was permitted to attend their meetings." Difficulties arose in connection with Plymouth Colony. It was the determination in England that Plymouth should no longer be separately chartered, but should be joined to Massachusetts or New York. In opposing the former more natural union, the Plymouth people very nearly brought about their annexation to New York; but Mather's influence averted that result. "The first draught of a charter was objected to by the agents, because of its limitation of the powers of the governor, who was to be appointed by the king. The second draught was also objected to; whereupon the agents were informed that they 'must not consider themselves as plenipotentiaries from a foreign state, and that if they were unwilling to submit to the pleasure of the king, his majesty would settle the country without them, and they might take what would follow.' Nothing remained, therefore, but to decide whether they would submit, or continue without a charter, and at the mercy of the king." The two colleagues who had been associated with Mather opposed submission, but the latter yielded, and the charter was signed. "By the terms of this new charter the territories of Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Maine, with a tract farther east, were united into one jurisdiction, whose officers were to consist of a governor, a deputy governor, and a secretary, appointed by the king, and 28 councillors, chosen by the people. A General Court was to be holden annually, on the last Wednesday in May, and at such other times as the governor saw fit; and each town was authorized to choose two deputies to represent them in this court. The choice of these deputies was conceded to all freeholders having an estate of the value of forty pounds sterling, or land yielding an income of at least forty shillings per annum; and every deputy was to take the oath of allegiance prescribed by the crown. All residents of the province and their children were entitled to the liberties of natural born subjects; and liberty of conscience was secured to all but Papists. . . . To the governor was given a negative upon all laws enacted by the General Court; without his consent in writing none were valid; and all receiving his sanction were to be transmitted to the king for approval, and if rejected at any time within three years were to be of no effect. The governor was empowered to establish courts, levy

taxes, convene the militia, carry on war, exercise martial law, with the consent of the council, and erect and furnish all requisite forts. . . . Such was the province charter of 1692—a far different instrument from the colonial charter of 1629. It effected a thorough revolution in the country. The form of government, the powers of the people, and the entire foundation and objects of the body politic, were placed upon a new basis; and the dependence of the colonies upon the crown was secured. . . . It was on Saturday, the 14th of May, 1692, that Sir William Phips arrived at Boston as the first governor of the new province."—J. S. Barry, *History of Massachusetts*, v. 1, ch. 18.

ALSO IN: W. H. Whitmore, *Inter-Charter period (Memorial history of Boston)*, v. 2.—G. P. Fisher, *Colonial era*, ch. 13.

1689-1697.—King William's War.—Temporary conquest of Acadia.—Disastrous expedition against Quebec.—Threatened attack by the French. See CANADA: 1689-1690; 1692-1697.

1690.—First Colonial Congress. See U.S.A.: 1690.

1691-1780.—Woman suffrage. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: United States: 1647-1848.

1692.—Salem witchcraft madness: Its beginning.—"The people of Massachusetts in the 17th century, like all other Christian people at that time,—at least, with extremely rare individual exceptions,—believed in the reality of a hideous crime called 'witchcraft.' . . . In a few instances witches were believed to have appeared in the earlier years of New England. But the cases had been sporadic. . . . With three or four exceptions . . . no person appears to have been punished for witchcraft in Massachusetts, nor convicted of it, for more than sixty years after the settlement, though there had been three or four trials of other persons suspected of the crime. At the time when the question respecting the colonial charter was rapidly approaching an issue, and the public mind was in feverish agitation, the ministers sent out a paper of proposals for collecting facts concerning witchcrafts and other 'strange apparitions.' This brought out a work from President [Increase] Mather entitled 'Illustrious Providences,' in which that influential person related numerous stories of the performances of persons leagued with the Devil. The imagination of his restless young son [Cotton Mather] was stimulated, and circumstances fed the flame." A poor Irish washerwoman, in Boston, accused by some malicious children named Goodwin, who played antics which were supposed to signify that they had been bewitched, was tried, convicted and sent to the gallows (1688) as a witch. "Cotton Mather took the oldest 'afflicted' girl to his house, where she dexterously played upon his self-conceit to stimulate his credulity. She satisfied him that Satan regarded him as his most terrible enemy, and avoided him with especial awe. . . . Mather's account of these transactions ['Late Memorable Providences relating to Witchcrafts and Possessions'], with a collection of other appropriate matter, was circulated not only in Massachusetts, but widely also in England, where it obtained the warm commendation of Richard Baxter; and it may be supposed to have had an important effect in producing the more disastrous delusion which followed three years after. . . . Mr. Samuel Parris was minister of a church in a part of Salem which was then called 'Salem Village,' and which now as a separate town bears the name of Danvers. He was a man of talents, and of repute for professional endowments, but avaricious, wrong-headed, and ill-tempered. Among his parishioners, at the time of his installation and afterwards, there had

been angry disputes about the election of a minister, which had never been composed. Neighbors and relations were embittered against each other. Elizabeth Parris, the minister's daughter, was now nine years old. A niece of his, eleven years old, lived in his family. His neighbor, Thomas Putnam, the parish clerk, had a daughter named Ann, twelve

win children so famous. They forced their limbs into grotesque postures, uttered unnatural outcries, were seized with cramps and spasms, became incapable of speech and of motion. By and by [March, 1692], they interrupted public worship. . . . The families were distressed. The neighbors were alarmed. The physicians were perplexed and



ARREST OF WITCH DURING SALEM WITCHCRAFT MADNESS

(Drawing by V. Bernstrom)

years of age. These children, with a few other young women, of whom two were as old as twenty years or thereabouts, had become possessed with a wild curiosity about the sorceries of which they had been hearing and reading, and used to hold meetings for study, if it may be so called, and practice. They learned to go through motions similar to those which had lately made the Good-

bailed, and at length declared that nothing short of witchery was the trouble. The kinsfolk of the 'afflicted children' assembled for fasting and prayer. Then the neighboring ministers were sent for, and held at Mr. Parris's house a prayer-meeting which lasted through the day. The children performed in their presence, and the result was a confirmation by the ministers of the opinion of the doctors. Of

course, the next inquiry was by whom the manifest witchcraft was exercised. It was presumed that the unhappy girls could give the answer. For a time they refused to do so. But at length, yielding to an importunity which it had become difficult to escape unless by an avowal of their fraud, they pronounced the names of Good, Osborn, and Tituba. Tituba—half Indian, half negro—was a servant of Mr. Parris, brought by him from Barbadoes, where he had formerly been a merchant. Sarah Good was an old woman, miserably poor. Sarah Osborn had been prosperous in early life. She had been married twice, and her second husband was still living, but separated from her. Her reputation was not good, and for some time she had been bedridden, and in a disturbed nervous state. . . . Tituba, whether in collusion with her young mistress, or, as was afterwards said, in consequence of having been scourged by Mr. Parris, confessed herself to be a witch, and charged Good and Osborn with being her accomplices. The evidence was then thought sufficient, and the three were committed to gaol for trial. Martha Corey and Rebecca Nurse were next cried out against. Both were church-members of excellent character, the latter, seventy years of age. They were examined by the same Magistrates, and sent to prison, and with them a child of Sarah Good, only four or five years old, also charged with diabolical practices."—J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 4, bk. 4, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: C. W. Upham, *Salem witchcraft*, v. 2, pt. 3.—S. G. Drake, *Annals of witchcraft in New England*.

1692.—Salem witchcraft madness: Its culmination.—"Now a new feature of this thing showed itself. The wife of Thomas Putnam joined the children, and 'makes most terrible shrieks' against Goody Nurse—that she was bewitching her, too. On the 3d of April, Minister Parris preached long and strong from the Text, 'Have I not chosen you twelve, and one of you is a devil?' in which he bore down so hard upon the Witches accused that Sarah Cloyse, the sister of Nurse, would not sit still, but 'went out of meeting;' always a wicked thing to do, as they thought, but now a heinous one. At once the children cried out against her, and she was clapt into prison with the rest. Through the months of April and May, Justices Hawthorne and Curwin (or Corwin), with Marshal George Herrick, were busy getting the Witches into jail, and the good people were startled, astounded, and terror-struck, at the numbers who were seized. . . . Bridget Bishop, only, was then brought to trial, for the new Charter and new Governor (Phips), were expected daily. She was old, and had been accused of witchcraft twenty years before. . . . So, as there was no doubt about her, she was quickly condemned, and hung on the 10th day of this pleasant June, in the presence of a crowd of sad and frightened people. . . . The new Governor, Phips, one of Mather's Church, fell in with the prevailing fear, and a new bench of special Judges, composed of Lieutenant-Governor Stoughton, Major Saltonstall, Major Richards, Major Gidney, Mr. Wait Winthrop, Captain Sewall, and Mr. Sargent, were sworn in, and went to work. On the 30th of June, Sarah Good, Rebeka Nurse, Susannah Martin, Elizabeth How, and Sarah Wilder were brought to trial; all were found guilty, and sentenced to death, except Nurse, who, being a Church member, was acquitted by the jury. At this, the 'afflicted' children fell into fits, and others made great outcries; and the popular dissatisfaction was so great, that the Court sent them back to the jury room, and they returned shortly,

with a verdict of Guilty! The Rev. Mr. Noyes, of Salem, then excommunicated Nurse, delivered her to Satan, and they all were led out to die. Minister Noyes told Susannah Martin that she was a witch, and knew it, and she had better confess it; but she refused, and told him that 'he lied,' and that he knew it; and, 'that if he took away her life, God would give him blood to drink;' which curse is now traditionally believed, and that he was choked with blood. They were hanged, protesting their innocence; and there was none to pity them. On the 5th of August, a new batch was hailed before the Court. Reverend George Burroughs, John Proctor and his wife, John Willard, George Jacobs, and Martha Carrier. Burroughs was disliked by some of the Clergy, for he was tinctured with Roger Williams's Heresies of Religious Freedom; and he was particularly obnoxious to Mather, for he had spoken slightly of witchcraft, and had even said there was no such thing as a witch. Willard had been a constable employed in seizing witches, but, becoming sick of the business, had refused to do it any more. The children at once cried out, that he, too, was a witch; he fled for his life, but was caught at Nashua, and brought back. Old Jacobs was accused by his own grand-daughter; and Carrier was convicted upon the testimony of her own children. They were all quickly convicted and sentenced. . . . All but Mrs. Proctor saw the last of earth on the 10th of August. They were hanged on Gallows Hill. Minister Burroughs made so moving a prayer, closing with the Lord's Prayer, which it was thought no witch could say, that there was fear lest the crowd should hinder the hanging. As soon as he was turned off, Mr. Mather, sitting on his horse, addressed the people, to prove to them that Burroughs was really no Minister, and to show how he must be guilty, notwithstanding his prayer, for the devil could change himself into an angel of light. . . . Giles Cory, an old man of 80, saw that the accused were prejudged, and refused to plead to the charge against him. What could be done with him? It was found that for this, by some sort of old law, he might be pressed to death. So on the 10th of September, just as the autumn tints were beginning to glorify the earth, he was laid on the ground, bound hand and foot, and stones were piled upon him, till the tongue was pressed out of his mouth; 'the Sheriff with his cane forced it in again when he was dying.' Such cruel things did fear—fear of the Devil—lead these people to do. He was the first and last who died in New England in this way. On the 22d of September, eight of the sentenced were carted up Gallows Hill and done to death. Amid a great concourse of men, women, and children, from the neighboring villages, and from Boston, the victims went crying and singing, dragged through the lines of terror-stricken or pitying people. Some would have rescued them, but they had no leaders, and knew not how to act; so that tragedy was consummated; and the Reverend Mr. Noyes, pointing at them, said, 'What a sad thing it is to see eight fire-brands of hell hanging there!' Sad indeed! Nineteen had now been hung. One pressed to death. Eight were condemned. A hundred and fifty were in prison; and two hundred more were accused by the 'afflicted.' Some fifty had acknowledged themselves witches, of whom not one was executed. . . . It was now October, and this mischief seemed to be spreading like fire among the dry grass of the Prairies; and a better quality of persons was beginning to be accused by the bewitched. . . . But these accusations made people consider, and many began to think that they had been going on too

fast. 'The juries changed sooner than the judges, and they sooner than the Clergy.' 'At last,' says one of them, 'it was evidently seen that there must be a stop put, or the generation of the church of God would fall under that condemnation.' In other words, the better class of church members were in danger! At the January session, only three were convicted, and they were reprieved; whereat Chief Justice Stoughton rose in anger, and said, 'The Lord be merciful to this country!' In the spring, Governor Phips, being about to leave the country, pardoned all who were condemned, and the jails were delivered. The excitement subsided as rapidly as it had arisen, but the evil work was done."—C. W. Elliott, *New England history*, v. 2, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: S. P. Fowler, ed., *Salem witchcraft (including Calef's "More Wonders of the Invisible World," etc.)*.—C. S. Osgood and H. M. Batchelder, *Historical sketch of Salem*, ch. 2.—J. S. Barry, *History of Massachusetts*, v. 2, ch. 2.

1692-1693.—Salem witchcraft madness: Its ending, and the reaction.—"On the second Wednesday in October, 1692, about a fortnight after the last hanging of eight at Salem, the representatives of the colony assembled; and the people of Andover, their minister joining with them, appeared with their remonstrance against the doings of the witch tribunals. Of the discussions that ensued no record is preserved; we know only the issue. The general court ordered by bill a convocation of ministers, that the people might be led in the right way as to the witchcraft. . . . They abrogated the special court, established a tribunal by statute, and delayed its opening till January of the following year. This interval gave the public mind security and freedom; and though Phips still conferred the place of chief judge on Stoughton, yet jurors acted independently. When, in January, 1693, the court met at Salem, six women of Andover, renouncing their confessions, treated the witchcraft but as something so called, the bewildered but as 'seemingly afflicted.' A memorial of like tenor came from the inhabitants of Andover. Of the presentments, the grand jury dismissed more than half; and of the twenty-six against whom bills were found through the testimony on which others had been condemned, verdicts of acquittal followed. . . . The people of Salem village drove Parris from the place; Noyes regained favor only by a full confession and consecrating the remainder of his life to deeds of mercy. Sewall, one of the judges, by rising in his pew in the Old South meeting-house on a fast-day and reading to the whole congregation a paper in which he bewailed his great offence, recovered public esteem. Stoughton never repented. The diary of Cotton Mather proves that he, who had sought the foundation of faith in tales of wonders, himself 'had temptations to atheism, and to the abandonment of all religion as a mere delusion.'"—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, v. 2, pt. 3.—"It was long before the public mind recovered from its paralysis. No one knew what ought to be said or done, the tragedy had been so awful. The parties who had acted in it were so numerous, and of such standing, including almost all the most eminent and honored leaders of the community from the bench, the bar, the magistracy, the pulpit, the medical faculty, and in fact all classes and descriptions of persons; the mysteries connected with the accusers and confessors; the universal prevalence of the legal, theological, and philosophical theories that had led to the proceedings; the utter impossibility of realizing or measuring the extent of the calamity; and the gen-

eral shame and horror associated with the subject in all minds; prevented any open movement. . . . Dr. Bentley describes the condition of the community in some brief and pregnant sentences: . . . 'As soon as the judges ceased to condemn, the people ceased to accuse. . . . Terror at the violence and guilt of the proceedings succeeded instantly to the conviction of blind zeal; and what every man had encouraged all professed to abhor. Few dared to blame other men, because few were innocent. The guilt and the shame became the portion of the country, while Salem had the infamy of being the place of the transactions.'"—C. W. Upham, *Salem witchcraft*, v. 2, *Supplement*.—"The probability seems to be that those who began in harmless deceit found themselves at length involved so deeply, that dread of shame and punishment drove them to an extremity where their only choice was between sacrificing themselves, or others to save themselves. It is not unlikely that some of the younger girls were so far carried along by imitation or imaginative sympathy as in some degree to 'credit their own lie.' . . . Parish and boundary feuds had set enmity between neighbors, and the girls, called on to say who troubled them, cried out upon those whom they had been wont to hear called by hard names at home. They probably had no notion what a frightful ending their comedy was to have; but at any rate they were powerless, for the reins had passed out of their hands into the sterner grasp of minister and magistrate. . . . In one respect, to which Mr. Upham first gives the importance it deserves, the Salem trials were distinguished from all others. Though some of the accused had been terrified into confession, yet not one persevered in it, but all died, protesting their innocence, and with unshaken constancy, though an acknowledgment of guilt would have saved the lives of all. This martyr proof of the efficacy of Puritanism in the character and conscience may be allowed to outweigh a great many sneers at Puritan fanaticism."—J. R. Lowell, *Witchcraft (Among my books, series 1)*.

ALSO IN: G. M. Beard, *Psychology of the Salem witchcraft excitation*.

1696.—Congregationalists found town of Dorchester, South Carolina. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1670-1696.

17th century.—Early libraries. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: Early history.

17th century.—Educational provisions.—Growth of schools. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: United States.

1703-1711.—Queen Anne's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1702-1710; CANADA: 1711-1713.

1704.—First newspaper. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1704-1720.

1722-1725.—Renewed war with northeastern Indians. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1713-1730.

1744-1748.—King George's War.—Taking of Louisbourg and its restoration to France. See NEW ENGLAND: 1744; 1745; 1745-1748.

1754.—Colonial Congress at Albany and Franklin's plan of Union. See U.S.A.: 1754.

1755.—Expedition against Fort Beau Séjour in Nova Scotia. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1749-1755.

1755-1760.—French and Indian War, and conquest of Canada. See CANADA: 1750-1753, to 1759; NOVA SCOTIA: 1749-1755, 1755; OHIO: 1748-1754; 1754; 1755; CAPE BRETON ISLAND: 1758-1760.

1761.—Harsh enforcement of revenue laws.—Writs of assistance and Otis's speech.—"It was in 1761, immediately after the overthrow of the French in Canada, that attempts were made to enforce the revenue laws more strictly than heretofore; and trouble was at once threatened. Charles

Paxton, the principal officer of the custom-house in Boston, applied to the Superior Court to grant him the authority to use 'writs of assistance' in searching for smuggled goods. A writ of assistance was a general search-warrant, empowering the officer armed with it to enter, by force if necessary, any dwelling-house or warehouse where contraband goods were supposed to be stored or hidden. A special search-warrant was one in which the name of the suspected person, and the house which it was proposed to search, were accurately specified, and the goods which it was intended to seize were as far as possible described. In the use of such special warrants there was not much danger of gross injustice or oppression. . . . But the general search-warrant, or 'writ of assistance,' as it was called because men try to cover up the ugliness of hateful things by giving them innocent names, was quite a different affair. It was a blank form upon which the custom-house officer might fill in the names of persons and descriptions of houses and goods to suit himself. . . . The writ of assistance was therefore an abominable instrument of tyranny. Such writs had been allowed by a statute of the evil reign of Charles II.; a statute of William III. had clothed custom-house officers in the colonies with like powers to those which they possessed in England; and neither of these statutes had been repealed. There can therefore be little doubt that the issue of such search-warrants was strictly legal, unless the authority of Parliament to make laws for the colonies was to be denied. James Otis then held the crown office of advocate-general, with an ample salary and prospects of high favour from government. When the revenue officers called upon him, in view of his position, to defend their cause, he resigned his office and at once undertook to act as counsel for the merchants of Boston in their protest against the issue of the writs. A large fee was offered him, but he refused it. 'In such a cause,' said he, 'I despise all fees.' The case was tried in the council-chamber at the east end of the old town-hall, or what is now known as the 'Old State-House,' in Boston. Chief-justice Hutchinson presided, and Jeremiah Gridley, one of the greatest lawyers of that day, argued the case for the writs in a very powerful speech. The reply of Otis, which took five hours in the delivery, was one of the greatest speeches of modern times. It went beyond the particular legal question at issue, and took up the whole question of the constitutional relations between the colonies and the mother-country. At the bottom of this, as of all the disputes that led to the Revolution, lay the ultimate question whether Americans were bound to yield obedience to laws which they had no share in making. This question, and the spirit that answered it flatly and doggedly in the negative, were heard like an undertone pervading all the arguments in Otis's wonderful speech, and it was because of this that the young lawyer John Adams, who was present, afterward declared that on that day 'the child Independence was born.' Chief-justice Hutchinson . . . reserved his decision until advice could be had from the law-officers of the crown in London; and when next term he was instructed by them to grant the writs, this result added fresh impetus to the spirit that Otis's eloquence had aroused. The custom-house officers, armed with their writs, began breaking into warehouses and seizing goods which were said to have been smuggled. In this rough way they confiscated private property to the value of many thousands of pounds; but sometimes the owners of warehouses armed themselves and barricaded their doors and windows, and thus the officers were often successfully defied,

for the sheriff was far from prompt in coming to aid them."—J. Fiske, *War of Independence*, ch. 4.—See also U.S.A.: 1761.

ALSO IN: W. Tudor, *Life of James Otis*, ch. 5-7.—F. Bowen, *Life of James Otis* (*Library of American Biographies*, series 2, v. 2, ch. 2-3).

1761-1766.—Question of taxation by Parliament.—Sugar Act.—Stamp Act and its repeal.—Declaratory Act.—Stamp Act congress.—Non-importation agreements. See U.S.A.: 1760-1775, to 1766-1767.

1768.—Circular letter to other colonies. See U.S.A.: 1767-1768.

1768-1770.—Quartering of troops in Boston.—"Massacre."—Removal of troops. See BOSTON: 1768: Quartering of British troops; 1770: Soldiers and citizens, etc.

1769.—Boston patriots threatened.—Virginia roused to their support. See U.S.A.: 1769.

1770-1773.—Repeal of Townshend duties except on tea.—Committees of correspondence instituted.—Coming of tea ships. See U.S.A.: 1770: 1772-1773.

1773.—Destruction of tea at Boston. See BOSTON: 1773.

1774.—Boston Port Bill and Massachusetts Act ("Intolerable Acts").—Free government destroyed and commerce interdicted.—First Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1774; BOSTON: 1774.

1774.—Organization of independent provisional government.—Committee of Safety.—Minute-men.—"Governor Gage issued writs, dated September 1, convening the General Court at Salem on the 5th of October, but dissolved it by a proclamation dated September 28, 1774. The members elected to it, pursuant to the course agreed upon, resolved themselves into a Provincial Congress. This body, on the 26th of October, adopted a plan for organizing the militia, maintaining it, and calling it out when circumstances should render it necessary. It provided that one quarter of the number enrolled should be held in readiness to muster at the shortest notice, who were called by the popular name of minute-men. An executive authority—the Committee of Safety—was created, clothed with large discretionary powers; and another called the Committee of Supplies."—R. Frothingham, *History of the siege of Boston*, p. 41.—Under the Provincial Congress and the energetic Committee of Safety (which consisted at the beginning of Hancock, Warren and Church, of Boston, Richard Devens of Charlestown, Benj. White of Brookline, Joseph Palmer of Braintree, Abraham Watson of Cambridge, Azor Orne of Marblehead, and Norton Quincy, who declined) a complete and effective administration of government, entirely independent of royal authority, was brought into operation. Subsequently, John Pigeon of Newton, William Heath of Roxbury, and Jabez Fisher of Wrentham, were added to the committee.—Based on R. Frothingham, *Life and times of Joseph Warren*, p. 380.—See also U.S.A.: 1774-1775.

1775.—Beginning of American Revolution.—Lexington.—Concord.—Country in arms and Boston under siege.—Ticonderoga.—Bunker Hill.—Second Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1775.

1775-1776.—Washington in command at Cambridge.—British evacuation of Boston. See U.S.A.: 1775-1776: Washington in command.

1776 (April-May).—Independence assumed.—"The General Court, at its session in April [1776] passed a resolve to alter the style of writs and other legal processes—substituting 'the people and government of Massachusetts' for George III.; and,

in dating official papers, the particular year of the king was omitted, and only the year of our Lord was mentioned. Early in May, likewise, an order was passed and published, by which the people of the several towns in the province were advised to give instructions to their respective representatives, to be chosen for the following political year, on the subject of independence. . . . The returns from the towns . . . were highly encouraging."—J. S. Barry, *History of Massachusetts*, v. 3, ch. 3.

1776 (July).—Declaration of independence by Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July).

1776-1777.—Struggle for New Jersey and the Hudson.—Campaigns in New Jersey and on the Delaware.—Burgoyne's invasion and surrender. See U.S.A.: 1776 (August), to 1777 (July-October).

1777-1783.—Articles of Confederation.—Alliance with France.—Treason of Arnold.—War in the south.—Surrender of Cornwallis.—Peace. See U.S.A.: 1777-1781, to 1783.

1779.—Framing and adoption of a State constitution. See U.S.A.: 1776-1779.

1779-1814.—Growth of desire for separation in Maine. See MAINE: 1779-1814; 1783-1812.

1780.—Emancipation of slaves. See SLAVERY: 1638-1781; U.S.A.: 1860: Slavery concentrated in south.

1785.—Western territorial claims and their cession to the United States. See U.S.A.: 1781-1786.

1786.—Settlement of land claims with New York.—Cession of western New York. See NEW YORK: 1786-1799.

1786-1787.—Shays' rebellion.—Business depression, with heavy taxes, and stringent laws bearing harshly upon debtors, had brought about a state of discontent which agitators made the most of. In the neighborhood of Worcester this came to a head, during the fall of 1786, in organized insurrection, under one Captain Daniel Shays. The sheriff was powerless, and friends of order were much alarmed. Congress "offered secret aid to the authorities of Massachusetts upon the pretext of dispatching troops against the Indians. But the tender was not accepted; for in James Bowdoin the State had an executive equal to the emergency. Availing himself of a temporary loan from patriotic citizens, he raised and equipped a militia force, large enough to overawe the rebels, which, under General Lincoln's command, was promptly marched against them. Shays appears to have had more of the demagogue than warrior about him, and his followers fled as the troops advanced [being finally surprised and routed at Petersham, Feb. 4, 1787]. By midwinter civil order was restored; but the legislature made some concessions not less just than prudent. The vanquished rebels were treated with marked clemency. But Governor Bowdoin's energy lost him a re-election the following spring, and one of the manliest pioneers of Continental reform was remitted to private life for the rest of his days."—J. Schouler, *History of the United States*, v. 1, ch. 1, sect. 1.

ALSO IN: J. B. McMaster, *History of the people of the United States*, v. 1, ch. 3.—J. G. Holland, *History of western Massachusetts*, v. 1, ch. 16-18.—M. A. Green, *Springfield*, 1636-1886, ch. 14.

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

1788.—Ratification of Federal constitution. See U.S.A.: 1787-1789.

18th century.—Growth of education. See EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: United States.

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

1810-1860.—Agricultural revolution. See U.S.A.: 1810-1860.

1812.—Use of gerrymander in electoral districts. See GERRYMANDER.

1812-1814.—Opposition of Federalists to war with England. See U.S.A.: 1812.

1814.—Hartford convention. See U.S.A.: 1814 (December): Hartford convention.

1814-1819.—Agitation for separation by Maine.—Separation Act. See MAINE: 1814-1819.

1818-1821.—Founding of Amherst College. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1818-1821.

1820.—District of Maine erected into distinct state. See MAINE: 1820.

1826.—Construction of first railway. See RAILROADS: 1826-1850.

1831.—Beginning of Abolitionist movement.—The campaign waged by the Abolitionists during the ensuing years until the Civil War was opened in Massachusetts in 1831 when William Lloyd Garrison founded his anti-slavery organ, *The Liberator*, at Boston. This paper advocated the immediate and unconditional emancipation of the negroes.—See also U.S.A.: 1829-1832.

1836.—First child labor law. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1813-1871.

1837.—Establishment of Board of Education. A state board of education with Horace Mann as its secretary was created in 1837. District agents of the state board served, under the system, to coordinate the central body with the local organizations. The state school fund, built up in 1834 from the proceeds of state claims against the federal government and against the state of Maine, together with a school tax, became the financial basis of the generally recognized excellent public school system of Massachusetts.

1838-1842.—Boundary dispute with Maine and New Brunswick. See AROOSTOOK WAR.

1841.—Boundary dispute with Rhode Island settled by United States Supreme Court. See RHODE ISLAND: 1841.

1841.—Brook Farm experiment. See SOCIALISM: 1840-1847.

1842.—Webster-Ashburton Treaty. See MAINE: 1841-1842; U.S.A.: 1842.

1844-1847.—Opposition to Mexican War.—Massachusetts maintained a consistent attitude of opposition to the policy of the administration which led to the Mexican War in 1846. The state legislature defeated a bill for the appropriation of funds to equip a regiment in 1847, although the money was collected privately by Caleb Cushing who raised the regiment and became its colonel.

1847-1850.—Election of Sumner as senator.—"The Whigs were in a minority in Massachusetts after the year 1848. But the constitution required a majority of all the votes to elect a Governor; and, in case of no choice, the Governor, the Lieutenant Governor, the Executive Council, and the Senators from counties where there had been no election were chosen on joint ballot by the members elected to the two Houses. The Whigs were able to carry the Legislature, and in that way chose their Governor and Lieutenant Governor, elected Councillors, and filled vacancies in the Senate. But the Free Soil and Democratic leaders were not content to leave the power in the hands of the Whig minority. In 1849 a few Representatives and Senators were chosen to the Legislature by a union of the Free Soil and Democratic Parties. In the autumn of 1850 this arrangement was extended through the State. The Whigs were in a minority in the Legislature, and the coalition proceeded to elect a Democratic Governor and Lieutenant Governor and an Executive Council. In consideration

of giving these offices to the Democrats, it was agreed that Mr. [Charles] Sumner should be chosen Senator. A few of the Democrats, who desired to keep their party relations with the South, refused to agree to this arrangement. Mr. Winthrop was the Whig candidate. The Senate, on its part, promptly elected Mr. Sumner, but there was a long contest in the House of Representatives, extending through three months. Twenty-six ballots were cast, of which no candidate had a majority until the last. Mr. Sumner several times came within two or three votes of an election. At last it was apparent that some member had cast more than one vote; and an order was offered by Sidney Bartlett, an eminent Whig member from Boston, requiring the members to bring in their votes in sealed envelopes. This resulted in the choice of Sumner."—G. F. Hoar, *Autobiography of seventy years*, pp. 185-186.

1848-1892.—Free libraries. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: Early history.

1854-1865.—Know Nothing party in the state.—Relation to anti-slavery.—Attitude of Sumner and Allen.—“The political history of Massachusetts from 1846 to 1865 is, in general, the history of the share of the Commonwealth in the great National contest with Slavery; the beginning and growth of the Free Soil or Republican Party and the putting down of the Rebellion. The rise and dominion for three years, and final overthrow of the Know Nothing Party is an episode which should not be wholly omitted. . . . This party swept Massachusetts in the autumn of 1854. It elected in that year Governor, Lieutenant Governor, all the officers of the State Government, every member of both Houses of the Legislature, except two from the town of Northampton, and every [Massachusetts] member of Congress. Its candidate for Governor was Henry J. Gardner, a very skillful political organizer. . . . But a good many Anti-Slavery men who thought the party feeling of the Whigs and Democrats was a great obstacle to their cause, joined the movement simply in order that they might get rid of the old parties, and prepare the State as with a subsoil plow for a new one. They had no belief in the proscriptive doctrines, and were willing that men of foreign births and Catholics should have their just rights, and expected to destroy the Know Nothing Party in its turn when it had destroyed Whiggery and Democracy. Of these was Henry Wilson, who owed his first election to the Senate to the Know Nothing Legislature; and Eli Thayer, who had been the organizer of the Emigrant Aid Society, and the movement for the deliverance of Kansas and Nebraska. Both these gentlemen abandoned the Know Nothing Party the year after its formation. Mr. Thayer was elected as a Republican to Congress in 1856, and reelected in 1858. But he separated from his political associates and espoused the squatter sovereignty doctrines of Stephen A. Douglas. He, I have no doubt, was a sincere Anti-Slavery man. But he liked to do things, in peculiar and original ways of his own, and was impatient of slow and old-fashioned methods. So he got estranged from his Republican brethren, was defeated as a candidate for Congress in 1860, took no part in public activities during the time of the war, became somewhat soured, and landed in the Democratic Party. I always had a great liking for him, and deem him entitled to great public gratitude for his services in the rescue of Kansas from what was known as Border Ruffianism. Neither Charles Sumner nor Charles Allen ever tolerated the Know Nothing movement or made any terms with it. Its proscriptiveness and its secrecy were alike repug-

nant to their honest, brave and liberty-loving souls. Sumner was advised, as the question of his reelection was coming on in January, 1857, to keep silent about Know Nothingism. He was told that the Slavery question was enough for one man to deal with, and that if he would only hold his peace all the parties would unite in his reelection. He answered the advice with his brave challenge. He went about the Commonwealth, denouncing the intolerant and proscriptive doctrine of the Know Nothings. He told them: ‘You have no real principle on which you can stand. You are nothing but a party of Gardnerites.’ Charles Allen addressed a little company, of which I was one, in the City Hall at Worcester in the autumn of 1854, when Know Nothingism was in the height of its strength. He said: ‘Perhaps I am speaking too boldly, but I learned to speak boldly a long time ago. I will speak my sentiments in the face of any organization; or, if it does not show its face, though its secret mines are beneath my feet, and unseen hands ready to apply the match, I will declare those sentiments that a freeman is bound to utter.’ The people of Massachusetts elected Gardner Governor in 1854, 1855 and 1856. But in the autumn of 1857 he was beaten under the leadership of General Banks. The party lingered until 1850 when there was an attempt to keep it alive in the Presidential campaign of that year when Millard Fillmore was its candidate for the Presidency. But it was destroyed in the consuming fire kindled by the Civil War, and has not since been heard of by its old name.”—G. F. Hoar, *Autobiography of seventy years*, pp. 180-191.—See also KNOW NOTHING PARTY.

1855-1875.—Building of Hoosac tunnel.—State credits appropriated over a period of about twenty years, built the tunnel through the Hoosac mountain in northwestern Massachusetts. This was the first important tunnel built in America.

1861.—Attack on sixth regiment in Baltimore.—Passage of eighth regiment through Maryland. See U. S. A.: 1861 (April): Activity of rebellion, etc.; 1861 (April-May: Maryland).

1865-1869.—Ratification of Thirteenth, Fourteenth and Fifteenth Federal Amendments.—Railroad commission.—No state in the union was more eager to ratify the amendment emancipating the negroes than was Massachusetts which had cradled and fostered the Abolitionist movement. Governor Andrews in his annual message on January 6th urged the state legislature to request the president to call Congress in extra session in case the 38th Congress failed to adopt the amendment. Massachusetts ratified it on February 8th. She also ratified the amendment granting the right of citizenship to freedmen on March 20th, 1867, and the amendment stating that the right to vote shall not be denied nor abridged on account of “race, color or previous condition of servitude” on March 12, 1860. An important event of 1860 was the appointment of state railroad commissioners. See RAILROADS: 1860.

1866.—Governor authorized to prevent illegal employment of children. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1866-1800.

1869.—Labor-reform party organized.—First state labor bureau. See LABOR PARTIES: 1827-1872; LABOR LEGISLATION: Aids in making and enforcing laws.

1872.—Boston fire. See BOSTON: 1872.

1874.—Mill river flood.—Democratic governor elected.—Sentiment voiced on Louisiana legislature trouble.—On May 16th the bursting of a reservoir dam on Mill river in Hampshire county worked considerable destruction of property and loss of life in the towns of Williamsburg, Leeds,

Haydensville and Skinnerville. The election of William Gaston, the Democratic nominee to the governorship in 1874 was a gesture showing the lack of confidence in the administration which was rife throughout the state. During the year an indignation meeting was held at Faneuil Hall in Boston denouncing the ejection of members of the Louisiana legislature by General Trobrand and his soldiers. See LOUISIANA: 1868-1874.

1875-1884.—Republican and Democratic majorities.—Limited woman suffrage.—In the fall of 1875 Alexander H. Rice, the Republican nominee was elected and became governor of Massachusetts, 1876-1879. The women of Massachusetts gained the privilege of voting for members of school committees in city and town elections during the year 1870. Governor Rice was followed by Thomas Talbot, 1879-1880, and John D. Long, 1880-1883, both Republicans, when the Democratic and Independent candidate Benjamin F. Butler came in. The Republicans were defeated in the gubernatorial election in Massachusetts in 1882 when Benjamin Franklin Butler was elected by the Democrats and Independents on a large majority. In 1884 Butler ran for the presidency as the candidate of the Greenback and Anti-Monopolist parties but was defeated.

1884-1905.—Republican tradition maintained with Democratic interruptions.—During the twenty-one years after Butler's governorship, the Republicans kept control of the state executive chair with the exception of the three years from 1891 to 1894 when, due to a scandal in the Republican legislature, William E. Russell was elected and twice reelected governor by the Democratic party. The Republican governors were George D. Robinson, 1884-1887; Oliver Ames, 1887-1890; John Q. A. Brackett, 1890-1891; Fred T. Greenhalge, 1894-1896; Roger Wolcott, 1896-1900; W. Murray Crane, 1900-1903; and John L. Bates, 1903-1905. The state election of 1904 resulted in the victory of William L. Douglas, the Democratic candidate who became governor in 1905.

1886.—Arbitration board created. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920.

1897.—Recovery of original manuscript of Governor Bradford's history of Plymouth colony, sometimes called "The Log of the Mayflower."—"It has long been well known that Governor Bradford wrote and left behind him a history of the settlement of Plymouth. It was quoted by early chroniclers. There are extracts from it in the records at Plymouth. Thomas Prince used it when he compiled his annals, Hubbard depended on it when he wrote his 'History of New England,' Cotton Mather had read it, or a copy of a portion of it, when he wrote his 'Magnalia,' Governor Hutchinson had it when he published the second volume of his history in 1767. From that time it disappeared from the knowledge of everybody on this side of the water. All our historians speak of it as lost, and can only guess what had been its fate. . . . In 1844 Samuel Wilberforce, Bishop of Oxford, afterward Bishop of Winchester, one of the brightest of men, published one of the dullest and stupidest of books. It is entitled 'The History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America.' It contained extracts from manuscripts which he said he had discovered in the library of the Bishop of London at Fulham. The book attracted no attention here until, about twelve years later, in 1855, John Wingate Thornton . . . happened to pick up a copy of it while he was lounging in Burnham's book store. He read the bishop's quotations, and carried the book to his office, where he left it for

his friend, Mr. Barry, who was then writing his 'History of Massachusetts,' with passages marked, and with a note which is not preserved, but which, according to his memory, suggested that the passages must have come from Bradford's long-lost history. That is the claim for Mr. Thornton. On the other hand, it is claimed by Mr. Barry that there was nothing of that kind expressed in Mr. Thornton's note, but in reading the book when he got it an hour or so later, the thought struck him for the first time that the clue had been found to the precious book which had been lost so long. He at once repaired to Charles Deane, then and ever since, down to his death, as resident Eliot felicitously styled him, 'the master of historical investigators in this country.' Mr. Deane saw the importance of the discovery. He communicated at once with Joseph Hunter, an eminent English scholar. Hunter was high authority on all matters connected with the settlement of New England. He visited the palace at Fulham, and established beyond question the identity of the manuscript with Governor Bradford's history, an original letter of Governor Bradford having been sent over for comparison of handwriting. How the manuscript got to Fulham nobody knows. Whether it was carried over by Governor Hutchinson in 1774; whether it was taken as spoil from the tower of the Old South Church in 1775; whether, with other manuscripts, it was sent to Fulham at the time of the attempts of the Episcopal churches in America, just before the Revolution, to establish an episcopate here,—nobody knows."—G. F. Hoar, *Address, May 26, 1897, on the return of the manuscript to Massachusetts.*

After the discovery of the manuscript, several attempts to bring about its return to America were made: by Justin Winsor, in 1860, and again in 1877; by John L. Motley, in 1860; and by others. At length, Senator Hoar, after delivering an address at Plymouth, in 1895, on the anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims, went abroad, with his interest in the matter warmly stirred up, and took steps, in concurrence with Ambassador Bayard, which led eventually to the restoration of the precious piece of writing to its proper home. April 12, 1897, the coveted manuscript book was formally delivered to the United States Ambassador, Mr. Bayard, for conveyance to the governor of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. It was delivered by Mr. Bayard in person, on May 26, following, in the presence of the Senate and the House of Representatives of Massachusetts, sitting together in the chamber of the latter, with many guests invited for the occasion. The ceremonies of the occasion included the address by Senator Hoar from which the above account is taken. The manuscript volume is now deposited in the state library of Massachusetts at Boston. A new edition, carefully reproducing the text of the history from it, with a full report of the proceedings incident to its return to Massachusetts, was printed in 1900, under the direction of the secretary of the Commonwealth, by order of the General Court. The following remarks on the manuscript are from the introduction to that edition: "By very many it has been called, incorrectly, the log of the 'Mayflower.' Indeed, that is the title by which it is described in the decree of the Consistorial Court of London. The fact is, however, that Governor Bradford undertook its preparation long after the arrival of the Pilgrims, and it cannot be properly considered as in any sense a log or daily journal of the voyage of the 'Mayflower.' It is, in point of fact, a history of the Plymouth Colony, chiefly in the form of annals, extending from the inception of

the colony down to the year 1647. The matter has been in print since 1856, put forth through the public spirit of the Massachusetts Historical Society, which secured a transcript of the document from London, and printed it in the Society's Collections of the above-named year."

1899.—Tribute paid to Roger Williams.—Resolutions were introduced into the legislature during 1899 revoking the order of banishment issued against Roger Williams in 1635.

19th century.—Improvement in child welfare laws. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1880-1921.

19th century.—Education.—Certification of teachers. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: United States: Evolution of public school system. 20th century.—Ballot system. See AUSTRALIAN BALLOT: 1882-1916.

1902.—Care of deaf and blind children. See CHARITIES: United States: 1874-1902.

1907.—Juvenile court established. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1899-1921.

1907-1910.—Commemoration of Pilgrims at Provincetown.—Reorganization of board of education.—On August 21, 1907, President Roosevelt laid the cornerstone of a monument commemorating the landing of the Pilgrims at Provincetown. The memorial was dedicated by President Taft on August 5, 1910. In 1909 the board of education, created in 1837, was reorganized. A commissioner and two deputies were appointed and several changes instituted in regard to the application of the state school fund. Industrial education was advocated under the reorganized system.

1911-1912.—Pension system.—Nine-hour law.—Minimum wage commission established.—In 1911 a pension system was adopted, to apply to the employees of the state and a law was passed limiting the work of women and of children under eighteen, to a nine-hour day. During the same year "representatives of a number of groups of Massachusetts people who had been studying social and industrial conditions and were particularly interested in the situation of our 350,000 working women, formed themselves into an organization for the purpose of presenting to the legislature some sort of definite proposal looking toward remedial legislation to meet certain conditions which seemed to be getting worse instead of better as time went on. . . . Under advice of counsel they presented to our General Court [the Massachusetts legislature] in 1911 a petition asking for such an investigation as would develop the facts relating to this matter authoritatively. It was said frankly that the petitioners believed that such an investigation would disclose conditions demanding remedy. . . . The *Prima facie* case made by the petitioners with such evidence as was already at their disposal so impressed the legislature that, without attracting much public attention, a resolve was passed creating an investigating commission upon whose report the legislation of 1912 was framed. . . . When this report came before our General Court, the fight opened in earnest. The proposal was denounced as socialistic, as revolutionary, as subversive of the conservative traditions of the commonwealth and as fatal to the continuance of our industries; all of which, it was predicted, would immediately pack up their belongings and depart from an ungrateful community. . . . Out of all the contending forces and over the most decided sort of opposition there came the minimum wage act of 1912. It was a compromise but a compromise which the believers in the measure were willing to accept as marking a great advance. The law establishes a permanent Minimum Wage Commission with authority to set in motion the machinery of investigation, and to

give wide publicity to the facts so ascertained. On the point of approval and promulgation of a minimum rate determined for the industry in question by a wages board composed of representatives of the workers, of the employers and of the public there is no change from the bill recommended by a majority of the Investigating Commission. The commission can not compel the payment of the rate which it recommends. Herein lay the practical compromise that was necessary to obtain the passage of any legislation. But the commission can give the widest publicity to the facts which it finds to exist and also it can tell the people of the commonwealth what employers follow and what employers do not follow its recommendations. The law does not go fully into effect until July 1 of this year [1913]."—H. L. Brown, *Massachusetts and the minimum wage (Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, July, 1913)*.—See also LABOR REMUNERATION: 1910-1920.

1911-1920.—Development of port of Boston. See BOSTON: 1911-1920.

1912.—Seventeenth Federal Amendment ratified.—Inheritance tax law amended.—Department of labor and industries created.—In addition to enacting the minimum wage law in 1912, the state ratified on June 22 the Seventeenth Federal Amendment by which senators are elected by popular vote; the inheritance tax law was amended to apply only to real estate and not to include personal property; and a state board of labor and industries was created to take over the enforcement of all the labor laws in the state.

1913.—Mothers' pension law.—Continuation schools.—City planning and aviation acts.—Sixteenth amendment ratified.—Mothers' pensions and continuation schools for working children were provided for by state laws during 1913. By an act of April 16 every city in the state and every town having at the last preceding census a population of more than 10,000 was directed to create a planning board, which should study the municipal resources and needs and develop plans to meet those needs, with special reference to housing. The Aviation Act, which required aviators to have licenses, inspectors to examine airplanes and regulations to be made regarding the course of flight taken, was one of the first state acts in this field. The state legislature on March 4 ratified the sixteenth federal amendment, permitting the levying of a federal income tax.

1914.—Cape Cod canal.—On July 20 the Cape Cod canal, which is eight miles long and shortens the New York-Boston sea trip by seventy miles, was formally opened. It was constructed by a private company at a cost of \$12,000,000.—See also CANALS: American: Cape Cod canal.

1915.—Income tax and housing amendments to state constitution.—Two amendments to the state constitution were adopted by a large majority; one provided for the levying of a state income tax and the other empowered the legislature to authorize cities and towns to take, hold, improve, build on and sell land, in order to relieve the congestion of population and to provide homes for citizens.

1916.—Income tax law passed.—Jurisdiction of courts extended.—On the recommendation of the state tax commission, an income tax law was enacted, placing a tax of 1½ per cent upon annuities and salary or wage incomes in excess of \$2,000; there were other provisions applying to income from securities. (See STATE GOVERNMENT: 1913-1921.) An extension of the jurisdiction of district and municipal courts in civil and criminal cases was granted during the year.

1917.—Narcotic drug legislation.—An act was passed by the state legislature forbidding the sale of narcotic drugs except by prescription carefully regulated.

1917-1919.—Constitutional convention.—Twenty-two amendments submitted.—Significant articles.—Constitution adopted.—Board of education abolished.—“The constitutional convention of Massachusetts which assembled in the city of Boston, June 6, 1917, and finally terminated its labors at a short session of two days in August, 1919, is the fourth body of this kind which the Old Bay State has had. The first convention was held in 1779 and 1780 in Cambridge and Boston, and formulated the constitution of 1780. This instrument, to which sixty-six amendments have been added, is the oldest written constitution now in force anywhere in the world. The second convention was held in 1820, and submitted a series of resolutions part of which were adopted and part rejected by the people. A third convention met in 1853 all of whose proposals were rejected. After an interval of sixty-four years, a fourth convention was called, which met in 1917 and again in 1918 and yet again in 1919. It submitted to the people twenty-two amendments and a revised draft of the constitution, all of which were accepted. . . . The first of these [amendments] empowers the legislature to provide for voting by voters who are absent from home on election day. . . . Another amendment authorizes the legislature to make provision for public trading in the necessities of life and for shelter in time of public exigency. Massachusetts has been visited several times in recent years by such calamities as the great fire at Chelsea and Salem; and the rule laid down in *Lowell v. Boston*, 111 Mass. 454 (1873), seemed to make it impossible for the state to extend adequate relief. . . . The third amendment adopted by the people was the ‘anti-aid amendment,’ which prohibits any appropriations of public money to institutions not under public control. From 1860 to the end of 1916 Massachusetts had appropriated nearly \$10,000,000 for institutions of this kind. In recent years the attempts of various churches to obtain public funds for their schools and hospitals threatened to divide the people of the state into hostile groups and create an atmosphere of suspicion and antagonism.

“When these three amendments had been submitted to the people, the convention resumed its discussion of the initiative and referendum, and finally adopted a measure which provides for the initiation by the people of both constitutional amendments and of laws and also for a compulsory referendum on enactments of the legislature. [See INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States.] Having adopted this amendment by a vote of 163 to 125, and having provided that it should be submitted to the people at the state election of November, 1918, the convention adjourned until June, 1918. Eighteen amendments were . . . [then] approved by the convention, and at the election in November, 1918, they, as well as the amendments establishing the initiative and referendum—adopted too late for action in 1917—were ratified by the people. . . . Three of the amendments adopted in 1918 are such innovations that they may become landmarks in American constitutional history. The first authorizes the regulation of advertising in places within public view. Whether or not the control of bill-boards falls within the police power has long been a vexed question in law. [See BILLBOARDS.] Allied in some respects with the amendment for the regulation of advertising in public places is the amendment au-

thorizing the legislature ‘to limit buildings according to their use or construction to specified districts of cities and towns,’—in other words, to establish building zones. One of the most significant amendments adopted by Massachusetts is that which authorizes the establishment of compulsory voting. While the Massachusetts convention showed the prevailing opinion as to enlarging the sphere of government and removing restrictions on the action of governmental agents, it was essentially a conservative body. None of its recommendations was radical. It adopted the popular initiative and referendum, but surrounded it with many safeguards. It refused to make any substantial change in the judiciary. The substitution of biennial for annual elections was essentially a conservative measure. In fact, it may be said of all of the twenty-two amendments which it submitted to the people that they made only such changes as are to be expected in any enlightened and progressive community which endeavors to adapt itself to the demands of new conditions and to keep in touch with the expanding range of men’s thoughts.”—L. B. Evans, *Constitutional convention of Massachusetts* (*American Political Science Review*, May, 1921).—“For many years increase in the number of state boards and commissions in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts has been a growing problem and not infrequently a political issue of more or less importance. On the one hand was a tradition and a sentiment, not to say prejudice, against ‘one-man power’ in any form, and on the other was the inexorable march of social and political evolution building up governmental machinery which was becoming every year more and more unwieldy, more and more ridiculous. The constitution of 1918, Art. LXVI, attempts to bring the administrative and executive organization of the government up to date. The article follows. *Article LXVI*.—On or before January first, nineteen hundred twenty-one, the executive and administrative work of the commonwealth shall be organized in not more than twenty departments, in one of which every executive and administrative office, board and commission, except those officers serving directly under the governor or the council, shall be placed. Such departments shall be under such supervision and regulation as the general court may from time to time prescribe by law. *Act of 1919*.—In pursuance of the article just quoted, the general court of 1919 enacted a statute carrying into effect the intention of the new constitution. The new act was approved July 23, 1919, and was to become effective in part November 15, 1919; in part not before December 1, 1919; in part on January 1, 1921.”—H. C. Morrison, *New education department in Massachusetts* (*Elementary School Journal*, Mar., 1920).—The law approved July 23, 1919, established, in addition to the existing offices of governor and governor’s council, secretary, treasurer, auditor, and attorney-general, the following departments: agriculture, conservation, banking and insurance, corporations and taxation, education, civil service and registration, industrial accidents, labor and industries, mental diseases, correction, public welfare, public health, public safety, public works, and public utilities. Under the re-organized constitution of the state the old board of education was abolished and replaced by an advisory board working with a commissioner of education.

1918.—Part played in World War.—Eighteenth federal amendment ratified.—Budget system adopted.—The state furnished 132,610 soldiers, or 3.53 per cent of the whole force. A National Army camp, Camp Devens, was located at Ayer. On April 2, the legislature ratified the Eighteenth Fed-

eral (prohibition) amendment, Massachusetts being the eleventh state to ratify. A budget system for the state finances was adopted the same year 1918-1919.—Textile strikes. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1918; 1919; Lawrence textile strike.

1919.—Nineteenth federal amendment ratified.—The nineteenth amendment, granting nation-wide suffrage to women, was ratified on June 25 by Massachusetts, the eighth state to take that action.

1920.—Election results.—The vote for governor (for a two-year term, as the result of legislation in 1918) was as follows: Cox (Republican), 643,869; Walsh (Democrat), 200,350. Governor Coolidge was elected vice president of the United States.

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

1921.—Pilgrim tercentenary celebrated at Plymouth.—As an outdoor pageant in the bleak winter weather of a New England coast town was hardly practicable, the tercentenary of the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, Massachusetts, was celebrated during the summer following the actual anniversary. The replica of the *Mayflower* used for the occasion was built in Boston and sailed from that port to Plymouth. The landing itself was the culmination of the pageant (under the direction of Professor Baker of Harvard) which depicted also earlier arrivals in the New World from the Norsemen of the tenth century onward.

ALSO IN: N. J. O'Connor, *Plymouth pageant* (Bookman, Oct., 1921).

1922.—Operation of minimum wage law reviewed.—In May, 1922, nearly nine years after its enactment, the operation of minimum wage law in Massachusetts was reviewed by a member of the state department of labor and industries. "During this time, twenty-four occupations employing women have been investigated. Twenty-three bulletins based on investigations and inspections showing the wages of women workers have been published. Wage decrees fixing minimum rates for women and girls have been entered for sixteen different occupations employing from 70,000 to 80,000 women workers. Wage boards for eight occupations have been reconvened for the purpose of revising the decrees to meet the changes in the cost of living. The total expense of operations during the time the commission has been in existence has been approximately \$147,000. As the first state to enact minimum wage legislation, Massachusetts has had to bear the brunt of the opposition which any new proposal invariably incurs. The work of the wage boards was blocked. Amendments needed to enable the commission to carry out the intent of the law were defeated. Requests for needed appropriations were opposed. The constitutionality of the law was contested, and it was not until the fall of 1918, when the decision of the Supreme Judicial Court was rendered, upholding the law in its essential provisions, that the commission was free to go ahead with its work. Although still handicapped by the fact that there is no provision for penalty or fine for non-compliance, the law in its present form is much more than advisory. . . . The experience gained during the years the Massachusetts law has been in operation has served to show the modifications which are essential to insure effective and impartial enforcement. Of these modifications the most important are provision for prompt and scientific revision of rates to meet changes in the cost of living; provision for securing greater uniformity in minimum rates for different occupations; and provision for uniform enforcement of wage decrees."—E. M. Johnson, *Massachusetts minimum wage* (Survey, May 13, 1922).

1922.—Textile strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1922; New England textile strike.

See also NEW ENGLAND.

ALSO IN: E. E. Hale, *Story of Massachusetts*.—L. A. Frothingham, *Brief history of the constitution and government of Massachusetts*.—C. F. Adams, Jr., *Three episodes of Massachusetts history*.—P. Nichols, *Taxation in Massachusetts*.—G. A. Wood, *William Shirley, governor of Massachusetts, 1741-1756*.

MASSACHUSETTS ACT. See U.S.A.: 1774 (March-April).

MASSACHUSETTS METAPHYSICAL COLLEGE. See CHRISTIAN SCIENCE: First step towards organization.

MASSACRES.—The following is a list of the more prominent massacres of history:

- Acre (1101). See CRUSADES: 1188-1192
- Adana. See TURKEY: 1909.
- Alamo (1836). See TEXAS: 1835-1836.
- Alexandria. See ALEXANDRIA: 215.
- Amboyna (1623). See INDIA: 1600-1702.
- Argos (371 B. C.). See GREECE: B. C. 371-362.
- Armagnacs (1417). See FRANCE: 1415-1419.
- Armenians. See TURKEY: 1894-1895; ARMENIA. 1915; RUSSIA: 1905 (April-November); WORLD WAR: 1918; VI. Turkish theater: b, 2.
- Athens (86 B. C.). See ATHENS: B. C. 87-86.
- Babis of Persia. See BABISM.
- Bagdad (1638). See TURKEY: 1623-1640.
- Barcelona (1714). See SPAIN: 1713-1714
- Benin. See NIGERIA: 1807.
- Béziers. See ALBIGENSIS: 1209.
- Bloody Sunday. See RUSSIA: 1905 (January).
- Boston. See BOSTON: 1770: Soldiers and citizens
- Boxer rising in China. See CHINA: 1900;
- BOXER RISING AND THE "OPEN DOOR."
- Bruges Matins (1302). See FLANDERS: 1200-1304.
- Cæsaræa. See JEWS: A. D. 66-70.
- Casena (1364). See ITALY: 1343-1303.
- Cawnpur. See INDIA: 1857 (May-August).
- Cherry Valley. See U.S.A.: 1778 (June-November).
- Chios (1822). See GREECE: 1821-1820.
- Cholula. See MEXICO: 1510 (October).
- Christian missionaries in China. See CHINA: 1805 (August); 1808 (May); 1800; 1900; BOXER RISING AND THE "OPEN DOOR."
- Croia (1477). See GREECE: 1454-1470.
- Cusco. See PERU: 1533-1548.
- Deerfield. See NEW ENGLAND: 1675.
- Delhi. See TIMUR; INDIA: 1662-1748; 1857 (May).
- Devil's Hole (1703). See DEVIL'S HOLE.
- Drogheda (1649). See IRELAND: 1640-1650.
- Dundee (1651). See SCOTLAND: 1651 (August-September).
- Fetterman (1866). See U.S.A.: 1866-1870.
- Fez (1012). See MOROCCO: 1011-1014.
- Fort Dunanore (1580). See IRELAND: 1550-1603
- Fort Mims (1813). See U.S.A.: 1813-1814 (August-April).
- Fort Pillow. See U.S.A.: 1864 (April; Tennessee).
- Fort William Henry (1757). See CANADA: 1756-1757.
- French by the Natchez Indians (1720). See LOUISIANA: 1710-1750; NATCHESAN FAMILY.
- French Fury (1583). See NETHERLANDS: 1581-1584.
- Glencoe. See SCOTLAND: 1602.
- Haarlem (1573). See NETHERLANDS: 1572-1573
- Hua Sang. See CHINA: 1805 (August)
- Huguenots in Florida. See FLORIDA: 1565.

Jallianwallah Bagh. See INDIA: 1919.
 Janissaries. See TURKEY: 1826.
 Jerusalem. See JEWS: B. C. 106-40; A. D. 66-70;
 JERUSALEM: 615; 1099; 1244.
 Jews. See JEWS: 1046-1146; England: 1189;
 Russia; Ukraine; RUSSIA: 1903 (April); 1905
 (April-November); 1906-1911.
 Jugdulluk Pass (1841). See AFGHANISTAN:
 1838-1842.
 Kishinev. See RUSSIA: 1903 (April).
 Limoges (1370). See FRANCE: 1360-1380; LIM-
 OGES: 1370.
 Logan's kin. See OHIO: 1774.
 Magdeburg (1631). See GERMANY: 1630-1631.
 Mamelukes (1811). See EGYPT: 1803-1811.
 Mandalay (1884). See BURMA: 1824-1886.
 Marais des Cygnes (1858). See KANSAS: 1858-
 1861.
 Marsi (14 A. D.). See GERMANY: A. D. 14-16.
 Mechlin (1572). See NETHERLANDS: 1572-1573.
 Melos. See GREECE: B. C. 416.
 Mexico City (1520). See MEXICO: 1519-1520.
 Milan (1898). See ITALY: 1870-1901.
 Montenegrin Vespers (1703). See MONTENE-
 GRO: 1389-1868.
 Mountain Meadows (1857). See UTAH: 1857-
 1859.
 Mullaghmast. See IRELAND: 1550-1603.
 Naarden. See NETHERLANDS: 1572-1573.
 Negropont (1470). See GREECE: 1454-1470.
 New Orleans (1866). See LOUISIANA: 1865-
 1867.
 Paris prisons. See FRANCE: 1792 (September).
 Peterloo (1819). See ENGLAND: 1816-1820.
 Philippopolis (1878). See BULGARIA: 1875-1878.
 Port-au-Prince. See HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: 1804-
 1880.
 Protestants in Ireland. See IRELAND: 1641.
 Rapallo (1404). See ITALY: 1404-1406.
 St. Bartholomew's Day. See FRANCE: 1572
 (August).
 St. Brice's Day (1002). See ENGLAND: 979-
 1016.
 Schenectady (1600). See CANADA: 1680-1690.
 Shiites (1512). See TURKEY: 1481-1520.
 Sicilian Vespers (1282). See ITALY (Southern):
 1282-1300.
 Smyrna (1821). See GREECE: 1821-1829.
 Spirit Lake (1857). See IOWA: 1847-1857.
 Thebes (335 B. C.). See GREECE: B. C. 336-335.
 Thessalonica by Theodosius. See THESSA-
 LONICA: 390.
 Timur. See TIMUR.
 Vassy (1562). See FRANCE: 1560-1563.
 Virginia colonists. See VIRGINIA: 1622-1624.
 Waldenses. See FRANCE: 1532-1547; WAL-
 DENSES: 1655.
 Wyoming. See U. S. A.: 1778 (July).
 Zahara (1476). See SPAIN: 1476-1492.
 Zutphen. See NETHERLANDS: 1572-1573.
MASSAGETÆ. See SCYTHIANS.
MASSALIANS, or Messalians, Christian sect,
 called Euchites by the Greeks. See EUCHITES;
 MYSTICISM.
MASSASOIT, or Ousemaguin (1580-1661),
 chief of Wampanoag or Pokanoket Indians.
 Granted a tract of land along the Seekonk river to
 Roger Williams, 1636. See RHODE ISLAND: 1636.
MASSENA, André, Duke of Rivoli, and
 Prince of Essling (1758-1817). French marshal.
 General of division, 1793; marshal of France, 1804;
 in command of the army of Italy, 1805; for his
 successes in Poland was made prince of Essling,
 1808; after the restoration became a royalist, and
 remained at Marseilles as commandant. See
 FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-April); 1799 (April-

September); (August-December); 1800-1801 (May-
 February); 1805 (March-December); 1805-1806
 (December-September); SPAIN: 1810-1812.
MASSENET, Jules Émile Frédéric (1842-
 1912), French composer. Studied at Paris Conser-
 vatory; won the Prix de Rome, 1863; succeeded
 Bazin as professor of composition in the Paris
 Conservatory, 1878-1896; composed operas, of
 which "Manon," "Le Cid," and "Thais," are the
 best known. See MUSIC: Modern: 1830-1921.
MASSEY, William Ferguson (1856-),
 British statesman. Member of the New Zealand House
 of Representatives, 1895-1903; became premier of
 New Zealand, 1912; representative of New Zea-
 land at the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference,
 1917-1918; at the Paris peace conference, 1919;
 and at the imperial conference, 1921. See BRITISH
 EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921;
 VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.
MASSIGES SECTOR: In World War. See
 WORLD WAR: 1915; II. Western front: i, 8, vi.
MASSILA. See MARSEILLES.
MASSINGER, Philip (1583-1640), English
 dramatist. See DRAMA: 1592-1648.
MASSINISSA, or Masinissa (c. 238-148 B. C.),
 king of Numidia, 201-148 B. C. Aided Scipio in
 the Second Punic War; defeated the Carthaginians
 in the decisive battle of Zama, B. C. 202. See
 CARTHAGE: B. C. 146.
MASSONISTI. See MASONIC SOCIETIES: Russia.
MASSORETES. See MASORETES.
MASTABA.—"One of the earliest forms of the
 building which marks the site of an Egyptian tomb
 is the mastaba, the finest examples of which were
 built at Sakkarah; it was called mastaba by the
 Arabs because its length, in proportion to its height,
 is great, and reminded them of the long, low seat
 common in Oriental houses, and familiar to them.
 The mastaba is a heavy massive building, of rec-
 tangular shape, the four sides of which are four
 walls symmetrically inclined towards their common
 centre. . . . It has been asserted that mastabas are
 only unfinished pyramids, but properly considered,
 it is evident that they form a class of buildings by
 themselves, and that they have nothing in com-
 mon with the pyramid, save in respect of being
 oriented towards the north, this orientation being
 the result not of a studied imitation of the pyra-
 mid, but of a religious intention, which at this early
 period influenced the construction of all tombs,
 whatever their external form. The mastabas at
 Sakkarah are built of stone and brick."—E. A. W.
 Budge, *Mummy*, pp. 318-319.
MASTERS AND WORKMEN ACT (1872).
 See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL:
 Great Britain: 1562-1896.
MAS'UDI (Abu'l Hasan 'Ali al Mas'udi) (died
 c. 956), Arabian historian. See HISTORY: 21.
MASULIPATAM, or Bandar, seaport of Brit-
 ish India, capital of the District of Kistna, Madras.
 It was taken by the British in 1750. See INDIA:
 1758-1761.
MASURIAN LAKES, series of lakes in East
 Prussia. The lakes and marshy land surrounding
 them were an important factor in the battle of
 Tannenberg, 1914, where the Germans, under Hin-
 denburg, obtained a decisive victory over the Rus-
 sians under Samsonov.
MATABELELAND, region of British southern
 Africa, and part of southern Rhodesia, east of the
 Bechuanaland protectorate. The majority of the
 inhabitants are of Bantu stock, Zulus who were
 driven out of the Transvaal by the Boers. In 1911
 the white inhabitants numbered about 11,000.
 1887.—British acquisition. See SOUTH AFRICA,
 UNION OF: 1885-1893.

1896.—Revolt of inhabitants. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896 (March-September).

MATAGUAYAS, South American aborigines. See BOLIVIA: Aboriginal inhabitants.

MATERNITY ALLOWANCES ACT, Australia (1912). See AUSTRALIA: 1912.

MATERNITY AND INFANCY PROTECTION BILL, United States (1922). See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1921-1922: United States.

MATERNITY INSURANCE. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Mothers' pensions; Details for various countries: Germany: 1918-1920; Norway: 1915.

MATEWAN, village of Mingo county, West Virginia. Serious labor disturbances took place here in 1920. See WEST VIRGINIA: 1920-1921.

MATHEMATICS. See ALGEBRA; SCIENCE: Ancient: Egyptian and Babylonian science; EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries: Greece; Modern: 16th century: Schools in England; 17th century: England; 18th century: United States; HELLENISM: Science and invention; EUROPE: Modern: Revolutionary period.

MATHER, Cotton (1663-1728), American divine. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1689-1692; 1692.

MATHEWS, Shailer (1863-), American historian. See HISTORY: 33.

MATHIEU, Émile (1844-), Belgian musician. See Music: Folk music and nationalism: Netherlands: Belgium.

MATILDA (often known as Empress Maud), (1102-1167), daughter of King Henry I of England. See ENGLAND: 1100-1135.

Matilda (1046-1115), countess of Tuscany. Espoused the cause of Gregory VII; deeded her lands to the church. See FLORENCE: 12th century; PAPACY: 1077-1102; TUSCANY: 685-1115.

MATISSE, Henri (1869-), French post-impressionist painter. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

MATRIARCHATE.—This term is applied to a form of society in which all transmissible rights and privileges are inherited through the mother. Descent and kinship are traced solely through the mother. "Matrilineal descent was at one time interpreted to mean that women govern not merely the family but also the primitive equivalent of the state. Probably there is not a single theoretical problem on which modern anthropologists are so thoroughly in accord as with respect to the utter worthlessness of that inference. The testimony of the ethnographic data is too clear to be swept aside by a priori speculation. Of the Australians some tribes are matrilineal, others patrilineal, but the lot of woman is not one jot better or more dignified among the former. The same holds for Melanesia."—R. H. Lowie, *Primitive society*, p. 189.—In most of the matriarchates, so-called, woman is merely the transmitter of certain rights and privileges without enjoying them herself. Among the tribes in which the matriarchate still flourishes in America are the Iroquois, the Pueblo Indians and the aborigines of the North Pacific Coast. In Polynesia the absence of any clan system also lessens the possibility of the existence of mother right. In New Zealand matrilocal residence in marriage is frequent and in some places a woman may become chief. In Micronesia however mother-right prevails; in the Marshall and Caroline Islands the matrilineal mode of transmission is general. The Hamitic and Semitic tribes of Northern Africa are strictly patrilineal, there are some examples of maternal descent among the Sudanese and Bantu people of the south. In northern Asia again paternal descent dominates. In India the Khasis are the best example of maternal descent.

Also in: J. F. McLennan, *Studies in ancient his-*

tory.—E. B. Tyler, *Matriarchal family system*.—P. R. T. Gordon, *Khasis*.—L. H. Morgan, *League of the Iroquois*.

MATRIMONY. See SACRAMENTS.

MATRONALIA, Roman festival commemorating the peace made by the Sabine matrons between their kinsmen and their Roman husbands.

MATSUI, Baron K. Japanese representative at the Paris peace conference, 1919. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

MATSUKATA, Masayoshi, Marquis (1835-), Japanese statesman. Minister of commerce, 1880; minister of finance, 1881-1891; 1898-1900; premier, 1891-1892; 1896-1897; appointed privy councillor, 1903. See JAPAN: 1894-1912.

MATSYS, Massijs, or Metzys, Quintin (1466-1530), Flemish painter. See PAINTING: Flemish.

MATTA, Guillermo (1829-1899), Chilean political leader and poet. See CHILE: 1891-1892.

MATTHEW, Gospel of. See CHRISTIANITY: Three stages in the development of Christianity.

MATTHEW OF PARIS (d. 1259), English chronicler. See HISTORY: 19.

MATTHEW'S BIBLE. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: 16th-17th centuries.

MATTHIAS (1557-1619), Holy Roman emperor, 1612-1619; king of Hungary, Moravia, Silesia, Lusatia and Bohemia, 1608-1611. See BOHEMIA: 1611-1618; GERMANY: 1556-1609; 1608-1618; HUNGARY: 1606-1660.

Matthias I, Hunyadi (also known as Matthias Corvinus) (1440-1490), king of Hungary, 1458-1490. See HUNGARY: 1442-1458; 1471-1487; 1487-1526; AUSTRIA: 1437-1510; 1438-1493; 1471-1491; BOHEMIA: 1458-1471; HUSSARS.

MATTHIEU, Lord of Marli, founder of the monastery of Port Royal. See PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1602-1700.

MATTIOLI, Ercole Antonio, Count (b. 1640), French statesman. Minister under Charles IV. There is a theory that he was the Man in the Iron Mask. See IRON MASK, MAN IN THE.

MAUBEUGE, French fortress, near the Belgian boundary. In 1793 and 1814 it was unsuccessfully besieged (See FRANCE: 1793 [October]: Battle of Wattignies), but capitulated in 1815 during the Hundred Days. On September 7, 1914, after an investment of twelve days, it was captured by the Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: n; 1918: II. Western front: m; r; w, 2.

MAUCHAMP, Émile (d. 1907), French physician. Murdered at Marrakesh, 1907. See MOROCCO: 1907-1909.

MAUDE, Sir Frederick Stanley (1864-1917), British general. Conducted the successful second campaign in Mesopotamia, 1916-1917; took Bagdad and retrieved the earlier Kut-el-Amara disaster; died of cholera, 1917. See ARABIA: 1916 (June); WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1, ii; 1917: I. Summary: b; VI. Turkish theater: a, 1; a, 2.

MAUDHUY, L. E. de (1858-1921), French general. In command of the French 10th Army at the first battle of the Marne, 1914; military governor of Metz. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: a, 7.

MAUER JAW. See EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Heidelberg man.

MAUGHWAUWAMA, Indian word for big plains. See WYOMING.

MAUI, one of the Hawaiian islands. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Geographical description; Map.

MAULAWIYAH, religious order of Turkey. See DERVISHES.

MAULBRONN, Cistercian abbey at Würtemberg. See ABBEY: Architectural features.

MAUNOURY, Michel Joseph (1847-1923), French general. Commanded the French 6th Army, 1914; took part in the action (September 4) which proved the turning point of the battle of the Marne; participated in the battle of the Aisne; awarded posthumous title of marshal of France, March, 1923. See also **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: j; p; p, 5; p, 7; q; 1918: II. Western front: g, 12.

MAUPASSANT, Henri René Albert Guy de (1850-1893), French short story writer. See **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1800-1921: Realistic school.

MAUR. See **MERV.**

MAURA Y MONTANER, Antonio (b. 1853), Spanish statesman and juris-consult. President of the council of ministers (prime minister), 1885, 1903-1904, 1907-1909; minister of the colonies, 1892-1893; minister of justice, 1894. See **SPAIN**: 1900-1909: Parties and conflicts; 1909; 1910-1914; 1914-1918; 1919-1920.

MAURABOTINI, Moorish coin. See **MONEY AND BANKING**: Medieval: Coinage and banking in Middle Ages.

MAURETANIA, ancient division of northern Africa, originally the northwest angle of the continent between the Atlas mountains and the Mediterranean, of which modern Morocco forms a part. Before the Roman conquest it included the territory east of Algiers. The inhabitants, named the Mauri, may have been of Berber origin. Their name has been perpetuated in that of the Moors.—See also **AFRICA**: Races of Africa: Prehistoric peoples; **MOORS**; **EUROPE**: Ethnology: Migrations: Map.

Under the Romans. See **AFRICA**: Ancient and medieval civilization: Roman occupation.

374-398.—Revolts of Firmus and Gildo. See **ROME**: Empire: 306-308.

Medieval and modern history. See **MOROCCO**; **BARBARY STATES**.

MAURI. See **MOORS**; **NUMIDIANS**; **AFRICA**: Races of Africa: Prehistoric peoples.

MAURICE (Mauricius Flavius Tiberius) (c. 539-602), Roman emperor (Eastern), 582-602. See **ROME**: Medieval city: 565-628.

Maurice (1567-1625), prince of Orange and count of Nassau. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1584-1585; 1588-1593; 1603-1610; **BRAZIL**: 1510-1661.

Maurice (1521-1553), duke and elector of Saxony. See **GERMANY**: 1546-1552; 1552-1561.

MAURITIUS, principal island of the Mascarene group, in the Indian ocean, 550 miles east of Madagascar. "The area of the island is 720 square miles, while the dependencies, of which the island of Rodrigues and the Chagos Group (Diego Garcia) are the chief, cover about 80 square miles. The total population is 385,000, of which 6,000 live in the dependencies; thus the density of population is 481 to the square mile. . . . Nearly 70 per cent. of the population is Indian by birth, and . . . a majority of the Indians are independent land owners. The population of European (mainly French) descent numbers about 120,000, and there are besides a few thousand Chinese. . . . The climate . . . is uniformly, although rarely excessively, hot, with a regular and sufficient rainfall from the S.E. trade winds. . . . The natural vegetation is an evergreen tropical forest, rich in palms and fruit trees. The Chagos Group resembles the smaller Pacific islands, the coco-nut being the principal tree."—E. G. R. Taylor, *Business man's geography*, p. 334.—About the middle of the 10th century the Dutch attempted a settlement on Mauritius, which they named from their stadtholder, Count Maurice. In 1712 they abandoned the island, and it was occupied soon afterwards by the French, who had

already planted a colony on the neighboring island, first named Isle de Bourbon, and afterwards Réunion. To Mauritius the French gave the name of the Isle of France. Under the celebrated La Bourdonnais, who became governor in 1734, these islands assumed great colonial importance and became the seat of a powerful attempt to establish French ascendancy in the East. (See **INDIA**: 1743-1752.) In 1810 all three islands were surrendered to the English. Réunion was restored to France, at the peace, but the Isle of France, with its older Dutch name of Mauritius reinstated, and Rodrigues were retained and have formed part of the British Empire since. (See also **INDIA**: 1805-1816). Mauritius is a crown colony, with a representative government since 1885.—See also **MASCARENE ISLANDS**.

MAURITIUS RIVER, name given by the Dutch to the Hudson river.

MAURYAN, or Behar dynasty (c. 312-184 B. C.). See **INDIA**: B. C. 312; B. C. 273-161; B. C. 231-A. D. 480.

MAUSOLEUM AT HALICARNASSUS. See **CARIANS**; **BRITISH MUSEUM**: Explorations and accessions

MAUSOLEUM OF HADRIAN. See **CASTLE ST. ANGELO**.

MAWSON, Sir Douglas (1882-), British explorer and geologist. See **ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION**: 1911-1913.

MAX, Adolphe (1860-), Belgian statesman. Elected burgomaster of Brussels, 1909; imprisoned by the Germans, 1914-1918; became minister of state, 1918; elected to the Chamber of Representatives, 1919. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914; I. Western front: e, 2.

MAXEN, Capitulation of. See **GERMANY**: 1759 (July-November).

MAXENTIUS, Marcus Aurelius Valerius (d. 312), Roman emperor, 306-312. Defeated in the war with Constantine the Great at Saxa Rubra, 312, drowned in the Tiber in his flight. See **ROME**: Empire: 305-323.

MAXIM, Sir Hiram Stevens (1841-1916), American inventor and engineer. Became a British subject. See **AVIATION**: Development of airplanes and air service: 1889-1900; **ORDNANCE**: 20th century.

MAXIM GUN. See **ORDNANCE**: 20th century.

MAXIMA CAESARIENSIS, ancient province of Britain. See **BRITAIN**: 323-337.

MAXIMA SEQUANORUM, Roman province of Gaul. See **Franche Comte**.

MAXIMALIST PARTY, Russia. See **Bolshevik**: Origin of name.

MAXIMIANUS, Marcus Aurelius Valerius (surnamed Herculius) (d. 310), Roman emperor, 286-305, 306-308. Invested with the title of Caesar, 285, and Augustus, 286, by Diocletian. See **ROME**: Empire: 284-305.

MAXIMILIAN I (1459-1519), Holy Roman emperor, 1493-1519. See **AUSTRIA**: 1437-1516; 1438-1493; 1477-1495; **GERMANY**: 1493-1519; **FRANCE**: 1482; 1513-1515; 1516-1517; **HUNGARY**: 1487-1526; **ITALY**: 1501-1504; 1504-1506; **NETHERLANDS**: 1482-1493; **BRITAIN**: 1491.

Maximilian II (1527-1576), Holy Roman emperor, 1564-1576. See **AUSTRIA**: 1564-1618; **BOHEMIA**: 1516-1576; **GERMANY**: 1556-1609; **HUNGARY**: 1526-1567; 1567-1604; 1595-1606.

Maximilian I, the Great (1573-1651), elector and duke of Bavaria. An ally of Emperor Ferdinand II in the Thirty Years' War. See **GERMANY**: 1624-1626; 1631-1632; 1646-1648.

Maximilian (Ferdinand Maximilian Joseph) (1832-1867), archduke of Austria, emperor of Mexico, 1864-1867. See **MEXICO**: 1861-1867.

Maximilian (1867-), prince of Baden. President of the first chamber of the Baden diet, 1907-1918; imperial chancellor, October-November, 1918. See GERMANY: 1918 (October-November).

MAXIMINUS, or **Maximin**, **Gaius Julius Verus**, Roman emperor, 235-238. See ROME: Empire: 192-284.

Maximinus, or **Maximin**, **Galerius**, Roman emperor, 308-314. See ROME: Empire: 305-323.

MAXIMUS, **Magnus Clemens** (d. 388), Roman general of Spanish birth. Proclaimed Roman emperor (Western) in Britain, 383. See ROME: Empire: 379-395; BRITAIN: 383-388.

MAXWELL, **James Clerk** (1831-1879), British physicist. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Wireless or radio: 1864-1903.

MAXYANS. See LIBYANS.

MAY LAWS: German. See GERMANY: 1873-1887; PAPACY: 1870-1874.

Russian. See JEWS: Russia: 1727-1890.

MAYAS.—"In his second voyage, Columbus heard vague rumors of a mainland westward from Jamaica and Cuba, at a distance of ten days journey in a canoe. . . . During his fourth voyage (1503-4) when he was exploring the Gulf south-west from Cuba, he picked up a canoe laden with cotton clothing variously dyed. The natives in it gave him to understand that they were merchants, and came from a land called Maia. This is the first mention in history of the territory now called Yucatan, and of the race of the Mayas. . . . Maya was the patrial name of the natives of Yucatan. It was the proper name of the northern portion of the peninsula. No single province bore it at the date of the [Spanish] Conquest, and probably it had been handed down as a generic term from the period, about a century before, when this whole district was united under one government. . . . Whatever the primitive meaning and first application of the name Maya, it is now used to signify specifically the aborigines of Yucatan. In a more extended sense, in the expression 'the Maya family,' it is understood to embrace all tribes, wherever found, who speak related dialects presumably derived from the same ancient stock as the Maya proper. . . . The Maya language forms one of the rare examples of American languages possessing vitality enough not only to maintain its ground, but actually to force itself on European settlers and supplant their native speech. . . . The Mayas did not claim to be autochthones. Their legends referred to their arrival by the sea from the East, in remote times, under the leadership of Itzamina, their hero-god, and also to a less numerous immigration from the West, which was connected with the history of another hero-god, Kukul Càn. The first of these appears to be wholly mythical. . . . The second tradition deserves more attention from the historian. . . . It cannot be denied that the Mayas, the Kiches [or Quiches] and the Cakchiquels, in their most venerable traditions, claimed to have migrated from the north or west from some part of the present country of Mexico. These traditions receive additional importance from the presence on the shores of the Mexican Gulf, on the waters of the river Panuco, north of Vera Cruz, of a prominent branch of the Maya family, the Huastecs. The idea suggests itself that these were the rear-guard of a great migration of the Maya family from the north toward the south. Support is given to this by their dialect, which is most closely akin to that of the Tzendals of Tabasco, the nearest Maya race to the south of them, and also by very ancient traditions of the Aztecs. It is noteworthy that these two partially civilized

races, the Mayas and the Aztecs, though differing radically in language, had legends which claimed a community of origin in some indefinitely remote past. We find these on the Maya side narrated in the sacred book of the Kiches, the Popol Vuh, in the Cakchiquel 'Records of Tecpan Atillan,' and in various pure Maya sources. . . . The annals of the Aztecs contain frequent allusions to the Huastecs."—D. G. Brinton, *Maya chronicles, introd.*—"Closely enveloped in the dense forests of Chiapas, Guatemala, Yucatan, and Honduras, the ruins of several ancient cities have been discovered, which are far superior in extent and magnificence to any seen in Aztec territory. . . . Most of these cities were abandoned and more or less unknown at the time of the [Spanish] Conquest. They bear hieroglyphic inscriptions apparently identical in character; in other respects they resemble each other more than they resemble the Aztec ruins—or even other and apparently later works in Guatemala and Honduras. All these remains bear evident marks of great antiquity."—H. H. Bancroft, *Native races of the Pacific states*, v. 2, ch. 2, v. 4, ch. 3-6, v. 5, ch. 11-13.

"Broadly speaking, the Maya were a lowland people, inhabiting the Atlantic coast plains of southern Mexico and northern Central America. . . . There are at present upward of twenty tribes speaking various dialects of the Maya language, perhaps half a million people in all. These live in the same general region their ancestors occupied, but under greatly changed conditions. Formerly the Maya were the van of civilization in the New World, but to-day they are a dwindling race, their once remarkable civilization is a thing of the past, and its manners and customs are forgotten. . . . The ancient Maya . . . emerged from barbarism probably during the first or second century of the Christian Era. . . . [How long they had been engaged in their upward struggle it is impossible to say; but by that time they had brought] their complex calendar and hieroglyphic system to the point of graphic record. [Civilization thenceforward advanced for a period of upward of 400 years, during which city after city was built, and the art of sculpture was brought to a high state of development. Then something hitherto unexplained happened to arrest the advance.] There is strong documentary evidence that about the middle or close of the fifth century the southern part of Yucatan was discovered and colonized. In the century following, the southern cities one by one sank into decay; and coincidentally Chichen Itza, the first great city of the north, was founded and rose to prominence. . . . It seemed not improbable that after the discovery of Yucatan and the subsequent opening up of that vast region, the southern cities commenced to decline. . . . [Why the change of habitat was made no one can yet say; but the struggle for life in the new environment had an undoubted influence in checking their forward movement. Moreover they appear to have been for a long time quite unsettled. Bakhahal the first northern settlement was occupied for only sixty years. Chichen Itza was abandoned at the end of about a century, in favor of Chakanputun, which was occupied at the beginning of the eighth century. Here they lived until about 060 A. D. when the city was destroyed by fire.] By this time, however, some four centuries had elapsed since the first colonization of the [northern] country, and . . . once more their energies had begun to find outlet in artistic expression. . . . After the destruction of Chakanputun the horizon of Maya actively expanded. Some of the fugitives from Chakanputun re-occupied Chichen Itza while others established

themselves at a new site called Mayapan. About this time also the city of Uxmal seems to have been founded. In the year 1000 these three cities—Chichen Itza, Uxmal, and Mayapan—formed a confederacy, in which each was to share equally in the government of the country. Under the peaceful conditions which followed . . . for the next 200 years the arts blossomed forth anew. This was the second and last great Maya epoch . . . [during which the forgotten cities of Yucatan were built. This peaceful era was terminated about 1200 by war between Chichen Itza and Mayapan which plunged the country into civil strife. In the outcome Mayapan became supreme; but ruled with so much arrogance and oppression that] about the middle of the fifteenth century the Maya nobility banded themselves together under the leadership of the lord of Uxmal, sacked Mayapan, and slew its ruler. All authorities, native as well as Spanish, agree that the destruction of Mayapan marked the end of strongly centralized government in Yucatan. . . . That we have succeeded in deciphering, up to the present time, only the calendric parts of the inscriptions, the chronological skeleton of Maya history as it were, stripped of the events which would vitalize it, should not discourage the student nor lead him to minimize the importance of that which is already gained. Thirty years ago the Maya inscriptions were a sealed book, yet to-day we read in the glyphic writing the rise and fall of the several cities in relation to one another, and follow the course of Maya development even though we can not yet fill in the accompanying background. Future researches, we may hope, will reconstruct this background from the undeciphered glyphs, and will reveal the events of Maya history which alone can give the corresponding chronology a human interest.”—S. G. Morley, *Introduction to the study of the Maya hieroglyphs* (Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology, Bulletin 57, pp. 1-7, 250).—“The careful examination of the Maya ruins of Chichen-Itza, just completed by the American scientist Dr. Sylvanus G. Morley, has brought to light evidences of a civilization dating back to the middle of the fifth century A. D., which Dr. Morley says was the most advanced of any in the Western Hemisphere prior to the discovery of America by Columbus. The research in the ruins of Northern Yucatan was inaugurated a decade ago by the Carnegie Institute, but was interrupted by the war. The project was again taken up last month, when officers of the institution visited Yucatan and spent some time at Chichen-Itza studying scientific and practical aspects of the archaeological problem which it presents. It was apparent from this that the work would involve the services of a large number of scientific specialists, as well as extensive excavations covering a long term of years.”—*New York Times*, Apr. 3, 1923.—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in Mexico and Central America: Maya area; CENTRAL AMERICA: Aborigines; MEXICO: Aboriginal peoples; MYTHOLOGY: Latin American; AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE WRITING; CHRONOLOGY: System of the Maya Indians; YUCATAN: Geographical description.

ALSO IN: Marquis de Nadaillac, *Prehistoric America*, ch. 6-7.—J. L. Stephens, *Incidents of travel in Yucatan*.—B. M. Norman, *Rambles in Yucatan*.—D. Charnay, *Ancient cities of the New World*.

MAYENCE. See MAINZ.

MAYENNE, Charles of Lorraine, Duke of (1554-1611), French general. See FRANCE: 1589-1590.

MAYER, Johann (1723-1762), German astronomer and physicist. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1694-1906.

MAYFLOWER, Log of. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1897.

MAYFLOWER, Voyage of the. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1620.

MAYNOOTH, village in county Kildare, Ireland. It is the seat of the Royal College of St. Patrick, a well-known divinity school, founded in 1795 for the education of candidates for the Roman Catholic priesthood.

1535.—Siege of.—The castle of Maynooth, the stronghold of Kildare, built about 1176 by the early Fitzgeralds, was held by the Irish in the rebellion of 1535; was besieged by the English, stormed and taken, March 23 of that year, and twenty-six of its defenders hanged. The rebellion soon collapsed.—Based on J. A. Froude, *History of England*, ch. 8.

1844.—Grant. See IRELAND: 1844.

MAYO, Richard Southwell Bourke, 6th Earl of (1822-1872), British statesman. Member of Parliament, 1847-1869; chief secretary for Ireland, 1852-1869; governor-general of India, 1869-1872; assassinated, 1872. See INDIA: 1864-1893.

MAYOR: Under city government. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Evolution of types; NEW YORK CITY: 1777-1821.

MAYOR-AND-COUNCIL HYBRID. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Evolution of types.

MAYOR OF LONDON: Rise of office. See LONDON: 1154-1399.

MAYOR OF THE PALACE.—“The Mayor of the Palace is met with in all the Frankish kingdoms. . . . The mayors were at first merely the first superintendents, the first administrators of the interior of the palace of the king; the chiefs whom he put at the head of his companions, of his leudes, still united around him. It was their duty to maintain order among the king's men, to administer justice, to look to all the affairs, to all the wants, of that great domestic society. They were the men of the king with the leudes; this was their first character, their first state. Now for the second. After having exercised the power of the king over his leudes, his mayors of the palace usurped it to their own profit. The leudes, by grants of public charges and fiefs, were not long before they became great proprietors. This new situation was superior to that of companions of the king; they detached themselves from him, and united in order to defend their common interests. According as their fortune dictated, the mayors of the palace sometimes resisted them, more often united with them, and, at first servants of the king, they at last became the chiefs of an aristocracy, against whom royalty could do nothing. These are the two principal phases of this institution: it gained more extension and fixedness in Austrasia, in the family of the Pepins, who possessed it almost a century and a half, than anywhere else.”—F. Guizot, *History of Civilization*, v. 2 (France, v. 1), lect. 19.—See also FRANKS: 511-752.

ALSO IN: W. C. Perry, *Franks*, ch. 5.

MAYORUNA, or Barbudo, Andean tribe. See ANDESIANS.

MAYOW, John (1643-1679), English chemist. See CHEMISTRY: General: Phlogiston period.

MAYPO, Battle of (1818). See CHILE: 1810-1818.

MAYR, H. Michael (1866-), Austrian director of archives. Became state chancellor and minister of foreign affairs, 1920. See AUSTRIA: 1920: New ministry.

MAZACA.—“Mazaca [the capital city of ancient Cappadocia] was situated at the base of the great volcanic mountain Argæus (Argish), about 13,000

feet high. . . . The Roman emperor Tiberius changed the name of Mazaca to Caesarea, and it is now Kaisariyeh on the Kara Su, a small stream which flows into the Halys (Kizil Ernak)."
—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 5, ch. 22.

MAZARIN, Jules (1606-1661), French cardinal and statesman. Became chief minister of France on the death of Richelieu, 1642, and was retained in that office by Anne of Austria, the queen regent, during the minority of Louis XIV. See FRANCE: 1642-1643; 1649, to 1659-1661; ITALY: 1646-1654.

MAZARIN BIBLE. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: 14th-16th centuries; PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1430-1456.

MAZARIN LIBRARY, Paris. See LIBRARIES: Modern: France: Bibliothèque nationale.

MAZARQUIVER, port on the Barbary coast, opposite Carthage.

1505.—Taken by the Spaniards. See BARBARY STATES: 1505-1510.

1563.—Besieged and captured by the Spaniards. See BARBARY STATES: 1563-1565.

MAZPA-KOLEDINSKY, or **Mazepa**, Ivan Stepanovich (c. 1644-1709), Cossack hetman. Received the title of prince of Ukraine; allied with Stanislaus Leszczynski of Poland and Charles XII of Sweden in a conspiracy to win his independence from Russia. See UKRAINE: 1700-1721.

MAZES. See LABYRINTH.

MAZET INVESTIGATION. See NEW YORK CITY: 1899 (April-December).

MAZZINI, Giuseppe (1805-1872), Italian patriot. Founded the "Young Italy" society for the purpose of the unification of Italy under a republican form of government, 1832; member of the triumvirate in the republic of Rome, 1849; exiled at the restoration of the papal government, 1849; instigated revolutions in various Italian cities which finally resulted in unification under Victor Emmanuel, 1861; refused to take the oath of allegiance under a monarchy and remained abroad. See ROME: Modern city: 1849; INTERNATIONAL: 1862-1872; ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1827-1872.

MBUREKU, Battle of (1915). See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: c, 2.

MEADE, George Gordon (1815-1872), American general. Commanded the Army of the Potomac during the Civil War. See U. S. A.: 1863 (June-July: Pennsylvania); 1863 (July-November: Virginia); 1864 (May: Virginia): Grant's movement on Richmond; 1865 (March-April: Virginia).

MEANEE, Battle of (1843). See SIND.

MEANS, Philip Ainsworth (1802-), American sociologist. See AMERICA: Theory of a cultural wave.

MEASUREMENT: Importance in scientific investigation. See INVENTIONS: 18th century: Measurements; 19th century: Measurements.

MEAT PACKERS' STRIKE (1921-1922). See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1921-1922: Meat packers' strike.

MEAT PACKING INDUSTRY, United States: Report of Federal Trade Commission.—Packers and Stockyards Act. See FOOD REGULATION: 1921-1922.

MEATH, Irish county in the province of Leinster. It came under English control in 1367 and was raided by the Ulsterites, 1423. See IRELAND: 1327-1367; 1413-1467; also Historical map.

MEATH, Kingdom of. See IRELAND: From Tuathal to Cormac.

MEAUX, city on the Marne in France, vigorously besieged for seven months by Henry V of

England, and surrendered on May 10, 1422. It was in the region of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 2.

MECCA, capital of the Hedjaz, Arabia, and chief holy city of the Mohammedan world. Every faithful follower of Islam seeks at least once in his life to make a pilgrimage to it. The population, exclusive of pilgrims, was estimated in 1922 at 70,000.—See also MOHAMMEDANISM; ARABIA: Map.

622.—Mohammed in the city. See RELIGION: 622.

692.—Siege by Omeyyads. See CALIPHATE: 715-750.

929.—Stormed and pillaged by the Carmathians. See CARMATHIANS.

1811.—Captured by Wahhabis. See WAH-HABIS.

1916.—Revolt against the Turks. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: c, 3.

1920.—Provision for easy access by Treaty of Sèvres. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part III: Political clauses: Hedjaz.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTES, England. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: England: Mechanics' institutes.

Libraries. See LIBRARIES: Modern: England, etc.; Rise and growth of free town libraries.

MECHANICSVILLE, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (June-July: Virginia).

MECHLIN. See MALINES.

MECKLENBURG, territory in north Germany, divided into the states (formerly the duchies) of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz. See GERMANY: Map: At peace of Westphalia.

1628.—Duchy bestowed on Wallenstein. See GERMANY: 1627-1629.

1803.—Gains by treaty of Lunéville. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

1812.—Extent of dominions. See EUROPE: Modern: Map of central Europe in 1812.

MECKLENBURG DECLARATION. See NORTH CAROLINA: 1775 (May).

MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN, former German grand duchy, embraced in the Germanic confederation, 1815. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

MECKLENBURG-STRELITZ, former German grand duchy, embraced in the Germanic confederation, 1815. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

MEDAIN.—Medain, "the twin city," combined in one, under this Arabic name, the two contiguous Persian capitals, Seleucia and Ctesiphon. The name Medain signifies "cities," and "it is said to have comprised a cluster of seven towns, but it is ordinarily taken to designate the twin cities of Seleucia and Ctesiphon."—W. Muir, *Annals of the early caliphate*, ch. 10, 17.

MEDALS, War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VIII. War medals.

MEDIA AND THE MEDES.—The country of the Medes, in its original extent, coincided very nearly with the northwestern part of modern Persia, between Farsistan and the Elburz mountains. "The boundaries of Media are given somewhat differently by different writers, and no doubt they actually varied at different periods; but the variations were not great, and the natural limits, on three sides at any rate, may be laid down with tolerable precision. Towards the north the boundary was at first the mountain chain closing in on that side the Urumiyeh basin, after which it seems to have been held that the true limit was the Araxes, to its entrance on the low country, and then the mountain chain west and south of

the Caspian. Westward, the line of demarcation may be best regarded as, towards the south, running along the centre of the Zagros region; and, above this, as formed by that continuation of the Zagros chain which separates the Urumiyeh from the Van basin. Eastward, the boundary was marked by the spur from the Elburz, across which lay the pass known as the Pylæ Caspia, and below this by the great salt desert, whose western limit is nearly in the same longitude. Towards the south there was no marked line or natural boundary. . . . We may place the southern limit with much probability about the line of the thirty-second parallel, which is nearly the present boundary between Irak and Fars."—G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies: Media*, ch. 1.—"The nation of the Medes belongs to the group of the Arian tribes, which occupied the table-land of Iran. This has been already proved by the statement of Herodotus that in ancient times the Medians were called Areans by all men, by the religion of the Medes, and by all the Median words and names that have come down to us. According to Herodotus the nation consisted of six tribes: the Arizanti, Busae, Struchates, Budii, Paraetaceni, and Magi. . . . The Magians we have already found to be a hereditary order of Priests."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, bk. 8, ch. 1.—See also NUMIDIANS AND MAURI.—The Medes, who seem to have been long without any centralizing authority among them, became, at last, united under a monarchy which grew in power, until, in the later part

of the seventh century B.C., it combined with Babylonia against the decaying Assyrian kingdom. (See also ASSYRIA: Fall of the empire.) Nineveh was destroyed by the confederates, and the dominions of Assyria were divided between them. The Median empire which then rose, by the side of the Babylonian, endured little more than half a century. It was the first of the conquests of Cyrus (see PERSIA: B. C. 549-521), or Kyros, the founder of the Persian empire (B. C. 549).—Based on A. H. Sayce, *Ancient empires of the East*, appendix 5.—See also KURDISTAN AND THE KURDS; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 4.

ALSO IN: F. Lenormant and E. Chevallier, *Manual of the ancient history of the East*, bk. 5, ch. 1-4.

Ancient religion. See ZOROASTRIANS.

MEDIA ATROPATENE. See ATROPATENE.

MEDIATE, Conservative party of Spain. See SPAIN: 1910-1914.

MEDIATION, Industrial. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL.

MEDIATION, International. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL.

MEDIATION ACT OF 1803. See SWITZERLAND: 1803-1848.

MEDIATION COMMISSION, United States. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1917-1919.

MEDICAL LIBRARIES, United States. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: University libraries.

MEDICAL SCIENCE

ANCIENT

Chronology of development.—Renouard, in his "History of Medicine," arranges the chronology of the development of medical knowledge in three grand divisions or Ages, subdivided into eight periods. "The First Age commences with the infancy of society, as far back as historic tradition carries us, and terminates toward the end of the second century of the Christian era, at the death of Galen, during the reign of Septimus Severus. This lapse of time constitutes, in Medicine, the Foundation Age. The germ of the Healing Art, concealed, at first, in the instincts of men, is gradually developed; the basis of the science is laid, and great principles are discussed. . . . The Second Age, which may be called the Age of Transition, offers very little material to the history of Medicine. We see no longer the conflicts and discussions between partisans of different doctrines; the medical sects are confounded. The art remains stationary, or imperceptibly retrogrades. I can not better depict this epoch than by comparing it to the life of an insect in the nymphe state; though no exterior change appears, an admirable metamorphosis is going on, imperceptibly, within. The eye of man only perceives the wonder after it has been finished. Thus from the 15th century, which is the beginning of the third and last Age of Medicine, or the Age of Renovation, Europe offers us a spectacle of which the most glorious eras of the republics of Greece and Rome only can give us an idea. It would seem as if a new life was infused into the veins of the inhabitants of this part of the world; the sciences, fine arts, industry, religion, social institutions, all are changed. A multitude of schools are open for teaching Medicine. Establishments which had no models among the ancients, are created for the purpose of extending to the poorer classes the benefits of the Healing Art. The in-

genious activity of modern Christians explores and is sufficient for everything. These three grand chronological divisions do not suffice to classify, in our minds, the principal phases of the history of Medicine; consequently, I have subdivided each age into a smaller number of sections, easy to be retained, and which I have named Periods. The first Age embraces four periods, the second and third ages, each, two. . . . The first period, which we name Primitive Period, or that of instinct, ends with the ruin of Troy, about twelve centuries before the Christian era. The second, called the Mystic or Sacred Period, extends from the dissolution of the 'Pythagorean Society' to about the year 500 A. C. The third period, which ends at the foundation of the Alexandrian Library, A. C. 320, we name the Philosophic Period. The fourth, which we designate the Anatomic, extends to the end of the first age, i. e., to the year 200 of the Christian era. The fifth is called the Greek Period; it ends at the destruction of the Alexandrian Library, A. D. 640. The sixth receives the surname of Arabic, and closes with the 14th century. The seventh period, which begins the third age, comprises the 15th and 16th centuries; it is distinguished as the Eradite. Finally, the eighth, or last period, embraces the 17th and 18th centuries [beyond which the writer did not carry his history]. I call it the Reform Period."—P. V. Renouard, *History of medicine, introduction*.

Egyptian.—"Medicine is practised among them [the Egyptians] on a plan of separation; each physician treats a single disorder, and no more: thus the country swarms with medical practitioners, some undertaking to cure diseases of the eye, others of the head, others again of the teeth, others of the intestines, and some those which are not local."—Herodotus, *History* (tr. by Rawlinson), bk. 2, ch. 84.—"Not only was the study of medicine of very early date in Egypt, but medical men there

were in such repute that they were sent for at various times from other countries. Their knowledge of medicine is celebrated by Homer (Od. iv. 229), who described Polydamna, the wife of Thonis, as giving medicinal plants 'to Helen, in Egypt, a country producing an infinite number of drugs . . . where each physician possesses knowledge above all other men.' 'O virgin daughter of Egypt,' says Jeremiah (lxvi. 11), 'in vain shalt thou use many medicines.' Cyrus and Darius both sent to Egypt for medical men (Her. iii. 1, 132); and Pliny (ix. 5) says post mortem examinations were made in order to discover the nature of maladies. Doctors received their salaries from the treasury; but they were obliged to conform in the treatment of a patient to the rules laid down in their books, his death being a capital crime, if he was found to have been treated in any other way. But deviations from, and approved additions to, the sacred prescriptions were occasionally made; and the prohibition was only to prevent the experiments of young practitioners, whom Pliny considers the only persons privileged to kill a man with impunity. Aristotle indeed says 'the Egyptian physicians were allowed after the third day to alter the treatment prescribed by authority, and even before, taking upon themselves the responsibility' (Polit. iii. 11). Experience gradually taught them many new remedies; and that they had adopted a method (of no very old standing in modern practice) of stopping teeth with gold is proved by some mummies found at Thebes. Besides the protection of society from the pretensions of quacks, the Egyptians provided that doctors should not demand fees on a foreign journey or on military service, when patients were treated free of expense (Diod. i. 82); and we may conclude that they were obliged to treat the poor gratis, on consideration of the allowance paid them as a body by government. . . . Poor and superstitious people sometimes had recourse to dreams, to wizards, to donations to sacred animals, and to exvotos to the gods. . . . Charms were also written for the credulous, some of which have been found on small pieces of papyrus, which were rolled up and worn as by the modern Egyptians. Accoucheurs were women; which we learn from Exodus i. 15, and from the sculptures, as in modern Egypt. . . . The Egyptian doctors were of the sacerdotal order, like the embalmers, who are called (in Genesis i. 2) 'Physicians,' and were 'commanded by Joseph to embalm his father.' They were of the class called *Pastophori*, who, according to Clemens (Strom. lib. 6), being physicians, were expected to know about all things relating to the body, and diseases, and remedies, contained in the six last sacred books of Hermes. Manetho tells us that *Athotes*, the second king of Egypt, who was a physician, wrote the anatomical books; and his name, translated *Hermogenes*, may have been the origin of the tradition that ascribed them to Hermes, the Egyptian *Thoth*. Or the fable may mean that they were the result of intellect personified by *Thoth*, or *Hermes*.—*Ibid.*, note.—'The ancient Egyptians, though medical science was zealously studied by them, also thought that the efficacy of the treatment was enhanced by magic formulæ. In the Ebers Papyrus, an important and very ancient manual of Egyptian medicine, the prescriptions for various medicaments are accompanied by the forms of exorcism to be used at the same time, and yet many portions of this work give evidence of the advanced knowledge of its authors.'—G. Ebers, *Egypt*, v. 2, pp. 61-62.—'Works on medicine abounded in Egypt from the remotest times, and the great medical library of

Memphis, which was of immemorial antiquity, was yet in existence in the second century before our era, when Galen visited the Valley of the Nile. . . . *Ateta*, third king of the First Dynasty, is the reputed author of a treatise on anatomy. He also covered himself with glory by the invention of an infallible hair-wash, which, like a dutiful son, he is said to have prepared especially for the benefit of his mother. No less than five medical papyri have come down to our time, the finest being the celebrated Ebers papyrus, bought at Thebes by Dr. Ebers in 1874. This papyrus contains one hundred and ten pages, each page consisting of about twenty-two lines of bold hieratic writing. It may be described as an Encyclopædia of Medicine as known and practised by the Egyptians of the Eighteenth Dynasty; and it contains prescriptions for all kinds of diseases—some borrowed from Syrian medical lore, and some of such great antiquity that they are ascribed to the mythologic ages, when the gods yet reigned personally upon earth. Among others, we are given the recipe for an application whereby Osiris cured Ra of the headache. The Egyptians attached great importance to these ancient medical works, which were regarded as final. The physician who faithfully followed their rules of treatment might kill or cure with impunity; but if he ventured to treat the patient according to his own notions, and if that patient died, he paid for the experiment with his life. Seeing, however, what the canonical remedies were, the marvel is that anybody ever recovered from anything. Raw meat; horrible mixtures of nitre, beer, milk, and blood, boiled up and swallowed hot; the bile of certain fishes; and the bones, fat, and skins of all kinds of unsavory creatures, such as vultures, bats, lizards and crocodiles, were among their choicest remedies."—A. B. Edwards, *Pharaohs, Fellahs and explorers*, ch. 6.—'In Egypt . . . man does not die, but some one or something assassinates him. The murderer often belongs to our world, and can be easily pointed out. . . . Often, though, it belongs to the invisible world, and only reveals itself by the malignity of its attacks: it is a god, a spirit, the soul of a dead man, that has cunningly entered a living person, or that throws itself upon him with irresistible violence. . . . Whoever treats a sick person has therefore two equally important duties to perform. He must first discover the nature of the spirit in possession, and, if necessary, its name, and then attack it, drive it out, or even destroy it. He can only succeed by powerful magic, so he must be an expert in reciting incantations, and skilful in making amulets. He must then use medicine to contend with the disorders which the presence of the strange being has produced in the body; this is done by a finely graduated régime and various remedies. The cure-workers are therefore divided into several categories. Some incline towards sorcery, and have faith in formulas and talismen only; they think they have done enough if they have driven out the spirit. Others extol the use of drugs; they study the qualities of plants and minerals, describe the diseases to which each of the substances provided by nature is suitable, and settle the exact time when they must be procured and applied; certain herbs have no power unless they are gathered during the night at the full moon, others are efficacious in summer only, another acts equally well in winter or summer. The best doctors carefully avoid binding themselves exclusively to either method.'—G. Maspéro, *Life in ancient Egypt and Assyria*, ch. 7.—'The employment of numerous drugs in Egypt has been mentioned by sacred and

profane writers; and the medicinal properties of many herbs which grow in the deserts, particularly between the Nile and Red Sea, are still known to the Arabs, though their application has been but imperfectly recorded and preserved. . . . Pliny makes frequent mention of the productions of that country, and their use in medicine. He also notices the physicians of Egypt; and as if their number was indicative of the many maladies to which the inhabitants were subject, he observes that it was a country productive of numerous diseases. In this, however, he does not agree with Herodotus, who affirms that, 'after the Libyans, there are no people so healthy as the Egyptians, which may be attributed to the invariable nature of the seasons in their country.' In Pliny's time the introduction of luxurious habits and excess had probably wrought a change in the people; and to the same cause may be attributed the numerous complaints among the Romans, 'unknown to their fathers and ancestors.'—J. G. Wilkinson, *Manners and customs of ancient Egyptians*, v. 2, ch. 10.—"The Ptolemies, down to the very termination of their domination over Egypt, appear to have encouraged the curative art, and for the purpose of restoring declining health, surrounded themselves with the most illustrious physicians of the age. . . . The science of medicine of the period was fully represented at the Museum by distinguished professors, who, according to Athenæus, restored the knowledge of this art to the towns and islands of the Grecian Archipelago. . . . About the period of the absorption of the Egyptian kingdom into the expanding dominion of the Romans, the schools of Alexandria still continued to be the centre of medical studies; and notwithstanding the apparent dissidence between the demands of a strict science and public affairs, its professors exhibited, equally with their brother philosophers, a taste for diplomacy. Dioscorides and Serapion, two physicians of Alexandria, were the envoys of the elder Ptolemy to Rome, and at a later date were bearers of dispatches from Cæsar to one of his officers in Egypt."—G. F. Fort, *Medical economy during the Middle Ages*, ch. 3.

Babylonian.—The Babylonians "have no physicians, but when a man is ill, they lay him in the public square, and the passers-by come up to him, and if they have ever had his disease themselves or have known anyone who has suffered from it, they give him advice, recommending him to do whatever they found good in their own case, or in the case known to them. And no one is allowed to pass the sick man in silence without asking him what his ailment is."—Herodotus, *History* (tr. by G. Rawlinson), v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 107.—"The incantations against disease describe a great variety of cases. . . . But the most numerous are those which aim at the cure of the plague, fever, and 'disease of the head;' this latter, judging from the indications which are given of its symptoms and its effects, appears to have been a sort of erysipelas, or cutaneous disease. . . . These are the principal passages of a long incantation against 'the disease of the head:' the tablet on which we find it bears six other long formulæ against the same evil. 'The disease of the head exists on man. The disease of the head, the ulceration of the forehead exists on man. The disease of the head marks like a tiara, the disease of the head from sunrise to sunset. In the sea and the vast earth a very small tiara is become the tiara, the very large tiara, his tiara. The diseases of the head pierce like a bull, the disease of the head shoot like the palpitation of the heart. . . . The diseases of the head, like doves to their dove-cotes, like grasshoppers into the sky,

like birds into space may they fly away. May the invalid be replaced in the protecting hands of his god!' This specimen will give the reader an idea of the uniform composition of these incantations against diseases, which filled the second book of the work under consideration. They all follow the same plan throughout, beginning with the definition of the disease and its symptoms, which occupies the greater part of the formula; and ending with a desire for deliverance from it, and the order for it to depart. Sometimes, however, the incantation of the magician assumes a dramatic form at the end. . . . We must add . . . the use of certain enchanted drinks, which, doubtless, really contained medicinal drugs, as a cure for diseases, and also of magic knots, the efficacy of which was so firmly believed in, even up to the middle ages. Here is a remedy which one of the formulæ supposes to have been prescribed by Hea against a disease of the head: 'Knot on the right and arrange flat in regular bands, on the left a woman's diadem; divide it twice in seven little bands; . . . gird the head of the invalid with it; gird the forehead of the invalid with it; gird the seat of life with it; gird his hands and his feet; seat him on his bed; pour on him enchanted waters. Let the disease of his head be carried away into the heavens like a violent wind; . . . may the earth swallow it up like passing waters!' Still more powerful than the incantations were conjurations wrought by the power of numbers."—F. Lenormant, *Chaldean magic*, ch. 1, 3.

Finnish.—"The Finnish incantations for exercising the demons of diseases were composed in exactly the same spirit, and founded upon the same data, as the Accadian incantations destined for the like purpose. They were formulæ belonging to the same family, and they often showed a remarkable similarity of language; the Egyptian incantations, on the contrary, having been composed by people with very different ideas about the supernatural world, assumed quite another form. This is an incantation from one of the songs of the Kalevala: 'O malady, disappear into the heavens; pain, rise up to the clouds; inflamed vapour, fly into the air, in order that the wind may take thee away, that the tempest may chase thee to distant regions, where neither sun nor moon give their light, where the warm wind does not inflame the flesh. O pain, mount upon the winged steed of stone, and fly to the mountains covered with iron. For he is too robust to be devoured by disease, to be consumed by pains. Go, O diseases, to where the virgin of pains has her hearth, where the daughter of Wäinämöinen cooks pains, go to the hill of pains. There are the white dogs, who formerly howled in torments, who groaned in their sufferings.'"—F. Lenormant, *Chaldean magic*, ch. 17.

Hindu.—"There is reason to . . . conclude, from the imperfect opportunities of investigation we possess, that in medicine, as in astronomy and metaphysics, the Hindus once kept pace with the most enlightened nations of the world; and that they attained as thorough a proficiency in medicine and surgery as any people whose acquisitions are recorded, and as indeed was practicable, before anatomy was made known to us by the discoveries of modern enquirers. It might easily be supposed that their patient attention and natural shrewdness would render the Hindus excellent observers; whilst the extent and fertility of their native country would furnish them with many valuable drugs and medicaments. Their Nidana or Diagnosis, accordingly, appears to define and distinguish symptoms with great accuracy, and their

Dravyabhidhana, or *Materia Medica*, is sufficiently voluminous. They have also paid great attention to regimen and diet, and have a number of works on food and general treatment, suited to the complaint, or favourable to the operation of the medicine administered. This branch they entitle *Pathyapathya*. To these subjects are to be added the *Chikitsa*, or medical treatment of diseases—on which subject they have a variety of compositions, containing much absurdity, with much that is of value; and the *Rasavida*, or Pharmacy, in which they are most deficient. All these works, however, are of little avail to the present generation, as they are very rarely studied, and still more rarely understood, by any of the practising empirics. The divisions of the science thus noticed, as existing in books, exclude two important branches, without which the whole system must be defective—Anatomy and Surgery. We can easily imagine, that these were not likely to have been much cultivated in Hindustan. . . . The *Ayur Veda*, as the medical writings of highest antiquity and authority are collectively called, is considered to be a portion of the fourth or *Atharva Veda*, and is consequently the work of Brahma—by him it was communicated to Daksha, the Prajapati, and by him the two Aswins, or sons of Surya, the Sun, were instructed in it, and they then became the medical attendants of the gods—a genealogy that cannot fail recalling to us the two sons of Esculapius, and their descent from Apollo. Now what were the duties of the Aswins, according to Hindu authorities?—the gods, enjoying eternal youth and health, stood in no need of physicians, and consequently they held no such sinecure station. The wars between the gods and demons, however, and the conflicts amongst the gods themselves, in which wounds might be suffered, although death might not be inflicted, required chirological aid—and it was this, accordingly, which the two Aswins rendered. . . . The meaning of these legendary absurdities is clear enough, and is comfortable to the tenor of all history. Man, in the semi-barbarous state, if not more subject to external injuries than internal disease, was at least more likely to seek remedies for the former, which were obvious to his senses, than to imagine the means of relieving the latter, whose nature he could so little comprehend. Surgical, therefore, preceded medicinal skill; as Celsus has asserted, when commenting on Homer's account of Podalirius and Machaon, who were not consulted, he says, during the plague in the Grecian camp, although regularly employed to extract darts and heal wounds. . . . We may be satisfied that Surgery was once extensively cultivated, and highly esteemed by the Hindus. Its rational principles and scientific practice are, however, now, it may be admitted, wholly unknown to them. . . . It would be an enquiry of some interest to trace the period and causes of the disappearance of Surgery from amongst the Hindus: it is evidently of comparatively modern occurrence, as operative and instrumental practice forms so principal a part of those writings, which are undeniably most ancient; and which, being regarded as the composition of inspired writers, are held of the highest authority.”—H. H. Wilson, *Essays on Sanskrit literature*, pp. 260-276, 301.—“The number of medical works and authors is extraordinarily large. The former are either systems embracing the whole domain of the science, or highly special investigations of single topics, or, lastly, vast compilations prepared in modern times under the patronage of kings and princes. The sum of knowledge embodied in their contents appears really to be most respectable.

Many of the statements on dietetics and on the origin and diagnosis of diseases bespeak a very keen observation. In surgery, too, the Indians seem to have attained a special proficiency, and in this department European surgeons might perhaps even at the present day still learn something from them, as indeed they have already borrowed from them the operation of rhinoplasty. The information, again, regarding the medicinal properties of minerals (especially precious stones and metals), of plants, and animal substances, and the chemical analysis and decomposition of these, covers certainly much that is valuable. Indeed, the branch of *Materia Medica* generally appears to be handled with great predilection, and this makes up to us in some measure at least for the absence of investigations in the field of natural science. On the diseases, &c., of horses and elephants also there exist very special monographs. For the rest, during the last few centuries medical science has suffered great detriment from the increasing prevalence of the notion, in itself a very ancient one, that diseases are but the result of transgressions and sins committed, and from the consequent very general substitution of fastings, alms, and gifts to the Brahmans, for real remedies. . . . The influence . . . of Hindu medicine upon the Arabs in the first centuries of the Hijra was one of the very highest significance; and the Khalifs of Bagdad caused a considerable number of works upon the subject to be translated. Now, as Arabian medicine constituted the chief authority and guiding principle of European physicians down to the seventeenth century, it directly follows—just as in the case of astronomy—that the Indians must have been held in high esteem by these latter; and indeed Charaka is repeatedly mentioned in the Latin translations of Avicenna (Ibn Sina), Rhazes (Al Rasi), and Serapion (Ibn Serabi).”—A. Weber, *History of Indian literature*, pp. 260-271.

Jewish.—“If we are to judge from the frequent mention of physicians (Ex. xv. 26; Isa. iii. 7; Jer. viii. 22; Sir. x. 11, xxxviii. 1 ff.; Matt. ix. 12; Mark v. 26; Luke iv. 23, etc.), the Israelites must have given much attention to medicine from ancient times. The physicians must have understood how to heal wounds and external injuries with bandaging, mollifying with oil (Isa. i. 6; Luke x. 34), balsam (Jer. xlii. 11. li. 8), plasters (2 Kings xx. 7), and salves prepared from herbs (Sir. xxxviii. 8; Ex. xxi. 10; 2 Kings viii. 20; Ezek. xxx. 21). The ordinances respecting leprosy also show that the lawgiver was well acquainted with the various kinds of skin eruptions (comp. sect. 114). And not only Moses, but other Israelites also may have acquired much practical knowledge of medicine in Egypt, where the healing art was cultivated from high antiquity. But as to how far the Israelitish physicians advanced in this art, we have not more exact information. From the few scattered hints in the Old and New Testaments, so much only is clear, that internal diseases were also treated (2 Chron. xvi. 12; Luke viii. 43), and that the medicinal springs which Palestine possesses were much used by invalids. It by no means follows from the fact that the superintendence of lepers and the pronouncing of them clean are assigned by the law to the priests, that these occupied themselves chiefly with medicine. The task which the law laid on them has nothing to do with the healing of leprosy. Of the application of charms, there is not a single instance in Scripture.”—C. F. Keil, *Manual of biblical archaeology*, v. 2, pp. 276-277.—“The sur-

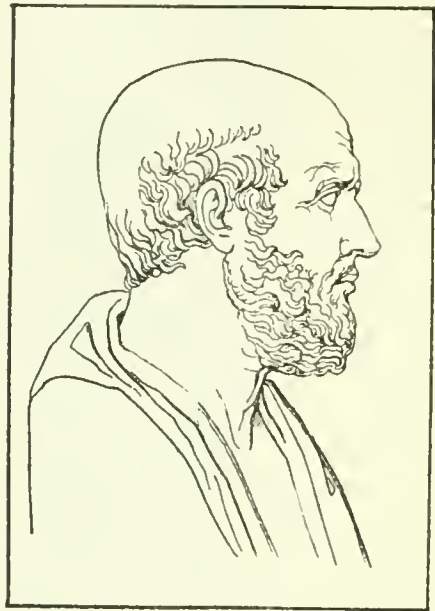
ger of the Talmud includes a knowledge of dislocations of the thigh, contusions of the head, perforation of the lungs and other organs, injuries of the spinal cord and trachea, and fractures of the ribs. Polypus of the nose was considered to be a punishment for past sins. In sciatica the patient is advised to rub the hip sixty times with meat-broth. Bleeding was performed by mechanics or barbers. The pathology of the Talmud ascribes diseases to a constitutional vice, to evil influences acting on the body from without, or to the effect of magic. Jaundice is recognized as arising from retention of the bile, dropsy from suppression of the urine. The Talmudists divided dropsy into anasarca, ascites, and tympanites. Rupture and atrophy of the kidneys were held to be always fatal. Hydatids of the liver were more favourably considered. Suppuration of the spinal cord, induration of the lungs, etc., are incurable. Dr. Baas says that these are 'views which may have been based on the dissection of (dead) animals, and may be considered the germs of pathological anatomy.' Some critical symptoms are sweating, sneezing, defecation, and dreams, which promise a favourable termination of the disease. Natural remedies, both external and internal, were employed. Magic was also Talmudic. Dispensations were given by the Rabbis to permit sick persons to eat prohibited food. Onions were prescribed for worms; wine and pepper for stomach disorders; goat's milk for difficulty of breathing; emetics in nausea; a mixture of gum and alum for menorrhagia (not a bad prescription); a dog's liver was ordered for the bite of a mad dog. Many drugs, such as assafœtida, are evidently adopted from Greek medicine. The dissection of the bodies of animals provided the Talmudists with their anatomy. It is, however, recorded that Rabbi Ishmael, at the close of the first century, made a skeleton by boiling the body of a prostitute. We find that dissection in the interests of science was permitted by the Talmud. The Rabbis counted 252 bones in the human skeleton."—E. Berdoe, *Origin and growth of the healing art*, bk. 2, ch. 2.

Greek: The Æsclepiadæ.—Cnidian and Coan schools.—Corpus Hippocraticum.—Hippocrates.—"It is well known that the oldest documents which we possess relative to the practice of Medicine, are the various treatises contained in the Collection which bears the name of Hippocrates. Their great excellence has been acknowledged in all ages, and it has always been a question which has naturally excited literary curiosity, by what steps the art had attained to such perfection at so early a period. . . . It is clearly established that, long before the birth of philosophy, medicine had been zealously and successfully cultivated by the Asclepiadæ, an order of priest-physicians that traced its origin to a mythical personage bearing the distinguished name of Æsculapius. Two of his sons, Podalirius and Machaon, figure in the Homeric poems, not however as priests, but as warriors possessed of surgical skill in the treatment of wounds, for which they are highly complimented by the poet. It was probably some generations after this time . . . that Æsculapius was deified, and that Temples of Health, called 'Asclepia,' presided over by the Asclepiadæ, were erected in various parts of Greece, as receptacles for the sick, to which invalids resorted in those days for the cure of diseases, under the same circumstances as they go to hospitals and spas at the present time. What remedial measures were adopted in these temples we have no means of

ascertaining so fully as could be wished, but the following facts, collected from a variety of sources, may be pretty confidently relied upon for their accuracy. In the first place, then, it is well ascertained that a large proportion of these temples were built in the vicinity of thermæ, or medicinal springs, the virtues of which would no doubt contribute greatly to the cure of the sick. At his entrance into the temple, the devotee was subjected to purifications, and made to go through a regular course of bathing, accompanied with methodical frictions, resembling the oriental system now well known by the name of shampooing. Fomentations with decoctions of odoriferous herbs were also not forgotten. A total abstinence from food was at first prescribed, but afterwards the patient would no doubt be permitted to partake of the flesh of the animals which were brought to the temples as sacrifices. Every means that could be thought of was used for working upon the imagination of the sick, such as religious ceremonies of an imposing nature, accompanied by music, and whatever else could arouse their senses, conciliate their confidence, and, in certain cases, contribute to their amusement. . . . It is also well known that the Asclepiadæ noted down with great care the symptoms and issue of every case, and that, from such observations, they became in time great adepts in the art of prognosis. . . . The office of priesthood was hereditary in certain families, so that information thus acquired would be transmitted from father to son, and go on accumulating from one generation to another."—F. Adams, *Preliminary discourse (Genuine works of Hippocrates, sect. 1)*.—"The school of the Asclepiadæ has been responsible for certain theories which have been more or less prominent during the earlier historical days. One of these which prevailed throughout the Hippocratic works is that of Coction and Crisis. By the former term is meant thickening or elaboration of humors in the body, which was supposed to be necessary for their elimination in some tangible form. Disease was regarded as an association of phenomena resulting from efforts made by the conservative principles of life to effect a coction, i. e., a combination, of the morbid matter in the economy, it being held that the latter could not be properly expelled until thus united and prepared so as to form excrementitious material. This elaboration was supposed to be brought about by the vital principles which some called nature (Phusis), some spirit (Psyche), some breath (Pneuma), and some heat (Thermon). The gradual climax of morbid phenomena has, since the days of Hippocrates, been commonly known as Crisis. All this was regarded as the announcement of the completion of this union by coction. The day on which it was accomplished was termed 'critical,' as were also the signs which preceded or accompanied it, and for the crisis the physician anxiously watched. Coction having been effected and crisis occurring, it only remained to evacuate the morbid material, which nature sometimes spontaneously accomplished by the critical sweat, urination, or stools; or sometimes the physician had to come to her relief by the administration of diuretics, purgatives, et cetera. The term 'critical period' was given to the number of days necessary for coction, which in its perfection was supposed to be four, the so-called quaternary, while the septenary was also held in high consideration. . . . This doctrine of crisis in disease left an impress upon the medical mind not yet fully eliminated."—Roswell Park, *Lectures on the history of medicine*.—"The earliest med-

ical school of which we have definite information is that of Cnidus, a Lacedaemonian colony in Asiatic Doris. Its origin may perhaps reach back to the seventh century B.C. We have actual records that the teachers of Cnidus were accustomed to collect systematically the phenomena of disease, of which they had produced a very complex classification, and we probably possess also several of their actual works. The physicians of Cos, their only contemporary critics whose writings have survived, considered that the Cnidian physicians paid too much attention to the actual sensations of the patient and to the physical signs of the disease. The most important of the Cnidian doctrines were drawn up in a series of Sentences or Aphorisms, and these, it appears, inculcated a treatment along Egyptian lines of the symptom or at most the disease, rather than the patient, a statement borne out by the contents of the gynaecological works of probable Cnidian origin included in the so-called 'Hippocratic Collection.' A few names of Cnidian physicians have, moreover, come down to us with titles of their works, and a later statement that they practised anatomy. There can be little doubt too that the Cnidian school drew also on Persian and Indian Medicine. The origin of the school of the neighbouring island of Cos was a little later than that of Cnidus and probably dates from the sixth century B.C. Of the Coan school, or at least of the general tendencies that it represented, we have a magnificent and copious literary monument in the *Corpus Hippocraticum*, a collection which was probably put together in the early part of the third century B.C. by a commission of Alexandrian scholars at the order of the book-loving Ptolemy Soter (reigned 323-285 B.C.). The elements of which this collection is composed are of varying dates from the sixth to the fourth century B.C., and of varying value and origin, but they mainly represent the point of view of physicians of the eastern part of the Greek world in the fifth and fourth centuries. The most obvious feature, the outstanding element that at once strikes the modern observer in these 'Coan' writings, is the enormous emphasis laid on the actual course of disease. 'It appears to me a most excellent thing,' so opens one of the greatest of the Hippocratic works, 'for a physician to cultivate *pronoia*. Foreknowing and foretelling in the presence of the sick the past, present, and future (of their symptoms) and explaining all that the patients are neglecting, he would be believed to understand their condition, so that men would have confidence to entrust themselves to his care. . . . Thus he would win just respect and be a good physician. . . . Just as the Cnidians by dividing up diseases according to symptoms over-emphasized diagnosis and over-elaborated treatment, so the Coans laid very great force on prognosis and adopted therefore a largely expectant attitude towards diseases. Both Cnidian and Coan physicians were held together by a common bond which was, historically if not actually, related to temple worship. . . . During the development of the Coan medical school along these lines in the sixth and fifth centuries, there was going on a most remarkable movement at the very other extreme of the Greek world. . . . A pupil of Pythagoras and an older contemporary of Empedocles was Alcmaeon of Croton (c. 500 B.C.), who began to construct a positive basis for medical science by the practice of dissection of animals, and discovered the optic nerves and the Eustachian tubes. He even extended his researches to Embryology. . . . Alcmaeon introduced also the doctrine

that health depends on harmony, disease on discord of the elements within the body. . . . Diogenes of Apollonia, the philosopher of pneumatism, a late fifth-century writer who must have been contemporary with Hippocrates the Great, himself made an investigation of the blood vessels; and the influence of the same school may be traced in a little work . . . *On the heart*, which is the best anatomical treatise of the Hippocratic Collection. This work describes the aorta and the pulmonary artery as well as the three valves at the root of each of the great vessels, and it speaks of experiments to test their validity. It treats of the pericardium and of the pericardial fluid and perhaps of the *musculi papillares*, and contrasts the thickness of the walls of right and left ventricles. . . . It is interesting to observe that we have here the first hint of human dissection, for the author tells us that the hearts of animals may be compared to that of man. The distinction of having been the first to write on human



HIPPOCRATES

anatomy, as such, belongs however, probably to a later writer, Diocles, son of Archidamus of Carystus, who lived in the fourth century B.C."—C. J. Singer, *Greek biology and Greek medicine*, pp. 84-86, 88-80.—"European medicine begins properly in the age of Pericles and its scientific advancement centers in the figure of Hippocrates (460-370 B.C.), who gave to Greek medicine its scientific spirit and its ethical methods."—F. H. Garrison, *History of medicine*, p. 80.—"Of the actual details of his life we know next to nothing. His period of greatest activity falls about 400 B.C. He seems to have led a wandering life. Born of a long line of physicians in the island of Cos, he exerted his activities in Thrace, Abdera, Delos, the Propontis (Cyzicus), Thasos, Thessaly (notably at Larissa and Meliboea), Athens, and elsewhere, dying at Larissa in extreme old age about the year 377 B.C. He had many pupils, among whom were his two sons Thessalus and Dracon, who also undertook journeys, his son-in-law Polybus, of whose works a fragment has been preserved

for us by Aristotle, together with three other Coans bearing the names Apollonius, Dexippus, and Praxagoras. This is practically all we know of him with certainty. But though this glimpse is very dim and distant, yet we cannot exaggerate the influence on the course of medicine and the value for physicians of all time of the traditional picture that was early formed of him and that may indeed well be drawn again from the works bearing his name. In beauty and dignity that figure is beyond praise. Perhaps gaining in stateliness what he loses in clearness, Hippocrates will ever remain the type of the perfect physician. Learned, observant, humane, with a profound reverence for the claims of his patients, but an overmastering desire that his experience shall benefit others, orderly and calm, disturbed only by anxiety to record his knowledge for the use of his brother physicians and for the relief of suffering, grave, thoughtful and reticent, pure of mind and master of his passions, this is no overdrawn picture of the Father of Medicine as he appeared to his contemporaries and successors. It is a figure of character and virtue which has had an ethical value to medical men of all ages comparable only to the influence exerted on their followers by the founders of the great religions. . . . The method of the Hippocratic writers is that known to-day as the 'inductive.' . . . They remain nevertheless, for the most part, patient observers of fact, sceptical of the marvellous and the unverifiable, hesitating to theorize beyond the data, yet eager always to generalize from actual experience; calm, faithful, effective servants of the sick. . . . The spirit of their practice cannot be better illustrated than by the words of the so-called 'Hippocratic oath': . . . 'I will follow that system of regimen which, according to my ability and judgment, I consider for the benefit of my patients, and abstain from whatever is deleterious and mischievous. . . . With purity and holiness I will pass my life and practise my Art. . . . Into whatever houses I enter, I will go there for the benefit of the sick, and will abstain from every act of mischief and corruption; and above all from seduction. . . . Whatever in my professional practice—or even not in connexion with it—I see or hear in the lives of men which ought not to be spoken of abroad, I will not divulge, deeming that on such matters we should be silent. While I keep this Oath unviolated, may it be granted me to enjoy life and the practice of the Art, always respected among men, but should I break or violate this Oath, may the reverse be my lot.' Respected equally throughout the ages by Arab, Jew, and Christian, the oath remains the watchword of the profession of medicine. . . . We may now turn to the Hippocratic Corpus as a whole. This collection consists of about 60 or 70 separate works, written at various periods and in various states of preservation. At best only a very small proportion of them can be attributed to Hippocrates, but the discussion of the general question of the 'genuineness' of the works is now admitted to be futile. . . . The system or systems of medicine that we shall thus attempt to describe was in vogue up to the Alexandrian period, that is, to the beginning of the third century B. C. Anatomy and physiology, the basis of our modern system, was still a very weak point in the knowledge of the pre-Alexandrians. The surface form of the body was intimately studied in connexion especially with fractures, but there is no evidence in the literature of the period of any closer acquaintance with human anatomical structure. . . .

There are in the Hippocratic works a certain number of comparisons between human and animal structures that would have been made possible by surgical operations and occasional accidents. . . . The unknown author of . . . *On the Sites of [diseases] in man*, a work written about 400 B. C., declares indeed that 'physical structure is the basis of medicine,' but the formal treatises on anatomy that we possess from Hippocratic times give the general anatomical standard of the corpus, and it is a very disappointing one. The tract *On Anatomy*, though probably of much later date (perhaps c. 330 B. C.), is inferior even to the treatise *On the Heart* (perhaps of about 400 B. C.). Physiology and Pathology are almost as much in the background as anatomy in the Hippocratic collection. As a formal discipline and part of medical education we find no trace of these studies among the pre-Alexandrian physicians. . . . The general state of health of the body was considered by the Hippocratists to depend on the distribution of the four elements, earth, air, fire, and water, whose mixture (*crasis*) and cardinal properties, dryness, warmth, coldness, and moistness, form the body and its constituents. To these correspond the cardinal fluids, blood, phlegm, yellow bile and black bile. The fundamental condition of life is the innate heat, the abdicating of which is death. This innate heat is greatest in youth when most fuel is therefore required, but gradually declines with age. Another necessity for the support of life is the *pneuma* which circulates in the vessels. All this may seem fanciful enough, but we may remember that the first half of the nineteenth century had waned before the doctrine of the humours which had then lasted for at least twenty-two centuries became obsolete, and perhaps it still survives in certain modern scientific developments. . . . The chief glory of the Hippocratic collection regarded from the clinical point of view is perhaps the actual description of cases. A number of these—forty-two in all—have survived. They are not only unique as a collection for nearly 2,000 years, but they are still to this day models of what succinct clinical records should be, clear and short, without a superfluous word, yet with all that is most essential, and exhibiting merely a desire to record the most important facts without the least attempt to prejudice the case. . . . The purely surgical treatises will be found no less remarkable than those of clinical observation. A very able surgeon, Francis Adams (1796-1861), who was eminent as a Greek scholar, gave it as his opinion in the middle of the nineteenth century that no systematic writer on surgery up to his time had given so good and so complete an account of certain dislocations, notably of the hip-joint, as that to be found in the Hippocratic collection. Some types of injury to the hip, as described in the Hippocratic writings, were certainly otherwise quite inadequately known until described by Sir Astley Cooper (1768-1841), himself a peculiarly Hippocratic character. . . . Among the surgical procedures of which descriptions are to be found in the Hippocratic writings are the opening of the chest for the condition known as *empyema* (accumulation of pus within the pleura frequently following pneumonia), and trephining the skull in cases of fracture of that part—two fundamental operations of modern surgery. . . . The work of these men may be summed up by saying that without dissection, without any experimental physiology or pathology, and without any instrumental aid they pushed the knowledge of the course and origin of disease as far as it is



ÆSCULAPIUS

Legendary Greek god of healing. The serpent coiled around the club-like staff is the symbol of renovation
(Original is in the National Museum, Naples)

conceivable that men in such circumstances could push it. This was done as a process of pure scientific induction. Their surgery, though hardly based on anatomy, was grounded on the most carefully recorded experience. In therapeutics they allowed themselves neither to be deceived by false hopes nor led aside by vain traditions. Yet in diagnosis, prognosis, surgery and therapeutics alike they were in many departments unsurpassed until the nineteenth century, and to some of their methods we have reverted in the twentieth. Persisting throughout the ages as a more or less definite tradition, which attained clearer form during and after the sixteenth century, Hippocratic methods have formed the basis of all departments of modern advance."—C. J. Singer, *Greek biology and Greek medicine*, pp. 89-92, 94-98, 103, 105, 115.—"It is observed that Homer, who describes the wounds which are inflicted in his battles with so much apparent anatomical precision, nowhere employs the word muscle. And even Hippocrates of Cos, the most celebrated physician of antiquity, is held to have had no distinct conception of such an organ. . . . Nor do we find much more distinctness on this subject even in Aristotle, a generation or two later. . . . He is held to have really had the merit of discovering the nerves of sensation, which he calls the 'canals of the brain' . . . , but the analysis of the mechanism of motion is left by him almost untouched. . . . His immediate predecessors were far from remedying the deficiencies of his doctrines. Those who professed to study physiology and medicine were, for the most part, studious only to frame some general system of abstract principles, which might give an appearance of connexion and profundity to their tenets. In this manner the successors of Hippocrates became a medical school, of great note in its day, designated as the Dogmatic school; in opposition to which arose an Empiric sect, who professed to deduce their modes of cure, not from theoretical dogmas, but from experience. These rival parties prevailed principally in Asia Minor and Egypt, during the time of Alexander's successors,—a period rich in names, but poor in discoveries; and we find no clear evidence of any decided advance in anatomy."—W. Whewell, *History of the inductive sciences*, v. 2, bk. 17, ch. 1, sect. 1.—"Making no pretension . . . to describe the regular medical practice among the Greeks, I shall here, nevertheless, introduce some few particulars more or less connected with it, which may be regarded as characteristic of the age and people. Great were the virtues which they ascribed to the herb alysson, (*biscutella didyma*.) which, being pounded and eaten with meat cured hydrophobia. Nay, more, being suspended in the house, it promoted the health of its inhabitants; it protected likewise both man and cattle from enchantment; and, bound in a piece of scarlet flannel round the necks of the latter, it preserved them from all diseases. Coriander-seed, eaten in too great quantity, produced, they thought, a derangement of the intellect. Ointment of saffron had an opposite effect, for the nostrils and heads of lunatics being rubbed therewith they were supposed to receive considerable relief. Melampus the goatherd was reported to have cured the daughters of Pratos of their madness by large doses of black hellebore, which thereafter received from him the name of Melampodium. Sea-onions suspended over the doors preserved from enchantment, as did likewise a branch of rhamnus over doors or windows. A decoction of rosemary and of the leaves and stems of the anemone was

administered to nurses to promote the secretion of milk, and a like potion prepared from the leaves of the Cretan dittany was given to women in labour. This herb, in order to preserve its virtues unimpaired, and that it might be the more easily transported to all parts of the country, was preserved in a joint of a ferula or reed. A plaster of incense, Cimolian earth, and oil of roses, was applied to reduce the swelling of the breasts. A medicine prepared from mule's fern, was believed to produce sterility, as were likewise the waters of a certain fountain near Pyrrha, while to those about Thespia a contrary effect was attributed, as well as to the wine of Heraclea in Arcadia. The inhabitants of this primitive region drank milk as an aperient in the Spring, because of the medicinal herbs on which the cattle were then supposed to feed. Medicines of laxative properties were prepared from the juice of the wild cucumber, which were said to retain their virtues for two hundred years, though simples in general were thought to lose their medicinal qualities in less than four. The oriental gum called kankamon was administered in water or honeyed vinegar to fat persons to diminish their obesity, and also as a remedy for the toothache. For this latter purpose the gum of the Ethiopian olive was put into the hollow tooth, though more efficacy perhaps was attributed to the root of dittander which they suspended as a charm about the neck. A plaster of the root of the white thorn or iris roots prepared with flour of copper, honey, and great centaury, drew out thorns and arrow heads without pain. An unguent procured from fern was sold to rustics for curing the necks of their cattle galled by the yoke. A decoction of marsh-mallow leaves and wine or honeyed vinegar was administered to persons who had been stung by bees or wasps or other insects; bites and burns were healed by an external application of the leaf smeared with oil, and the powdered roots cast into water caused it to freeze if placed out during the night in the open air; an unguent was prepared with oil from reeds, green or dry, which protected those who anointed themselves with it from the stings of venomous reptiles. Cinnamon unguent, or terebinth and myrtle-berries, boiled in wine, were supposed to be a preservative against the bite of the tarantula or scorpion, as was the pistachio nut against that of serpents. Some persons ate a roasted scorpion to cure its own bite; a powder, moreover, was prepared from sea-crabs supposed to be fatal to this reptile. Vipers were made to contribute their part to the materia medica; for, being caught alive, they were enclosed with salt and dried figs in a vase which was then put into a furnace till its contents were reduced to charcoal, which they esteemed a valuable medicine. . . . From the flowers of the sneezewort, a sort of snuff appears to have been manufactured, though probably used only in medicines. The ashes of old leather cured burns, galls, and blistered feet. The common remedy when persons had eaten poisonous mushrooms was a dose of nitre exhibited in vinegar and water; with water it was esteemed a cure for the sting of a burncow, and with benzoin it operated as an antidote against the poison of bulls' blood."—J. A. St. John, *Hellenes*, v. 3, bk. 6, ch. 6.

B. C. 4th-A. D. 2nd centuries.—Alexandrian school.—Medical writings from Hippocrates to Galen.—Advance in anatomy.—Aretaeus of Cappadocia.—"The history of Greek medicine did not end with the Hippocratic collection; in many respects it may indeed be held only to begin there;

yet we never get again a glimpse of so high an ethical and professional standard as that which these works convey. . . . A definite medical school was established at Alexandria and others perhaps at Pergamon and elsewhere. Athens, after the death of Aristotle and his pupils, passes entirely into the background and is of no importance so far as medicine is concerned. At Alexandria, where a great medical library was collected, anatomy began to be studied and two men whose discoveries were of primary importance for the history of that subject, Erasistratus [280 B.C.] and Herophilus [335-280 B.C.], early practised there."—C. J. Singer, *Greek biology and Greek medicine*, pp. 115, 116.—"Herophilus, ille *anatomicorum coryphaeus*, as Vesalius calls him, was a pupil of Praxagoras, and his name is still in everyday use by medical students, attached to the *torcular Herophili*. Anatomy practically dates from these Alexandrines, who described the valves of the heart, the duodenum, and many of the important parts of the brain; they recognized the true significance of the nerves (which before their day had been confounded with the tendons), distinguished between motor and sensory nerves, and regarded the brain as the seat of the perceptive faculties and voluntary action. Herophilus counted the pulse, using the water-clock for the purpose. . . . Erasistratus elaborated the view of the *pneuma*, one form of which he believed came from the inspired air, and passed to the left side of the heart and to the arteries of the body. It was the cause of the heart-beat and the source of the innate heat of the body, and it maintained the processes of digestion and nutrition. This was the vital spirit; the animal spirit was elaborated in the brain, chiefly in the ventricles, and sent by the nerves to all parts of the body, endowing the individual with life and perception and motion. In this way a great division was made between the two functions of the body, and two sets of organs: in the vascular system, the heart and arteries and abdominal organs, life was controlled by the vital spirits; on the other hand, in the nervous system were elaborated the animal spirits, controlling motion, sensation and the various special senses. These views on the vital and animal spirits held unquestioned sway until well into the eighteenth century, and we still, in a measure, express the views of the great Alexandrian when we speak of 'high' or 'low' spirits."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 73, 74.—"With anatomy as a basis medical education could become much more systematic. It is a very great misfortune that the works of these two eminent men have disappeared. Of Herophilus fragments have survived embedded in the works of Galen (A.D. 130-201), Caelius Aurelianus (fifth century), and others. . . . After the establishment of the school at Alexandria, medical teaching rapidly became organized, but throughout the whole course of antiquity it suffered from the absence of anything in the nature of a state diploma. Any one could practise, with the result that many quacks, cranks, and fanatics were to be found among the ranks of the practitioners who often were or had been slaves. The great Alexandrian school, however, did much to preserve some sort of professional standard, and above all its anatomical discipline helped to this end. Between the founding of the Alexandrian school and Galen we are not rich in medical writings. Apart from fragments and minor productions, the works of only five authors have survived from this period of over four hundred years, namely, Celsus, Dios-

corides [a Greek army surgeon in the service of Nero], Aretaeus of Cappadocia, and two Ephesian authors bearing the names of Rufus and Soranus. The work of Celsus [a Roman author, but not a physician] of the end of the first century B.C. [about 20 B.C.] is a Latin treatise, probably translated from Greek, and is the surviving medical volume of a complete cyclopaedia of knowledge. In spite of its unpromising origin it is an excellent compendium of its subject and shows a good deal of advance in many respects beyond the Hippocratic position. The moral tone too is very high, though without the lofty and detached beauty of Hippocrates. Anatomy has greatly improved, and with it surgical procedure, and the work is probably representative of the best Alexandrian practice. The pharmacopœia is more copious, but has not yet become burdensome. The general line of treatment is sensible and humane and the language concise and clear. . . . The *De re medica* [of Celsus] is in fact one of the very best medical text-books that have come down to us from antiquity. . . . With the second century of the Christian era we terminate the creative period of Greek medicine. We are provided with the works of four important writers of this century, of whom three, Rufus of Ephesus [2nd century], Soranus of Ephesus, and Aretaeus of Cappadocia, though valuable for forming a picture of the state of medicine in their day, were without substantial influence on the course of medicine in later ages. Rufus of Ephesus, a little junior to Dioscorides, has left us the first formal work on human anatomy and is of some importance in the history of comparative anatomy. In medicine he is memorable as the first to have described bubonic plague, and in surgery for his description of the methods of arresting haemorrhage and his knowledge of the anatomy of the eye. . . . He regarded nerves as originating from the brain, and distinguished between nerves of motion and of sensation. . . . Soranus of Ephesus . . . [2nd century], an acute writer on gynaecology, has left a book which illustrates well the anatomy of his day. It exercised an influence for many centuries to come, and a Latin abstract of it prepared about the sixth century by one Moschion has come down to us in an almost contemporary manuscript. . . . Aretaeus of Cappadocia was probably a contemporary of Galen (second half of the second century A.D.). As a clinical author his reputation stands high, perhaps too high, his descriptions of pneumonia, empyema, diabetes, and elephantiasis having especially drawn attention. In treatment he uses simple remedies, is not affected by polypharmacy, and suggests many ingenious mechanical devices. . . . There remains the huge overshadowing figure of Galen. The enormous mass of the surviving work of this man, the dictator of medicine until the revival of learning and beyond, tends to throw out of perspective the whole of Greek medical records."—C. J. Singer, *Greek biology and Greek medicine*, pp. 116, 110-122.

A.D. 1st century.—Status of physicians in Rome.—Pliny's picture of Greek physicians.—Asclepiades of Bithynia.—"Of the condition of medicine under the Romans, considerable is known but little need be said. Much of Roman medicine is found in the secular writers, particularly the satirists and epigrammatists, and in the inscriptions. Before the second century A.D., the Romans employed medical slaves (*servi medici*), or relied upon their special medical gods (Febris, Scabies, Uterina, and the rest), with an occasional dilettante interest in healing on their own account.

... Even after Asclepiades, Galen, and Soranus had made the status of medicine respectable, the Roman Quirites continued to regard the profession as beneath them."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, p. 101.—"The medical profession, according to the elder Pliny, was a Greek art which was seldom practised by Romans. Julius Caesar, by giving civic rights to physicians from Egypt and Hellenic lands, while he raised the status of the medical calling, also stimulated the immigration of foreign practitioners. The rank and fortune attained by the court physicians of the early Caesars, Antonius Musa, the Stertini, and others, which almost rivalled the medical successes of our own day, seemed to offer a splendid prize. Yet the profession was generally in low repute. It was long recruited from the ranks of old slaves, and men of the meanest callings. Carpenters and smiths and undertakers flocked into it, often with only a training of six months. Galen found most of his medical brethren utterly illiterate, and recommends them to pay a little attention to grammar in dealing with their patients. They compounded in their own shops, and touted for practice. They called in the aid of spells and witchcraft to reinforce their drugs. We need not believe all the coarse insinuations of Martial against their morality, any more than the sneers of Petronius against their skill. But we are bound to conclude that the profession held a very different place in public esteem from that which it enjoys and deserves in our own time."—S. Dill, *Roman society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius*, pp. 92-93.—Pliny's account of the Greek physicians in Rome in his time (first century) is not flattering to the profession. He says: "For the cure of King Antiochus—to give our first illustration of the profits realized by the medical art—Erasistratus received from his son, King Ptolemæus, the sum of one hundred talents. . . . I pass over in silence many physicians of the very highest celebrity, the Cassii, for instance, the Calpetani, the Aruntii, and the Rubrii, men who received fees yearly from the great, amounting to no less than 250,000 sesterces. As for Q. Stertinius, he thought that he conferred an obligation upon the emperors in being content with 500,000 sesterces per annum; and indeed he proved, by an enumeration of the several houses, that a city practice would bring him in a yearly income of not less than 600,000 sesterces. Fully equal to this was the sum lavished upon his brother by Claudius Cæsar; and the two brothers, although they had drawn largely upon their fortunes in beautifying the public buildings at Neapolis, left to their heirs no less than 30,000,000 of sesterces! such an estate as no physician but Arruntius had till then possessed. Next in succession arose Vettius Valens, rendered so notorious by his adulterous connection with Messalina, the wife of Claudius Cæsar, and equally celebrated as a professor of eloquence. . . . All at once, Charmis, a native . . . of Massilia, took the City by surprise. Not content with condemning the practice of preceding physicians, he proscribed the use of warm baths as well, and persuaded people, in the very depth of winter even, to immerse themselves in cold water. His patients he used to plunge into large vessels filled with cold water, and it was a common thing to see aged men of consular rank make it a matter of parade to freeze themselves; a method of treatment, in favour of which Annaeus Seneca gives his personal testimony, in writings still extant. There can be no doubt whatever, that all

these men, in the pursuit of celebrity by the introduction of some novelty or other, made purchase of it at the downright expense of human life. Hence those woeful discussions, those consultations at the bedside of the patient, where no one thinks fit to be of the same opinion as another, lest he may have the appearance of being subordinate to another; hence, too, that ominous inscription to be read upon a tomb, 'It was the multitude of physicians that killed me.' The medical art, so often modified and renewed as it has been, is still on the change from day to day, and still are we impelled onwards by the puffs which emanate from the ingenuity of the Greeks. . . . Cassius Hemina, one of our most ancient writers, says that the first physician that visited Rome was Archagathus, the son of Lysanias, who came over from Peloponnesus, in the year of the City 535, L. Æmilius and M. Livius being consuls. He states also, that the right of free citizenship was granted him, and that he had a shop provided for his practice at the public expense in the Acilian Cross-way; that from his practice he received the name of 'Vulnerarius'; that on his arrival he was greatly welcomed at first, but that soon afterwards, from the cruelty displayed by him in cutting and searing his patients, he acquired the new name of 'Carnifex,' and brought his art and physicians in general into considerable disrepute. That such was the fact, we may readily understand from the words of M. Cato. . . . 'Concerning those Greeks, son Marcus . . . they are a most iniquitous and intractable race, and you may take my word as the word of a prophet, when I tell you, that whenever that nation shall bestow its literature upon Rome it will mar everything; and that all the sooner, if it sends its physicians among us. They have conspired among themselves to murder all barbarians with their medicine; a profession which they exercise for lucre, in order that they may win our confidence, and dispatch us all the more easily. They are in the common habit, too, of calling us barbarians, and stigmatize us beyond all other nations, by giving us the abominable appellation of Opici. I forbid you to have anything to do with physicians.' Cato, who wrote to this effect, died in his eighty-fifth year, in the year of the City 605; so that no one is to suppose that he had not sufficient time to form his experience, either with reference to the duration of the republic, or the length of his own life. . . . Medicine is the only one of the arts of Greece, that, lucrative as it is, the Roman gravity has hitherto refused to cultivate. It is but very few of our fellow-citizens that have even attempted it."—Pliny, *Natural history* (tr. by Bohn), v. 5, bk. 20, ch. 3-8.—"After the destruction of Corinth (146 B. C.) Greek medicine may be said to have migrated to Rome. . . . Greek medicine was finally established on a respectable footing in Rome through the personality, tact, and superior ability of Asclepiades of Bythynia. . . . Asclepiades was a formal opponent of the Hippocratic idea that morbid conditions are due to a disturbance of the humors of the body (Humoralism), and attributed disease to constricted or relaxed conditions of its solid particles (Solidism)."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 01-02.

2nd century: Galen and the development of anatomy and pathology.—"The ancient period closes with the name of the greatest Greek physician after Hippocrates, Galen (131-201), the founder of experimental medicine. . . . At Rome,

where he commenced practice in 164 A.D., he soon attained the leadership of his profession."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to history of medicine*, pp. 97-98.—"The greatest name, after Hippocrates, in Greek medicine, [is] that of Galen, born at Pergamon A.D. 130, in whom was united as never before—and indeed one may say, never since—the treble combination of observer, experimenter and philosopher. . . . In his writings, Galen gives many details of his life, mentioning the names of his teachers, and many incidents in his *Wanderjahre*, during which he studied at the best medical schools, including Alexandria. . . . In the year 162, he paid his first visit to Rome, the scene of his greatest labors. Here he gave public lectures on anatomy, and became 'the fashion.' . . . There are records in his writings of many journeys, and busy with his practice in dissections and experiments he passed a long and energetic life, dying, according to most authorities, in the year 200 A.D. . . . Galen had an eclectic mind and could not identify himself with any of the prevailing schools, but regarded himself as a disciple of Hippocrates."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 74, 77, 79.—"Whether the Asclepiadæ availed themselves of the great opportunities which they must undoubtedly have had of cultivating human and comparative anatomy, has been much disputed in modern times. . . . It is worthy of remark, that Galen holds Hippocrates to have been a very successful cultivator of anatomy. . . . Of the 'Asclepia' we have mentioned above, it will naturally be supposed that some were in much higher repute than others, either from being possessed of peculiar advantages, or from the prevalence of fashion. . . . Above all others Hippocrates was strictly the physician of experience and common sense. In short, the basis of his system was a rational experience, and not a blind empiricism, so that the Empirics in after ages had no good grounds for claiming him as belonging to their sect. What he appears to have studied with particular attention is the natural history of diseases, that is to say, their tendencies to a favorable or fatal issue."—F. Adams, *Preliminary discourse (Genuine works of Hippocrates, sect. 1)*.—"For our purpose, [in studying Galen] both his philosophy and his practice are of minor interest in comparison with his great labors in anatomy and physiology. In anatomy, he was a pupil of the Alexandrians to whom he constantly refers. Times must have changed since the days of Herophilus, as Galen does not seem ever to have had an opportunity of dissecting the human body, and he laments the prejudice which prevents it. In the study of osteology, he urged the student to be on the lookout for an occasional human bone exposed in a graveyard, and on one occasion he tells of finding the carcass of a robber with the bones picked bare by birds and beasts. Failing this source, he advises the student to go to Alexandria, where there were still two skeletons. He himself dissected chiefly apes and pigs. His osteology was admirable, and his little tractate 'De Ossibus' could, with very few changes, be used today by a hygiene class as a manual. His description of the muscles and of the organs is very full, covering, of course, many sins of omission and of commission, but it was the culmination of the study of the subject by Greek physicians. His work as a physiologist was even more important, for, so far as we know, he was the first to carry out experiments on a large scale. In the first place, he was within an ace of discovering the

circulation of the blood. . . . Through errors of Praxagoras and Erasistratus, the arteries were believed to contain air and got their name on that account: Galen showed by experiment that the arteries contain blood and not air. He studied particularly the movements of the heart, the action of the valves, and the pulsatile forces in the arteries. . . . At the periphery, however, Galen recognized (as had been done already by the Alexandrians) that the arteries anastomose with the veins, ' . . . and they mutually receive from each other blood and spirits through certain invisible and extremely small vessels.' It is difficult to understand how Galen missed the circulation of the blood. He knew that the valves of the heart determined the direction of the blood that entered and left the organ, but he did not appreciate that it was a pump for distributing the blood, regarding it rather as a fireplace from which the innate heat of the body was derived. . . . No other physician has ever occupied the commanding position of Clarissimus Galen. For fifteen centuries he dominated medical thought as powerfully as did Aristotle in the schools."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 79-80, 82.—"Galen was from the first highly esteemed as an anatomist. . . . The emperors Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus would have retained him near them; but he preferred pursuing his travels, directed principally by curiosity. When he died, he left behind him numerous works, all of them of great value for the light they throw on the history of anatomy and medicine; and these were for a long period the storehouse of all the most important anatomical knowledge which the world possessed. In the time of intellectual barrenness and servility, among the Arabians and the Europeans of the dark ages, the writings of Galen had almost unquestioned authority; and it was only by an uncommon effort of independent thinking that Abdollatif ventured to assert, that even Galen's assertions must give way to the evidence of the senses. In more modern times, when Vesalius, in the sixteenth century, accused Galen of mistakes, he drew upon himself the hostility of the whole body of physicians."—W. Whewell, *History of the inductive sciences*, v. 2, bk. 17, ch. 1, sect. 1.—"Galen strongly denied being attached to any of the sects of his day, and regarded as slaves those who took the title of Hippocratists, Praxagoreans, or Herophilists, and so on. Nevertheless his predilection in favor of the Hippocratic writings is well marked, for he explains, comments upon them, and amplifies them at length, refutes the objections of their adversaries and gives them the highest place. He says, 'No one before me has given the true method of treating disease; Hippocrates, I confess, has heretofore shown the path, but as he was the first to enter it he was not able to go as far as he wished. . . . He has not made all the necessary distinction, and is often obscure, as is usually the case with ancients when they attempt to be concise. He says very little of complicated diseases; in a word, he has only sketched what another was to complete; he has opened the path, but has left it for a successor to enlarge and make it plain.' This implies how he regarded himself as the successor of Hippocrates, and how little weight he attached to the labors of others. He held that there were three sorts of principles in man—spirits, humors, and solids. Throughout his metaphysical speculations Galen reproduces and amplifies the Hippocratic dogmatism. Between perfect health and disease there were, he thought, eight kinds of temperaments

or imperfect mixtures compatible with the exercise of the functions of life. With Plato and Aristotle he thought the human soul to be composed of three faculties or parts, the vegetive, residing in the liver; the irascible, having its seat in the heart, and the rational, which resided in the brain. He divided diseases of the solids of the body into what he called distempers; he distinguished between the continued and intermittent fevers, regarding the quotidian as being caused by phlegm, the tertian as due to yellow bile, and the quartan due to atrabile. In the doctrine of coction, crises, and critical days, he agreed with Hippocrates; with him he also agreed in the positive statement that diseases are cured by their contraries."—R. Park, *Lectures on the history of medicine*.

2nd century: Women in medicine.—Greek.—Roman.—"There had evidently been quite a considerable amount of opportunity, if not of actual encouragement, for women in medicine, both among the Greeks and the Romans, in the early centuries of the Christian era. Galen, for instance, quotes certain prescriptions from women physicians. One Cleopatra is said to have written a book on cosmetics. This name came afterwards to be confounded with that of Queen Cleopatra, giving new prestige to the book, but neither Galen nor Aëtius, the early Christian physician, both of whom quote from her work, speak of her as anything except a medical writer. Some monuments to women physicians from these old times have escaped the tooth of time. There was the tomb of one Basila, and also of a Thecla, both of whom are said to have been physicians. Two other names of Greek women physicians we have, Origenia and Aspasia, the former mentioned by Galen, the latter by Aëtius in his 'Tetrabiblion.' Darenberg, the medical historian, announced in 1851 that he had found a Greek manuscript with the title, 'On Women's diseases,' written by one Metrodora, a woman physician. He promised to publish it. It was unpublished at the time of his death, but could not be found among his papers. There is a manuscript on medical subjects, bearing this name, mentioned in the catalogue of the Greek Codices of the Laurentian Library at Florence, but this is said to give no indication of the time when its author lived. We have evidence enough, however, to show that Greek women physicians were not very rare. The Romans imitated the Greeks so faithfully—one might almost say copied them so closely—that it is not surprising to find a number of Roman women physicians. The first mention of them comes from Scribonius Largus, in the first century after Christ. Octavius Horatianus whom most of us know better as Priscian, dedicated one of his books on medicine to a woman physician named Victoria. The dedication leaves no doubt that she was a woman in actual practice, at least in women's diseases, and it is a book on this subject that Priscian dedicates to her. He mentions another woman physician, Leoparda. The word *medica* for a woman physician was very commonly used at Rome. Martial, whose epigrams have been a source of so much information in medical history, especially on subjects with regard to which information was scanty, mentions a *medica* in an epigram. Apuleius [in the second century] also uses the word."—J. J. Walsh, *Old-time makers of medicine*, pp. 179-181.

3rd-6th centuries.—Development of hospitals.—Medical practice in Rome.—Women physicians.—"The hospital, even in its most rudimentary

shape, was not known in Rome much before the third century of the Christian era. . . . First, the members of the higher classes of society were not in need of public sanitary institutions; secondly, the slaves, of whom the manufacturing and trading class was chiefly composed, had to be assisted at the expense of their own masters in case of sickness; and besides, medicine was not known and practised as a science, but only in an empiric fashion. Hence patients were compelled to confide more in gods than in men, and to trust in supernatural help for the relief of their ailments. . . . "The more common cases of sickness to which mankind is subject were deified and idolized, and temples and shrines were set up in their honor. . . . In the year of the city 459, when Rome was in danger of annihilation by another plague, the Sibylline books were consulted, as they always were in cases of supreme danger. The answer was . . . Aesculapius must be removed from Epidaurus to Rome—and so he was. The new god was comfortably and neatly installed on an island in the Tiber, now called the island of S. Barolomeo, and his temple became the greatest sanitary establishment in the metropolis. The practice followed by the Roman lower classes was this: patients whose life was in danger were brought into the peristyle or atrium of the sanctuary and put to sleep there, evidently by means of narcotic drugs, in order that Aesculapius might manifest in their dreams the proper way of healing their troubles. Once the recipe was obtained, the priests themselves undertook the cure of the patients; and if the cure succeeded, by some unforeseen and wonderful coincidence, then an ex-voto [offering] was suspended in the sacristy of the sanctuary, together with a tablet describing the happy event. . . . Another strange practice, imported from the East into Rome, was the exposure of the sick in the streets and under open porticoes, in order that passers-by might give them advice from personal experience. . . . A successful physician was sure to receive high official distinction. Areazathus, a Peloponnesian who migrated to Rome in 219, not only was rewarded with citizenship, but obtained a residence, with shop and office, bought at public expense. Aesclepias . . . [of] Bithynia, was almost deified by the populace, and held in great estimation by Crassus and Cicero. Julius Caesar was the first statesman to promote the welfare of hygienists, by recognizing them as professors of a liberal art, with rights to citizenship. Augustus, when cured by his freedman, Antonius Musa, of a dangerous illness, by means of fomentations and cold compresses, made him a knight, honored him with a bronze statue in the temple of Aesculapius, and exempted forever his colleagues from any kind of income-tax. Nero organized the service by naming an archiaterus, or superintendent of court-physicians. Schools of medicine were opened, and students organized themselves into a corporation, the seat of which was on the Esquiline. When one of the professors was called to visit a patient, he was followed by the whole body of pupils, because, there being no hospitals at the time, this was the only way by which they could learn and gain experience. Martial describes one of these professional visits in the ninth epigram of the fifth book, and relates how Dr. Symmachus, when sent for, came at once to his bed, accompanied by more than one hundred disciples, who, one by one, felt his pulse with hands almost frozen by the northern wind, or tramontana, which happened to be blowing at

the time. The merit of organizing a service of public assistance, in the true modern and philanthropic sense of the word, belongs to Antonius Pius, who acted, I am sure, under the indirect pressure of Christian influence and charity, for the new faith had made immense progress in Rome under his wise and temperate rule. The new sanitary codex comprised the institution of head-physicians in every inhabited centre, and a set of rules for the medical service in the largest cities of the empire. These medical officers had to be elected by the town council, and to be approved by the *patres-familiae*. In process of time the election had further to be sanctioned by the College of Physicians practising in the same town, and even by the Emperor himself. Assistance to the poor was compulsory and gratuitous."—R. A. Lanciani, *Ancient Rome in the light of recent discoveries*, pp. 68-73.—"Very early in Christianity care for the ailing poor was taken up, and hospitals in our modern sense of the term became common in Christian communities. There had been military hospitals before this, and places where those who could afford to pay for service were kept during illness. Our modern city hospital, however, is a Christian institution. Besides, deformed and ailing children were cared for and homes for foundlings were established. Before Christianity the power even of life and death of the parents over their children was recognized, and deformed or ailing children, or those that for some reason were not wanted, were exposed until they died. Christianity put an end to this, and in two classes of institutions, the hospitals and the asylums, abundant opportunity for observation of illness was afforded. Just as soon as Christianity came to be free to establish its institutions publicly, hospitals became very common. The Emperor Julian, usually known as the Apostate, who hoped to re-establish the old Roman Olympian religion, wrote to Oribasius, one of the great physicians of this time, who was also an important official of his household, that these Christians had established everywhere hospitals in which not only their own people, but also those who were not Christians, were received, and cared for, and that it would be idle to hope to counteract the influence of Christianity until corresponding institutions could be erected by the government. . . . Just as soon as Christianity brought in a more peaceful state of affairs and had so influenced the mass of the people that its place in the intellectual life could be felt, there comes a period of cultural development during which we have a series of important contributors to medical literature. The first of these was Aëtius [c. 500]. . . . He was followed by Alexander of Tralles, [6th century] probably a Christian, for his brother was the architect of Santa Sophia, and by Paul of Aegina, with regard to whom we know only what is contained in his medical writings, but whose contemporaries were nearly all Christians. Their books are valuable to us, partly because they contain quotations from great Greek writers on medicine, not always otherwise available, but also because they were men who evidently knew the subject of medicine broadly and thoroughly, made observations for themselves, and controlled what they learned from the Greek forefathers in medicine by their own experience. Just at the beginning of the Middle Ages, then, under the fostering care of Christianity there is a period of considerable importance in the history of medical literature. . . . A very interesting chapter in the story of the early Chris-

tian physician is to be found in what we know of the existence of women physicians in the fourth and fifth centuries. Theodosia, the mother of St. Procopius the martyr, was, according to Carptzovius, looked upon as an excellent physician in Rome in the early part of fourth century. She suffered martyrdom under Diocletian. There was also a Nicerata who practised at Constantinople under the Emperor Arcadius. It is said that to her, St. John Chrysostom owed the cure of a serious illness. From the very beginning Christian women acted as nurses, and deaconesses were put in charge of hospitals. Fabiola, at Rome, is the foundress of the first important hospital in that city."—J. J. Walsh, *Old-time makers of medicine*, pp. 8-11.

7th-11th centuries.—Medical art of Arabs.—Jewish schools.—Spanish schools.—Avicenna.—"It probably sounds paradoxical (though it is not) to affirm that, throughout the first half of the Middle Ages, science made its home chiefly with the Semites and Græco-Romans (its founders), while, in opposition to the original relations, faith and its outgrowths alone were fostered by the Germans. In the sterile wastes of the desert the Arabians constructed a verdant oasis of science, in lands to-day the home once more of absolute or partial barbarism. A genuine meteor of civilization were these Arabians. . . . The Arabians built their medicine upon the principles and theories of the Greeks (whose medical writings were studied and copied mostly in translations only), and especially upon those of Galen, in such a way, that, on the whole, they added to it very little matter of their own, save numerous subtle definitions and amplifications. But Indian medical views and works, as well as those of other earlier Asiatic peoples (e.g., the Chaldeans), exercised demonstrably, but in a subordinate degree, an influence upon Arabian medicine. The Arabians interwove too into their medical views various philosophical theorems, especially those of Aristotle, already corrupted by the Alexandrians and still further falsified by themselves with portions of the Neo-Platonic philosophy; and finally they added thereto a goodly share of the absurdities of astrology and alchemy. Indeed it is nowadays considered proven that they even made use of ancient Egyptian medical works, e.g., the papyrus Ebers. Thus the medicine of the Arabians, like Grecian medicine its parent, did not greatly surpass the grade of development of mere medical philosophy, and, so far as regards its intrinsic worth, it stands entirely upon Grecian foundations. . . . Yet they constantly advanced novelties in the sciences subsidiary to medicine, *materia medica* and pharmacy, from the latter of which chemistry, pharmacology and the profession of the apothecary were developed. . . . The mode of transfer of Greek medicine to the Arabians was probably as follows: The inhabitants of the neighboring parts of Asia, including both the Persians and Arabians, as the result of multifarious business connexions with Alexandria, came, even at an early date, in contact with Grecian science, and by degrees a permanent alliance was formed with it. In a more evident way the same result was accomplished by the Jewish schools in Asia, the great majority of which owed their foundation to Alexandria. Such schools were established at Nisibis, at Nahardea in Mesopotamia, at Mathæ-Mechasja on the Euphrates, at Sura, &c., and their period of prime falls in the 5th century. The influence of the Nestorian universities was especially favorable and permanent, particularly the

school under Greek management founded at Edessa, in Mesopotamia, where Stephen of Edessa, the reputed father of Alexander of Tralles, taught (A. D. 530). . . . Still more influential in the transfer of Grecian science to the Arabians was the banishment of the 'heathen' philosophers of the last so-called Platonic school of Athens, by the 'Christian' despot Justinian I. (529). These philosophers were well received at the court of the infidel Chosroës, and in return manifested their gratitude by the propagation of Grecian science. . . . From all these causes it resulted that, even as early as the time of Mohammed (571-632), physicians educated in the Grecian doctrines lived among the Arabians. . . . Arabian culture (and of course Arabian medicine) reached its zenith at the period of the greatest power and greatest wealth of the Caliphate in the 9th and 10th centuries. At that time intellectual life was rooted in the schools of the mosques, i. e., the Arabian universities, which the great caliphs were zealous in founding. Such Arabian universities arose and existed in the progress of time (even as late as the 14th century) at Bagdad, Bassora, Cufa, Samarcand, Ispahan, Damascus, Bokhara, Firuzabad and Khurdistan, and under the scholastic Fatimides (909-1171) in Alexandria. Under the Ommyiades (755-1031), after the settlement of the Arabians in Spain in the beginning of the 8th century, were founded the famous universities of Cordova (possessing in the 10th century a library of 250,000 volumes), Seville, Toledo, Almeria and Murcia under the three caliphs named Abderrahman and Al Hakem. Less important were the universities of Granada and Valencia, and least important of all, those founded by the Edrisi dynasty (800-986) in the provinces of Tunis, Fez and Morocco. In spite of all these institutions the Arabians possessed no talent for productive research; still less, like the ancient Semites, did they create any arts, save poesy and architecture. Their whole civilization bore the stamp of its foreign origin."—J. H. Baas, *Outlines of the history of medicine*, pp. 216-229. —"The first of the Arabians, known throughout the Middle Ages as the Prince, the rival, indeed, of Galen, was the Persian Ibn Sina, better known as Avicenna, one of the greatest names in the history of medicine. Born about 980 A. D. in the province of Khorasan, near Bokhara, he has left a brief autobiography from which we learn something of his early years. . . . He was a voluminous writer to whom scores of books are attributed, and he is the author of the most famous medical text-book ever written. It is safe to say that the 'Canon' was a medical bible for a longer period than any other. It 'stands for the epitome of all precedent development, the final codification of all Graeco-Arabic medicine. It is a hierarchy of laws liberally illustrated by facts which so ingeniously rule and are subject to one another, stay and uphold one another, that admiration is compelled for the sagacity of the great organiser who, with unparalleled power of systematisation, collecting his material from all sources, constructed so imposing an edifice of fallacy. . . . The Western Caliphate produced physicians and philosophers almost as brilliant as those of the East. Remarkable schools of medicine were founded at Seville, Toledo and Cordova. The most famous of the professors were Averroës, Albucasis and Avenzoar. Albucasis was 'the Arabian restorer of surgery.' Averroës, called in the Middle Ages 'the Soul of Aristotle' or 'the Commentator,' is better known today among philosophers than physicians. On the revival of Moslem orthodoxy he fell upon evil

days, was persecuted as a free-thinker, and the saying is attributed to him—'*Sit anima mea cum philosophis.*' . . . The Graeco-Arabic learning passed into Europe through two sources. . . . Constantinus Africanus, a North African Christian monk, widely travelled and learned in languages, came to Salerno and translated many works from Arabic into Latin, particularly those of Hippocrates and Galen. . . . It is not unlikely that Arabic medicine had already found its way to Salerno before the time of Constantine, but the influence of his translations upon the later Middle Ages was very great. The second was a more important source—through the Latin translators in Spain, particularly in Toledo, where, from the middle of the twelfth till the middle of the thirteenth century, an extraordinary number of Arabic works in philosophy, mathematics and astronomy were translated. . . . Two universities have a special interest at this period in connection with the development of medical studies, Bologna and Montpellier. At the former the study of anatomy was revived. In the knowledge of the structure of the human body no advance had been made for more than a thousand years—since Galen's day. In the process of translation from Greek to Syriac, from Syriac to Arabic, from Arabic to Hebrew, and from Hebrew or Arabic to Latin, both the form and thought of the old Greek writers were not infrequently confused and often even perverted, and Galen's anatomy had suffered severely in the transmission."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 98, 103-104.—"The Saracens commenced the application of chemistry, both to the theory and practice of medicine, in the explanation of the functions of the human body and in the cure of its diseases. Nor was their surgery behind their medicine. Albucasis, of Cordova, shrinks not from the performance of the most formidable operations in his own and in the obstetrical art; the actual cautery and the knife are used without hesitation. He has left us ample descriptions of the surgical instruments then employed; and from him we learn that, in operations on females in which considerations of delicacy intervened, the services of properly instructed women were secured. How different was all this from the state of things in Europe; the Christian peasant, fever-stricken or overtaken by accident, hied to the nearest saint-shrine and expected a miracle; the Spanish Moor relied on the prescription or lancet of his physician, or the bandage and knife of his surgeon."—J. W. Draper, *History of the intellectual development of Europe*, v. 2, ch. 2.—"The accession of Gehwer to the throne of Mussulman Spain, early in the eleventh century, was marked by the promulgation of regulations so judiciously planned, touching medical science and its practice, that he deserves the highest commendation for the unwavering zeal with which he supervised this important branch of learning taught in the metropolis. Those evils which the provinces had suffered previous to his rule, through the practice of medicine by debased empirics, were quickly removed by this sagacious Caliph. Upon the publication of his rescripts, such medical charlatans or ambulatory physicians as boldly announced themselves to be medici, without a knowledge of the science, were ignominiously expelled from the provincial towns. He decreed that a college of skilled surgeons should be forthwith organized, for the single specified function of rigidly examining into the assumed qualifications of applicants for licenses to exercise the curative art in municipal or rural departments, or sought professional employment as

physicians in the numerous hospitals upon the Mahometan domains."—G. F. Fort, *Medical economy during the Middle Ages*, ch. 17.—"Anatomy and physiology, far from making any conquests under Arabian rule, followed on the contrary a retrograde movement. As those physicians never devoted themselves to dissections, they were under the necessity of conforming entirely to the accounts of Galen. . . . Pathology was enriched in the Arabian writings by some new observations. . . . The physicians of this nation were the first . . . who began to distinguish eruptive fevers by the exterior characters of the eruption, while the Greeks paid but little attention to these signs. Therapeutics made also some interesting acquisitions under the Arab physicians. It owes to them, among other things, the introduction of mild purgatives, such as cassia, senna, and manna, which replaced advantageously, in many cases, the drastics employed by the ancients; it is indebted to them, also, for several chemical and pharmaceutical improvements, as the confection of syrups, tinctures, and distilled waters, which are very frequently and usefully employed. Finally, external therapeutics, or surgery, received some minor additions, such as pomades, plasters, and new ointments; but these additions were very far from compensating for the considerable losses which it suffered by their abandoning a multitude of operations in use among the Greeks."—P. V. Renouard, *History of medicine*, p. 267.

10th century.—Medical schools.—Salerno.—Bologna.—North Italy.—France.—Anesthesia and antiseptis.—Dentistry.—Medicines.—"With the foundation of the medical school of Salerno in the tenth century, the modern history of medical education may be said to begin, for it had many of the features that distinguish our modern university medical schools. Its professors often came from a distance and had travelled extensively for purposes of study; they attracted patients of high rank from nearly every part of Europe, and these were generous in their patronage of the school. "Though much work has been done on the subject in recent years, it is not easy to trace the origin of the medical school at Salerno. The difficulty is emphasized by the fact that even the earliest chroniclers whose accounts we have were not sure as to its origin, and even had some doubt about the age of the school. Alphanus, usually designated Alphanus I because there are several of the name, who is one of the earliest professors, whose name and fame have come down to us, gives us the only definite detail as to the age of the school. He was a Benedictine monk, distinguished as a literary man, known both as poet and physician, who was afterwards raised to the Bishopric of Salerno. As a bishop he was one of the beneficent patrons, to whom the school owed much. He lived in the tenth century, and states that medicine flourished in the town before the time of Guimarus II, who reigned in the ninth century. . . . While we do not know exactly when the medical school at Salerno was founded, we know that a hospital was established there as early as 820. It was founded by the Archdeacon Adelmus, and was placed under the control of the Benedictines after it was realized that a religious order, by its organization, was best fitted for carrying on such charitable work continuously. Other infirmaries and charitable institutions, mainly under control of the religious, sprang up in Salerno. It was the presence of these hospitals in a salubrious climate that seems first to have attracted the attention of patients and then of

physicians from all over Europe and even adjacent Africa and Asia. Puschmann says that it is uncertain whether clinical instruction was imparted in these institutions or not, but the whole tenor of what we know about the practical character of the teaching at Salerno and of the fine development of professional medicine there, would seem to argue that probably those who came to study medicine here were brought directly in contact with patients. As early as the ninth century Salerno was famous for its great physicians. We know the names of at least two physicians, Joseph and Joshua, who practised there about the middle of the ninth century. Ragenifrid, a Lombard by his name, was private physician to Prince Wyamar of Salerno in the year 900. The fact that he was from North Italy indicates that already foreigners were being attracted, but more than this that they were obtaining opportunities unhampered by any Chauvinism. From early in the tenth century physicians from Salerno were frequently brought to foreign courts to become the attending physicians to rulers. Patients of the highest distinction from all over Europe began to flock to Salerno, and we have the names of many of them. In the tenth century Bishop Adalberon, when ailing, went there, though he found no cure for his ills. . . . Salerno's influence on Bologna is not difficult to trace, and the precious tradition of surgery particularly, which was carried to the northern university, served to initiate a period of surgery lasting nearly two centuries, during which we have some of the greatest contributions to this branch of medical science that were ever made. The development of the medical school at Bologna anticipated by but a short time that of a series of schools in the north Italian universities. Padua, Piacenza, Pisa, and Vicenza had medical schools in the later Middle Ages, the works of some of whose professors have attracted attention. It was from these north Italian medical schools that the tradition of close observation in medicine and of thoroughly scientific surgery found its way to Paris."—J. J. Walsh, *Old-time makers of medicine*, pp. 14-15, 142-145, 16.—Salerno had its great period in the 11th and 12th centuries. It declined after its sack by Henry VI, 1194, but, nevertheless it produced famous men in the thirteenth century such as Theodoric, bishop of Cervia, who advocated asepsis—for which he was reviled by the more famous Guy de Chauliac—and to whom with his master Hugh of Lucca the earliest use of anesthetics was for a longtime attributed. Anesthesia, however, was in use of Salerno certainly as early as the eleventh century. The means employed was the "soporific sponge" described by Nicholas of Salerno as being composed of a mixture of opium, hyos-cyamus, mulberry juice, lettuce, hemlock, mandragora and ivy. The school of Salerno was still in existence in 1811 when it was abolished by Napoleon.

MEDIEVAL

10th-12th centuries.—Medical school of Salerno.—Legal regulation of medical practice.—Constantine Africanus.—Women at Salerno.—"The Medical School at Salerno . . . is of great interest in modern times for a number of reasons. First it brought about in the course of its development an organization of medical education, and an establishment of standards that were to be maintained whenever and wherever there was a true professional spirit down to our own time. They insisted on a preliminary education of three years

of college work, on at least four years of medical training, on special study for specialist's work, as in surgery, and on practical training with a physician or in a hospital before the student was allowed to practise for himself. At Salerno, too, the department of women's diseases was given over to women professors, and we have the text-books of some of these women medical teachers. The license to practise given to women, however, seems to have been general and did not confine them merely to the care of women and children. We have records of a number of these licenses issued to women in the neighborhood of Salerno. . . . "The best proof of how thorough was the medical education at Salerno and how much influence it exerted even over public opinion is to be found in the regulation of the practice of medicine, which soon began, and the insistence upon proper training before permission to practise medicine was granted. The medical school at Salerno early came to be a recognized institution in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, representing a definite standard of medical training, . . . and it is not surprising, then, that the legal authorities in this part of the country proceeded to the enforcement of legal regulations demanding the attainment of this standard. . . . As early as the year 1140, King Ruggiero (Roger) of the Two Sicilies promulgated the law: 'Whoever from this time forth desires to practise medicine must present himself before our officials and judges, and be subject to their decision. Anyone audacious enough to neglect this shall be punished by imprisonment and confiscation of goods. This decree has for its object the protection of the subjects of our kingdom from the dangers arising from the ignorance of practitioners.' Just about a century later the Emperor Frederick II, the Hohenstaufen, in the year 1240, extended this law, emphasized it, and brought it particularly into connection with the great medical school of the Two Sicilies, of which territory he was the ruler. . . . Before the introduction of Arabian medicine the Salernitan school of medicine was noted for its common-sense methods and its devotion to all the natural modes of healing. It looked quite as much to the prevention of disease as its treatment. Diet and air and water were always looked upon as significant therapeutic aids. . . . [Pagel says] 'Salerno, at the end of the twelfth century, had already reached its highest point of advance in medicine and was beginning to decline. Decadence was evident in so far as all the medical works that we have from that time are either borrowings or imitations from Arabian medicine with which eventually Salernitan medical literature became confounded. Only a few independent authors are found after this time. . . . Probably the most important representative of the medical school at Salerno, certainly the most significant member of its faculty, if we consider the wide influence for centuries after his time that his writings had, was Constantine Africanus [d. 1087]. He is interesting, too, for many other reasons, for he is the first representative, in modern times, that is, who, after the incentive of antiquity had passed, devoted himself to creating a medical literature by translations, by editions, and by the collation of his own and others' observations on medical subjects. He is the connecting link between Arabian medicine and Western medical studies. The fact that he was first a traveller over most of the educational world of his time, then a professor at the University of Salerno who attracted many students, and finally a Benedictine monk in the great abbey at Monte Cassino, shows how his life ran

the gamut of the various phases of interest in the intellectual world of his time. . . . The organization of the department of women's diseases at Salerno, under the care of women professors, and the granting of licenses to women to practise medicine, is not so surprising in the light of this tradition among Greeks and Romans, taken up with some enthusiasm by the Christians. We are not sure just when this development took place. The first definite evidence with regard to it comes in the life of Trotula, who seems to have been the head of the department. . . . She seems to have flourished about the middle of the eleventh century. . . . De Renzi has made out a rather good case for the tradition that Trotula was the wife of John Platearius I—so called because there were probably three professors of that name, . . . all of them distinguished members of the faculty at Salerno. Her reputation extended far beyond her native town, and even Italy itself, and, in later centuries, her name was used to dignify any form of treatment for women's diseases that was being exploited. . . . Two books are attributed to Trotula; one bears the title, 'De Passionibus Mulierum,' and the other has been called 'Trotula Minor,' or 'Summula Secundum Trotulam,' and is a compendium of what she wrote. This is probably due to some disciple, but seems to have existed almost in her own time. Her most important work bears two sub-titles, 'Trotula's Unique Book for the Curing of Diseases of Women, Before, During and After Labor,' and the other sub-title 'Trotula's Wonderful Book of Experience (*experimentalis*) in the Diseases of Women, Before, During, and After Labor, with Other Details Likewise Relating to Labor.' . . . There are many interesting details in the book, [which] . . . in many ways . . . anticipate modern solutions of difficult problems in women's diseases, and the care of the mother and child before, during, and after labor. For instance, there are a series of rules on the choice of the nurse, and on the diet and the régime which she should follow if the child is to be properly nourished without disturbance. . . . One of the most important books on medicine that has come to us from the twelfth century is that of a Benedictine abbess, since known as St. Hildegard, whose life was spent in the Rhineland. . . . [who] found leisure to write a series of books, most of them on mystical subjects, but two of them on medical subjects. The first is called 'Liber Simplicis Medicinæ,' and the second 'Liber Compositæ Medicinæ.' These books were written in order to provide information mainly for the nuns who had charge of the infirmaries of the monasteries of the Benedictines. . . . The first work consists of nine books, treating of plants, elements, trees, stones, fishes, birds, quadrupeds, reptiles, and metals, and is printed in Migne's 'Patrologia,' under the title 'Subtilitatum Divesarum Naturarum Libri Novem.' The second, in five books, treats of the general diseases of created things, of the human body and its ailments, of the causes, symptoms, and treatment of diseases. . . . Dr. Melanie Lipinska, in her 'Histoire des Femmes Médecins,' . . . says that the saint distinguishes a double mode of action of different substances, one chemical, the other physical, or what we would very probably call magnetic. She discusses all the ailments of the various organs, the brain, the eyes, the teeth, the heart, the spleen, the stomach, the liver. She had special chapters on redness and paleness of the face, on asthma, on cough, on fetid breath, on bilious indigestion, on gout. Besides, she has other chapters on nervous affections, on

icterus, on fevers, on intestinal worms, on infections due to swamp exhalations, on dysentery, and a number of forms of pulmonary diseases. Nearly all of our methods of diagnosis are to be found, hinted at at least, in her book. She discusses the redness of the blood as a sign of health, the characteristics of various excrementitious material as signs of disease, the degrees of fever, and the changes in the pulse. Of course, it was changes in the humors of the body that constituted the main causes for disease in her opinion. . . . For Hildegard the brain was the regulator of all the vital qualities, the centre of life. She connects the nerves in their passage from the brain and the spinal cord through the body with manifestations of life. She has a series of chapters with regard to psychology normal and morbid. She talks about frenzy, insanity, despair, dread, obsession, anger, idiocy, and innocency. She says strongly in

pellier. Many prominent rulers and ecclesiastics selected Jewish physicians. Some of these made distinct contributions to medicine, and a number of them deserve a place in any account of medicine in the making during the Middle Ages. One of them, Maimonides . . . deserves a place among the great makers of medicine of all time, because of the influence that he exerted on his own and succeeding generations. Any story of the preservation and development of medical teaching and medical practice during the Middle Ages would be decidedly incomplete without due consideration of the work of Jewish physicians. . . . Moses Ben Maimon [Maimonides] . . . was born at Cordova in Spain, on the 30th of March in the year 1135 or 1139, the year is in doubt. . . . After his preliminary education at home Maimonides studied the natural sciences and medicine with Moorish teachers. Jewish persecutions drove the family from Spain, and Maimonides finally settled and married in Egypt. He became one of the busiest of practising physicians. . . . He well deserves a place among the great practical masters of medicine, as well as high rank among the physicians of his time. There is little that is original in his writing, but his thorough-going common sense, his wide knowledge, and his discriminating eclectic faculty make his writings of special value. As might have been expected, the Aphorisms of Hippocrates attracted his attention, and, besides, he wrote a series of aphorisms of his own. The most interesting of his writings, however, is a series of letters on dietetics written for the son of his patron Saladin. . . . The rules of life and health that Maimonides laid down in these letters have become part of our popular medical tradition. Probably more of the ordinarily current maxims as to health have been derived from them than would possibly be suspected by anyone not familiar with them. . . . On other subjects Maimonides was just as sensible. Perhaps in nothing is this more striking than in his complete rejection of astrology. Considering how long astrology, in the sense of the doctrine of the stars influencing human health and destinies, had dominated men's minds, and how universal was the acceptance of it, Maimonides' strong expressions show how much genius lifts itself above the popular persuasions of its time, even among the educated, and how much it anticipates subsequent knowledge. It is well to remind ourselves that as late as the middle of the eighteenth century Mesmer's treatise on The Influence of the Stars on Human Constitutions was accepted by the faculty of the University of Vienna as satisfactory evidence not only of his knowledge of medicine but of his power to reason about it. At the end of the twelfth century Maimonides was trying to argue it out of existence on the best possible grounds. 'Know, my masters,' he writes, 'that no man should believe anything that is not attested by one of these three sanctions:—rational proof as in mathematical science, the perception of the senses, or traditions from the prophets and learned men.' . . . He died in 1204, just at the beginning of one of the great productive centuries of humanity. . . . [He] was . . . in his own time one of the world's teachers, and, in a certain sense, he must always remain that."—J. J. Walsh, *Old-time makers of medicine*, pp. 12, 105-108.

12th-15th centuries.—Roger's Practica.—Aseptic wound treatment.—Anesthesia.—College of St. Côme.—Lanfranc founder of French surgery.—Study of anatomy.—De Mondeville.—Guy de Chauliac.—Papal bulls.—Medical education.—Popular Pharmacopœia.—Belief in mi-



MOSES BEN MAIMON (MAIMONIDES)

Traditional portrait

one place that 'when headache and migraine and vertigo attack a patient simultaneously they render a man foolish and upset his reason. This makes many people think that he is possessed of a demon, but that is not true.'—J. J. Walsh, *Old-time makers of medicine*, pp. 141, 146, 147, 157, 163, 182-184, 190, 193, 195-197.

12th century.—Maimonides.—"During the early Christian centuries much was owed to the genius and the devotion to medicine of distinguished Jewish physicians. Their sacred and rabbinical writers always concerned themselves closely with medicine, and both the Old Testament and the Talmud must be considered as containing chapters important for the medical history of the periods in which they were written. At all times the Jews have been distinguished for their knowledge of medicine, and all during the Middle Ages they are to be found prominent as physicians. They were among the teachers of the Arabs in the East and of the Moors in Spain. They were probably among the first professors at Salerno as well as at Mont-

raculous cures.—“The principal outcome of the School of Salerno was the work of two surgeons, Roger . . . of Palermo and Roland . . . of Parma. . . . Roger’s *Practica*, became a standard text-book of Salerno, where he himself had been a student and teacher. He knew of cancer and (possibly) syphilis, described a case of hernia of the lungs, prescribed ashes of sponge and sea-weed (iodides) for goiter or scrofula, employed the significant mercurial salve for chronic dermal and parasitic affections, introduced the seton and suture of the intestines over a hollow tube, taught the use of styptics, sutures and ligatures in hemorrhage and the healing of wounds by second intention (laudable pus). Roger, Roland and the Four Masters were succeeded by the twelfth century surgeons, Jamerius and Hugh of Lucca (Ugo Borgognoni), . . . by Bruno of Longoburg, an advocate of dry (aseptic) wound treatment, whose ‘*Chirurgia magna*’ completed at Padua in 1252, is the first treatise of the time in which Arabic authors are drawn upon; by Hugh’s son or disciple, Teodorico Borgognoni (1205-1206), Bishop of Cervia, . . . [who] contradicted the pseudo-Galenist dogma of ‘coction’ or ‘laudable pus’ and stood out in his day as a sturdy pioneer of a rational asepis: ‘For it is not necessary, as Roger and Roland have written, as many of their disciples teach, and as all modern surgeons profess,’ he says, ‘that pus should be generated in wounds. No error can be greater than this.’ . . . This simple statement, as Allbutt points out, makes Theodoric one of the most original surgeons of all time, for only Mondeville, Paracelsus and Lister upheld these principles after him. . . . Hugh and Theodoric . . . are also associated with the medieval substitutes for anesthesia, the origins of which, however, go back to the remote past, probably to India. . . . [William of Saliceto of the school of Bologna, who flourished at the end of the thirteenth century, made a vigorous attempt to go back to the practice of independent observation. But he is quite overshadowed by his great pupil Lanfranc of Milan, who, for political reasons, was driven from his native town, and went first to Lyons and then to Paris.] Arriving in Paris in 1295, he found himself, as a married man, shut out of teaching at the university, where the professors were celibate clerics; and he therefore became associated with the College de Saint Côme, organized before 1260 by Jean Pitard, surgeon to Philip the Fair (1306-28). Here, by his straightforward style of lecturing and his use of bedside instruction, he became the virtual founder of French surgery, and died in 1315. . . . Lanfranc made a resolute and valiant stand against the medieval schism between surgery and medicine which had existed since Avicenna’s time. . . . He was the first to describe concussion of the brain, and his chapter on the symptoms of fracture of the skull is accounted a classic. . . . The work of Saliceto and Lanfranc, coincident with the development of the great medieval universities—Paris (1110), Bologna (1113), Oxford (1167), Montpellier (1181), Padua (1222), Naples (1224)—and the brilliant false dawn of culture and liberalism in the thirteenth century, did much to further the growth of surgical talent in France, England and Flanders. From the Italian families delle Preci and da Norsia came the Preciani and the Norsini, whole generations of itinerant surgeons.”—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 135-138.—“At the school of Salerno it was decreed that the human body should be dissected at least once every five years, but it was with the greatest difficulty that per-

mission was obtained for this purpose. It seems probable that under the strong influence of Taddeo there was an occasional dissection at Bologna, but it was not until Mundinus (professor from 1306 to 1326) took the chair that the study of anatomy became popular. . . . In 1316, Mundinus issued his work on anatomy, which served as a text-book for more than two hundred years. . . . The other early mediæval university of special interest in medicine is that of Montpellier. With it are connected three teachers who have left great names in our story—Arnold of Villanova, Henri de Mondeville and Guy de Chauliac. The city was very favorably situated not far from the Spanish border, and the receding tide of the Arab invasion in the eighth century had left a strong Arab influence in that province. The date of the origin of the university is uncertain, but there were teachers of medicine there in the twelfth century, though it was not until 1289 that it was formally founded by a papal bull. Arnold of Villanova was one of the most prolific writers of the Middle Ages. He had travelled much, was deeply read in Arabic medicine and was also a student of law and of philosophy. He was an early editor of the *Regimen Sanitatis*, and a strong advocate of diet and hygiene. His views on disease were largely those of the Arabian physicians, and we cannot see that he himself made any very important contribution to our knowledge; but he was a man of strong individuality and left an enduring mark on mediæval medicine, as one may judge from the fact that among the first hundred medical books printed there were many associated with his name. He was constantly in trouble with the Church, though befriended by the Popes on account of his medical knowledge. There is a Bull of Clement V asking the bishops to search for a medical book by Arnold dedicated to himself, but not many years later his writings were condemned as heretical.”—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 106-107.—“Contemporary with Lanfranc [of Milan] was his loyal follower, Henri de Mondeville (1260-1320), a hardy and original thinker, endowed with great powers of wit and sarcasm, who made a valiant last stand for the principle of avoiding suppuration by simple cleanliness, as originally taught by Hippocrates and as reintroduced by Hugh and Theodoric. Before 1301, he was one of the four body surgeons of Philip the Fair, and in 1304 he delivered lectures on anatomy at the University of Montpellier. The surgical treatise of Mondeville . . . abounds in directions of the rarest common sense for the aseptic treatment of wounds and in shrewd practical advice to the surgeon as to the conduct of his professional life. . . . A man of far different type was Guy de Chauliac (1300-70), the most distinguished authority on surgery in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. A country boy from Auvergne, Guy managed, through friends, to take holy orders and to get an excellent medical education at Toulouse, Montpellier and Paris, with a special course in anatomy at Bologna. He thus became the most erudite surgeon of his time, and in due course, settled down at Avignon as physician and ‘commensal chaplain’ to Pope Clement VI and to his successors, Innocent VI and Urban V (1352-78). He was a writer of rare learning, endowed with a fine critical and historic sense, and, indeed, the only medical historian of consequence between Celsus and Haller. As an operator, he set great store by the study of human anatomy. . . . He throws a great light upon the operative procedure of his time by his description of the narcotic or soporific inhalation, originally

attributed to Theodoric. This, the medieval substitute for anesthesia, as above described, was in vogue up to the seventeenth century. . . . Yet, in spite of his wide experience, Guy de Chauliac was on the whole a reactionary in the important matter of the treatment of wounds and, by his great authority, threw back the progress of surgery for some six centuries, giving his personal weight to the doctrine that the healing of a wound must be accomplished by the surgeon's interference—salves, plasters and other meddling—rather than by the healing power of nature. . . . Hand in hand with the medieval development of surgery, there necessarily went some effort to improve the status of human anatomy. Dissecting, at first rigorously prescribed by law and sentiment, became more and more a matter of course, following the decree of Emperor Frederick II in 1240. Payne has divided medieval anatomic teaching into three periods: First, the Salernitan (800-1200), in which instruction was based upon the dissection of animals as set forth in the 'Anatomia Porci' of Copho, one of the Jewish instructors at Salerno; second, the Arabist period (thirteenth century), in which such dissections were superseded by books and lectures. The leading authorities of this time were Richard, of Wendover, called Ricardus Anglicus (1252), physician to Gregory IX, whose work is preserved in the text of Robert Töply (Vienna, (1902); and Henri de Mondeville, who, long before Ambroise Paré, prefixed an anatomic treatise to his surgery, and who improved upon Wendover's teaching by the use of pictures, diagrams and a model of the skeleton. . . . In the Dark Ages, the clergy were the only class who had any pretense to education and, before the time of the School of Salerno, medicine was entirely in the hands of Jewish and Arabian physicians. The rest were simply vagrant quacks or stationary humbugs whose practice was discountenanced by the Church on the ground that faith, prayers and fasting were better than pagan amulets, while the sick were advised to emulate the saints in their capacity for endurance of suffering (Gregory of Tours). With the rise of the School of Salerno, European medicine began to look up a little, but, as soon as monks and clerics began to practise medicine, it was found that the seeking of medical fees to the detriment of regular duties, the sight of many aspects of the sick that might offend modesty, the possibility of being the cause of a patient's death and other happenings were somewhat inconsistent with the original intention of holy orders, and so we find the Church instituting that long series of edicts which, in the first instance, were aimed not so much at medicine as at its malpractice by monks. These were the decrees of the councils of Clermont (1130), Rheims (1131), the Second Lateran (1130), Montpellier (1162), Tours (1163), Paris (1212), the Fourth Lateran (1215), and Le Mans (1247), and their general effect was, unfortunately, not only to stop the monks from practising but to extend the special odium of these decrees to the whole medical profession. As Allbutt says, 'If Papal bulls conferred privileges, they usually implied or imposed restrictions.' The famous maxim of the Council of Tours ('*Ecclesia abhorret a sanguine*'), for example, went wide of its supposed intention, since, in casting discredit upon the sometimes murderous vagabond surgeon, the weight of its authority made the surgeon of best type still an inferior to the average practitioner, even in Protestant Germany to the end of the eighteenth century. Worse still, the bigots of the Paris Faculty went much further than the Papal See in widening the gap

between surgery and medicine. The Roman Pontiffs themselves were, some of them, liberal-minded men of the world, who did not hesitate to employ talented Jewish physicians at need and, in later times, did much to foster the arts and sciences, in Italy at least. John XXI and Paul II were physicians. 'Around the Papal Chair,' says Allbutt, 'the velvet of the hand of the Church was thicker than the iron. In the air of Rome or of Avignon the grim rigor of Paris was marvelously softened.'—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 130, 141, 143, 152-153.—"One other great mediæval physician may be mentioned, Peter of Abano (a small town near Padua, famous for its baths). He is the first in a long line of distinguished physicians connected with the great school of Padua. Known as 'the Conciliator,' from his attempt to reconcile the diverse views on philosophy and medicine, he had an extraordinary reputation as a practitioner and author, the persistence of which is well illustrated by the fact that eight of the one hundred and eighty-two medical books printed before 1481 were from his pen. He seems to have taught medicine in Paris, Bologna and Padua. He was a devoted astrologer, had a reputation among the people as a magician, and, like his contemporary, Arnold of Villanova, came into conflict with the Church and appears to have been several times before the Inquisition; indeed it is said that he escaped the stake only by a timely death. . . . The University of Pavia was founded in 1361. . . . A list is given of the teachers in medicine for the year 1433, twenty in all, and there were special lectures for the morning, afternoon and evening. The subjects are medicine, practical medicine, physics, metaphysics, logic, astrology, surgery and rhetoric: very striking is the omission of anatomy, which does not appear in the list even in 1467. . . . The Arabians were famous for their vigor and resource in matters of treatment. Bleeding was the first resort in a large majority of all diseases. In the 'Practica' of Ferrari there is scarcely a malady for which it is not recommended. All remedies were directed to the regulation of the six non-naturals, and they either preserved health, cured the disease—or did the opposite. The most popular medicines were derived from the vegetable kingdom, and as they were chiefly those recommended by Galen, they were, and still are, called by his name. Many important mineral medicines were introduced by the Arabians, particularly mercury, antimony, iron, etc. There were in addition scores of substances, the parts or products of animals, some harmless, others salutary, others again useless and disgusting."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 110, 115-116, 118.—"A work translated from the German in the year 1561, and entitled 'A most excellent and perfecte homish apothecarye or physicke booke, for all the grefes and diseases of the bodye,' [throws light on the ideas and pharmacopœia of the period]. The first chapter is 'Concerning the Head and his partes.' 'Galen sayth, the head is divided into foure partes: in the fore part hath blood the dominion; Colera in the ryght syde, Melancholy in the left syde, and Flegma beareth rule in the hindermost part. If the head doth ake so sore by reason of a runninge that he cannot snoffe hys nose, bath hys fete in a depe tub until the knees and give him this medicine . . . which riseth into hys head and dryeth hys moyst braynes. Galen sayth He that hath payne in the hindermost part of hys head, the same must be let blood under the chynne, specially on the right side; also were it good ofte to burn

the heyre of a man before hys nose. The braynes are greved many wayes; many there are whom the head whyrleth so sore that he thinketh the earth torneth upsye doune: Cummin refraineth the whyling, comforteth the braynes and maketh them to growe agayne: or he may take the braynes of a hogge, rost the same upon a grede yron and cut slices thereof and lay to the greved parts.' This doctrine of like helping like was of universal application, and in medical works of the Middle Ages we meet constantly with such prescriptions as these:—"Take the right eye of a Frogg, lap it in a peece of russet cloth and hang it about the neck; it cureth the right eye if it bee enlamed or bleared. And if the left eye be greved, do the like by the left eye of the said Frogg.' Again—"The skin of a Raven's heel is good against the gout, but the right heel skin must be laid upon the right foot if that be gouty, and the left upon the left.' . . . We find it prescribed as a cure for the quartane ague to lay the fourth book of Homer's Iliad under the patient's head. . . . For weak eyes the patient is to 'take the toungue of a foxe, and hange the same about his necke, and so long it hangeth there his sight shall not wax feeble, as sayth Pliny.' The hanging of such amulets round the neck was very frequently prescribed, and the efficacy of them is a thing curiously well attested. Elias Ashmole in his diary for 1681 has entered the following—"I tooke this morning a good dose of elixir, and hung three spiders about my neck, and they drove my ague away. Deo gratias!" A baked toad hung in a silk bag about the neck was also held in high esteem, as was a toad, either alive or dried, laid upon the back of the neck as a means of stopping bleeding at the nose; and again, 'either frogg or toade, the nails whereof have been clipped, hanged about one that is sick of quartane ague, riddeth away the disease forever, as sayth Pliny.' We have even a striking instance of the benefit derived from an amulet by a horse, who could not be suspected of having helped forward the cure by the strength of his faith in it. 'The root of cut Malowe hanged about the neck driveth away blemishes of the eyes, whether it be in a man or a horse, as I Jerome of Brunswieg, have seene myselve. I have myselve done it to a blind horse that I bought for X crounes, and was sold again of XI. crounes'—a trick distinctly worth knowing."—E. A. King, *Medieval medicine (Nineteenth Century, July, 1893)*.—"The saints have proved sad enemies to the doctors. Miraculous cures are attested by monks, abbots, bishops, popes, and consecrated saints. . . . Pilgrimages and visits to holy shrines have usurped the place of medicine, and, as in many cases at our own watering places, by air and exercise, have unquestionably effected what the employment of regular professional aid had been unable to accomplish. Saint Dominic, Saint Bellinus, and Saint Vitus have been greatly renowned in the cure of diseases in general; the latter particularly, who takes both poisons and madness of all kinds under his special protection. . . . The credulity of mankind has never been more strongly displayed than in the general belief afforded to the authenticity of remarkable cures of diseases said to have been effected by the imposition of royal hands. The practice seems to have originated in an opinion that there is something sacred or divine attaching either to the sovereign or his functions. . . . The practice appears to be one of English growth, commencing with Edward the Confessor, and descending only to foreign potentates who could show an alliance with the royal family of

England. The kings of France, however, claimed the right to dispense the Gift of Healing, and it was certainly exercised by Philip the First; but the French historians say that he was deprived of the power on account of the irregularities of his life. Laurentius, first physician to Henry IV, of France, who is indignant at the attempt made to derive its origin from Edward the Confessor, asserts the power to have commenced with Clovis I, A. D. 481, and says that Louis I, A. D. 814, added to the ceremonial of touching, the sign of the cross. Mezeray also says, that Saint Louis, through humility, first added the sign of the cross in touching for the king's evil. . . . If credit is to be given to a statement . . . by William of Malmesbury, with respect to Edward the Confessor, we must admit that in England, for a period of nearly 700 years, the practice of the royal touch was exercised in a greater or lesser degree, as it extended to the reign of Queen Anne. It must not, however, be supposed that historical documents are extant to prove a regular continuance of the practice during this time. No accounts whatever of the first four Norman kings attempting to cure the complaint are to be found. In the reign of William III, it was not on any occasion exercised. He manifested more sense than his predecessors, for he withheld from employing the royal touch for the cure of scrofula; and Rapin says, that he was so persuaded he should do no injury to persons afflicted with this distemper by not touching them, that he refrained from it all his reign. Queen Elizabeth was also averse to the practice, yet she extensively performed it. It flourished most in the time of Charles II, particularly after his restoration, and a public register of cases was kept at Whitehall, the principal scene of its operation."—T. J. Pettigrew, *Superstitions connected with the history and practice of medicine and surgery*, pp. 34-37, 117-121.—"Medicine developed much more slowly than surgery, or, rather, lagged behind it, as it seems nearly always prone to do. . . . Medical problems are more complex and involve both art and science, so that solutions of them are often merely temporary and lack finality. During the Middle Ages, however, and especially towards the end of them, the most important branches of medicine, diagnosis and therapeutics, took definite shape on the foundations that lie at the basis of our modern medical science. We hear of percussion for abdominal conditions, and of the most careful study of the pulse and the respiration. There are charts for the varying color of the urine, and of the tints of the skin. With Nicholas of Cusa there came the definite suggestion of the need of exact methods of diagnosis. A mathematician himself, he wished to introduce mathematical methods into medical diagnosis, and suggested that the pulse should be counted in connection with the water clock, the water that passed being weighed, in order to get very definite comparative values for the pulse rate under varying conditions, and also that the specific gravity of fluids from the body should be ascertained in order to get another definite datum in the knowledge of disease. It was long before these suggestions were to bear much fruit, but it is interesting to find them so clearly expressed. At the very end of the Middle Ages came the father of modern pharmaceutical chemistry, Basil Valentine."—J. Walsh, *Old-time makers of medicine*, pp. 10-20.

16th century.—Paracelsus.—Paracelsus, of whose many names this one stands alone in history to represent him, was an extraordinary per-

son, born in Switzerland, in 1493. He died in 1541. "His character has been very variously estimated. The obstructives of his own age and many hasty judges since have pronounced him a quack. This is simply ridiculous. As a chemist, he is considered to have been the discoverer of zinc, and perhaps of bismuth. He was acquainted with hydrogen, muriatic, and sulphurous gases. He distinguished alum from vitriols, remarking that the former contained an earth, and the latter metals. He perceived the part played by the atmosphere in combustion, and recognized the analogy between combustion and respiration. He saw that in the organic system chemical processes are constantly going on. Thus, to him is due the fundamental idea from which have sprung the chemico-physiological researches of Liebig, Mulder, Boussingault, and others. By using in medicine, not crude vegetables, but their active principles, he opened the way to the discovery of the proximate principles of vegetables, organic alkalis, and the like. But perhaps the greatest service he rendered to chemistry, was by declaring it an essential part of medical education, and by showing that its true practical application lay not in gold-making, but in pharmacy and the industrial arts. In medicine he scouted the fearfully complex electuaries and mixtures of the Galenists and the Arabian polypharmacists, recommending simpler and more active preparations. He showed that the idea of poison is merely relative, and knew that poisons in suitable doses may be employed in medicine. He prescribed tin as a remedy for intestinal worms, mercury as an anti-syphilitic, and lead in the diseases of the skin. He also used preparations of antimony, arsenic, and iron. He employed sulphuric acid in the treatment of saturnine affections. The astonishing cures which he undoubtedly performed were, however, due not so much to his peculiar medicines, as to his eminent sagacity and insight. He showed the importance of a chemical examination of urine for the diagnosis of disease."—J. W. Slater, *Paracelsus (Imperial dictionary of universal biology)*.—See also CHEMISTRY: General: Iatro-, or medical chemistry; SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance: 16th century.

16th century.—First English College of Physicians.—"The modern doctor dates only from the reign of Henry VIII., when the College of Physicians in England was founded as a body corporate by letters patent in the tenth year of the reign. This grant was in response to a petition from a few of the most notable members of the profession resident in London, who were perhaps moved by both a laudable zeal in the interests of science, and a compassion for the sufferings of the subjects of astrological and toxicological experiments. The charter thus obtained, though probably drafted by the promoters themselves, was found to be so inadequately worded and expressed, that it became necessary to obtain powers to amend it by Act of Parliament. Among these early members were Linacre, Wotton, and others, famous scholars beyond doubt, though possibly but indifferent practitioners. In fact, we are constantly struck throughout the early history of the profession by the frequent occurrence of names associated with almost every other branch of study than that strictly appertaining to the art of medicine. We have naturalists, magneticians, astronomers, mathematicians, logicians, and classical scholars, but scarce one who accomplished anything worthy to be recorded in the annals of medical science. Indeed it is difficult to conceive any useful object that could have been attained by the existence of

the College as a professional licensing body, other than the pecuniary interests of the orthodox. . . . It is most significant as to the social degradation of the science of medicine, that most of the notorious empirics of the latter half of the sixteenth century were both highly recommended and strenuously supported in their resistance to the proctors of orthodoxy by some of the greatest names of the age. These self-deluded victims of quackery were not indeed adverse in theory to the pretensions of more regular members of the profession. They would patronize the Court physicians, or, if favorites of the Crown, they might even submit to the Sovereign's recommendation in that behalf; but none the less their family doctor was in far too many cases some outlandish professor of occult arts, retained in learned state on the premises, who undertook the speedy, not to say miraculous, cure of his patron's particular disease by all the charms of the Cabala."—H. Hall, *Early medicus (Merry England)*.

ALSO IN: *Eclectic Magazine*, June, 1884.

MODERN

16th-17th centuries.—Barber surgeons.—Medical humanists.—Progress of medicine.—Anatomy.—Influence of Vesalius, Fallopius, Eustachius, and Paré.—Medical education.—Van Helmont's system.—Iatro-chemical and iatro-physical systems.—Sydenham.—At the close of the medieval period medical science was in a transition stage. "Minor surgery was in the hands of the barbers, who performed all the minor operations, such as bleeding; the more important operations, few in number, were performed by surgeons. . . . Even physicians of the most distinguished reputation practised judicial astrology. . . . That remarkable character, Michael Servetus, the discoverer of the lesser circulation, when a fellow student with Vesalius at Paris, gave lectures upon judicial astrology, which brought him into conflict with the faculty. . . . So far as science is concerned, the thirteenth century was an aurora followed by a long period. Medicine joined heartily though slowly in the revolt against mediævalism. . . . Gradually Hippocrates and Galen came to their own again. . . . Galen became the idol of the schools. A strong revulsion of feeling arose against the Arabians, and Avicenna, the Prince, who had been clothed with an authority only a little less than divine, became anathema."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 121, 126.—Efforts were already being made to raise minor surgery to a higher plane. "A special feature of Renaissance legislation in France and England was the improvement of the status of the barber surgeons. In 1505 the Paris Faculty took the barber surgeons under its wing, in order to spite the surgeons proper, of whom it was jealous, and a few years later, these 'surgeons of the long robe,' having failed to become a separate faculty, decided to make the best of a bad bargain by coming under the sway of the physicians. In England, in 1462, the numerous and prosperous Guild of Barbers became the Company of Barbers under Edward IV; the surgeons obtained a special charter in 1492."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, p. 226.—"While the College de Côme was doing much to elevate the character of surgery in France and to separate it from the 'barber shop,' an equally active influence was being exerted in England by the incorporation of the barber-surgeons in London. . . . In 1512 a new charter was granted

which forbade any person from practising surgery in London except the members of that corporation. In 1540 another act was passed forbidding the barbers who practised shaving and hair dressing from doing any surgical work except the extraction of teeth. On the other hand, the surgeons were forbidden to practice shaving. The final legal separation of the surgeons and barbers did not take place until 1735, when an act was passed making the College of Surgeons and the Corporation of Barbers entirely separate bodies and limiting the practise of surgery wholly to the membership of Colleges of Surgeons, Physicians and Apothecaries."—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, pp. 88-89.—In the field of medicine a group of medical humanists—who flourished in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries—"has had a great and beneficial influence upon the profession. They were for the most part cultivated gentlemen with a triple interest—literature, medicine and natural history. . . . A large proportion of them were naturalists: Leoniceus, Linacre, Champier, Fernel, Fracastorius, Gonthier, Caius, J. Sylvius, Brasavola, Fuchsius, Matthiolus, Conrad Gesner, [who has been compared to Pliny] to mention only those I know best—form a great group. . . . Gonthier, Fernel, Fuchs and Mattioli were great scholars and greater physicians. Champier, one of the most remarkable of the group, was the founder of the Hôtel Dieu at Lyons, and author of books of a characteristic type. . . . In many ways greatest of all was Conrad Gesner [1516-1605], whose *mors inopinata* at forty-nine, bravely fighting the plague, is so touchingly and tenderly mourned by his friend Caius."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 128, 131.—In the early part of the sixteenth century, Thomas Linacre, physician to Henry VII and Henry VIII of England, published Latin versions of Galen's chief treatises. "These faithful and accurate translations had a wide circulation on the continent and made it clear to physicians of the day that for centuries they had relied upon garbled and second-hand versions of their favorite author." At the end of the same century Foesius or Foes, city physician of Metz, made a critical edition of the Greek text of Hippocrates. By this time a number of more or less "popular" works on medicine had appeared in Germany, France and England and "the effect of these vernacular writings was to get men's minds away from scholasticism and turn them toward realities. This Renaissance tendency reached its highest development in the most prominent of the medical leaders of the sixteenth century, Paracelsus, Vesalius, and Paré—three strong men, literally 'blazed the way,' not only for the general advance of medicine, but for keen and liberal thinking in all its branches."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 181, 188.—"That progress was at first slow was due in part to the fact that the leaders were too busy scraping the Arabian tarnish from the pure gold of Greek medicine and correcting the anatomical mistakes of Galen to hother much about his physiology or pathology. Here and there among the great anatomists of the period we read an experiment, but it was the art of observation, the art of Hippocrates, not the science of Galen, not the carefully devised experiment to determine function, that characterized their work. There was indeed every reason why men should have been content with the physiology and pathology of that day, as, from a theoretical standpoint, it was excellent. The doctrine of the four humors and of the natural, animal and vital spirits afforded a ready explanation for the symptoms of all diseases, and the practice of the day was

admirably adapted to the theories. There was no thought of, no desire for, change. But the revival of learning awakened in men at first a suspicion and at last a conviction that the ancients had left something which could be reached by independent research, and gradually the paralytic-like torpor passed away. The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries did three things in medicine—shattered authority, laid the foundation of an accurate knowledge of the structure of the human body and demonstrated how its functions should be studied intelligently—with which advances, as illustrating this period, may be associated with the names of Paracelsus, Vesalius and Harvey."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 131-132.

"Leonardo da Vinci . . . was the founder of iconographic and physiologic anatomy, although his chalk drawings (1512) remained buried for over two hundred years, when they were noted by William Hunter . . . and Blumenbach. . . . Startlingly modern in their accuracy and display of physiologic knowledge, these impromptu sketches, made beside the dissected subject, . . . fully justify William Hunter's claim that their author was 'the greatest anatomist of his epoch.' Leonardo, like his forerunners, believed that a scientific knowledge of artistic anatomy . . . can be gained only at the dissecting table. . . . Yet dissecting for teaching purposes was still hampered by the theologic idea of the sanctity of the human body and its resurrection. Moreover, . . . very little anatomic material could be obtained among a sparse and slowly growing population . . . [and] the anatomy of the schools was still the anatomy of Galen. . . . The Faust who was to release the subject from these trammels and uphold the doctrine of the *visum et repertum* was Andreas Vesalius (1514-64), the most commanding figure in European medicine after Galen and before Harvey. There were plenty of dissectors and dissections before Vesalius, but he alone made anatomy what it is today—a living working science. It was the effect of his strong and engaging personality that made dissecting not only visible, but respectable. . . . Five years' experience as public prosecutor at Padua, where he taught students to dissect and inspect the parts *in situ*, culminated in the magnificent *De Fabrica Humani Corporis* (1543), a work which marks an epoch in breaking with the past and throwing overboard Galenical tradition. . . . In a fit of indignation he burned his manuscripts, left Padua, and accepted the lucrative post of court physician to Emperor Charles V. He married, settled down, became a courtier, and gave up anatomy so completely that, during the long, tedious years in Madrid, 'he could not get hold of so much as a dried skull, let alone the chance of making a dissection.' He paid the penalty of 'the great refusal' when his favorite pupil, Gabriele Falloppio, came to the front as a worthy successor. . . . In the year 1563 Vesalius set out on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, as a penance, some say, for an accidental human vivisection; more probably, the botanist Clusius thought, as a pretext for getting away from his tiresome surroundings. On his way back, in 1564, he received word of an invitation to resume his old chair at Padua, just vacated by the death of Fallopius. But . . . the sudden access of an obscure malady left Vesalius to die, solitary and unfriended, on the island of Zante. . . . What fate might have befallen him had he gone further is seen in the case of the heretic Miguel Servete or Servetus (1500-53), whom Calvin caused to be burned at the stake for a mere juggling of verbiage, a theologic quibble. Servetus was one of the world's martyrs for 'the crime of

honest thought.' His discovery that the blood in the pulmonary circulation passes into the heart, after having been mixed with air in the lungs is recorded in his book, the 'Restitutio Christianism' (1553), of which only the copies at Paris and Vienna are known to exist, the others having been burned with him. . . . The surpassing ability of Vesalius is seen not only in his establishment of anatomic norms for the description and figuration of the bones and muscles, in his thorough descriptions of such parts as the eye, the ear, the accessory sinuses of the nose, the pituitary body, or the pelvic cavity, but in his clean sweep of the whole subject. His ideas were sustained by his pupil Fallopius, and opposed not only by Sylvius and Columbus, but by an anatomist of equal rank with himself, Bartolommeo Eustachi (1524-74), called Eustachius. The latter was professor at the Collegia della Spaienza in Rome, where, in 1552, he completed his 'Tabulae anatomicae,' a set of superb plates, drawn by himself which remained unprinted in the Papal Library for one hundred and sixty-two years. . . . Eustachius discovered the Eustachian tube, the thoracic duct, the suprarenal bodies (1563), and the abducens nerve; described the origin of the optic nerves, the cochlea, the pulmonary veins, the muscles of the throat and neck, gave the first correct picture of the uterus, and wrote the best treatise of his time on the structure of the teeth. . . . Jacques Dubois (1478-1555), called Sylvius, Vesalius' teacher at Paris, was, in spite of his large following of pupils, a harsh, avaricious bigot, whose devotion to Galen was such that he declared Vesalius to be a madman (vesanus), and said, in reference to Galen's errors in human anatomy, that 'Man had changed but not for the better.' Sylvius named the jugular, subclavian, renal, popliteal, and other blood-vessels, gave equally characteristic names to many of the muscles, which we still retain today, and, in his 'Isagoge' (Venice, 1536), was one of the first to mention the Sylvian aqueduct and the valves in the veins. The other opponent of Vesalius, Matteo Realdo Colombo (1516?-1559), called Columbus, is sometimes spoken of as the discoverer of the pulmonary circulation, but the work in which his undoubtedly excellent account is contained, his 'De re anatomica,' was published in 1559, at least six years after the burning of Servetus and his book. . . . The effect of Vesalius on Renaissance surgery is seen in the life work of Ambroise Paré (1510-90), who made the 'Fabrica' popular and accessible to surgeons by writing an epitome of it in the vernacular. A rustic barber's apprentice when he came up from the province to Paris in 1520, and afterwards a dresser at the Hôtel Dieu, Paré became an army surgeon eight years later, was incontinently thrown into the wars, where he soon made himself the greatest surgeon of his time by his courage, ability, and common sense. . . . Paré's greatest contribution to surgery hinges on the baneful effect which the pseudo-Hippocratic aphorism that 'diseases not curable by iron are curable by fire' exerted on the treatment of gunshot wounds, the new feature of Renaissance surgery. Giovanni di Vizio (1460-1520), physician to Pope Julius II, had taught in his 'Practica' (1514), like Brunschwig before him, that such wounds were poisoned burns; and, therefore, should be treated with a first dressing of boiling oil. How Paré's supply of boiling oil gave out one night in camp and how he profited by the experience to the extent of letting well enough alone in future is a well-known story. Had it not been for his 'fat of puppy-dogs,' a lard or salve, which, from some tenacity of superstition, he con-

tinued to apply, he would have been a true asepsist."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 201-204, 206-208, 210-211.—"The great centers of medical education in the seventeenth century were Leyden, Paris, and Montpellier. At Leyden were Sylvius, Ruysch, Nuck, and Bidloo; van Deventer and Cornelis Solingen were at the Hague; Roonhuyze and Swammerdam at Amsterdam; Duverney, Vieussens, Pierre Dionis, Mauriceau, Jules Clément, and Paul Portal at Paris; Giorgio Gaglivi at Padua, and no less than Sydenham was a pupil of Charles Barbeirac at Montpellier. In Germany, however, medicine had little chance until after the Peace of Westphalia (1648), and even after that time many original scientific investigations all over Europe were made by practising physicians detached from universities. It is not without significance that the huge output of brilliant work in anatomy and physiology followed directly upon the close of the Thirty Years' War. . . . Dissecting as a means of teaching anatomy was more frequent in Italy, Holland, and France than in Germany or England. In the latter country, the material was usually obtained by grave-robbing. In Germany, dissections, *longo intervallo*, were in the nature of civic events attended by festivities. When Rolflink began to have two annual dissections upon executed criminals at Jena in 1629, the practice was held in holy horror by the peasantry, who watched newly made graves lest they be 'Rolflinked.' A skeleton for teaching purposes was a rarity, and although there were anatomic theaters in most of the continental cities in course of time, there was none in Edinburgh until 1697. The latter, however, became the starting-point of the Edinburgh ascendancy in anatomic teaching under the Monro dynasty."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 273-274.—"Van Helmont, at the beginning of the . . . [17th] century, endeavored to create a system of medicine by uniting the alchemists doctrines of Paracelsus with his own Archeus or dynamic force. This was soon superseded by the Iatro-chemical system, founded by Francois de la Boe or Sylvius, of Leyden, and Thomas Willis, of Oxford. They attributed diseases chiefly to changes in the saliva, pancreatic juice, and bile, or to fermentation in the blood, and endeavored to explain all the phenomena of both health and disease on chemical principles. [See also CHEMISTRY: General: Iatro-, or Medical Chemistry.] Somewhat in contrast with this, was the Iatro-Physical system, the ablest supporter of which was Sanctorius, a practitioner of Venice and professor at Padua. He prosecuted investigations concerning the insensible transpirations from the skin, the excretion by the kidney, the evacuations from the bowels, and the variations of temperature of the body and of the pulse by the aid of instruments of his own invention, with a perseverance and success but little less creditable than those prosecuted by Harvey regarding the circulation of the blood. Both the Iatro-Chemists and the Iatro-Physicists retained in their system much of the humoralism of preceding ages. But the Iatro-Mathematical system, founded by Giovanni Alfonzi Borelli, of Naples, was one of solidism. Borelli and co-workers sought to explain muscular action, circulation, secretion, and both physiological and pathological processes generally on purely mathematical and mechanical principles. They endeavored to explain movements produced by muscular action on the principle of the lever, and computed mathematically the amount of force employed. . . . While these various attempts to construct theoretical systems of medicine founded

on the coincident advancements in general science were in progress, the greater number of active practitioners, led by Sydenham, were making greater and better progress by a return to the Hippocratic method of patiently observing facts and deducing practical conclusions from them. Thomas Sydenham was born . . . in 1624, and died in London, 1689. . . . [He] took his Baccalaureate degree in 1648. Subsequently he pursued medical studies at Montpellier for a considerable time, finally took the doctor's degree at Cambridge, and was admitted to membership in the Royal College of Physicians of London. . . . His most important medical work was entitled 'Observationes Medicae,' published in 1666. He early adopted Hippocrates as his model, and discarding all attempts to construct theories or systems of medicine, and adopting the Hippocratic doctrine that disease is a more or less active effort of the natural functions to free the system from disturbing influences, he insisted that these efforts of nature were the chief agents for effecting cures. Consequently he insisted that the chief business of the physician is to observe carefully the conditions and circumstances under which diseases arise, and with equal care to note their symptoms, progress and terminations, that he may adopt rational methods for obviating the first, and such dietetic and therapeutic measures as would assist the natural tendencies towards a cure. He regarded 'inflammation of the blood' as the chief pathological condition in acute febrile affections, and often resorted to venesection, cathartics, diaphoretics, cool drinks, and, in the latter stages, more nourishment and tonics, especially the cinchona bark, which he aided much in gaining a favorable introduction to the profession generally. By his strenuous defence of the 'healing powers of nature' and his intelligent adherence to the study of facts and the phenomena of disease, through the more than forty years of his professional life, he wielded a greater influence, and did more to advance the real interests of practical medicine, than any other practitioner of the same century."—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, pp. 84-86.—"The middle of the seventeenth century saw the profession thus far on its way—certain objective features of disease were known, the art of careful observation had been cultivated, many empirical remedies had been discovered, the coarser structure of man's body had been well worked out, and a good beginning had been made in the knowledge of how the machinery worked—nothing more. What disease really was, where it was, how it was caused, had not even begun to be discussed intelligently."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, p. 183.

"While the medical science of the seventeenth century was making rapid strikes forward, its popular medicine was already in process of retrogression to the excesses of the Byzantine Period, which bears out our main thesis, that the folk-ways of medicine are inevitably the same and independent of time and place and circumstance. This can be easily verified by a glance at the *materia medica* of the period."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, p. 281.—See also SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance: 16th century.

ALSO IN: J. Brown, *Locke, Sydenham and other papers*.—T. Sydenham, *Works*, (tr. by R. G. Latham).

17th century.—Harvey and the discovery of the circulation of the blood.—Cesalpinus.—Mayow.—Malpighi.—Molyneux.—Capillaries.—"The greatest name in seventeenth century medicine is that of William Harvey (1578-1657), of Folkestone in Kent, who studied at Padua (1590-

1603) as a pupil of Fabricius and Casserius, and whose work has exerted a profounder influence upon modern medicine than that of any other man save Vesalius. The world has 'heard great argument' concerning the merits and status of the 'De Motu Cordis,' but the following simple facts seem irrefutable and unassailable. The observation that the blood is in motion may have occurred to the first primitive man who ever cut open a live animal or saw a wounded artery. The idea that this motion is along a definite path may well have been entertained by any ancient Egyptian or Greek, as well as by some hypothetic native of Muscovy or Hlyria in Harvey's day. Galen's false concept about the pores in the ventricular septum diverted all speculation into the wrong channel for fourteen centuries, and even Servetus, who came nearest the truth, could only admit that some (not all) of the blood takes a circuit through the lungs. In the drawings which Vesalius had made, indicating the close proximity of the terminal twigs of arteries and veins, the truth about the circulation was literally staring in the face of any observer who had eyes to see or wit to discover it. Yet anatomists continued to see everything in the light of Galenical prepossessions. [Cesalpinus (1510-1603) is regarded by Italians as a discoverer of the circulation of the blood. He had grasped, as pure theory, the truth about systemic and pulmonary circulations, but he, at best, had made only a clever guess]. Columbus, although he saw that the blood undergoes change in the lungs, in all likelihood appropriated the ideas of Servetus. But Harvey, who knew the whole history and literature of the subject, first made a careful review of existing theories, showing their inadequacy, and then proceeded, by experimental vivisection, ligation, and perfusion, to an inductive proof that the heart acts as a muscular force-pump in propelling the blood along, and that the blood's motion is continual, continuous, and in a cycle or circle. This was the starting-point of purely mechanical explanations of vital phenomena. The *crux* of Harvey's argument—that the actual quantity and velocity of the blood, as computed by him, make it physically impossible for it to do otherwise than return to the heart by the venous route—was the first application of the idea of measurement in any biologic investigation. . . . In his demonstration of the circulation, Harvey was brought to a standstill at one point only, viz., the capillary anastomosis between arteries and veins, which, having no microscope, he could not see. . . . The most brilliant outcome of Harvey's experimental method was in the clearing up of the obscure matter of the physiology of respiration, which, up to the time of Lavoisier, was entirely the work of English scientists. Before Harvey's day, men still believed, with Galen, that the object of respiration was to cool the fiery heart, the purpose of the chest movements being to introduce air for generating vital spirits by the pulmonary vein, and to get rid of the heart's smoky vapors by the same channel. [See also SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance: 16th century.] . . . Finally John Mayow (1643-70), another Cornishman, demonstrated, in a series of convincing experiments, that the dark venous blood is changed to bright red by taking up a certain ingredient in this air which, as being a constituent of nitre (KNO₃), he termed the igneo-aërial spirit of air. Mayow was thus, in a sense, very close to the actual discovery of oxygen, and he fully grasped the idea that the object of breathing is simply to cause an interchange of gases between the air and the blood, the former giving up its nitro-aërial spirit (oxygen) and

taking away vapors engendered by the blood."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 232-234, 236, 257, 259.—"Marcello Malpighi, of Crevalnora, and professor in the University of Bologna, in 1661, with the aid of the microscope, discovered the movement of blood in the capillaries of the lungs and mesentery of frogs, and, in 1665, he described the corpuscles of the blood, the cutaneous glands and the pigmentary layer of the skin, which is still called the 'rete Malpighii.' In 1683, William Molyneux, of Dublin, observed the capillary blood currents in the lizard; and in 1688 Anton Von Loeuwenhoeck commenced his microscopic studies on the larvæ and feet of frogs, by which he was enabled to describe the blood corpuscles, both red and white; while William Cowper saw the arterial blood pass into the veins. To demonstrate the capillaries as the connecting link between arteries and veins, Marchetti, of Padua, and subsequently Friedrich Ruzsch, of Amsterdam, succeeded in minutely injecting them, and thus completing the circuit of blood vessels that Harvey had declared must exist. During the same period of time, the structure, position, and movements of the heart and lungs were studied by Nicolaus Steno, of Copenhagen, Joh. Jac. Harden, of Basel, Borrelli, and others, by whom the mechanism of respiration and the movements of the heart were more fully explained."—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, p. 77.

ALSO IN: R. Willis, *William Harvey: A history of the discovery of the circulation of the blood*.

17th century.—Discovery of lymphatic circulation.—"The discovery of the lymphatic vessels and their purpose was scarcely less remarkable than that of the circulation of the blood. It has about it less of éclat, because it was not the work of one man, but was a matter of slow development. Herophilus and Erasistratus had seen white vessels connected with the lymph nodes in the mesentery of certain animals, and had supposed them to be arteries full of air. Galen disputed this, and believed the intestinal chyle to be carried by the veins of the mesentery into the liver. In 1563 Eustachius had described the thoracic duct in the horse; in 1622 Aselli, professor of anatomy at Milan, discovered the lacteal vessels in a dog which had been killed immediately after eating. Having pricked one of these by mistake, he saw a white fluid issue from it. Repeating the same experiment at other times he became certain that the white threads were vessels which drew the chyle from the intestines. He observed the valves with which they are supplied, and supposed these vessels to all meet in the pancreas and to be continued into the liver. In 1647 Pecquet, who was still a student at Montpellier, discovered the lymph reservoir, or receptaculum chyli, and the canal which leads from it, i.e., the thoracic duct, which he followed to its termination in the left subclavian vein. Having ligated it he saw it swell below, and empty itself above the ligature. He studied the courses of the lacteals, and convinced himself that they all entered into the common reservoir. His discovery gave the last blow to the ancient theory, which attributed to the liver the function of blood making, and it confirmed the doctrine of Harvey, while, like it, it had been very strongly opposed. Strangely enough, Harvey in this instance united with his great opponent, Riolan, in making common cause against the discovery of Pecquet and its significance. From that time the lymphatic vessels and glands became objects of common interest and were investigated by many anatomists, especially Bartholin, Ruysch, the Hunters, Hewson, and above all by Mascagni.

He was the first to give a graphic description of the whole lymphatic apparatus."—R. Park, *Lectures on the history of medicine*.

17th century.—Descartes and the dawn of modern physiological science.—"The essence of modern, as contrasted with ancient, physiological science appears to me to lie in its antagonism to animistic hypotheses and animistic phraseology. It offers physical explanations of vital phenomena, or frankly confesses that it has none to offer. And, so far as I know, the first person who gave expression to this modern view of physiology, who was bold enough to enunciate the proposition that vital phenomena, like all the other phenomena of the physical world, are, in ultimate analysis, resolvable into matter and motion was René Descartes. The fifty-four years of life of this most original and powerful thinker are widely overlapped, on both sides, by the eighty of Harvey, who survived his younger contemporary by seven years, and takes pleasure in acknowledging the French philosopher's appreciation of his great discovery. In fact, Descartes accepted the doctrine of the circulation as propounded by 'Harvæus médecin d'Angleterre,' and gave a full account of it in his first work, the famous 'Discours de la Méthode,' which was published in 1637, only nine years after the exertion 'De motu cordis;' and, though differing from Harvey on some important points (in which it may be noted, in passing, Descartes was wrong and Harvey right), he always speaks of him with great respect. And so important does the subject seem to Descartes that he returns to it in the 'Traité des Passions' and in the 'Traité de l'Homme.' It is easy to see that Harvey's work must have had a peculiar significance for the subtle thinker, to whom we owe both the spiritualistic and the materialistic philosophies of modern times. It was in the very year of its publication, 1628, that Descartes withdrew into that life of solitary investigation and meditation of which his philosophy was the fruit. . . . Descartes uses 'thought' as the equivalent of our modern term 'consciousness.' Thought is the function of the soul, and its only function. Our natural heat and all the movements of the body, says he, do not depend on the soul. Death does not take place from any fault of the soul, but only because some of the principal parts of the body become corrupted. . . . Descartes' 'Treatise of Man' is a sketch of human physiology, in which a bold attempt is made to explain all the phenomena of life, except those of consciousness, by physical reasonings. To a mind turned in this direction, Harvey's exposition of the heart and vessels as hydraulic mechanism must have been supremely welcome. Descartes was not a mere philosophical theorist, but a hardworking dissector and experimenter, and he held the strongest opinion respecting the practical value of the new conception which he was introducing. . . . 'It is true,' says he, 'that as medicine is now practised, it contains little that is very useful; but without any desire to depreciate, I am sure that there is no one, even among professional men, who will not declare that all we know is very little as compared with that which remains to be known; and that we might escape an infinity of diseases of the mind, no less than of the body, and even perhaps from the weakness of old age, if we had sufficient knowledge of their causes and of all the remedies with which nature has provided us.' So strongly impressed was Descartes with this, that he resolved to spend the rest of his life in trying to acquire such a knowledge of nature as would lead to the construction of a better medical doctrine. The anti-Cartesians found material for cheap ridicule

in these aspirations of the philosopher; and it is almost needless to say that, in the thirteen years which elapsed between the publication of the 'Discours' and the death of Descartes, he did not contribute much to their realisation. But, for the next century, all progress in physiology took place along the lines which Descartes laid down. The greatest physiological and pathological work of the seventeenth century, Borelli's treatise 'De Motu Animalium,' is, to all intents and purposes, a development of Descartes' fundamental conception; and the same may be said of the physiology and pathology of Boerhaave, whose authority dominated in the medical world of the first half of the eighteenth century. With the origin of modern chemistry, and of electrical science, in the latter half of the eighteenth century, aids in the analysis of the phenomena of life, of which Descartes could not have dreamed, were offered to the physiologist. And the greater part of the gigantic progress which has been made in the present century is a justification of the prevision of Descartes. For it consists, essentially, in a more and more complete resolution of the grosser organs of the living body into physico-chemical mechanisms. 'I shall try to explain our whole bodily machinery in such a way, that it will be no more necessary for us to suppose that the soul produces such movements as are not voluntary, than it is to think that there is in a clock a soul which causes it to show the hours.' These words of Descartes might be appropriately taken as a motto by the author of any modern treatise on physiology.—T. H. Huxley, *Connection of the biological sciences with medicine (Science and Culture, etc., lect. 13)*.

17th century.—Introduction of Peruvian bark.
—Improved materia medica.—"The marked progress in physiology and chemistry during the seventeenth century was accompanied by the use of a larger number of chemical preparations and some very important vegetables as remedies in the treatment of disease, and of the latter class, several as food. The chemical preparations were newly discovered alkalies, acids, and salts, the most important of which were tartar emetic, oxide of zinc, Glauber's salts, and preparations of mercury and arsenic. Of the new vegetable remedies the most important were the cinchona bark and ipecacuanha. The first was originally introduced into Europe from South America, in 1640, by Juan del Vego, ordinary physician to the Count of Chinchon. It was called cinchona or 'Countess' bark' in honor of the wife of the Count who had been cured of an attack of fever by the remedy. It was obtained from the bark of several species of the cinchona tree, found chiefly in Peru, and consequently was later called Peruvian bark. Its use in Spain was favored by the Catholic clergy, and hence was often called 'Jesuits' bark' [sometimes 'Cardinal's bark']. Its introduction and use in England was greatly promoted by Sydenham, while Robert Tabor, an apothecary of Cambridge, introduced it as a secret remedy into Paris, and after effecting the cure of the Dauphin, he sold the secret to the government of France for 2,000 Louis d'or. . . . For many years it was used chiefly in the form of powder, and acquired so much reputation as a remedy for the arrest of malarious fevers that it sometimes sold for its own weight in gold."—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, pp. 80-81.

17th century.—Closing period of humeral pathology.—Doctrines of Hoffmann, Stahl and Boerhaave.—The system of Van Helmont, who belongs equally to the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, began to put a period to blind credence in Galenism. According to Van Helmont's theory

the primary cause of all organization was Archæus, a "creative spirit which, working upon the raw material of water or fluidity, by means of 'a ferment' excites all the endless actions which result in the growth and nourishment of the body. Thus, digestion is neither a chemical nor a mechanical operation; nor is it, as was then supposed, the effects of heat, for it is arrested instead of aided by fever, and goes on in perfection in fishes and cold-blooded animals; but, on the command of Archæus, an acid is generated in the stomach, which dissolves the food. This is the first digestion. The second consists in the neutralization of this acid by the bile out of the gall bladder. The third takes place in the vessels of the mesentery. The fourth goes on in the heart, by the action of the vital spirits. The fifth consists in the conversion of the arterial blood into vital spirits, chiefly in the brain. The sixth consists of the preparation of nourishment in the laboratory of each organ, during which operation Archæus, present everywhere, is itself regenerated, and superintends the momentary regeneration of the whole frame. . . . It will be seen that by this theory the entire system of Galen was non-suited. There is no place for the elements and the humours."—J. R. Russell, *History and heroes of the art of medicine*, ch. 8.—The humeral doctrine was not "merely an erroneous speculation; it exerted the most decisive, the most pernicious influence on practice. The various diseased affections were denominated in accommodation to the theory. . . . The plan of cure was in unison with the rest of the hypothesis. Venesection was copiously employed to renew the blood, to attenuate its consistency, or to remove a part of the morbid matter with which it was impregnated; and cathartics, sudorifics, diuretics, were largely administered, with a similar intent. In a word, as plethora or cacochymia were the two great causes of disease, their whole therapeutic was directed to change the quantity or quality of the fluids. Nor was this murderous treatment limited to the actual period of disease. Seven or eight annual bleedings, and as many purgations—such was the common regimen the theory prescribed to insure continuance of health. . . . During the fifteen centuries of Humorism, how many millions of lives did medicine cost mankind? The establishment of a system founded on the . . . doctrine of Solidism, and purified from the crudities of the Iatro-mathematical and Iatro-chemical hypotheses was reserved for three celebrated physicians toward the commencement of the eighteenth century—Frederic Hoffmann—George Ernest Stahl—and Herman Boerhaave. The first and second of this triumvirate were born in the same year, were both pupils of Wedelius of Jena, and both professors, and rival professors, in the University of Halle; the third was eight years younger than his contemporaries, and long an ornament of the University of Leyden."—W. Hamilton, *Discussions on philosophy and literature*, pp. 246, 249.—"The great and permanent merits of Hoffmann [1660-1742] as a medical philosopher, undoubtedly consisted in his having perceived and pointed out more clearly than any of his predecessors, the extensive and powerful influence of the Nervous System, in modifying and regulating at least, if not in producing, all the phenomena of the organic as well as of the animal functions in the human economy, and more particularly in his application of this doctrine to the explanation of diseases. . . . It was reserved for Hoffmann . . . to take a comprehensive view of the Nervous System, not only as the organ of sense and motion, but also as the common

centre by which all the different parts of the animal economy are connected together, and through which they mutually influence each other. He was, accordingly, led to regard all those alterations in the structure and functions of this economy, which constitute the state of disease, as having their primary origin in affections of the nervous system, and as depending, therefore, upon a deranged state of the imperceptible and contractile motions in the solids, rather than upon changes induced in the chemical composition of the fluid parts of the body."—J. Thomson, *Account of the life, lectures and writings of William Cullen*, pp. 105-106.—"George Ernest Stahl (1660-1734), chemist, was professor of medicine at Halle (1694) and physician to the King of Prussia (1716). He opposed materialism, and substituted 'animism,' explaining the symptoms of disease as efforts of the soul to get rid of morbid influences. Stahl's 'anima' corresponds to Sydenham's 'nature' in a measure, and has some relationship to the Archeus of Paracelsus and Van Helmont. Stahl was the author of the 'phlogiston' theory in chemistry, which in its time has had important influence on medicine. Phlogiston was a substance which he supposed to exist in all combustible matters, and the escape of this principle from any compound was held to account for the phenomenon of fire. [See also CHEMISTRY: General Phlogiston period.] According to Stahl, diseases arise from the direct action of noxious powers upon the body; and from the reaction of the system itself endeavouring to oppose and counteract the effects of the noxious powers, and so preserve and repair itself. He did not consider diseases, therefore, pernicious in themselves, though he admitted that they might become so from mistakes made by the soul in the choice, or proportion of the motions excited to remove them, or the time when these efforts are made. Death, according to this theory, is due to the indolence of the soul, leading it to desist from its vital motions, and refusing to continue longer the struggle against the derangements of the body. Here we have the 'expectant treatment' so much in vogue with many medical men. 'Trusting to the constant attention and wisdom of nature,' they administered inert medicines as placebos, while they left to nature the cure of the disease. But they neglected the use of invaluable remedies such as opium and Peruvian bark, for which error it must be admitted they atoned by discountenancing bleeding, vomiting, etc. Stahl's remedies were chiefly of the class known as 'Antiphlogistic,' or anti-febrile"—E. Berdoe, *Origin and growth of the healing art*, bk. 5, ch. 7.—"The influence of Boerhaave [1668-1738] was immense while it lasted—it was world-wide; but it was like a ripple on the ocean—it had no depth. He knew everything and did everything better than any of his contemporaries, except those who made one thing, not everything, their study. He was familiar with the researches of the great anatomists, of the chemists, of the botanists, of historians, of men of learning, but he was not a great anatomist, chemist, or historian. . . . His greatness depended upon his inexhaustible activity. He had the energy of a dozen ordinary men, and so he was twelve times as powerful as one. . . . Boerhaave is now unknown. . . . He was not the founder of any system, nor did he make any discovery. He simply used with supreme success the thoughts and discoveries of others; as soon as he ceased to live, his influence began therefore to decline; and before his generation had passed away, his star had waned before the genius of Cullen, who succeeded in fixing the attention of Europe, and who, in his

turn, was soon to be displaced by others."—J. R. Russell, *History and heroes of the art of medicine*, pp. 297-298.

ALSO IN: N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, pp. 84-86.—F. H. Garrison, *History of medicine*, p. 251.

17th-18th centuries.—Introduction of microscope in medicine.—First glimmerings of germ theory of disease.—"Since Athanasius Kircher [1601-1680] mistook blood and pus corpuscles for small worms, and built up on his mistake a new theory of disease and putrefaction, and since Christian Lange, the Professor of Pathological Anatomy in Leipzig, in the preface to Kircher's book (1671) expressed his opinion that the purpura of lying-in-women, measles, and other fevers were the result of putrefaction caused by worms or animalcule, a 'Pathologia Animata' has, from time to time, been put forward to explain the causation of disease. . . . Remarkable as were Kircher's observations, still more wonderful were those of Anthony van Leeuwenhoek, a native of Delft in Holland, who in his youth had learned the art of polishing lenses, and who was able, ultimately, to produce the first really good microscope that had yet been constructed. Not only did Leeuwenhoek make his microscope, but he used it to such good purpose that he was able to place before the Royal Society of London a series of most interesting and valuable letters giving the result of his researches on minute specks of living protoplasm. . . . The world that Leeuwenhoek . . . opened up so thoroughly was rapidly invaded by other observers and theorists. The thoughtful physicians of the time believed that at last they had found the 'fons et origo mali,' and Nicolas Andry, reviewing Kircher's 'Contagium Animatum,' replaced his worms by these newly-described animalcule or germs, and pushing the theory to its legitimate and logical conclusion, he also evolved a germ theory of putrefaction and fermentation. He maintained that air, water, vinegar, fermenting wine, old beer, and sour milk were all full of germs; that the blood and pustules of smallpox also contained them, and that other diseases, very rife about this period, were the result of the activity of these organisms. Such headway did he make, and such conviction did his arguments carry with them, that the mercurial treatment much in vogue at that time was actually based on the supposition that these organisms, the 'causæ causantes' of disease, were killed by the action of mercury and mercurial salts. With a kind of prophetic instinct, and certainly as the result of keen observation, Varro and Lancisi ascribed the dangerous character of marsh or swamp air to the action of invisible animalcule; in fact the theory was so freely and forcibly propagated that even where no micro-organisms could be found their presence was inferred with the inevitable result, as Löffler points out, that these 'inconceivable' worms became the legitimate butts for the shafts of ridicule; and in 1726 there appeared in Paris a satirical work, in which these small organisms received the name of 'fainter,' 'body-pincher,' 'ulcerator,' 'weeping fistula,' 'sensualist'; the whole system was thus laughingly held up to satire, and the germ theory of disease completely discredited. Linnæus [1707-1778], however, with his wonderful powers of observation and deduction, considered that it was possible that there might be rescued from this 'chaos' small living beings which were as yet insufficiently separated and examined, but in which he firmly believed might lie not only the actual contagium of certain eruptive diseases, and of acute fevers, but also the exciting causes of both fermentation and

putrefaction. The man, however, who of all workers earliest recognized the importance of Linnaeus' observations was a Viennese doctor, Marcus Antonius Plenciz. . . . He it was who, at this time, insisted upon the specific character of the infective agent in every case of disease; for scarlet fever there was a scarlet fever seed or germ—a seed which could never give rise to smallpox. He showed that it was possible for this organism to become disseminated through the air, and for it to multiply in the body; and he explained the incubation stage of a febrile disease as dependent on the growth of a germ within the body during the period after its introduction, when its presence had not yet been made manifest. . . . As regards putrefaction, having corroborated Linnaeus' observations and found countless animalculæ in putrefying matter, he came to the conclusion that this process was the result of the development, multiplication, and carrying on of the functions of nutrition and excretion by these germs; the products of fermentation being the volatile salts set free by the organisms, which, multiplying rapidly by forming seeds or eggs, rendered the fluid in which they developed thick, turbid, and foul. This theory, admirable as it was, and accurate as it has since been proved to be, could not then be based on any very extensive or detailed observation, and we find that some of the most prominent and brilliant men of the period did not feel justified in accepting the explanation that Plenciz had offered as to the causes of disease and fermentation processes.”—G. S. Woodhead, *Bacteria and their products*, ch. 3.

17th-18th centuries.—Hahnemann and the origin of system of homœopathy.—Samuel Hahnemann, originator of the system of medicine called “Homœopathy,” was born in 1755, at Meissen, in Saxony. He studied medicine at Leipsic, and afterwards at Vienna. In 1784 he settled in Dresden, but returned to Leipsic in 1789. “In the following year, while translating Cullen’s *Materia Medica* out of English into German, his attention was arrested by the insufficient explanations advanced in that work of the cure of ague by cinchona bark. By way of experiment, he took a large dose of that substance to ascertain its action on the healthy body. In the course of a few days he experienced the symptoms of ague; and it thus occurred to him that perhaps the reason why cinchona cures ague is because it has the power to produce symptoms in a healthy person similar to those of ague. To ascertain the truth of this conjecture, he ransacked the records of medicine for well-attested cures effected by single remedies; and finding sufficient evidences of this fact, he advanced a step further, and proposed, in an article published in *Hufeland’s Journal*, in the year 1797, to apply this new principle to the discovery of proper medicines for every form of disease. Soon afterwards he published a case to illustrate his method. It was one of a severe kind of colic cured by a strong dose of veratrum album. Before this substance gave relief to the patient it excited a severe aggravation of his symptoms. This induced Hahnemann, instead of drops or grains, to give the fraction of a drop or grain, and he thus introduced infinitesimal doses. Some years later he applied his new principle in the treatment of scarlet fever; and finding that belladonna cured the peculiar type of that disease, which then prevailed in Germany, he proposed to give this medicine as a prophylactic, or preventive against scarlet fever. . . . In the year 1810 he published his great work, entitled *Organon of Medicine*, which has been translated into all the European languages, as well as into

Arabic. In this book he fully expounded his new system, which he called Homœopathy. His next publication was a *Materia Medica*, consisting of a description of the effects of medicines upon persons in health. These works were published between the years 1810 and 1821, at Leipsic, where he founded a school, and was surrounded by disciples. As his system involved the administration of medicines, each separately by itself, and in doses infinitely minute, there was no longer any need of the apothecaries’ intervention between the physician and the patient. In consequence of this the Apothecaries Company brought to bear upon Hahnemann an act forbidding physicians to dispense their own medicines, and with such effect that he was obliged to leave Leipsic. The Grand Duke of Anhalt Köthen, appointed him his physician, and invited him to live at Köthen. Thither, accordingly, he removed in the year 1821, and there he prepared various new editions of his *Organon*, and new volumes of his *Materia Medica* for publication. In 1835 . . . he left Köthen, and settled in Paris, where he enjoyed a great reputation till his death, which took place in the year 1843.”—W. Bayes, *Origin and present status of homœopathy (Translation of the Homœopathic Medical Society of the State of New York, 1869, art. 21)*.

ALSO IN: W. Aneke, *History of homœopathy*.—J. C. Burnett, *Ecce medicus; or Hahnemann as a man and as a physician*.

18th century.—Work of John Hunter in surgery and anatomy.—Influence on noted surgeons.—“During the last part of the eighteenth century those who most successfully advanced the departments of anatomy, physiology and pathology beside those already mentioned, were Sommerring, of Mayence, and Cassel; William and John Hunter and John Bell, of London; G. B. Morgagni, of Forti, Italy; and M. F. X. Bichat, of Paris. Morgagni became a professor in Padua in 1715, and for many years industriously pursued the study of pathological anatomy, including the changes and products developed in the progress of a large number of the most common diseases. He published his great work on *Pathological Anatomy*, consisting of five books or volumes, in Venice in 1761, which justly entitles him to the honor of being the founder of that branch of medical science. William Hunter was born in Long Calderwood, Scotland, and was first educated for the ministry, but subsequently turned his attention to medicine and became a pupil of Cullen, in Edinburgh. He went to London in 1741, and commenced lecturing on Anatomy and Surgery in 1746. He rapidly acquired a high reputation and extensive practice in both surgery and midwifery.”—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, p. 96.—“The man who combined the qualities of Vesalius, Harvey and Morgagni in an extraordinary personality was John Hunter [1728-1793]. He was, in the first place, a naturalist to whom pathological processes were only a small part of a stupendous whole, governed by law, which, however, could never be understood until the facts had been accumulated, tabulated and systematized. By his example, by his prodigious industry, and by his suggestive experiments he led men again into the old paths of Aristotle, Galen and Harvey. He made all thinking physicians naturalists, and he lent a dignity to the study of organic life, and re-established a close union between medicine and the natural sciences. . . . The Wistar-Horner and the Warren Museums in this country originated with men greatly influenced by Hunter. He was, moreover, the intellectual father of that interesting group of men on

this side of the Atlantic who, while practising as physicians, devoted much time and labor to the study of natural history; such men as Benjamin Smith Barton, David Hossack, Jacob Bigelow, Richard Harlan, John D. Godman, Samuel George Morton, John Collins Warren, Samuel L. Mitchell and J. Aitken Meigs. He gave an immense impetus in Great Britain to the study of morbid anatomy, and his nephew, Matthew Baillie, published the first important book on the subject in the English language. . . . The man who gave the greatest impetus to the study of scientific medicine at this time was Bichat, who pointed out that the pathological changes in disease were not so much in organs as in tissues. His studies laid the foundation of modern histology. He separated the chief constituent elements of the body into various tissues possessing definite physical and vital qualities."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 197-198, 201.

ALSO IN: S. D. Gross, *John Hunter and his pupils*.

18th century.—Preventive inoculation against smallpox.—Work of Edward Jenner.—“Toward the end of the century came one of the greatest triumphs in the history of medicine—the successful introduction of preventive inoculation by Edward Jenner (1749-1823), son of a Gloucestershire clergyman, who, in 1770, became a friend and pupil of John Hunter's, and helped him a good deal in his experiments. It had long been a countryside tradition in Gloucestershire that dairymaids who had contracted cow-pox through milking did not take smallpox, and similar observations had been noted in Germany and France. On learning of this fact from a milkmaid, Jenner early conceived the idea of applying it on a grand scale in the prevention of the disease. On communicating his project to Hunter, the latter gave him the characteristic advice: ‘Don't think, try; be patient, be accurate.’ On returning to his home at Berkeley he began to collect his observations in 1778, and on May 14, 1796, performed his first vaccination upon a country boy, James Phipps, using matter from the arm of the milkmaid, Sarah Nelmes, who had contracted cow-pox in the usual way. The experiment was then put to the test, by inoculating Phipps with smallpox virus on July 1st, and the immunization proved successful. By 1798 he had 23 cases, which he embodied in his work, *An Inquiry into the Causes and Effects of the Variolae Vaccinae*, a thin quarto with four colored plates, printed in 1798, and dedicated to Parry of Bath. This book establishes his main thesis that a vaccination with cow-pox matter protects from smallpox, and was followed, during the years 1799-1806, by five successive pamphlets, recording his subsequent experiments and improvements in technic up to the stage of recommending ivory points as the best vectors in inoculation. Jenner's work was rapidly taken up on the continent and in America; good statistics began to pour in, in less than a year's time, and, by 1800, as many as 6000 people had been vaccinated. In 1802 and 1807, Parliament voted grants amounting to £20,000 to Jenner in aid of prosecuting his experiments. At the same time he met with bitter opposition from jealous contemporaries, like Ingen-Housz, Woodville, and Pearson, who either claimed priority or acted upon the parliamentary principle that the duty of the opposition is to oppose. The mere idea of inoculation is apparently as old as the hills. Human inoculation of variolous virus is said to be mentioned in the Atharva Veda (Baas) and certainly in the Flos of the School of Salerno, and was

known to most Oriental peoples. The idea was introduced into England by Timoni's and Pilarini's communications to the Royal Society in 1713-16, and was afterward taken up by Sir Hans Sloane (1717). On March 18, 1718, Lady Mary Wortley Montagu had her three-year-old son inoculated in Turkey, and her five-year-old daughter was inoculated in England in April, 1721. During the sixth epidemic of smallpox in Boston, Massachusetts, Zabdiel Boylston (1679-1766) courageously inoculated his son and two negro slaves on June 26, 1721, and had inoculated 244 persons before its close, exciting great opposition and even threats of hanging. In the Boston epidemic of 1752, 2,109 were inoculated, and nearly 20,000 in England, under Daniel Sutton in 1764-65. Apart from the huge eighteenth century literature on inoculation, one of the most important items of which is the proposal of preventive inoculations against the plague (1755) by the Hungarian physician, Stephan Wesszprémi (1723-99), there had been successful cow-pox inoculations by the Dorset farmer, Benjamin Jesty, in 1774-89, and by Plett of Holstein in 1791. All these efforts were, however, ‘as an arrow shot in the air or a sword-stroke in the water.’ The merit of Jenner's work rests upon the fact that, like Harvey, he started out with the hope of making his thesis a permanent working principle in science, based upon experimental demonstration, and he succeeded to the extent of carrying his inoculations successfully through several generations in the body, and, above all, in overcoming the popular aversion to vaccination. In short, Jenner transformed a local country tradition into a viable prophylactic principle, and, although he was preceded by really scientific experts in inoculation (variolation), his reputation in his own field is fairly safe from the priority-mongers. Faults of diffuseness and lack of skill in marshaling facts have been imputed against the ‘Inquiry,’ but, on the whole, it remains an unimpeachable record of careful scientific work, the effect of which is seen to-day in the rapid strides that preventive medicine is making and in the results of compulsory vaccination in Prussia and Holland, where the mortality curve of smallpox approaches zero as its limit.”—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 374-376.

ALSO IN: J. Barron, *Life of Edward Jenner*.

18th century.—System of Haller.—“About the time when we seniors commenced the study of medicine, it was still under the influence of the important discoveries which Albrecht von Haller [1708-1777] had made on the excitability of nerves; and which he had placed in connection with the vitalistic theory of the nature of life. Haller had observed the excitability in the nerves and muscles of amputated members. The most surprising thing to him was, that the most varied external actions, mechanical, chemical, thermal, to which electrical ones were subsequently added, had always the same result; namely, that they produced muscular contraction. . . . He designated them by the common name of stimulus; he called the altered condition of the nerve the excitation, and its capacity of responding to a stimulus the excitability, which was lost at death. This entire condition of things, which physically speaking asserts no more than the nerves, as concerns the changes which take place in them after excitation, are in an exceedingly unstable state of equilibrium; this was looked upon as the fundamental property of animal life, and was unhesitatingly transferred to the other organs and tissues of the body, for which there was no similar justification. It was

believed that none of them were active of themselves, but must receive an impulse by a stimulus from without; air and nourishment were considered to be the normal stimuli. The kind of activity seemed, on the contrary, to be conditioned by the specific energy of the organ, under the influence of the vital force. Increase or diminution of the excitability was the category under which the whole of the acute diseases were referred, and from which indications were taken as to whether the treatment should be lowering or stimulating. The rigid one-sidedness and the unrelenting logic with which . . . [John] Brown had once worked out the system was broken, but it always furnished the leading points of view."—H. Helmholz, *On thought in medicine (Popular Lectures, series 2, lect. 5)*.

ALSO IN: F. H. Garrison, *History of medicine*, pp. 311-313.

18th century.—Brunonian system of stimulation.—Cullen.—Brown.—"Notwithstanding the many attempts to construct special systems of medical pathology and practice during the seventeenth century, a large majority of the educated practitioners followed the teachings of Sydenham and Boerhaave. . . . But the coincident discoveries in the department of physiology and pathological anatomy; more especially the demonstration of irritability and contractility in living tissues independent of nerve sensibility, by Haller, led rapidly to the final abandonment of what had remained of the humoral doctrines of the ancients and also of the vis anima of Stahl and vital ether of Hoffmann. In their stead, the irritability of Glisson and Haller was accepted as an inherent property of living organized matter, giving it the capacity to respond to the action of stimuli, which led directly to the inference that all vital action, whether normal or abnormal, resulted from the influence of stimuli. . . . Consequently before the middle of the eighteenth century all diseases came to be regarded as the direct or indirect result of the action of stimuli or irritants on the organic irritability, constituting a system of medicine as exclusively solidistic as any of those of the ancients were humoral. . . . The most eminent and influential advocate of the neurologic pathology was William Cullen, professor in the University of Edinburgh. . . . He embraced fully the doctrine of a 'nervous force,' or susceptibility, and that all the causes of disease made their primary impression on the nervous system producing either spasm or atony. . . . The nosology and chief pathological doctrines of Cullen were approved by a large proportion of the profession in Europe, and by a still larger proportion in the English colonies in America, among whom were many who had received their chief medical instruction in Edinburgh and subsequently became the founders of the first medical schools in America. The therapeutic agents relied upon by Cullen and his followers were rest, low diet, cooling drinks, cathartics, and sometimes emetics, opium and venesection in the earlier stages, and later, cinchona bark and wine, with more nourishment. . . . But the physician during the last part of the eighteenth century whose medical doctrines attracted the widest attention was John Brown, the author of the well known Brunonian system of medicine. He was born in Berwickshire, Scotland, in 1735, and died in 1788. . . . Being favored by Cullen he was enabled to pursue his studies in the medical school in Edinburgh, but finally received the degree of M. D. from the University of St. Andrew in 1770. As early at 1770, however, his irregular habits caused an interruption of his friendship with

Cullen, and he commenced giving private lectures, setting forth doctrines in many respects antagonistic to those of Cullen. They were attended by many students and members of the profession, and in 1780, was published his celebrated work entitled 'Elementa Medicinæ.' . . . Brown's whole theory of disease was founded on the assumption that living matter possessed a vital irritability and all active phenomena of life resulted from the action of stimuli on this irritability. In other words, life was simply a state of excitation. When from natural stimuli, as air, water and food in proper quantities, health was the result. When the stimuli were in excess or deficiency, or irritating in quality, disease was the result. If the stimuli were deficient or depressing the resulting disease was termed asthenic, if in excess or too active the result was sthenic. The resulting changes in structure were termed congestion, irritation and inflammation. His therapeutic principles were equally simple and easily applied. His doctrines found but few followers in England, but became quite popular on the continent, and found some influential advocates in America."—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, pp. 107-111.

ALSO IN: P. V. Renouard, *History of medicine*, pp. 555-560.

18th century.—Physiological views of Bichat.—"The earliest nineteenth century exponent of anatomy and of scientific medicine in France was Marie-François-Zavier Bichat (1771-1802), the creator of descriptive anatomy, . . . a successful surgeon and a master worker in the science which sustained one of its greatest losses by his early death. His '*Traité des membranes*' (1799-1800), his five volume '*Anatomie descriptive*' (1801-1803), and his work on general anatomy applied to physiology and medicine (1802) opened out an entirely new field for anatomists, that of a detailed description of parts and tissues of the body in health and disease. Before Bichat's time, . . . [text-books] were woefully elementary in spots and said next to nothing about the detailed anatomy of the nerves and viscera; while teaching by dissection, as Robert Knox has recorded, was on the most rough and ready basis. Bichat was a forerunner of Henle and the histologists, dividing the tissues into 21 (non-microscopic) varieties. . . . He was profoundly influenced by Bordeu, and like Hunter, he regarded disease as an alteration of vital properties or principles. His error was to assign a specific vital property, a different mode of vitalism, to each tissue. This physiologic doctrine, now obsolete, is summed up in his famous and fallacious definition of life as 'the sum of the forces that resist death.'"—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 458-459.—Bichat "prepared the way for the brilliant developments in morbid anatomy and differential diagnosis by the French School of the first half of the nineteenth century. . . . He did much to check the purely theoretic tendencies of the profession, and to promote the careful observation of facts and their comparison as affording the chief basis for legitimate deductions. Probably there is the name of no other member of the profession on the pages of Medical History, who accomplished as much valuable scientific work in the brief period of eleven years, as was done by Bichat in the closing years of the eighteenth century."—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, pp. 98, 99.

ALSO IN: J. Ware, *Life and writings of Bichat (North American Review, July, 1882)*.

18th-20th centuries.—Development of hospitals.—Care of mental cases.—Sanitaria for tuberculosis.—"In 1788, J. B. Tenon published a

series of memoirs on the hospitals of Paris, containing his famous description of the old Hôtel Dieu, which was at that time a veritable hotbed of disease. There were some 1,220 beds, the most of which contained from four to six patients, and about 486 beds for single patients. The larger halls contained over 800 patients crowded on pallets, or often lying about miserably on heaps of straw, which was in vile condition. Acute contagious diseases were often in close relation to mild cases, vermin and filth abounded, and the ventilation was often so abominable that the attendants and inspectors would not enter in the morning without a sponge dipped in vinegar held to their faces. Septic fevers and other contagia were the rule; the average mortality was about 20 per cent., and recovery from surgical operations was, in the nature of things, a rarity. The same thing was true of the Allgemeines Krankenhaus of Vienna, the Moscow Hospital, and many other institutions of size, and it was not until John Howard had made his exhaustive studies of the condition of European hospitals, prisons and lazarettos (1777-89), and Tenon had published his report, that any attempts at reforms were made. Bass says that, in Frankfurt am Main and other cities, 'even physicians declined hospital service as equivalent to a sentence of death.' Under Louis XVI and Joseph II, reforms were finally made in Paris and Vienna, with a very creditable and significant reduction of mortality. When the Czar Paul came to the throne, he was so horrified with the condition of the Moscow Hospital that he ordered its reconstruction in 1797, with the result that the new Moscow Hospital, with accommodations for 1,280 patients, was completed in 1802. But hospitals remained notorious for uncleanness and general danger to life well into the nineteenth century, and many persons alive to-day can recall the horror in which they were held. The real angel of purity and cleanliness was Florence Nightingale, and there was no such thing as surgical cleanliness before the time of Lister. Bad as was the management of hospitals, the treatment of the insane was even worse. They were either chained or caged when housed, or, if harmless, were allowed to run at large, the Tom o'Bedlams of England or the wizards and warlocks of Scotland. . . . The earliest insane asylums in the northern countries were St. Luke's in London (1751), the Quaker Asylum near York (1702), and the *Narrenthurm*, or 'Lunatics' Tower' (1784), one of the show places of old Vienna, where as in ancient Bedlam, the public were allowed to view the insane, like animals in a menagerie, on payment of a small fee. . . . Monkemöller's researches on German psychiatry in the eighteenth century, based on the records of Hanoverian asylums at Celle and elsewhere, confirm what Reil wrote of German asylums in his 'Rhapsodies' of 1803, and go to show that the theoretic part of the science in this period was nebulous philosophic speculation, insanity being still attributed to yellow and black bile or to heat in the dog days, while symptoms like exaggerated self-esteem, jealousy, envy, sloth, self-abuse, etc., were regarded as causes. The cases treated were all of the dangerous, unmanageable, or suicidal type, and no hope of recovery was held out. There was an extensive exhibition of drugs and unconditional belief in their efficacy. A case that did not react to drugs was regarded as hopeless. Melancholia was treated by opium pills, excited states by camphor, pruritus by diaphoresis, and a mysterious power was ascribed to belladonna: if it failed, everything failed. Other remedies were a mixture of honey and vinegar, a de-

coction of 'Quadenwurzel,' large doses of luke-warm water, or, if this failed, 'that panacea of psychiatry, tartarus tartarissatus.' The costly aqua benedicta Rolandi, with three stout ruffians to administer it, a mustard plaster on the head, venesection at the forehead and both thumbs, clysters, and plasters or Spanish fly, were other resources. Barbarities were kept in the background, but the harsh methods of medieval times were none the less prevalent. A melancholic woman was treated with a volley of oaths and a douche of cold water as she lay in bed. . . . The Quaker retreat, founded by William Tuke in 1794 at York, England, was the first attempt at humane treatment of the insane before the time of Pinel. . . . After the time of Pinel and Reil, the treatment of the insane without mechanical restraints (open-door method) was advanced by John Conolly (1856) and by the Tukes, of whom Daniel Hach Tuke (1827-95) collaborated with John Charles Bucknill in a 'Manual of Psychological Medicine' (1858), which played a great part in its day. Another advocate of the no-restraint system was Wilhelm Griesinger (1817-67), of Stuttgart, a pupil of Schönlein, a clinical assistant of Wunderlich, . . . who, apart from his work in psychiatry, distinguished himself by his early description of hook-worm infection as 'tropical chlorosis' (1866), and did much, in Germany at least, to clear up the status of typhus, typhoid, relapsing and malarial fevers, in his monographs on infectious diseases (1857-64). Griesinger's 'Pathology and Therapy of Psychic Disorders' (1845) did away with much of the mysticism of the past, gave clear and unmistakable clinical pictures based upon rational psychological analysis, aimed to connect the subject with pathologic anatomy and advocated the open-door and the psychiatric clinic. Since Griesinger's time, the scientific study of insanity has been mainly in the hands of the Germans. . . . Of the many admirable hospitals constructed in the modern period, the pavilion system attained a high plane of development in the Johns Hopkins Hospital, planned by T. S. Billings and opened in 1880, and the Hamburg-Eppendorf pavilion, opened in the same year. In hygienic advantages and economy of administration, these structures marked a great advance upon the huge, many-storied buildings (block hospitals) of the past. The Peter Bent Brigham Hospital at Boston (1913), also originally planned by Billings, follows the same idea. With the opening of the Rudolf Virchow Hospital at Berlin (1906) a new idea was introduced, that of a community of separate pavilions as detached hospital units, and upon this plan are based such hospitals as the new Allgemeines Krankenhaus at Vienna, the Toronto General Hospital, the Barnes Hospital (St. Louis), and the Cincinnati General Hospital. But, of late, the tendency, even in Germany, has been away from extreme decentralization and toward a compromise between the pavilion and block systems, the advantage being greater economy in space, excavation, piping and plumbing, also economy and centralization of administration. Examples of this tendency are to be found in the New Cook County Hospital (Chicago), the Henry Phipps Psychiatric and Brady Urologic Clinics (Baltimore) and the new buildings of Bellevue (New York).

"The introduction of outdoor life and open-air sanatoria for phthisical patients is a feature of modern medicine. Open-air treatment existed in Scotland about 1747 and a seaside hospital for scrofula was opened at Margate in 1701. George Bodington (1700-1882), of Sutton Colfield, England, in his *Essay on the Treatment of Pulmonary*

Consumption (1840) anticipated many modern views as to the advantages of cold dry air for 'healing and closing of cavities and ulcers of the lungs,' as also of exercise in the open and abundant nutrition; but his theory was so roughly handled by the medical critics of his day that he was discouraged from carrying it into practice to any extent. The first sanitarium for phthisical patients was established at Görbersdorf, in the Waldenburg Mountains, by Hermann Brehmer in 1859. It still exists, and its success has led to the foundation of many similar institutions in mountain and winter resorts, notably those of Carl Spengler at Davos and Edward L. Trudeau at Saranac Lake in the Adirondacks. In 1876, Peter Dettweiler founded the sanitarium at Falkenstein in the Taunus, introducing the reclining chair for rest-cure in the open air, portable receptacles for sputa, and other novelties. By 1880, England had 10 hospitals for consumptives. The sanitarium movement in Germany was especially fostered by Ernst von Leyden and there are now thousands of these institutions all over the world. . . . Since the gift of the Phipps Institute in 1903, the subject has awakened keen interest in America, especially through the labors of Trudeau, Vincent Y. Bowditch, L. F. Flick, Arnold Klebs, S. A. Knopf, Henry Barton Jacobs, Frank Billings, Edward R. Baldwin, Lawrason Brown, and others."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 406-408, 683-684, 769-770.

19th century.—Discovery of anæsthetics.—In 1798, Mr. Humphry Davy, an apprentice to Mr. Borlase, a surgeon at Bodmin, had so distinguished himself by zeal and power in the study of chemistry and natural philosophy, that he was invited by Dr. Beddoes of Bristol, to become the 'superintendent of the Pneumatic Institution which had been established at Clifton for the purpose of trying the medicinal effects of different gases.' He obtained release from his apprenticeship, accepted the appointment, and devoted himself to the study of gases, not only in their medicinal effects, but much more in all their chemical and physical relations. After two years' work he published his 'Researches, Chemical and Philosophical, chiefly concerning Nitrous Oxide.' . . . He wrote, near the end of his essay: 'As nitrous oxide in its extensive operation appears capable of destroying physical pain, it may probably be used with advantage during surgical operations in which no great effusion of blood takes place.' It seems strange that no one caught at a suggestion such as this. . . . The nitrous oxide might have been of as little general interest as the carbonic or any other, had it not been for the strange and various excitements produced by its inhalation. These made it a favourite subject with chemical lecturers, and year after year, in nearly every chemical theatre, it was fun to inhale it after the lecture on the gaseous compounds of nitrogen; and among those who inhaled it there must have been many who, in their intoxication, received sharp and heavy blows, but, at the time, felt no pain. And this went on for more than forty years, exciting nothing worthy to be called thought or observation, till, in December, 1844, Mr. Colton, a popular itinerant lecturer on chemistry, delivered a lecture on 'laughing gas' in Hartford, Connecticut. Among his auditors was Mr. Horace Wells, an enterprising dentist in that town, a man of some power in mechanical invention. After the lecture came the usual amusement of inhaling the gas, and Wells, in whom long wishing had bred a kind of belief that something might be found to make tooth-drawing painless, observed that one of the men excited by the gas

was not conscious of hurting himself when he fell on the benches and bruised and cut his knees. Even when he became calm and clear-headed the man was sure that he did not feel pain at the time of his fall. Wells was at once convinced—more easily convinced than a man of more scientific mind would have been—that, during similar insensibility, in a state of intense nervous excitement, teeth might be drawn without pain, and he determined that himself and one of his own largest teeth should be the first for trial."—J. Paget, *Escape from pain* (*Nineteenth Century*, Dec., 1879).—"One of the most important discoveries in the history of medicine was made during the last decade of the first half of the nineteenth century by members of the medical profession in the United States of America. During the last three or four centuries narcotics and alcoholic liquors had frequently been administered to patients to lessen the severity of their pains during surgical operations, and Sir Humphry Davy had vaguely suggested that the inhalation of nitrous oxide gas might be found useful for the same purpose. The first direct experiments for producing complete anæsthesia, or unconsciousness of pain for surgical purposes, however, were made by Horace Wells, a practitioner of dentistry in Hartford, Connecticut, in 1840. He was a native of that State, born in 1815. After several times demonstrating his ability to render a patient insensible to pain by the inhalation of nitrous oxide gas, he extracted teeth without pain under its influence, in Hartford, Dec. 11th, 1844. During the next month, January, 1845, he caused the inhalation of sulphuric ether vapor while Dr. Marcy removed a tumor (wen) from the head of a patient without pain or consciousness. During the same month he communicated these facts to the medical and surgical staff of the Massachusetts General Hospital in Boston, and attempted to anæsthetize a patient for an operation before a class in attendance. From mental trepidation and over-anxiety he failed to effect complete anæsthesia, and was hooted out by the students as a failure. He, however, continued to extract teeth under the successful anæsthetic effects of both the nitrous oxide and ether, which was well known to both Charles T. Jackson and Dr. W. T. G. Morton, of Boston. The latter had been a student of Dr. Wells and was a practitioner of dentistry. Dr. Jackson was an eminent chemist and well acquainted with the effects of inhaling ether, though he had made no attempt to apply its use in surgery. In October, 1846, Dr. Morton successfully anæsthetized a patient in the Massachusetts General Hospital with ether, while Dr. J. C. Warren performed an operation, a full account of which was published in the Boston Medical and Surgical Journal, November 18, 1846. Jackson and Morton claimed this as the first demonstration of the practicability and safety of surgical anæsthesia, and soon obtained a patent for their anæsthetic under the fictitious name of 'Lætheon.' This, however, was soon shown to be nothing but a pure specimen of sulphuric ether, and their patent became void. Several years later it was satisfactorily shown by Dr. J. Marion Sims, that so early as March 30, 1842, Dr. Crawford W. Long, of Georgia, had safely extirpated a tumor from the neck of a Mr. Venables while profoundly under the anæsthetic influence of ether. And during the next three years the same surgeon performed several other operations with the patients under the complete influence of the same anæsthetic. But he published no account of his work until 1840. Chloroform as a chemical substance was discovered independently, and nearly at the

same time, in 1831, by Mr. Samuel Guthrie, of Sackett's Harbor, N. Y., and Soubeiran in France. Its properties were studied by Liebig, and it was named chloroform by Dumas. It was first used by Sir J. Y. Simpson, of Edinburgh, for producing anesthesia instead of ether, in November, 1847."

—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, pp. 122-123.—See also CHEMISTRY: Practical application: Drugs.

ALSO IN: F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 531-533.

19th century.—Study of fermentation and its results.—"It was . . . the current belief that epidemic diseases generally were propagated by a kind of malaria, which consisted of organic matter in a state of motor-decay; that when such matter was taken into the body through the lungs, skin, or stomach, it had the power of spreading there the destroying process by which itself had been assailed. Such a power was visibly exerted in the case of yeast. A little leaven was seen to leaven the whole lump—a mere speck of matter, in this supposed state of decomposition, being apparently competent to propagate indefinitely its own decay. Why should not a bit of rotten malaria act in a similar manner within the human frame? In 1836 . . . Cagniard de la Tour discovered the yeast-plant—a living organism, which when placed in a proper medium feeds, grows, and reproduces itself, and in this way carries on the process which we name fermentation. By this striking discovery fermentation was connected with organic growth. Schwann, of Berlin, discovered the yeast-plant independently about the same time."—J. Tyndall, *Fragments of science*, v. 1, ch. 5.—"Chemists generally—especially Liebig, who had a fermentation theory of his own—pooh-poohed this idea altogether; maintaining the presence of the yeast-plant to be a mere concomitant, and refusing to believe that it had any real share in the process. But in 1843, Professor Helmholtz, then a young undistinguished man, devised a method of stopping the passage of organic germs from a fermenting into a fermentable liquid, without checking the passage of fluids; and as no fermentation was then set up, he drew the inference that the 'particulate' organic germs, not the soluble material of the yeast, furnish the primum mobile of this change. . . . A little before Cagniard de la Tour's discovery, a set of investigations had been made by Schulze and Schwann, to determine whether the exclusion of air was absolutely necessary to prevent the appearance of living organisms in decomposing fluids. . . . These experiments, it should be said, had reference rather to the question of 'spontaneous generation,' or 'abiogenesis,' than to the cause of fermentation and decomposition; its object being to determine whether the living things found by the microscope in a decomposing liquid exposed to the air, spring from germs brought by the atmosphere, or are generated 'de novo' in the act of decay."—W. B. Carpenter, *Disease-germs (Nineteenth Century, Oct., 1881)*.

ALSO IN: L. Pasteur, *Studies in fermentation*.—E. Duclaux, *Fermentation*.

19th century.—Rise of modern clinical medicine.—Corvisart.—Laennec.—French school.—Experimental pathology.—Clinical neurology.—"The early years of the [nineteenth] century saw the rise of modern clinical medicine in Paris. In the art of observation men had come to a standstill. . . . There were still lectures on Hippocrates three times a week, and bleeding was the principal plan of treatment: one morning Frank saw thirty patients, out of one hundred and twelve, bled! . . . [Louis Corvisart] was the strong clinician of his generation, and his accurate studies on the heart

were among the first that had concentrated attention upon a special organ. To him, too, is due the reintroduction of the art of percussion in internal disease discovered by Auenbrugger in 1761. . . . The man who gave the greatest impetus to the study of scientific medicine at this time was Bichat. [See above: 18th century: Physiological views of Bichat.] . . . It was a pupil of Corvisart, Rene Theophile Laennec, who laid the foundation of modern clinical medicine. . . . Influenced by Corvisart, he began to combine the accurate study of cases in the wards with anatomical investigations in the dead-house. Before Laennec, the examination of a patient had been largely by sense of sight, supplemented by that of touch, as in estimating the degree of fever, or the character of the pulse. Auenbrugger's '*Inventum novum*' of percussion, recognized by Corvisart, extended the field; but the discovery of auscultation by Laennec, and the publication of his work—'*De l'Auscultation Médiate*,' 1819,—marked an era in the study of medicine. The clinical recognition of individual diseases had made really very little progress; with the stethoscope begins the day of physical diagnosis. . . . Laennec's book is in the category of the eight or ten greatest contributions to the science of medicine. . . . His description of tuberculosis is perhaps the most masterly chapter in clinical medicine. This revolution was effected by a simple extension of the Hippocratic method from the bed to the dead-house, and by correlating the signs and symptoms of a disease with its anatomical appearances. The pupils and successors of Corvisart—Bayle, Andral, Bouillaud, Chomel, Piorry, Bretonneau, Rayer, Cruveilhier and Trousseau—brought a new spirit into the profession. Everywhere the investigation of disease by clinical-pathological methods widened enormously the diagnostic powers of the physician. By this method Richard Bright, in 1836, opened a new chapter on the relation of disease of the kidney to dropsy. . . . In no direction was the harvest of this combined study more abundant than in the complicated and confused subject of fever. The work of Louis and of his pupils, W. W. Gerhard and others, revealed the distinction between typhus and typhoid fever, and so cleared up one of the most obscure problems in pathology. By Morgagni's method of 'anatomical thinking,' Skoda in Vienna, Schönlein in Berlin, Graves and Stokes in Dublin, Marshall Hall, C. J. B. Williams and many others introduced the new and exact methods of the French and created a new clinical medicine. A very strong impetus was given by the researches of Virchow on cellular pathology, which removed the seats of disease from the tissues, as taught by Bichat, to the individual elements, the cells. The introduction of the use of the microscope in clinical work widened greatly our powers of diagnosis, and we obtained thereby a very much clearer conception of the actual processes of disease. In another way, too, medicine was greatly helped by the rise of experimental pathology, which had been introduced by John Hunter, was carried along by Magendie and others, and reached its culmination in the epoch-making researches of Claude Bernard. . . . In no direction did the experimental method effect such a revolution as in our knowledge of the functions of the brain. Clinical neurology, which had received a great impetus by the studies of Todd, Romberg, Lockhart Clarke, Duchenne and Weir Mitchell, was completely revolutionized by the experimental work of Hitzig, Fritsch and Ferrier on the localization of functions in the brain. Under Charcot, the school of French

neurologists gave great accuracy to the diagnosis of obscure affections of the brain and spinal cord, and the combined results of the new anatomical, physiological and experimental work have rendered clear and definite what was formerly the most obscure and complicated section of internal medicine. The end of the fifth decade of the century is marked by a discovery of supreme importance. . . .

"One of the greatest contributions of the nineteenth century to scientific medicine was the discovery of the internal secretions of organs. The basic work on the subject was done by Claude Bernard. . . . More than any other man of his generation, Claude Bernard appreciated the importance of experiment in practical medicine. For him the experimental physician was the physician of the future—a view well borne out by the influence his epoch-making work has had on the treatment of disease. His studies on the glyco-genic functions of the liver opened the way for the modern fruitful researches on the internal secretions of the various glands. About the same time that Bernard was developing the laboratory side of the problem, Addison, a physician to Guy's Hospital, in 1855, pointed out the relation of a remarkable group of symptoms to disease of the suprarenal glands, small bodies situated above the kidneys, the importance of which had not been previously recognized. With the loss of the function of these glands by disease, the body was deprived of something formed by them which was essential to its proper working. Then, in the last third of the century, came in rapid succession the demonstration of the relations of the pancreas to diabetes, of the vital importance of the thyroid gland and of the pituitary body. Perhaps no more striking illustration of the value of experimental medicine has ever been given than that afforded by the studies upon those glands. . . . Experimental work has also demonstrated the functions of the suprarenal glands and explained the symptoms of Addison's disease, and chemists have even succeeded in making synthetically the active principle adrenalin. There is perhaps no more fascinating story in the history of science than that of the discovery of these so-called ductless glands. Part of its special interest is due to the fact that clinicians, surgeons, experimental physiologists, pathologists and chemists have all combined in splendid teamwork to win the victory. No such miracles have ever before been wrought by physicians as those which we see in connection with the internal secretion of the thyroid gland."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 200-201, 204-206, 215-216.

19th century.—Revolutionary experiments and discoveries.—"The brilliant and important advancements in organic chemistry under the leadership of Liebig in Germany; in pathological anatomy and physical diagnosis in France; in the physiology of the nervous system in England; and in anæsthesia in America during the first half of the nineteenth century, were all accomplished by close observation and diligent experimental application of chemical and physiological laws, with but little aid from the microscope. But they paved the way and furnished an excellent basis for the no less brilliant achievements of the last half of the same century. The compound microscope was brought to a degree of completion in 1832 that enabled other investigators to take the several primary structures of the anatomists and resolve them into the individual cells or organized atoms of which they were composed, thereby showing the manner of their evolution or

growth, and developing the interesting departments of histology and embryology. Under the leadership of Thomas Schwann, Lionel S. Beale, Louis Agassiz, Sharpey, Hassall, Bastian, Tyndal, Huxley, Virchow, and others, every organized structure of the living body was subjected to microscopic analyses and found to be composed of individual cells, varying in size and shape, and performing a great variety of functions, but all composed essentially of an organizable substance recognized as the physical basis of life, and called by some investigators protoplasm and by others bioplasm. Its most distinctive attribute is its vital capacity to grow and multiply or propagate itself. Thus they found all living bodies, both animal and vegetable, composed of protoplasm aggregated in minute forms called cells, and united in various ways to constitute all the organized matter in the fluids and solids of living bodies. . . . The modern investigators did not limit their microscopic analyses to normal structures, but extended them with equal diligence to all the morbid structures and products brought to light by the studies in morbid anatomy during the first half of the century. This soon resulted in demonstrating that all tumors or morbid growths were cellular in structure, and progressive by constant evolution of new cells; and the so-called inflammatory exudations, whether plastic or aplastic, were also composed of cells derived from the blood and tissues. The plastic exudations were found to consist largely of white corpuscles or leucocytes, formerly called migrating corpuscles. They were seen to attack and apparently consume such offending matter as they met with, and soon alter to disappear leaving the structure in its normal condition, or if their accumulation was too great or persistent, they united in the formation of adventitious tissue by which thickenings, indurations or adhesions might remain for indefinite periods of time. If the exudations were aplastic from the presence of pathogenic bacteria, or their toxic products, the vitality of the accumulated leucocytes was overwhelmed and they, with the cells of the tissues, were degenerated into pus corpuscles with more or less destruction of tissue by ulceration, suppuration or gangrene. From all the foregoing investigations the eminent German pathologist, Rudolph Virchow, was enabled to give to the world his great work on cellular pathology (*Cellular Pathologie*) published in 1858."—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, pp. 160-161.—"Coeval with the great discoveries made in microscopic life, there were made complete revolutions in the conceptions of the animal physiology and of pathology. These studies influenced greatly the progress of clinical medicine, so that in many instances accurate scientific measures were developed in the diagnosis and treatment of sickness. The study of the physiological action of drugs was an attempt to place medicinal therapeutics on a logical basis, and the advances made in pharmacology in recent years bespeak great hopes for this science in the future. . . . During the nineteenth century the whole question of physiology was thoroughly investigated, and a brilliant epoch in the progress of biological science was inaugurated. In 1811 Charles Bell (1774-1842) published a small essay entitled, 'Idea of a New Anatomy of the Brain,' in which he divined by deductive reasoning and not by experimentation that the nerve fibers of the anterior roots of the spinal cord belong to the motor type, while those of the posterior root belong to the sensory type."—M. Kahn, *History of modern medicine* (F. Tice, ed., *Practice of medicine*, v. 1, p. 93).—"Directly

parallel with the progress of both organic and general chemistry, came the brilliant discovery of Sir Charles Bell, of London, concerning the distinct sensory and motor functions of the posterior and anterior roots of the spinal nerves and their connections, published in 1824; the experiments of James H. Miller, of Baltimore, Md.; M. Brachet, of France, and Professor Reid, of the British Association of Science, concerning the functions of the great sympathetic or ganglionic system of nerves, between 1809 and 1838; the work of Marshall Hall in demonstrating the reflex or excito-motor system of nerves as published in 1838; and experiments to determine the special function of different parts of the brain and medulla oblongata, by Magendie, Flourens, Reid, H. H. Smith of Philadelphia, and others. The researches of all the foregoing investigators in the field of nerve physiology were well supplemented by the very valuable work of Dr. Samuel George Morton, of Philadelphia, entitled 'Crania Americana,' published in 1839."—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, p. 117.—"What Bell arrived at by poetic inspiration, the famous physiologist of Germany, Johannes Müller (1801-1858), proved in the laboratory. . . . Müller's scientific observations and his breadth of vision led him to make wonderful advances in many of the domains of biology—physiology, psychology, morphology, embryology, chemistry and pathology. We shall enumerate a few of his contributions: his studies on sensations, his discovery of the lymph heart in the frog, his experiments on the vocal cords and the voice, his experiments on the vision and color appreciation, his isolation of chondrin and gluten, and his discovery of the function of the bristle cells of the internal ear, may be mentioned as some of his memorable scientific attainments. The great pupil of Müller, Hermann von Helmholtz (1821-1804), did much to continue his teacher's work in physiology. In 1840, Müller had stated that no one could measure the velocity of a nervous impulse. Ten years later, Helmholtz had done so. His studies on optics and acoustics are classical. In 1851 he invented the ophthalmoscope, and established ophthalmology as one of the exact sciences. However, his great contribution to science is the universal application of the first law of thermodynamics. . . . Of the other German masters of physiology, Carl Ludwig (1816-1805), Du Bois-Reymond (1818-1896) and Hugo Kroecker are those who have shed great luster on the scientific annals of their country. In France also, simultaneously, there developed a great school of scientific investigation, led by the famous Claude Bernard (1813-1878). . . . He touched every field of this science, and made it much richer for his explorations. The glycogenic function of the liver was described by him in 1857, when he also isolated glycogen. Garrison . . . states . . . 'Bernard made it clear that the glycogenic function of the liver is in the nature of an *internal secretion*, a term which he first introduced.' 'This,' says Foster, 'at one blow destroyed the then dominant conception that the animal body was to be regarded as a bundle of organs, each with its appropriate functions.' His discoveries are too numerous to mention in detail here. He described the glycosuria that follows puncture of the floor of the fourth ventricle, investigated pancreatic digestion, studied the heat regulation of the body, described the vasodilator and vasoconstrictor nerve effects on the circulation, and made very many more contributions to physiology and pharmacology. The investigation of the physiological chemistry of diges-

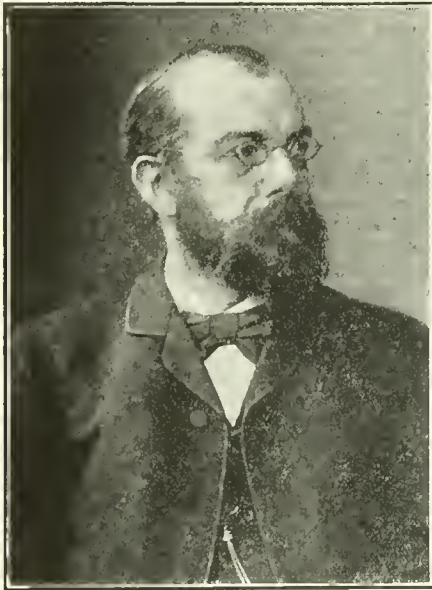
tion was inaugurated by Bernard. Previous to him, an American army surgeon, William Beaumont (1785-1853), had studied the nature of the gastric juice and the movements of the stomach *in situ*, in the case of an accidental gastric fistula (1825). In 1834, Johann Eberle suggested that the function of pancreatic juice was to emulsify fats, and ten years later Gabriel Valentin discovered its amyolytic property. But to Bernard belongs the credit of thoroughly studying the digestive influence of the pancreas. He investigated its effects on starch, fats and protein, and demonstrated that it not only emulsifies but breaks up fats into fatty acids and glycerol. To Bernard's pupil, Willy Kühne (1837-1900), of Hamburg, is due the honor of identifying the proteolytic enzyme of the pancreas, which he called trypsin. But the great Russian physiologist, Ivan Petrovich Pavloff (1840-1916), made the thorough investigations on the chemistry of digestion and the effect of nervous stimulation on the quality and quantity of the juices secreted. . . . The study of the physiology of metabolism was begun by Justus von Liebig (1803-1873) and by Friedrich Wöhlen. . . . Foremost in the ranks of histologists, we must mention the name of Jacob Henle (1800-1885). . . . He studied the character of the epithelial cells of the skin and all mucous membranes, pointing out their similarity; described the involuntary muscle-fibers in the tunica media of the blood-vessels; gave an accurate account of the histology of the cornea; pointed out important new facts in the brain anatomy, pituitary structure, kidney histology (Henle's tubules), etc. Contemporary with Henle, the greatest histologists were Remak and Purkinje, and Albert von Kolliker (1817-1805), who studied under Henle."—M. Kahn, *History of modern medicine* (F. Tice, ed., *Practice of medicine*, v. 1, pp. 93-96, 98-100).

19th century.—Development of bacteriology.—"While one class of investigators was . . . successfully using the microscope to enable them to see more clearly the composition and modes of development of living organized structures, both in conditions of health and disease . . . another class consisting of J. K. Mitchell, Saulsbury, Sanderson, Beale, Lister, Pasteur, Koch, Sternberg, E. Hallier, and many others, both in Europe and America, were applying the same instrument with equal diligence in the domain of aetiology, searching for long-hidden causes of disease. In all the earlier periods of medical history most of the febrile and inflammatory diseases were attributed to the concoction or fermentation of the blood and other so-called humors in the living body. Later, by observation alone, the concoctions causing the active phenomena of diseases were traced in some instances to something emanating from moist soils rich in decomposable vegetable matter and exposed to high temperature. Other cases were traced to the influence of the air in over-crowded and ill-ventilated houses and the use of impure water. By long-continued observations the profession became satisfied that the combined influence of heat, moisture and decomposable vegetable matter in the soil, gave rise to a subtle toxic agent capable of impregnating both air and water, that was called Malaria or Koinoism. By similar observations it was made evident that both air and water, when impregnated with the excretions and eliminations from living animal bodies, became toxic and capable of producing a variety of severe and often fatal febrile diseases."—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, p. 162.—"The traditional expression *contagium vivum* received a more precise meaning in 1840 from [Jacob Henle

(1809-1855)], who in his 'Pathologischen Untersuchungen,' showed clearly and distinctly that the contagia till then invisible must be regarded as living organisms, and gave his reasons for this view. . . . If we are forced to recognise the characteristic qualities of living beings in these contagia, there is no good reason why we should not regard them as real living beings, parasites. For the only general distinction between their mode of appearance and operation and that of parasites is, that the parasites with which we are acquainted have been seen and the contagia have not. That this may be due to imperfect observation is shown by the experiments on the itch in 1840, in which the contagium, the itch-mite, though almost visible without magnifying power, was long at least misunderstood. It was only a short time before that the microscopic Fungus, Achorion, which causes favus, was unexpectedly discovered, as well as the Fungus which gives rise to the infectious disease in the caterpillar of the silkworm known as muscardine."—A. De Bary, *Lectures on bacteria*, p. 145.—"When the science of analytical chemistry had reached a high degree of development, many samples of supposedly impure soil, water and air were subjected to rigid chemical analysis, hoping thereby to isolate and identify the specific toxic agents called miasms, but without success. But when the same substances were properly placed in the field of the microscope an abundance of living germs, called bacteria, were discovered and found capable of propagation on suitable media in the laboratory. Copeland and a few earlier writers under the phrase 'contagium vivum' had suggested that the specific causes of some epidemic and contagious fevers consisted of sporules or fungi; and in 1849 Dr. J. K. Mitchell, of Philadelphia, published a very interesting monograph on the subject. He was followed by Dr. Salsbury, of Cleveland, Ohio, in 1866, who published two papers, giving the results of his own investigations concerning a vegetable fungus called palmella. Still later Drs. Klebs, and Thomasini Crudelli, of Italy, experimented with a fungoid growth found in the malarious soils near Rome that they called bacillus malarie, and claimed to have demonstrated its causative influence by inoculating rabbits with it. Their conclusions, however, were not sustained by a thorough experimental investigation by Dr. Geo. M. Sternberg, U. S. A., in a highly malarious district in Louisiana. Laveran and others extended their examinations to the blood of patients during the active progress of malarious fevers, and soon identified the supposed specific cause in the red corpuscles of the blood in the form of the plasmodium malarie. When, during the decade following 1860, it was shown by Huxley, Beale, Bastian and others that microscopic germs or fungi pervaded the atmosphere and were greatly increased both in number and variety in the air of over-crowded and unventilated rooms; and the process of fermentation was shown by Pasteur to be one of bacteriological development, not a few of the investigators regarded the bacteria as the product of spontaneous growth. Bastian published a large work in support of that doctrine. But all his positions were soon completely refuted by the further investigations of Huxley, Pasteur, Beale, Virchow, and others, showing that in all instances living germs are developed only from preceding germs. They proved conclusively not only that 'like begets like,' but also that every living cell and germ, whether vegetable or animal, is evolved from a preceding cell or germ. In 1835 Bassi and Belasma discovered the silk worm fungus, and

in 1855 Pollender discovered the bacillus of malignant pustule. In 1847 Joseph Leidy of Philadelphia, demonstrated the existence of the trichina spiralis, previously described by Richard Owen, in pork, and its communicability to man. During the decade following 1860, Pasteur demonstrated fully that without the presence of micro-organisms there could be neither fermentation nor decay. It was during the same period of time [in 1863] that Davaine proved his previously discovered germ in the blood of animals suffering from anthrax to be the cause of that disease [the germ had been seen by Pollender in 1849 and by Davaine in 1850]; and Oertel discovered fungi in the exudations accompanying diphtheria, which were more accurately described later by Klebs and Loeffler as bacilli."—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, pp. 162-164.—"In a series of studies on the diseases of beer, and on the mode of production of vinegar, . . . [Pasteur] became more and more convinced that these studies on fermentation had given him the key to the nature of the infectious diseases. It is a remarkable fact that the distinguished English philosopher of the seventeenth century, the man who more than any one else of his century appreciated the importance of the experimental method, Robert Boyle, had said that he who could discover the nature of ferments and fermentation, would be more capable than anyone else of explaining the nature of certain diseases. The studies on spontaneous generation, and Lister's application of the germ theory to the treatment of wounds, had aroused the greatest interest in the medical world, and Villemin, in a series of most brilliant experiments, had demonstrated the infectivity of tuberculosis. An extraordinary opportunity now offered for the study of a widespread epidemic disease, known as anthrax, which in many parts of France killed from 25 to 30 per cent. of the sheep and cattle, and which in parts of Europe had been pandemic, attacking both man and beast. As far back as 1838 minute rods had been noted in the blood of animals which had died from the disease; and in 1863 Davaine thought that these little bodies which he called bacteridia, were the cause of the disease. . . . In 1876 a young German district physician, Robert Koch, began a career, which in interest and importance rivals that of [Pasteur]. . . . Koch confirmed in every point the old researches of Davaine; but he did much more, and for the first time isolated the organism in pure culture outside the body, grew successive generations, showed the remarkable spore formation, and produced the disease artificially in animals by inoculating with the cultures. Pasteur confirmed these results, and in the face of extraordinary opposition succeeded in convincing his opponents. Out of this study came a still more important discovery, namely, that it was possible so to attenuate or weaken the virus or poison that the animal could be inoculated, and have a slight attack, recover, and be protected against the disease. . . . Studies on chicken cholera, yellow fever, and on swine plague helped to further the general acceptance of the germ theory. . . . When the Vale de Grâce physician, Villemin—a modest, gentle-voiced man, who, under his quiet exterior, hid a veritable thirst for scientific truth—after experimental researches carried on from 1865 to 1860, brought the proof that tuberculosis is a disease which reproduces itself, and cannot be reproduced but by itself; in a word, specific, inoculable, and contagious, he was treated almost as a perturber of medical order. . . . The bacillus of tuberculosis had not been discovered by Villemin; it was only found and isolated much

later, in 1882, by Dr. Koch; but Villemin suspected the existence of a virus."—R. Vallery-Radot, *Life of Pasteur* (tr. by Mrs. R. L. Devonshire), pp. x, xi, 226-227.—"In (1873) the spirochæte in the blood of recurrent fever patients [was found by Otto Obermeier, one of Virchow's assistants], and Joseph Lister prosecuted his investigations concerning the micro-organisms of suppurating wounds, erysipelas, and septicæmia, by which he was enabled, in 1878, to propose a system of antiseptic surgical practice that speedily effected a most beneficial revolution in the treatment of all wounds and surgical diseases. The decade following 1880 was equally remarkable for the microscopic achievements in the department of ætiology. It was at the beginning of that decade the announcement of the fungus of actinomycosis by Bottinger began to attract attention, and Prof. James Law, of Ithaca, N. Y., demonstrated its existence in 1883. The following year Drs. W. T. Belfield and J. B. Murphy presented



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two well-marked cases of the disease in the human subject before the Chicago Medical Society, and the specific microbe was identified by Drs. Belfield and Fenger. In 1885 Pasteur commenced his inoculations for preventing hydrophobia in human subjects. In 1886, Koch announced his discovery of the cholera bacillus; in 1887 the bacillus of tuberculosis, and that of tetanus soon followed. The pneumococcus of pneumonia was announced by Friedlander; and before the end of the century the numerous workers in the field of bacteriology had claimed nearly all the diseases in the catalogue of human ailments as resulting from pathogenic germs of some form. Apparently the first thought excited by all the foregoing discoveries, both in relation to surgical wounds and to disease-producing bacteria, was the practical application of antiseptics and germicides for the destruction of the offending germs. . . . Clinical experience in their use soon demonstrated that by the external applications a much greater degree of cleanliness, of both patients and their surroundings, was secured, and corresponding improvements in the results of all external dressings and surgical procedures. But

the same experience with their internal use, for the purpose of destroying either the bacteria or their toxins already existing in the blood or tissues, resulted in only a limited degree of success. As soon as the bacteriologist announced the discovery of a pathogenic germ, or its toxin, as the cause of any acute disease, the clinician began to administer his germicide or antitoxin in all stages of the disease, regardless of the previously well known laws of development, progress, and decline in all acute diseases. Every pathogenic germ or toxin discovered was declared to be a contagious or infectious agent, to be either avoided by isolation or directly combated by specific germicides or antitoxins. And thus the nineteenth century closed with the medical profession throughout Christendom engaged in a determined effort to discover the specific causes of diseases and their specific remedies, aided by all the modern facilities and appliances for ensuring accuracy in the domain of scientific research."—N. S. Davis, *History of medicine*, pp. 164-165.—Louis Pasteur (1822-1895) was "one of the rare individuals who must be described by the term genius. The closing years of his life were full of interest in the work of his colleagues and assistants, and he had the great satisfaction of participating, with his assistant Roux, in another great victory over the dread scourge, diphtheria. Before his death in 1895 he had seen his work prosper in a way never before granted to any great discoverer. To no one man has it ever been given to accomplish work of such great importance for the well-being of humanity. As Paul Bert expressed it in the report to the French Government, Pasteur's work constitutes three great discoveries, which may be thus formulated. 1. Each fermentation is produced by the development of a special microbe. 2. Each infectious disease is produced by the development within the organism of a special microbe. 3. The microbe of an infectious disease culture, under certain detrimental conditions is attenuated in its pathogenic activity; from a virus it has become a vaccine."—R. Vallery-Radot, *Life of Pasteur* (tr. by Mrs. R. L. Devonshire), pp. xii, xiii.

19th century.—Antiseptic surgery and obstetrics.—The "experiments of Pasteur attracted the attention of the young English surgeon, Joseph Lister (1827-1912), and ultimately resulted in that wonderful application of these discoveries, one of the greatest boons to suffering mankind. The hospital conditions of those times were something fearful. Death stalked in gruesome shape in every ward where surgery was done. A serious surgical operation was in reality a death warrant. All surgical wounds were supposed to show 'laudable pus.' The pus was not 'laudable' if the patient died, 'laudable' if the patient recovered. . . . Lister was highly impressed with this awful mortality list from septicæmia, pyæmia, erysipelas, tetanus and hospital gangrene. [So terrible was the mortality that surgeons feared to operate.] Although he followed the accepted technic of the time in his amputation cases, used silver sutures, had free drainage and frequently changed the dressing, the death rate among . . . [Lister's] patients was forty-five per cent. He began to doubt whether any pus was 'laudable,' and became convinced that surgical healing by first intention was the proper way. But how obtain this desirable consummation in his cases? He directed his attempts at preventing the animalculæ and germs that infest the air from reaching his patients' wounds in a viable state. Heat was impractical, but he could use chemical disinfectants, and finally he

used (August 12, 1865) a carbolic acid solution in a case of compound fracture with complete success. In Lister's wards, all the instruments and dressings were first disinfected in a strong phenol solution, similar precautions being used for the hands of the surgeon and his assistants. In the operating room, a kettle was constantly boiling, vaporizing carbolic acid into the atmosphere. The wounds were dressed with a sort of gauze soaked in this solution. This was Lister's method, in brief. This revolutionized the entire practice of surgery, and deft physicians ventured to operate on the peritoneal viscera, on the blood-vessels, on the brain, with remarkable results. Before Pasteur and before Lister, Oliver Wendell Holmes (1809-1894), in Boston, in 1843, and Ignaz Philip Semmelweis (1818-1865), a Hungarian, in 1847, observed that puerperal fever was induced in most cases by the uncleanness with which the physician attended his cases. Instead of helping and healing, the obstetrician of those days infected and inflicted injury and sometimes mortal injury on his innocent patients. Semmelweis observed that with proper precautions and with extreme cleanliness, he could reduce his mortality rate in the obstetrical clinic from almost ten per cent. to as low as one per cent. His method consisted in washing his hands in a solution of chlorid of lime before attending or examining his patients. Both Holmes and Semmelweis were bitterly attacked. The orthodox, conservative obstetricians of that time heaped so much abuse on Semmelweis that he left Vienna and went to Budapest, where his broodings led to insanity and to an early death. Of the great men who have done good in the world, this Hungarian physician must be counted as one, for he has helped all mothers the world over. In their hour of greatest pain and greatest need he has assured them of a safe confinement. When, in 1883, Lister heard of Semmelweis, he honestly declared that to him belonged the precedence of originating antiseptic surgery. . . . In the specialties of surgery, the great advances made during the past century are too numerous to be recounted here in detail. To America belongs the credit of having made the initial advances in gynecological surgery. Ephraim McDowell (1771-1830), of Virginia, a pupil of John Bell, of Edinburgh, settled in the wilds of Kentucky and soon became a wonderful surgeon. He performed twenty-two lithotomy operations successively with complete cure, and in 1809 he did the first ovariectomy on a woman forty-seven years old. The initial work of McDowell was continued by James Marion Sims (1813-1883), of South Carolina, who in 1852 perfected an operation for the cure of vesicovaginal fistula, by Thomas Addis Emmet, by Sir Thomas Spencer Wells (1818-1897), by Lawson Tait (1845-1899), by Howard A. Kelly and by others. The advances in obstetrics, ophthalmology and the other specialties were marvellous. It is sufficient to state that the accomplishments in all surgical branches since the days of Pasteur and Lister far outshine the progress made until the middle of the nineteenth century."—M. Kahn, *History of modern medicine* (F. Tice, ed., *Practice of medicine*, v. 1, pp. 87-88, 93).

19th century.—Opsonins.—"Of Virchow's pupils, the most eminent was Julius Cohnheim (1830-84), of Demmin, Pomerania. . . . Under Willy Kühne, Cohnheim made an important investigation on the sugar-forming ferments (1863), but his inaugural dissertation on the inflammation of serous membranes (1861) marks his bent as a pioneer in experimental histology and pathology. . . . His monographs on inflammation and suppuration

(1867-73) revolutionized pathology, showing, in direct opposition to the teaching of Virchow, that the essential feature of inflammation is the passage of white blood-cells through the walls of the capillaries, and that pus and pus-cells are formed in this way from the blood. . . . The subject of immunity was developed on the solidist or cellular side by Elie Metchnikoff (1845-1916), the eminent Russian biologist, who, in his studies of *Daphnia* (1884), showed how ameboid cells in the connective tissues and the blood engulf solid particles and bacteria, destroying bacteria by absorbing them (phagocytosis). He called these cells 'phagocytes,' showed their function as scavengers, developed the doctrine of inflammation as the effect of the determination of swarms of phagocytes to the site of injury by chemiotaxis and upheld the solidist theory of immunity or phagocytosis. This theory, in the hands of Sir Almroth Wright and others, led to . . . vaccinotherapy (1902-7), with the superadded feature of measuring the protective substances in the blood by means of the opsonic index (1903)."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 605-606, 618-619.—"For many a day after the publication of Metchnikoff's discoveries regarding the germ-killing power of the phagocytes, it was held that these living cells alone accomplished the duty of disposing of troublesome invaders. Later on, other opinions were advanced to the effect that while the phagocytes did undoubtedly accomplish their work in the direction indicated, they demanded aid to that end from an outside source. This source was indicated and represented by the plasma or blood-fluid itself. . . . The investigators are of the opinion that the real source of the power possessed by the blood-fluid or 'plasma' is to be sought and found in substances contained therein and called 'Opsonins.'"—A. Wilson, *About opsonins* (Cornhill, Jan., 1907).

19th century.—Antitoxin.—"About 1890, Pasteur's theory of attenuated viruses was extended to the science of toxins and antitoxins by Emil von Behring (1854-), a Prussian army surgeon who became professor of hygiene at Halle (1894) and Marburg (1895). . . . While working in Koch's Institute with Kitasato, Behring demonstrated that the serum of animals immunized against attenuated diphtheria toxins can be used as a preventive or therapeutic inoculation against diphtheria in other animals, through a specific neutralization of the toxin of the disease (1890-93). After trying out the remedy in man, Behring began to produce it upon a grand scale (1894), and it soon became recognized as the specific treatment for diphtheria. The success of diphtheria antitoxin led to many attempts to treat other specific infections by immune sera, but, except in the case of tetanus and serpent-poisoning, these have not been uniformly successful. . . . Sir Almroth Edward Wright (1861-), of Dublin, Ireland, professor of pathology in the Army Medical School at Netley (1892-1902), . . . made typhoid vaccination practicable (1896-97), having inoculated over 3,000 soldiers in India (1898-1900), and the entire British forces in the South African War."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 618-619.

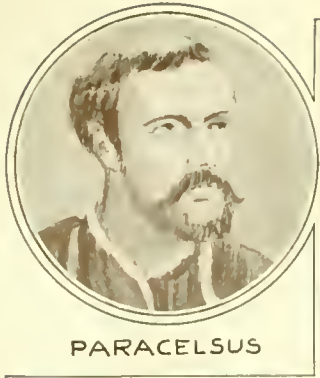
19th century.—Endocrinology.—"The brilliant results achieved in the study of the endocrine glands in the past quarter of century are the outcome of the initial experiments of Claude Bernard, who in 1855 described the glycogenic function of the liver as the *sécrétion interne*, in contradistinction to the secretion of bile which he designated a *sécrétion externe*. In the same year ap-

peared the book by Thomas Addison (1793-1860) 'On the Constitutional and Local Effects of Disease of the Suprarenal Capsules.' This inaugurated the study of diseases of the glands of internal secretion. . . . In 1880, Charles Edouard Brown-Séquard (1817-1894) found that subcutaneous injections of extracts of testis exercised considerable influence upon the general health as well as the muscular power and mental activity. The experiments were performed upon himself when he was seventy-two years old, and he described very marked rejuvenating effects. He, therefore, promulgated the theory that all tissues give off some unknown substance or substances to the blood, which is specific and particular for each tissue, and which plays an important rôle in the general nutrition of the body. . . . Brown-Séquard's contributions are his experimental production of Addison's disease by extirpation of the adrenal glands in animals, his testicular therapy, and his glandular treatment of acromegaly. Moritz Schiff (1823-1896), . . . added much to our knowledge of endocrinology. His experiments on the effects of excision of the thyroid in dogs, and the cure of these effects by thyroid grafts and by the injection or ingestion of thyroid extracts, are epoch making. To him is due the great discovery of the treatment of myxedema and cretinism. . . . In 1889, Von Mering and Minkowski described the artificial production of diabetes mellitus by the excision of the pancreatic gland. This was ascribed to the removal of the internal secretion produced by the islands of Langerhans, as shown by the experiments of Opie, of Szoboleff, and of W. G. MacCallum. The discovery of the effect of adrenal extract by Oliver and Schäfer, the study of thyroid disease by Graves, Basedow, Slemmon, and others, the discovery of iodine in the thyroid gland by Baumann, the investigation of parathyroid disease by Sandstrom, Gley, Halsted and others, of pituitary disease by Mohr, Pierre Marie, Fröhlich, Harvey Cushing, and others, of the thymus by Kopp, Richard Bright, Paltauf and others, and of the sexual glands by Paton, Battey and others, have added an interesting and very fruitful chapter to the science of physiology."—M. Kahn, *History of modern medicine* (F. Tice, ed., *Practice of medicine*, v. 1, pp. 97-98).

See also STATISTICS: Vital statistics.

19th-20th centuries.—**Insect transmission of disease.—Secret of malaria.—Yellow fever.**—"Nothing illustrates more clearly the interdependence of the sciences than the reciprocal impulse given to new researches in pathology and entomology by the discovery of the part played by insects in the transmission of disease. The flea, the louse, the bedbug, the house fly, the mosquito, the tick, have all . . . taken their places as important transmitters of disease. The fly population may be taken as the sanitary index of a place. The discovery, too, that insects are porters of disease has led to a great extension of our knowledge of their life history. The fundamental study which set us on the track was a demonstration by Patrick Manson, in 1879, of the association of filarial disease with the mosquito. Many observations had already been made, and were made subsequently, on the importance of insects as intermediary hosts in the animal parasites, but the first really great scientific demonstration of a widespread infection through insects was by Theobald Smith . . . in 1880, in a study of Texas fever of cattle. . . . It is difficult to draw comparisons in pathology; but I think, if a census were taken among the world's workers on dis-

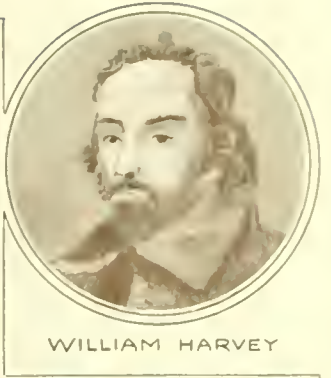
ease, the judgment to be based on the damage to health and direct mortality, the votes would be given to malaria as the greatest single destroyer of the human race. Cholera kills its thousands, plague, in its bad years, its hundreds of thousands, yellow fever, hookworm disease, pneumonia, tuberculosis, are all terribly destructive, some only in the tropics, others in more temperate regions: but malaria is today, as it ever was, a disease to which the word pandemic is especially applicable. . . . No disease illustrates better the progressive evolution of scientific medicine. It is one of the oldest of known diseases. The Greeks and Græco-Romans knew it well. It seems highly probable, as brought out by the studies of W. H. S. Jones of Cambridge, that, in part at least, the physical degeneration in Greece and Rome may have been due to the great increase of this disease. Its clinical manifestations were well known and admirably described by the older writers. . . . Ordinary observation carried on for long centuries had done as much as was possible. In 1880, a young French army surgeon, Laveran by name, working in Algiers, found in the microscopic examination of the blood that there were little bodies in the red blood corpuscles, amœboid in character, which he believed to be the germs of the disease. . . . Several years elapsed before Surgeon-General Sternberg called the attention of the English-speaking world to Laveran's work: it was taken up actively in Italy, and in America by Councilman, Abbott and by others among us in Baltimore. The result of these widespread observations was the confirmation in every respect of Laveran's discovery of the association with malaria of a protozoan parasite. . . . Another army surgeon, Ronald Ross, working in India, influenced by the work of Manson, proved that the disease was transmitted by certain varieties of mosquitoes."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 222-224.—In a lecture given in September, 1900, Dr. Ronald Ross stated that "the parasites which infested human blood were carried only by one genus of mosquito—'Anopheles'; the genus 'Culex' was harmless. The two genera could be readily distinguished. For example, 'Anopheles' rested on walls with their tails stuck out perpendicular to the wall; 'Culex' attached themselves with tails hanging downwards. 'Culex' bred in the water in pots and tubs; 'Anopheles' in pools. The larvæ of 'Culex,' if disturbed, sank to the bottom; the larvæ of 'Anopheles' skimmed along the surface. . . . The female of 'Anopheles' alone was the biter, and though the favourite feeding time was at night, in West Africa the insects had been found to bite all day. While 'Culex' could be detected by its humming, 'Anopheles' was silent, and it was possible to be bitten without knowing of it at the moment. He had found that a blood diet was always necessary to the maturing of the eggs. He had kept many thousands of mosquitoes under observation and had never known one to lay eggs except after a meal of blood. Malarial infection was derived chiefly from the native children, who swarmed everywhere, and whose blood was full of the infecting parasites." An expedition sent out to West Africa by the Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, to pursue investigations there, reported in December, 1900, that its observations confirm the conclusion "that the blood parasite which gives rise to malarial fever in man is carried by the mosquito from the native to the European—and more especially from the native children. The examination of the blood of hundreds of native children re-



PARACELSUS



LOUIS PASTEUR



WILLIAM HARVEY



ALBRECHT
HALLER



MARIE FRANCOIS
XAVIER BICHAT



ANDREAS
VESALIUS



JOHN
HUNTER



PAUL EHRLICH



SIR JOSEPH LISTER



EDWARD JENNER

GREAT PHYSICIANS

vealed the interesting fact that between 50 and 80 per cent. of those under five years, between 20 and 30 per cent. of ages between five and ten years, and a small percentage over ten years contained malarial parasites, often in very large numbers. "Experiments came in to support the studies in etiology; two of those may be quoted. Mosquitoes which had bitten malarial patients in Italy were sent to London and there allowed to bite Mr. Manson, son of Dr. Manson. This gentleman had not lived out of England, where there is now no acute malaria. He had been a perfectly healthy, strong man. In a few days following the bites of the infected mosquitoes, he had a typical attack of malarial fever. The other experiment, though of a different character, is quite as convincing. In certain regions about Rome, in the Campania, malaria is so prevalent that, in the autumn, almost everyone in the district is attacked, particularly if he is a newcomer. Dr. Sambon and a friend lived in this district from June 1 to September 1, 1900. The test was whether they could live in this exceedingly dangerous climate for the three months without catching malaria, if they used stringent precautions against the bites of mosquitoes. For this purpose the hut in which they lived was thoroughly wired, and they slept under netting. Both of these gentlemen, at the end of the period, had escaped the disease. Then came the fifth and final triumph—the prevention of the disease. The anti-malarial crusade which has been preached by Sir Ronald Ross and has been carried out successfully on a wholesale scale in Italy and in parts of India and Africa, has reduced enormously the incidence of the disease. . . . The story of yellow fever illustrates one of the greatest practical triumphs of scientific medicine; indeed, in view of its far-reaching commercial consequences, it may range as one of the first achievements of the race. . . . By the year 1900, not only had the ground been cleared, but the work on insect-borne disease by Manson and by Ross had given observers an important clue. It had repeatedly been suggested that some relation existed between the bites of mosquitoes, and the tropical fevers, particularly by that remarkable student, Nott of Mobile, and the French physician, Beauperrhuy. But the first to announce clearly the mosquito theory of the disease was Carlos Finlay of Havana. Early in the spring of 1900, during the occupation of Cuba by the United States, a commission appointed by Surgeon-General Sternberg (himself one of the most energetic students of the disease) undertook fresh investigations. Dr. Walter Reed, Professor of Bacteriology in the Army Medical School, was placed in charge; Dr. Carroll of the United States Army, Dr. Agramonte of Havana and Dr. Jesse W. Lazear were the other members. . . . Many scientific discoveries have afforded brilliant illustrations of method in research, but in the work of these men one is at a loss to know which to admire more—the remarkable accuracy and precision of the experiments, or the heroism of the men—officers and rank and file of the United States Army; they knew all the time that they were playing with death, and some of them had to pay the penalty! The demonstration was successful—beyond peradventure—that yellow fever could be transmitted by mosquitoes, and equally the negative proposition—that it could not be transmitted by fomites. . . . Lazear permitted himself to be bitten by a stray mosquito while conducting his experiments in the yellow fever hospital. Bitten on the thirteenth, he sickened on the eighteenth and died on the twenty-fifth

of September, but not until he had succeeded in showing in two instances that mosquitoes could convey the infection. He added another to the long list of members of the profession who have laid down their lives in search of the cause of disease. . . . The sanitation of Havana was placed in the hands of Dr. Gorgas, and within nine months the city was cleared of yellow fever. . . . Following the example of Havana other centres were attacked, at Vera Cruz and in Brazil, with the same success, and it is safe to say that now, thanks to the researches of Reed and his colleagues, with proper measures, no country need fear a paralyzing outbreak of this once dreadful disease."—W. Osler, *Evolution of modern medicine*, pp. 224-227.—See also FLORIDA: 1888-1905.

19th-20th centuries.—Modification in use of drugs.—"It is only restating the same fact to say that new practice has followed on new theory, or, rather, new scientific knowledge of the nature of disease. The only object of acquiring the knowledge was to embody it in practice. With the discovery of the zymotic principle in disease, traced finally to bacterial action, there could not be the same or like treatment as when the body was supposed to be possessed by conflicting 'humors'; or when a fever was supposed to be an abnormal increase of vital fluids needing to be drained off; or when diseases were supposed to have no relation to any function of the body except the organs furnishing the dominant symptoms; or when one school supposed them waves of some sort, to be overborne by more powerful waves of the same class, and another school refused to entertain any theoretical suppositions at all, but relied on the history of cases, printed or traditional or experimental. But it may be said that the greatest revolution in the century, or at any rate the last half of it, is in the position assigned to drugs. At the outset the old faith in bleeding still held great sway; Boerhaave himself had made almost the whole art of medicine consist in its proper application, and at the end of the 18th century Washington had been sacrificed to it. But by the middle of the century it began to diminish. Both the homeopathic and the regular schools based their practice, and many still base it, on the study and administration of drugs. They differed in the size and strength of doses, from huge boluses, or powders or draughts whose efficacy was supposed to be in proportion to their nauseousness, to small bland triturations or dilutions; but not in the assumption that in them lay the one efficient method of dealing with disease. The advanced school of the present does not discard medicines; so far from it, it studies them with more care than ever, and values a few, well-tried and certain of quality and action, as highly as ever. It knows the mass of current medicines to be inert or worse, uncertain of action and applied to human functions of still more uncertain action; but it seeks to study thoroughly and apply scientifically the few real medicines or healing agents which must be used—quinine and digitalis, and opium, iron and mercury and iodide of potassium, etc.—instead of a swarm of dubious and varying materials. It is significant that some of the stand-bys are extremely old; iodine, as ashes of burnt sponge, was known in classic times, and ergot impressed its peculiar action on stockraisers' minds from very early ages; even Peruvian bark is nothing new. . . . Chemistry has done vast services for us, and will probably do far more. [See CHEMISTRY: Practical application; Drugs.] Aside from the discovery of new substances like cocaine, it has given us the active principles, of calculable

strength and purity, in place of crude drugs of varying strength at best, and of varying purity and age; and there is no reason why we may not have new specifics as sure (and for as important diseases) as quinine. But the new school does not feel itself under obligation to give any medicines whatever, while a generation ago not only could few physicians have held their practice unless they did, but few would have thought it safe or scientific. Of course, there are still many cases where the patient or the patient's friends must be humored by administering medicine or alleged medicine where it is not really needed, and indeed often where the buoyancy of mind, which is the real curative agent, can only be created by making him wait hopefully for the expected action of medicine; and some physicians still cannot unlearn their old training. But the change is



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great. The modern treatment of disease relies very greatly on the old so-called 'natural' methods, diet and exercise, bathing and massage—in other words, giving the natural forces the fullest scope by easy and thorough nutrition, increased flow of blood, and removal of obstructions to the excretory systems or the circulation in the tissues. One notable example is typhoid fever. At the outset of the 19th century it was treated with 'remedies' of the extremest violence—bleeding and blistering, vomiting and purging, and the administration of antimony and mercury and plenty of other heroic remedies. Now the patient is bathed and nursed and carefully tended, but rarely given medicine. This is the result partly of the remarkable experiments of the Paris and Vienna schools into the action of drugs, which have shaken the stoutest faiths, and partly of the constant and reproachful object-lesson of homeopathy. No regular physician would ever admit that the homœopathic preparations, 'infinitesimals,' could do any good as

direct curative agents, and yet it was perfectly certain that homœopaths lost no more of their patients than others. There was but one conclusion to draw—that most drugs had no effect whatever on the diseases for which they were administered. These 'natural methods' have been indicated above; but some further analysis of the individual elements is worth while. It will be noted that this is not, as a hasty reader might assume, the discarding of all the results of civilization and a return to barbarism. That the natural methods are efficient is precisely because scientific knowledge and modern improvements in appliances, as well as the thousand civilized devices for comfort and cleanliness, unattainable even a generation ago, have raised them to the level of first-rate therapeutic agents. Perhaps foremost in the rank is the trained nurse, who is not only a greater agent of philanthropy than many professed altruists, but sets free the physician from a load of care and anxiety. In place of ignorant and stubborn, usually conceited and often superstitious women, who pride themselves on defying all the doctor's commands, these intelligent and loyal women can be relied on to carry out all his injunctions, to watch carefully for indications of danger, and to furnish notes enabling him to view the progress and hourly changes of a critical case."

—W. Osler, *Concise history of medicine*, pp. 54-60.
19th-20th centuries.—Serotherapy.—Side-chain theory.—Immunology.—"That great plague of man, . . . syphilis, has been lately robbed of many of its terrors. Its cause was unknown until Fritz Schaudinn (1871-1906) described that highly motile, corkscrew-shaped spirochete which he named *Spirocheta* or *Treponema pallida*, and which was later cultured in pure form by Hideyo Noguchi. But the greatest boon in the treatment and diagnosis of this disease was discovered by Paul Ehrlich (1864-1916) and by August von Wassermann. . . . Pasteur's and Koch's experiments led to the development of specific serotherapy in various diseases. In 1890, Emil von Behring described the serum method for the treatment of diphtheria, and it is now universally accepted as a specific for this disease. Excellent results were also obtained in the treatment of tetanus infection by antitoxin. The genius and experimentation of Ehrlich and of Metchnikoff have established the sciences of immunology and serology. In 1883, when Elie Metchnikoff (1845-1917) showed that certain of the body cells, and especially the polynuclear neutrophile leukocytes, were active in the defense of the human body against invasion by microorganisms, a great advance was made in the understanding of immunity. This theory of phagocytosis is an easily demonstrated fact. According to this law, certain of the body cells are able to ingest an infecting parasite, a red corpuscle or other cell in the same manner as an amoeba ingests a food particle, and to dispose of it by intracellular digestion through the agency of ferments known as 'cytases.' But the great concept of Immunity was advanced by Ehrlich in 1885. Twenty years previously, August Kekulé had revolutionized and widely broadened the horizon of Organic Chemistry by suggesting that the benzol ring, composed of six atoms each of carbon and hydrogen, be imagined to conform to a regular hexagon. This induced Ehrlich to assume a similar hypothesis for his theory of Immunity. According to this assumption, the protoplasm of the cell consists of a central group of molecules (*Leistungskern*); in which the inherent vital characteristics are located, and whose integrity is necessary, for normal life.

The numerous molecules are assumed to be supplied with numerous side arms, or side-chains, which are capable of uniting with various substances with which they may come in contact—foods, toxins, and other harmful bodies. In order that nutritive matter may be taken up by the cell it must possess a certain conformation which will enable it to unite, or dove-tail in, with the conformation of the side-chain. This conformation may be imagined as the relationship of a key to the lock—they must fit; in the words of Ehrlich they must be homologous. Ehrlich called the side-chains 'receptors,' and the foreign group which unites with it 'haptophore.' Based upon this hypothesis, Wassermann developed a method for the diagnosis of syphilis by means of fixation of the complement, a phenomenon discovered by Jules Bordet and Octave Gengou of Brussels. This has markedly facilitated the diagnosis of luetic infection, and has given the physician an idea as to the course of the specific treatment of this disease. The great climax of Ehrlich's life was the discovery of salvarsan, that wonderful organic arsenical preparation which acts so markedly in the cure of syphilis."—M. Kahn, *History of modern medicine* (F. Tice, ed., *Practice of medicine*, v. 1, p. 89).

10th-20th centuries.—Surgery in warfare.—"Four months before the . . . [Franco-Prussian war (1870) Lister] propounded the principles which should guide surgeons, but it occurred to no one in France, in the first battles, to apply the new method. . . . Hundreds and thousands of wounded . . . succumbed between the eighth and tenth day to gangrene and erysipelas. . . . It was only at the end of the war that it occurred to Alphonse Guérin . . . that 'the cause of purulent infection may perhaps be due to the germs or ferments discovered by Pasteur to exist in the air.' . . . 'I thought more firmly than ever,' he declared, 'that the miasms emanating from the pus of the wounded were the real cause of this frightful disease, to which I had the sorrow of seeing the wounded succumb. . . . In my despair . . . I be thought me that the miasms, whose existence I admitted . . . might well be living corpuscles, of the kind which Pasteur had seen in atmospheric air, and, from that moment, the history of miasmatic poisoning became clearer to me. "If," I said, "miasms are ferments, I might protect the wounded from their fatal influence by filtering the air, as Pasteur did." I then conceived the idea of cotton-wool dressings, and I had the satisfaction of seeing my anticipations realized.' . . . Other surgeons learnt with amazement that, out of thirty-four patients treated in that way, nineteen had survived operation. Dr. Reclus, who could not bring himself to believe it, said: 'We had grown to look upon purulent infection as upon an inevitable and necessary disease, an almost Divinely instituted consequence of any important operation.' There is a much greater danger than that of atmospheric germs, that of the contagium germ, of which the surgeon's hands, sponges and tools are the receptacle, if minute and infinite precautions are not taken against it. Such precautions were not even thought of in those days. . . . It had, therefore, been sufficient to institute careful washing of the wounds, and especially to reduce the frequency of dressings, and so diminish the chances of infection to obtain—thanks to a reform inspired by Pasteur's labours."—R. Vallery-Radot, *Life of Pasteur* (tr. by Mrs. R. L. Devonshire), pp. 236-237.—"Contrary to immortal popular tradition, which is usually wrong, Napoleon's ghastly defeat in his final Russian campaign was

due neither to the wasting of the country with fire and sword by the Russians as they retreated—for the Great Commander never for a moment attempted to live off the country in any of his campaigns, and insisted upon his armies being as well supplied with food as they were with ammunition—nor yet by 'General January and General February.' For in spite of all the snow-scene pictures which have been painted of the great retreat, remnants of his army came back across the Beresina early in November, before the winter had set in. The real enemy that mowed down his magnificent army, well-fed, well-clothed, superbly equipped as it was, was spotted typhus, due to lice, which raged through its ranks like a forest fire. By the middle of the last century the death-rate from disease in war had fallen somewhat, and in the American Civil War the ratio was about five deaths from disease to one in battle. Almost the same ratio was maintained in the Spanish-American War and the Boer War in spite of sanitary improvements, and the first clean reduction was made in the Russo-Japanese War on the Japanese side. It was here for the first time in history that the doctor was given real power and authority in an army and the control of its sanitary conditions. This brilliant new nation was just innocent enough actually to put into practice the sanitary principles which all the European armies had simply talked about, but never dreamed of putting into force, with the result that the death-rate from disease fell to less than half its former amount—that is, to about two and one half times as great as the battle—and wound-rate."—W. Hutchinson, *Doctor in war*, pp. 9-10.

19th-20th centuries.—Use of electricity for medical purposes.—Röntgen or x-rays, etc. See CHEMISTRY: Radio-activity; ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric lighting: 1841-1921.

20th century.—Progress in bacteriology.—Chemotherapy.—"In 1805, the announcement was made at the 67th meeting of the German Society of Naturalists and Physicians that diphtheria, one of the most severe and fatal diseases of mankind, had been conquered by means of an antitoxin. This great event is a landmark, not alone in the history of medicine, but also in the history of the world, and it provides a high peak of achievement from which the growth of bacteriology may be viewed. . . . Koch's greater contribution to bacteriology consisted of a method of cultivation so perfected that pure growths of bacterial species were readily obtainable. The consequence was that in a very brief period of years a whole host of pathogenic bacteria or incitants of diseases of man and animals was secured, among which were the highly important bacilli of tuberculosis, cholera, typhoid fever, diphtheria, tetanus, dysentery, plague, meningitis and many others. Up to the period we are now considering, all the diseases of microbic origin thus far investigated successfully belonged to the class in which the bacteria invaded the blood and the internal organs. But now we are about to learn of another kind of disease induced by a class of bacteria which are peculiar in that they do not migrate throughout the body but remain fixed in a special tissue or part, where they multiply and secrete a poison which finds its way first into the lymph, then into the blood and the organs generally. This latter class of microbes produces its effects to which we give the name of disease, and of which diphtheria and tetanus are examples. . . . [Emil von Behring (1854-) and Shibamiro Kitasato] chose the task of inducing in animals immunity, to diph-

theria on the one hand and to tetanus on the other. . . . Moreover, the restricted local development of the two bacilli and their generally poisonous or toxic effects aroused in them an eager interest intensified by the epochal discovery just made by [Emile] Roux and [Alesandre] Yersin that the toxin of the diphtheria bacillus was readily separable from the bacilli producing it. . . . The isolation of the diphtheria toxin, quickly to be followed by the similar isolation of the tetanus toxin, was an event of capital importance and reacted at once vigorously on the chemical aspects of bacteriology just struggling into the light. The immediate effect of the study of the new poisons, called toxalbumins, was to discredit a whole series of pure, crystalline basic substances obtained not long before from a wide variety of bacteria, to which the name of ptomaines had been given. . . . The rendering of animals immune to diphtheria, on the one hand and to tetanus on the other, proved a difficult but not impossible task. The method adopted was to admix disinfectant chemicals, of which the one finally selected was iodine trichlorid, with the bacilli to be injected under the skin of animals, or with the contents of the culture flasks at the end of the incubation period. . . . The fluids or 'humors' of the body, to employ a term made respectable by age, as represented by the serum of the blood, had been shown to carry the immunity principles, but what part did the cells of the body play in the process? Both fluids and cells were now submitted to rigid and ingenious scrutiny, and about them an immense literature has grown up. Soon the students in the field divided into two camps, namely, one led by Ehrlich, defending the humoral doctrine, the other led by Metchnikoff, urging the cellular or phagocytic doctrine. . . . We are moving now in more peaceful times, the heat of the earlier conflicts having largely subsided, and it may be stated that neither the one nor the other doctrine finally triumphed, but that the humors or fluids of the body on the one hand and the cells on the other have come to be recognized as the active participating factors in the immunity process, the one complementing the other. . . . The unraveling of the intricacies of the immune state, following upon the work of Behring, has brought about a sudden and unprecedented enlargement of the scope of bacteriology. . . . It may suffice at this point merely to mention certain of the devices for diagnosis and means of preventing or of treating disease, which are the immediate heritage of studies in the field of immunity. . . . In this manner have been secured the Widal test for typhoid fever [discovered by Ferdinand Widal, a native of Algiers (1862-)], the Wassermann [August von Wassermann (1866-)] and allied reactions, the hypersensitive or Schick test for diphtheria susceptibility, the hypersensitive reaction as now applied to the detecting of the offending agency in hay fever and allied states, the refinements of bacterial vaccination in the prevention and sometimes in the treatment of disease, and so-called specific serum therapy. . . . A curative serum for one of the specific types of pneumonia has been secured, and through its application many lives have been saved; while beginnings have been made in respect to vaccination against the disease when, as sometimes happens in institutions and in communities, epidemics prevail and claim many victims, as occurred in the [United States] Army training camps during the measles epidemic of 1917-18. . . . We now recognize a class of microbes or viruses which are so minute as to be regarded

as ultramicroscopic, and yet so active as to be capable of setting up disease in animals and man. . . . When we consider that there remain still to be detected the microbial incitants of some of the most contagious as well as common of diseases, our minds readily seize hold of the possibility of their being of this nature. Thus the microbes responsible for such contagious maladies as measles, scarlet fever, and chicken-pox, and those inducing small-pox and rabies are not known, and not a little obscurity still surrounds the etiology, as we say, or immediate origin of epidemic influenza. . . .

"Perhaps no subject in experimental pathology has been pursued with more thought and energy than the one to which the name of cancer research is applied. The reasons are obvious. The nature of the source of the cancerous tumors is still shrouded in essential darkness. . . . A long series of biological conditions governing the growth and recession of the tumors has been uncovered, and by altering those conditions, on the one hand growth can be promoted, and on the other, retarded. In this way, Murphy and his co-workers have accounted for the influence of the action of the X-ray in effecting cancer growth; and by observing the correlative effects on the lymphoid structures of the body, which are very sensitive to the rays, and the changes corresponding to them in the circulating blood. . . . Chemotherapy is the name applied to the branch of experimental medicine in which chemicals, or drugs, are searched for, and when necessary and possible, fashioned to subdue a particular kind or class of infection. The beginnings of chemotherapy reach into the dim past; the science of chemotherapy is just being built up. . . . The outstanding instance in which experimental chemotherapy has registered a great success is in connection with the organic compounds of arsenic, which have been adapted to the overcoming of infection induced on the one hand by spirochetes and on the other by trypanosomes. That arsenical compounds possess therapeutically active properties against these two classes of parasitic diseases—as represented on the one hand by syphilis and on the other by African sleeping sickness—is not entirely a recent discovery; but until the systematic investigations of Ehrlich were instituted, which ultimately yielded salvarsan, knowledge was fragmentary, medical practice based on it ineffective, and the road to progress obscure."—S. Flexner, *Twenty-five years of bacteriology; a fragment of medical research (Contemporary Science, Modern Library, pp. 115, 119-124, 127, 137, 140, 145-147)*.

20th century.—**Experimental method.**—**Serology.**—"The most noticeable thing about twentieth century medicine is the growth of coöperation and the fact that nearly every important advance that has been made is prophylactic—that is, comes within the scope of preventing the occurrence, the recurrence, or the spread of disease. The tendency in all branches of recent sciences, even in zoölogy, sociology, therapeutics, internal medicine, and surgery, has been to pass out of the descriptive into the experimental stage. Loeb (1859-), . . . head of the Department of Experimental Biology in the Rockefeller Institute, has been a brilliant investigator in many branches of physiology. Ehrlich (1854-1915) has done the most effective work since Pasteur and Koch in the science of infectious diseases, and he has added new territory to the domain of experimental pharmacology and therapeutics by his genius for research and his wonderful industry. . . . Bordet . . . a great pioneer in the theory of serology and immunity

reactions . . . discovered bacterial hemolysis (1898) and, with Gengou, fixation of the complement (1900). He also discovered with Gengou the specific bacillus of whooping-cough (1906), the causal relation of which has been recently demonstrated according to Koch's postulates by Mallory and others (1913). Simon Flexner (1863-) has distinguished himself by his work on the etiology and therapy of cerebrospinal meningitis (1906). Apart from the work of Bordet, Metchnikoff and Ehrlich, there have been many advances in serology of great practical value: notably, the discovery of agglutination and its application to the diagnosis of typhoid fever (1896) by Widal and Sicard; the diagnostic use of tuberculin by Calmette, von Pirquet and Moro (1907); Sir Almroth Wright's preventive inoculation against typhoid fever by killed cultures of the bacillus (1900); Abderhalden's enzyme reaction in the diagnosis of pregnancy (1912); and the principle of filterable viruses. . . . Pneumonia was one of the first diseases which engaged attention through serum therapy. The Klemperer Brothers (1891) were pioneers in the field of serum treatment of pneumonia."—*Modern biologic therapeutics*, pp. 19-20, 116.—Through his work in the South African War, Sir Almroth Wright "originated general vaccino-therapy (1902-7), with the superadded feature of measuring the protective substances in the blood by means of the opsonic index (1903). . . . Bacteriology and pathology have been specially advanced in America by William Henry Welch (1850-), of Norfolk, Connecticut, a pupil of Cohnheim's, who became professor of pathology at the Bellevue Hospital Medical College (1870-84) and at the Johns Hopkins University (1884), where he has turned out a long line of worthy pupils. Welch investigated acute edema of the lungs in Cohnheim's laboratory (1877), discovered the *Staphylococcus epidermidis albus* and its relation to wound infection (1892), also the *Bacillus aerogenes capsulatus* (1892), grouping the diseases caused by it (1900). He also made important studies of embolism and thrombosis, and, with Flexner, demonstrated the pathological changes produced by experimental injection of the toxins of diphtheria (1891-02) simultaneously with von Behring. Simon Flexner (1863-), of Louisville, Kentucky, . . . has distinguished himself by his work on terminal infections, his experimental work on venoms (1901), and the etiology and therapy of cerebrospinal meningitis (1909) and infantile poliomyelitis (1910-13)."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, p. 620.

20th century.—Study and modern treatment of cancer.—"In few parts of surgery has more progress been made than in the treatment of cancer. We have no certain knowledge of the causes of this disease, though it is becoming more and more clear that heredity has very little to do with the occurrence of cancer; this is directly opposed to the opinion formerly held when it was thought that cancer occurred in certain families. Until recently operations on cancer gave not very favourable results, for in nearly all cases the disease returned sooner or later. At the present time surgeons have fully recognised two things in connection with cancer. The first is that the operation has to be more thorough than was thought sufficient before, and the second is that the operation must be done at an early stage of the disease. At one time it was thought that cancer was a general disease of the body, though it manifested itself only at one or two spots; but now it is known with certainty that cancer is at first

entirely a local disease and that if this local disease be removed completely it will not return, but that if it is left too long it may affect many parts of the body. The conclusion to be drawn from this fact is that any operation for its removal must be thorough, and it must also be performed early while the disease is still confined to its original site. . . . At present we do not know of any medicine capable of removing a cancer from the body, but it is not improbable that in time such a medicine may be discovered."—W. Evans, *Medical science of to-day*, p. 166.—"The object of a group of American women to enable Madame Curie, French scientist, to continue her researches, especially in connection with the treatment of cancer, has been attained. Madame Curie has received the radium, and will be given the large over-subscription to pay for further equipment



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needed in her investigations. [See also CHEMISTRY: Radio-activity: Radium.] Important developments will without question be made in the near future concerning the problem, still unsolved, as to whether radiation treatment will ever replace surgery in the cure of cancer. What, then, in the opinion of specialists, is the status of radium today in the treatment of this disease? One thing is certain, and that is that the rays from radium or from the X-ray tube are the best present form of treatment for any form of cancer which, because of its advanced stage, is beyond the scope of surgery. The debate at the present time is entirely over the question of the advisability of treating operable cancers by radiation instead of by cutting them out. Despite the widely circulated statements that cancer is a general disease and not curable by surgery, thousands of successfully treated patients now living and happy prove the fact to be exactly the contrary. Every surgeon of experience knows that 90 per cent of certain types of cancer can be permanently cured

by operation, and from 20 to 50 per cent of other forms; while some forms occurring internally are quite incurable by any means. The question at issue in radium treatment is: Does it cure cancer with the same efficacy as operation? Now, while many cures have been reported, in general the patients have not yet lived sufficiently long since the treatment to enable us to judge whether the results will be permanent; and a large proportion of those treated by radiation, while temporarily benefited, have nevertheless died within a year or two after an apparent cure. . . . The consensus of opinion among such a group as the American Society for the Control of Cancer is, however, that until the radium operator can guarantee that his results will be better than surgery, radium should not be used to treat tumors in the stage at which surgery is still effective. . . . At the laboratories of the George Crocker Research Fund at Columbia University, experiments have been conducted on animal tumors, and the exact dosage necessary to kill cancer cells has been established. Further research is being carried on in New York City at the Memorial Hospital under the direction of James Ewing, M. D., professor of Pathology at Cornell University. The New York State Institute for the Study of Malignant Diseases has received two grams of radium through an appropriation of \$225,000 made by the state legislature during the spring of 1920 and is carrying on research. . . . While . . . it is impossible at this time to evaluate the part that radium will ultimately play in the cure of cancer, enough has been learned to assure its position in palliative treatment. Perhaps its greatest usefulness to date has been in limiting the extension of growth, decreasing the mass of cancerous tissue, reducing pain, and in general making the patient far more comfortable than without its use."—F. C. Wood, *Radium versus surgery* (Survey, June 4, 1921).—See also above: 20th century: Progress in bacteriology.

20th century.—Infantile paralysis (Anterior poliomyelitis).—"Until recently nothing was definitely known of the etiology of Poliomyelitis, infantile paralysis. Within the last few years, however, a series of studies has been made which has added considerably to our knowledge of its cause and transmission. . . . Summarizing the results obtained from laboratory investigations, the following facts regarding the cause and transmission of the disease may be said to have been practically established: (1) The specific cause of poliomyelitis is a so-called filtrable virus . . . [which] is invisible under the microscope in some of its forms. . . . While various micro-organisms have been described and claimed to be the cause of the disease, absolute proof of any one of these being the specific etiological agent is lacking. . . . (2) The virus obtained from human cases of this disease injected into monkeys produces in them characteristic effects almost identical with those produced in man. . . . (3) The virus has been demonstrated in the tissues and secretions of persons dead of poliomyelitis, namely, in the brain and spinal cord, the mesenteric glands, in the tonsils, and in the mucous secretions of the nasopharynx, the trachea and the intestines; also in the secretions of persons acutely ill with poliomyelitis, namely, in the naso-pharyngeal secretions, and in washings from the rectum; also in the naso-pharyngeal and intestinal secretions of persons convalescing from acute attacks of poliomyelitis, and in the naso-pharyngeal secretions of apparently well persons who have been more or less intimately associated with other persons suffering from poliomyelitis. (4)

Outside of the human body, the virus is reported as having been found in nature in the dust of rooms occupied by poliomyelitis patients. The virus has been shown to be very resistant to the influence of low temperatures, certain standard disinfectants (such as carbolic acid) and drying by sunlight, although it is readily killed by high temperatures. (5) As to the modes by which the virus may enter the human body to cause infection, these can be only inferred from experiments which have been made on animals. . . . Although the results obtained from laboratory experiments concerning natural modes of infection are somewhat inconclusive, they would seem to indicate that the most probable means of transmission of the disease in nature are such as usually serve to transmit secretions from infected persons to the respiratory (or digestive) tract of others, namely, by . . . direct or indirect, immediate or intermediate, personal contact. . . . But by whatever means the virus may be transmitted, having once gained entrance into the body, it circulates with the blood stream and thus produces the disease. One attack of poliomyelitis apparently confers a high degree of immunity. Recurrent cases and second attacks have been reported. During and since the . . . epidemic of poliomyelitis in 1916, original investigations as to the cause of the disease have been undertaken by the Research Laboratories of the Department of Health."—*Monograph on the epidemic of poliomyelitis* (New York City Health Reports, 1917, pp. 82-88).

20th century.—Trypanosomes.—"John Atkins, a British naval surgeon, in 1734, on his return from a voyage from West Africa, gave a clear description of cases of sleeping sickness as it occurred on the Guinea coast. 'The Sleepy Distemper (common among the Negroes) gives no other previous Notice, than a want of Appetite two or three days before; their sleeps are sound and Sense and Feeling very little. . . . Young people are more subject to it than the old; and the Judgment generally pronounced is Death, the Prognostick seldom failing.' . . . Winterbottom in his African travels in 1803 mentioned the disease under the name of 'kondee.' . . . In 1870 Lewis in Calcutta first described the mammalian species of trypanosoma in the blood of a rat. *Trypanosoma lewisi*, now known to be transmitted by the rat flea *Ceratophyllus fasciatus*, or the rat louse *Hamatopinus spinulosus*. In the following year Evans found a similar parasite *Trypanosoma evansi*, to be the cause of the disease among horses in India, known as 'surra.' Fifteen years later, 1895, Bruce in Africa showed that nagana, a similar disease affecting both horses and cattle, was also due to another species of trypanosoma, and that, as had been strongly suspected the infection was transmitted from animal to animal by means of the bite of a species of tsetse fly, *Glossina morsitans*. Up to 1800, trypanosomes had been found only in animals and not in man. In 1800 Nepveu found a trypanosome in the blood of a man in Algeria, but owing to the nature of the description, the discovery did not attract wide attention. In 1901 and 1902 Ford and Dutton discovered a trypanosome in the blood of a patient in Gambia with a peculiar irregular fever and named it *Trypanosoma gambiense*. In 1902 Castellani found a trypanosome in the cerebrospinal fluid in five cases of sleeping sickness, in one of which the parasite was also present in the blood, thereby establishing a connection between the febrile stage with a trypanosome in the blood, and the sleeping sickness stage with a trypanosome in the cere-

brospinal fluid. The following year Bruce and Nabarro confirmed these observations and showed that the disease was spread by another species of tsetse fly, *Glossina Palpalis*. At first they considered the transmission by the fly as purely mechanical, but Kleine afterwards showed that the parasite undergoes true development in the body of the tsetse fly, a fact later confirmed by Bruce, Robertson, Taute, Mackie, and others. In 1910 Stephens and Fantham described as the cause of Rhodesian or a more acute form of sleeping sickness, a new species, *Trypanosoma rhodesiense*. Kinghorn and York in 1912 showed this organism to be transmitted by *Glossina morsitans*. In 1910 Chagas discovered a form of human trypanosomiasis in children, caused by *Trypanosoma cruzi*, the infection being transmitted by the bite of a beetle, *Conorhinus (Lamius megistus)*."—R. P. Strong, *Trypanosomiasis (Nelson's Living medicine, v. 2, pp. 333-334)*.

20th century.—Advance in surgical methods.—"It is, of course, notorious that life and limb are saved by preventing the diseases of wounds, and by the practical abolition of pyæmia, septicæmia, erysipelas, spreading gangrene and suppuration. But . . . the operative technique of surgery owes much of its progress to a less well recognised result of completely aseptic wound treatment. Apart from the graver infections almost every wound was formerly associated with at least some surrounding inflammation. . . . Five and twenty years ago [written in 1910] most wounds did present some such change and . . . therefore we could not be certain when we operated that the injury inflicted would be absolutely located to the tissues mechanically divided. To-day this is no longer the case. To-day we know that the injury done by the knife is limited to the track of the knife itself and that it will be repaired with a rapidity so great that after a very few hours the most extensive dissections have left no obvious trace. It is probably to this fact above all others that we owe the comparatively recent extension of surgical dissection. The surgeon of to-day must avoid the cutting or bruising of structures essential to life. There are tracts in the brain and in the spinal cord which he must not divide; there are a few—a very few—great blood-vessels which he must not tie or cut. But with these reservations he finds no barrier to his work. He can safely open, divide and restore the great canals and ducts of the body. He can freely expose all its cavities and work in their interior with calm and confidence. He is not limited to a short direct incision giving an imperfect view of what lies beneath; he can fully reveal the parts he has to attack. . . . The tissues of the body can now be laid bare as in the dissecting room: great joints can be opened up and closed again with almost every fibre in its original position; the abdomen is opened without cutting its muscular walls; the brain is exposed, not through a hole of say an inch in diameter, but by turning down the side of the skull like the lid of a box and replacing it at the end of our operation; even the heart itself has of late been similarly dealt with. The perfection of asepsis has so wholly altered our methods that the greatest advances in the mechanical art of surgery in my day have I think been due to a freedom of action. . . . Modern surgical operations have taught us much of the real nature of disease. So long as treatment is confined to the use of drugs or to a few comparatively simple operations with a minimum of anatomical dissection we rarely become thoroughly acquainted with pathological processes: the affected parts are never seen during life and we have either no visual knowl-

edge of them at all or such knowledge as we do possess is derived from an examination made after death, when the ultimate stage alone is seen, and seen under conditions far different from those of life. But let surgery enter the field and we acquire at once an actual concrete picture, certainty replaces conjecture and we act with confidence instead of groping in the dark. How many centuries of 'clinical observation' went by without the recognition of appendicitis, of the results of pyloric obstruction, or of the diseased conditions of the gall bladder. But now that the surgeon has fully explored the once dreaded abdomen all these things have become common-places of our knowledge. . . .

And again we are led by a most natural transition to another factor in the evolution of surgery. The extension of operative treatment has demanded and obtained an accuracy of diagnosis which was formerly not required and not obtained. The operating surgeon has been obliged to make a call upon the physician which the latter has had to meet. . . . Five and twenty years ago if a man had a tumour of the brain or spinal cord it was of no practical importance where it lay or what it was. But the moment that surgery can undertake to remove some of these tumours and thus to cure the patient it becomes absolutely essential to know their exact size and position and as far as possible even their shape and consistency. . . . In 1876 Lawson Tait first removed some stones from the gall bladder and the daring operation was regarded as one which might be occasionally adopted: in 1909 Mayo Robson had collected 3,000 of such operations performed by three surgeons alone, and with a mortality of less than 2 per cent. Some 20 years ago the operation of gastro-enterostomy was introduced to surgery; it is now one of the commonest of remedial measures and many thousands have been rescued by it from the slow martyrdom of so-called dyspepsia. In 1806, an Italian surgeon, Farina, made the first attempt to suture a wound of the heart itself and in 1909 Vaughan collects 150 cases with 35 per cent. saved from certain death. Still more recently we have seen successful operations for the diseases of the heart, while an ingenious device now makes it possible to open the chest with the surrounding atmospheric pressure reduced to that in the bronchial tubes and thus to operate upon the lungs and pleura. Not long ago the diseases of the brain and spinal cord were beyond the reach of surgery but they are now attacked with no inconsiderable measure of success, although we must admit that in this branch of our work we have had many disappointments, mainly, perhaps, because diagnosis has here not kept pace with surgical requirements. And of the other great organs of the body we have said enough. Surely operative surgery had not reached finality thirty years ago, and surely we may look to the future for an evolution not less wonderful than that of the past"—Wm. Thorburn, *Evolution of surgery (pamphlet), pp. 12-18*.—"The surgery of the twentieth century has been devoted mainly to refinements, inventions and improvements in procedure." August Bier of Berlin (1861-) is famous for a new method of treating amputation stumps, and for the introduction of "intraspinal anesthesia with cocaine," in which he was preceded by James Leonard Corning, of New York, and George W. Crile, of Chile, Ohio. Ernst Ferdinand Sauerbach (1875-), professor at Marburg, Germany, "greatly advanced the possibilities of thoracic surgery," by the invention of the pneumatic chamber at negative pressure, and the positive pressure cabinet. Theodor Kocher, of Bern (1841-), is well known for his method of reducing dislocations of the shoulder-joint, and his

work on the thyroid gland. William Stewart Halsted (1852-), of New York introduced a better aseptic technic by the use of gutta percha tissue in drainage, rubber gloves, silver foil in dressing. Harvey Cushing (1869-), of Cleveland, Ohio, is famous for his marvelous neurological surgery, especially of the head and pituitary body. "Alexis Carrel (1873-), of Sainte-Foy-les-Lyon, France, a graduate of the University of Lyons . . . who came to America in 1905 . . . has revolutionized the surgery of the vascular system and made great advances in physiology and physiological surgery, for which he was made a Nobel prize man in 1912. In 1902, he published his first paper on vascular anastomoses and visceral transplantation, in which he showed that perfect end-to-end anastomosis of blood-vessels can be secured by inserting in the



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opposing ends a triple-threaded suture, which, when drawn tightly, converts the round lumen of the vessel into an equilateral triangle. . . . From end-to-end anastomosis of arteries he advanced, by means of specially invented needles and rigid asepsis, to the substitution of a lost piece of an artery, by pieces of artery or vein, and thence to the transplantation of organs from animal to animal. Thus, he has transplanted a kidney, with its vascular supply, from cat to cat, secretion of urine beginning before the end of the operation, and this feat has not only been proved successful in man, but extended to other viscera also. [The new vascular suture made possible a new and safe method of blood transfusion.] Transplantations in mass of blood-vessels, organs, viscera, and limbs have been also successful. Carrel's investigations of the latent life of arteries (1910) led to the preservation of portions of blood-vessels in cold storage for days or weeks before using them in transplantation. Lat-

terly, he has applied the principle of . . . experiments [made] on extravital cultivation of nerve-cells (1910) to the extravital cultivation and rejuvenation of tissues (1911), culminating in his remarkable experiment of keeping the excised viscera of an animal alive and functioning physiologically in vitro (1912). He has also succeeded in activating and accelerating the growth of connective tissues by dressings of thyroidal, splenic, embryonic, and other animal extracts (1913). . . . Two prominent innovations in eye surgery of recent times have been made by officers of the Indian Medical Service. The operation of extraction of cataract within the capsule was introduced by Lieut. Colonel Henry Smith in 1900, and his success with it has been remarkable. . . . Another new operation, that of sclerocorneal trephining for glaucoma, was introduced by Major Robert Henry Elliot, I.M.S., in August, 1900. The operation of von Graefe had held the field for half a century, Lagrange and Herbert had emphasized the value of sclerectomy, and even corneal trephining had been essayed by Argyll Robertson, Blanco, Fröhlich, and Freeland Fergus, but Elliot has made the operation his own by many improvements and has made it viable."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, pp. 743-746.

20th century.—European influences on medicine and sanitation in Japan, China and India.—Medical missionaries. See ASIA: European influences, etc.: 3.

1914-1918.—War medicine and surgery.—Improved sanitation.—Inoculation.—Wound irrigation.—Mortality in lung cases.—"The army surgeons engaged in . . . [the World War were] as much exposed to fire and . . . sustained as high a mortality as the line officers and infantry, and our profession . . . made a brilliant record in quick thinking and fertility of resource in meeting the difficult problems imposed upon the medical officer. Remarkable success . . . [was] attained in the prevention of typhoid fever by vaccines, in the tetravaccines employed against typhoid, the two paratyphoids, and cholera, in the destruction of the vermin which transmit typhus and other diseases, in Carrel's antiseptic treatment of wounds by the sodium hypochlorite solution (eusol), of . . . H. D. Dakin, in the employment of Wright's hypertonic solution and his autogenous vaccines against purulent wound infection, in the purification of army water-supplies by the Javel hypochlorite solution (javellisation), in the localization of projectiles in the body by the Hirtz compass, the wonderful prosthetic devices speedily improvised to serve as artificial hands and limbs, and in the training of these badly mangled defectives to earn a future livelihood, in the remarkable restorations of teeth and jaws by American dental surgeons, in the treatment of gunshot fractures by autogenous bone-grafts, in the military surgery of all parts of the body, in the effective treatment of extensive burns by the paraffin-resin solution (ambrine) of Barthe de Sandfort (kerithery), in the training of the blind and of cardiac, pulmonary, and neurotic defectives for future efficiency in life."—F. H. Garrison, *Introduction to the history of medicine*, p. 787.—"The doctor's control over wound infections is so masterly that of the wounded who survive six hours ninety per cent recover, of those who reach the field hospitals ninety-five per cent recover, and of those who arrive at the base hospitals ninety-eight per cent get well. The twin angels, anaesthetics and antiseptics, have not only enormously diminished pain and agony, but have made amputations rarer and grave crippling fewer than ever before in war history. Barely two per cent of the

wounded are crippled or permanently disabled . . . An army camp used to be a hotbed of epidemics, a breeding-place of pestilences. The soldier's worst enemy enlists with him, for what killed most men in war was not bullets, but 'bugs,' not the sword but the streptococcus. Whenever you mobilize and call to the colors a thousand men, you call with them at least twenty billion tubercle bacilli, ten billion typhoid, five billion pneumonia, and a couple of million dysentery germs. An army assembles literally primed and loaded for trouble—from the inside. . . . Inoculation protected them against typhoid; splendid feeding, with plenty of meat and fat, against pneumonia and consumption; fly campaigns against dysentery and diarrhoea; shower baths and clean underwear against spotted typhus; and quarantine against all the mild, infectious measles, summer diarrhoea, diphtheria, and influenza. The old plagues of army camps, cholera, Black Death and spotted typhus, all lifted their heads and began to 'resurrect,' in Italy, in Serbia, and in Russia, but all were promptly stamped out by modern sanitary science—cholera by isolation, disinfection, and the vaccine, Black Death by exterminating fleas, typhus by 'unlousing' and hot shower baths. . . . As for the ancient and classic plague of armies, venereal disease, in spite of the special temptations to which soldiers in the field are exposed . . . the average incidence of venereal disease in the British Army in France . . . [was] no higher than that believed to exist among men of military age in time of peace; while in the American army in France, by cutting out sentiment and treating venereal disease like any other contagious disease, it . . . [was] brought down to less than one per cent. . . . In fact, disease as a factor in the army death-rate . . . [was] almost wiped out, completely so in the sense that the amount of sickness in the camp and the deaths from disease at the front have been barely half what they were in barracks in times of peace. This magnificent result . . . [was] brought about chiefly in three ways, protection of the troops against infectious disease by the antityphoid inoculations and other sanitary measures, by surgical skill and superb hospital organization enormously increasing the recovery rate from wounds, and by the splendid way in which the armies . . . [were] fed. The greatest single sanitary triumph of the war . . . [was] the wiping out of typhoid fever by means of inoculation or vaccination. . . . As the fighting in Belgium and Northern France . . . [was] over the most intensively cultivated and richly fertilized soil in Europe, all the germs which exist in stable manure and fertilizers of all sorts . . . [were] hurled into the utmost depths and remotest corners of every wound. Unfortunately two of the deadliest germs known to surgery, the tetanus bacillus and the bacillus of gas gangrene, have their normal habitat in the intestines of the horse; therefore there was a terrific outbreak of both tetanus and gas gangrene in the very first months of the war. The tetanus or lockjaw was quickly brought down by the use of the tetanus anti-toxin, and the gas gangrene was successfully attacked by new methods of operations and irrigating the wounds. . . . [By 1918] any army medical service that . . . [lost] more than five or six per cent of its wounded . . . [considered] itself disgraced. The methods by which these wonderful savings of life and suffering have been accomplished, the triumphs of antiseptic surgery, need no description; for they are common knowledge, as well as one of the wonders of the age. The strictest and most scrupulous cleanliness, the boiling of instruments, and cleaning of surgeon's and nurses' hands—these are practiced in every hospital and taught to the rising

generation in our schools. . . . Against the tetanus bacillus we have an effective weapon, a certain shield in the form of the tetanus anti-toxin. By the mercy of Heaven, the tetanus germ is extremely slow in starting to grow in a wound, so that if a dose of the anti-toxin is injected into the blood, within one or even two days after the wound, though preferably within a few hours, it protects the body against its invasion. Against the gas-bacillus we had no such direct remedy, so a new line of defense has had to be worked out. This germ . . . is a peaceful and blameless agriculturist living in and on the soil, attacking and breaking up the decaying animals and vegetable matters contained in it, and preparing them for absorption by the roots of the plants. . . . In the course of this beneficent process, the bacillus produces a considerable amount of gas. . . . This gas in the soil is perfectly harmless, indeed probably rather beneficial than otherwise, by increasing its porousness and assisting the growth of other bacteria. But when it gets into the human body . . . some very distressing effects are produced, and it is this fact which has given to it its name—now all too familiar. . . . [Gas-gangrene was] not actively contagious or inclined to spread; which was probably because modern surgical precautions were able to bar out the pus-forming germs and prevent them from forming that 'wicked partnership' with the gas-bacillus which gave its infection wings, so to speak. As we have only just recently developed an anti-toxin, for three years of struggle and experiment we were driven to hunt for other weapons. The first hold which we got on the germs came from the fact that they are what are known as 'anaerobic'; . . . can live without air, and not only that, but are killed by, or grow very slowly in, the presence of air and oxygen. This being the case it was quite evident that our modern aseptic method of closing and sewing up all wounds tightly at the earliest possible moment, was exactly in the wrong direction. . . . Consequently it became the rule to leave all shell wounds of any considerable depth . . . as wide open as possible for the first three to five days. This at once diminished the number of our cases of gas-gangrene. The next step was the discovery that . . . all conditions which tended to lower the vitality of the wounded man, or . . . the vitality of the tissues in his wound by lack of timely and prompt attention, increased the probability of a gas-infection. The first and second preventive steps, namely, the thorough cleaning-out of all dead or dying tissues in the wound, technically known as 'debridement,' are steps in the now famous and magnificently successful Carrel treatment. . . . Dr. Flexner, of the Rockefeller Institute . . . perfected an anti-toxin against gas-gangrene . . . [which gave] excellent results, and . . . [provided] the finishing touch to our victory over gas-gangrene. . . . The only thing, apparently, [left] to be done was, so to speak, to attack them in their lair, by keeping the wounds constantly flushed with some fluid capable of destroying the growth of the germ. Scores of surgeons and bacteriologists were working on this problem, but it was first perfectly solved by the genius of a brilliant young French surgeon, Alexis Carrel, born and educated in France, who had lived for years and won national reputation in America as a discoverer and research worker in surgery. . . . His first great advance was his discovery, after months of careful observation in the hospital and experiments in the laboratory, that these bacteria could not live upon living tissue, and that, therefore, in cleaning the wound out at the first dressing, or operation, it was not necessary to get rid of all the bacteria, but

only the dead and damaged fragments and surfaces of the tissue which would furnish food for them to live upon. . . . The second great step . . . [was] that of the continual irrigation of the wounds, with an antiseptic fluid strong enough to kill the germs; but not irritating or dangerous to the tissues of the body itself. This last requirement is by no means as simple as it sounds, for ever since the very first discovery of antiseptics by Lister, the medical profession had been driven more and more strongly to the conclusion that almost all antiseptics capable of destroying germs were even more capable of damaging the tissues of the body. . . . So far had this conviction gone that the vast majority of surgeons objected to the very name 'antiseptics,' which means literally, 'against infection,' poisoning the germs after they had got into the wound. They insisted upon a new term, invented after Lister, 'asepsis,' which means 'without infection,' never allowing any germs to enter the wound from the patient's body, the surgeon's hands or instruments. The majority of our surgical operations within the last twenty years have been carried out on this aseptic plan, using no germicides on the instruments or surgeon's hands, and nothing at all in the wound except sterilized water or a little alcohol. So that it was entirely against our modern, and already traditional, practice and ideas to attempt to use antiseptics for the purpose of killing the germs in wounds. A hundred eager objections were made to prove at once that any antiseptic fluid was necessarily a poison to cell life, and must be far more dangerous to the cells of the patient's body than to the germs. This accounted, in considerable degree, for the tremendous prejudice and opposition on the part of many doctors to the Carrel treatment in the beginning, a prejudice that was scarcely creditable to the open-mindedness of the medical profession. The Dakin-Carrel antiseptic fluid might and even should do more damage to the patient's body than it did to the cells themselves, but there was absolutely no denying or getting away from the fact that a patient treated with it got well in less than half the time than under any other, and even though a few cells be destroyed, the millions left seemed to be invigorated by the process. The Carrel treatment, even with its innumerable modifications, . . . [did] more to save life, save limbs from amputation, to diminish suffering and hasten recovery than any other surgical procedure of the war. . . . The equipment for irrigating every nook and corner of the wound is the most ingenious part of the Carrel treatment, and from the fact that it is also the most visible, the one that is constantly to be seen in operations at all hours . . . it has come to be looked upon as being the treatment itself. . . . After many skillful and patient experiments by Dr. Carrel and Dr. Dakin, a young English physiologic chemist who was Dr. Carrel's associate in this part of the work, . . . the chemical which they found to . . . give [the] best practical results was . . . a modification of . . . 'chloride of lime.' . . . The Dakin solution, of course, required the most elaborate and delicate modification of the chlorine powder. . . . This was finally found to be best done by a careful addition of boric acid, and the perfected antiseptic, 'Dakin's Fluid,' is a marvel of ingenious and delicate adjustment to the particular work it has to do."—W. Hutchinson, *Doctor in war*, pp. 2-4, 6, 10-12, 16, 35-36, 134, 140, 140-150, 152-154, 156, 160-162.—At a meeting of the Paris Société de Chirurgie, in 1918, Dr. P. Duval reported on the surgical treatment of lung wounds. "Duval and Vaucher communicated the statistics on all lung wounds observed during two attacks in one surgical sector of the armies. . . . Of 161 patients, 13

were dead on arrival; 29 had been operated on at once for hemorrhage, open thorax, or severe visceral trauma; the general mortality in these emergency operation cases was 44.8 per cent. Duval and Vaucher insisted especially that a certain number of operations were necessary—not urgent—for the purposes of extracting an intrapulmonary projectile, and the lung wound . . . was then treated subsequently. Of the remaining 110 cases of lung wounds, in 17 this treatment had been applied, and expectant treatment was adopted in 102 cases. The 17 patients treated according to the general therapeutic principles usually employed in all cases of shell wounds recovered. In the 102 cases in which expectant treatment had been given, only one case terminated fatally, the result of a severe pleural infection proceeding from an unrecognized fracture of the scapula. Six cases of purulent pleurisy ended in recovery."—United States Surgeon General's Office, *Treatment of war wounds of the lung* (*Journal of American Medical Association*, June, 1918, p. 17).

1914-1920.—Experiments of colloidal gold solutions with spinal fluids. See CHEMISTRY: Physical; Laws of gases.

See also BIOLOGY; CHEMISTRY; PUBLIC HEALTH; SCIENCE: Modern; 20th century; Medicine.

ALSO IN: T. C. Albutt, *Science and modern thought*.—A. N. Buck, *Dawn of modern medicine*.—J. S. Billings, *Introductory chapter to Denis's system of surgery*.—D. A. Gorton, *History of medicine, philosophical and critical, from its origin to the twentieth century*.—J. F. Payne, *English medicine in Anglo-Saxon times*.—R. Park, *Epitome of the history of medicine*.—J. J. Walsh, *Makers of modern medicine*.—M. Foster, *Lectures on history of physiology*.—W. Stirling, *Some apostles of physiology*.—G. F. Fort, *Medieval economy during the Middle Ages*.—C. A. Mercier, *Leper houses and medieval hospitals*.—N. I. Davis, *History of medical education*.—A. Flexner, *Reports to Carnegie Foundation for advancement of teaching, Bulletins no. 4, 6*.—F. R. Packard, *History of medicine in the United States*.—S. Paget, *Memoirs and letters*.

MEDICI, most famous family in the history of Florence, rulers of the Florentine republic and patrons of art and letters. See FLORENCE: 1378-1427, to 1502-1569; BALIA OF FLORENCE; ITALY: 1510-1513.

Genealogical table. See FLORENCE: 1378-1427.

MEDICI, Alessandro de' (d. 1537), duke of Florence, 1531-1537. See FLORENCE: 1502-1569.

MEDICI, Catharine de' (1519-1589), queen of Henry II of France, regent during the minority of Charles IX, 1500-1563. See FRANCE: 1559-1561; 1560-1563; 1570-1572; 1572 (August).

ALSO IN: P. Van Dyke, *Catherine de Medicis*.

MEDICI, Cosimo, or Cosmo, de', the Elder (1389-1464), Florentine despot. As patron of the arts, literature and philosophy, inaugurated a new era in learning; to maintain his supremacy without violence, employed the so-called "civil methods" which extinguished the freedom of Florence without destroying the forms of the republic. See FLORENCE: 1433-1464; MILAN: 1447-1454.

MEDICI, Cosimo de', the Great (1510-1574), grand duke of Tuscany, 1569-1574. Conquered Sienna, 1555. See FLORENCE: 1502-1569.

MEDICI, Cosimo de' (1590-1621), grand duke of Tuscany, 1600-1621.

MEDICI, Cosimo de' (d.1723), grand duke of Tuscany, 1670-1723.

MEDICI, Ferdinand de' (c. 1549-1609), grand duke of Tuscany, 1587-1600.

MEDICI, Ferdinand de' (1610-1670), grand duke of Tuscany, 1627-1670.

MEDICI, Francesco de' (1541-1587), grand duke of Tuscany, 1574-1587.

MEDICI, Giovan Gastone de' (1670-1737), grand duke of Tuscany, 1723-1737.

MEDICI, Giovanni de' (1360-1429), Florentine merchant. Son of Averardo Biceci de' Medici, and virtual founder of Medicean greatness. See FLORENCE: 1378-1427.

MEDICI, Giovanni de'. See LEO X.

MEDICI, Giovanni de' (Giovanni delle Bande Nere) (1498-1526), Italian general.

MEDICI, Giuliano de' (1453-1478), son of Piero de' Medici. Murdered in 1478. See FLORENCE: 1469-1492.

MEDICI, Giuliano de' (1470-1516), son of Lorenzo the Magnificent. Assumed the power in Florence, 1512. See FLORENCE: 1502-1560.

MEDICI, Giulio de'. See CLEMENT VII.

MEDICI, Ippolito de' (1511-1535), Italian cardinal, son of Giuliano. Leader of movement to overthrow Duke Alessandro. See FLORENCE: 1502-1560.

MEDICI, Lorenzo de', the Magnificent (1449-1492), Florentine statesman and patron of the arts and letters. The virtual head of the Florentine state from 1469 until his death. See FLORENCE: 1469-1492; 1502-1569; ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1450-1595.

MEDICI, Lorenzo de' (1492-1519), duke of Urbino.

MEDICI, Marie de' (1573-1642), queen of Henry IV of France. Regent during the minority of Louis XIII, 1610-1617. See FRANCE: 1610-1610; 1620-1622; 1630-1632.

MEDICI, Piero de', the Gouty (1414-1469), ruler of Florence, 1464-1469. See FLORENCE: 1458-1469.

MEDICI, Pietro de' (1471-1503), ruler of Florence, 1492-1494, son of Lorenzo de' Medici. Surrendered Leghorn and Pisa to the invading army of Charles VIII of France, 1494. See FLORENCE: 1490-1498; ITALY: 1404-1496.

MEDICI, Salvstro de' (d. 1388), gonfalonier of Florence, 1378. See FLORENCE: 1378-1427.

MEDIEVAL CIVILIZATION, ART, COMMERCE, SCIENCE, ETC. See EUROPE: Middle Ages; ARCHITECTURE: Medieval; COMMERCE: Medieval; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval; SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance; etc.

MEDINA, Al-Medina, or Medinat-RasuI-AI-lah (City of the Prophet), city on an oasis in the Hedjaz, Arabia, about 250 miles north of Mecca. (See ARABIA: Map.) After Mohammed's "hegira" or flight from Mecca to Yathrib in 622, the latter city became the seat of Islam and was then known as Medina, the City of the Prophet. Mohammed died and was buried there in 632. His tomb, which is within the Mosque, is for the Mohammedan a place of meritorious pilgrimage, second only to Mecca.—See also RELIGION: 622.

661.—Capital moved to Damascus. See CALIPHATE: 661.

683.—Stormed and sacked.—In the civil war which followed the accession of Yezid, the second of the Omeyyad caliphs, Medina was besieged and stormed by Yezid's army and given up for three days to every imaginable brutality on the part of the soldiery. The inhabitants who survived were made slaves.—Based on W. Muir, *Annals of the early caliphate*, ch. 50.—See also CALIPHATE: 715-750.

Also in: W. Irving, *Mahomet and his successors*, v. 2, ch. 47.

1811.—Captured by Wahhabis. See WAHHABIS.

1920.—Provision for easy access by Treaty of Sèvres. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part III: Political clauses: Hedjaz.

MEDINA DEL RIO SECO, Battle of. See SPAIN: 1808 (May-September).

MEDINA SIDONIA, Don Alonso Perez de Guzman el Bueno, 7th Duke of (1550-1615), Spanish admiral. Became commander-in-chief of the Spanish Armada, 1588; defeated by the English, 1588. See ENGLAND: 1588: Spanish Armada; Destruction of Armada.

MEDIOLANUM, modern Milan. See MILAN.

MEDIOMATRICI, original form of the name of the city of Metz, which had been called Divodurum by the Gauls at an earlier day. See METZ: Original names.

MEDISM, MEDIZED GREEKS.—During the wars of the Persians against the Greeks, the former had many friends and allies, both secret and open, among the latter. These were commonly called Medized Greeks, and their treason went by the name of Medism.—See also GREECE: B. C. 492-491.

MEDITERRANEAN FUND, special fund provided by the United States Congress, in 1803, for the War with Tripoli.—Based on H. Adams, *History of the United States*, v. 2, ch. 7.

MEDITERRANEAN, or SOUTHERN, RACE. See EUROPE: Introduction to historic period: Distribution of races; FRANCE: People.

MEDITERRANEAN SEA, inland sea confined between the south of Europe, and the north of Africa, bounded on the east by Asia Minor. It communicates with the Atlantic by the narrow Straits of Gibraltar, while the Suez canal has been cut through the Isthmus of Suez to provide a passageway through the Red sea to the Indian ocean. "For this sea . . . the Greeks had no distinctive name, because it had so long been practically the only one known to them; and Strabo can only distinguish it as 'the Inner' or 'Our' Sea. . . . The now familiar appellation of Mediterranean is in like manner first used by Solinus [third century], only as a convenient designation, not as a strictly geographical term. . . . The first extant author who employs it distinctly as a proper name is Isidorus, who wrote in the seventh century."—E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography*, v. 2, ch. 21, sect. 1, ch. 23, sect. 2, foot-note, ch. 31.—The shores of the Mediterranean "include about 3,000,000 square miles of the richest country on the earth's surface, enjoying a climate where the extremes of temperature are unknown, and with every variety of scenery, but chiefly consisting of mountains and elevated plateaux. . . . The Mediterranean region is the emblem of fertility and the cradle of civilization. . . . It is a mere gulf, which, now bridged by steam, rather unites than separates the two shores. Civilization never could have existed if this inland sea had not formed the junction between the three surrounding continents, rendering the coasts of each easily accessible, whilst modifying the climate of its shores. . . . For all practical purposes the Mediterranean may be accepted as being, what it is popularly supposed to be, a tideless sea; but it is not so in reality. In many places there is a distinct rise and fall."—R. L. Prayfair, *Mediterranean, physical and historical* (Smithsonian Institution, Annual Report, Board of Regents, July, 1800).—See also EUROPE: Geography.—"For many centuries the commerce of the world was limited to the Mediterranean, and when it extended in the direction of the East it was the merchants of the Adriatic, of Genoa, and of Pisa who brought the merchandise of India, at an enormous cost, to the Mediterranean by land, and who monopolized the carrying trade by sea. . . . Long before the rise of Greece and Rome its shores and islands were the seat of an advanced civilization. . . . For a long time the Phœnicians had no rivals in navigation, but subse-

quently the Greeks—especially the Phocians—established colonies in the western Mediterranean, in Spain, Corsica, Sardinia, Malta, and the south of France, through the means of which they propagated not only their commerce but their arts, literature, and ideas. . . . The [Phœnician] Tyrian colony of Carthage became the capital of . . . a vast empire, which, from its situation midway between the Levant and the Atlantic Ocean, enabled it to command the Mediterranean traffic. . . . [But when the might of Rome arose and threatened Carthage, the Carthaginians had no friends. When Sicily was lost to them, they lost control of the Mediterranean, and when Carthage was destroyed Rome became absolute mistress of the seas. Under Roman rule, commerce languished on the Mediterranean, and did not again flourish until the early Middle Ages.—See also COMMERCE: Ancient: B. C. 1000-600, to B. C. 200-A. D. 800.] Commerce, discouraged by the Romans, was highly honored by the Arabs, and during their rule the Mediterranean recovered the trade which it possessed in the time of the Phœnicians and Carthaginians. . . . “The Carolingian empire gave an impulse to the maritime power of the south of Europe, and in the Adriatic the fleets of Venice and Ragusa monopolized the traffic of the Levant. . . . English commercial intercourse with the Mediterranean was not unknown even from the time of the Crusades, but it does not appear to have been carried on by means of . . . [English] vessels till the beginning of the sixteenth century. In 1522 it was so great that Henry VIII appointed a Cretan merchant, Censio de Balthazari, to be ‘master, governor, protector, and consul of all and singular the merchants and others, his lieges and subjects, within the port, island, and country of Crete or Candia’ . . . Piracy has always been the scourge of the Mediterranean, but we are too apt to associate its horrors entirely with the Moors and Turks. The evil had existed from the earliest ages; even before the Roman conquest of Dalmatia the Illyrians were the general enemies of the Adriatic. . . . After the discovery of America and the expulsion of the Moors from Spain, piracy developed to an extraordinary extent. The audacity of the Barbary Corsairs seems incredible at the present day. . . . The most formidable of . . . [the] piratical states was Algiers, a military oligarchy, consisting of a body of janissaries, recruited by adventurers from the Levant, the outcasts of the Mohammedan world, criminals and renegades from every nation in Europe. . . . Nothing is sadder or more inexplicable than the shameful manner in which this state of things was accepted by civilized nations. [The United States alone refused to submit to the exactions of the pirates.] Many futile attempts were made during successive centuries to humble their arrogance, but it only increased by every manifestation of the powerlessness of Europe to restrain it. It was reserved for . . . Lord Exmouth, by his brilliant victory in 1816, forever to put an end to piracy and Christian slavery in the Mediterranean. His work, however, was left incomplete. . . . The French took the only means possible to destroy this nest of ruffians by the almost unresisted occupation of Algiers and the deportation of its Turkish aristocracy.”—R. L. Prayfair, *Mediterranean, physical and historical* (Smithsonian Institution, Annual Report, Board of Regents, July, 1890).—See also COMMERCE: Medieval: 12th-16th centuries; BARBARY STATES: 1505-1510, and after.

“The Mediterranean is the greatest trade route in the world. It is the gateway from the Occident to the Orient. Through it a large part of the maritime commerce of England and Germany passes. . . .

For centuries Russia has looked with unsatisfied eyes toward the Bosphorus as an outlet from the Black Sea, through which her wheat would find a market. . . . The Balkan states were moved by the same urge to gain access to some port upon the Mediterranean; otherwise their exports and imports must pass through hostile territory. Austria, like Russia, desired free access to the Mediterranean, unchecked by Italy. The new industrial forces which have revolutionized Europe during the past fifty years were all crowding against the barriers which, in one way or another, shut them out from free contact with the outside world. At the outbreak of the . . . [World] war England was mistress of the Mediterranean, which is in fact a British sea. Its western and eastern entrances are controlled by Gibraltar and the Suez Canal. . . . [Since the acquisition of the control of the canal,] British capital has flowed into Egypt in immense sums. The protection of these investments and the prevention of internal disorder was responsible for the bombardment of Alexandria and the occupation of Egypt in 1882. This . . . marks the beginning of the struggle for colonial possessions on the part of all the greater powers and the identification of their governments with the bankers and concession-seekers that . . . brought a great part of the uncivilized world under the dominion of Great Britain, France, and Germany. The Mediterranean has since been the storm centre of Europe. The colonial policies of England, France, Germany, Italy, and Russia have, in the main, revolved about the control of the lands bordering upon it. Crowded out of Egypt by Great Britain, France turned to northwest Africa. She had possessed Algeria since 1830. [See ALGERIA: 1830-1898.] . . . She expanded eastward from Algeria into Tunis, over which she soon acquired a protectorate. To the west, in Morocco, her task was more difficult. Morocco covered an immense stretch of territory bordering upon the Mediterranean and Atlantic Ocean. Here Great Britain, Germany, and Spain claimed interests, all more or less fictitious but all loaded with potential controversies. The interest of England was political. Her chief concern was that the shores of Morocco should not fall into the hands of a hostile power that would menace Gibraltar and her exclusive control of the western entrance to the Mediterranean. The claims of Germany were based upon concessions from the Sultan, while those of France were those of the nearest colonial power fearing a dangerous neighbor. Germany also possessed mining concessions granted to the Krupps and Mannesmanns. She had banking, dock, and other concessions granted by the Sultan. She was assured of an open door for her trade and commerce by the Sultan. These were the explosives which nearly ignited into war in 1911 by the landing of French troops in Morocco, the bombardment of Casablanca, and the penetration of French troops into the Moroccan capital. . . . Only a miracle saved Europe from war as a result of the Morocco incident. But the seeds of hatred between Germany and England were laid, and in the minds of many the Morocco imbroglio was the prelude to the . . . [World] war. From 1911 dates the tension, the aggravated suspicions, and the irritation of peoples among the warring nations of Europe. As a result of the Morocco settlement, France, a nation friendly to Great Britain, gained control of all the lands bordering upon the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, to the east of Egypt and Tripoli. England's trade route to the Orient was made further secure, while France obtained possession of a country rather rich in minerals but with small purchasing power for goods and com-

modities. [See also MOROCCO: 1895-1906, to 1911-1914.] Balked in the west, German activity turned even more feverishly to the Near East—to Turkey and Asia Minor. As early as 1889 the Deutsche Bank had obtained concessions for certain railroad-building in Turkey. In that year the Kaiser made a trip to Constantinople to bring about a commercial and financial rapprochement between Germany and Turkey. . . . One of the terms of the German-Turkish understanding was a concession for the building of the Bagdad Railway, which began at the Bosphorus and extended through to the Persian Gulf at Koweit. . . . By means of this all-rail route Germany would free herself from the British control of the Mediterranean; she would avoid Gibraltar and the Suez Canal. She would be able to place her surplus products in the markets of the Orient far more expeditiously than would Great Britain, compelled to follow an all-sea route. [See also BAGDAD RAILWAY.] . . . One morning European foreign offices were electrified by the news that a British gunboat had entered the harbor of Koweit and that the British flag was flying over this port. Great Britain had again balked Germany in her ambitions about the Mediterranean; she had balked the dream of years of a drive to the East and a free, unimpeded highway from the North Sea to the Indian Ocean. . . . [The struggle for the Mediterranean is] almost as old as the world. It is a struggle for the historical centre of civilization. To Great Britain it involves not only Egypt and the Suez Canal, it involves the life-cord that unites the empire. It involves the free passage of her ships of war, of her merchant marine, of raw materials and food supplies. Were this life-cord severed, the eastern colonies and dependencies would be open to attack or severance from the mother country."—F. C. Howe, *Struggle for the Mediterranean* (*Scribner's Magazine*, May, 1916).—See also LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF.

ALSO IN: B. Roseli, *New Mediterranean* (*North American Review*, Nov., 1922).

MEERSEN, or Mersen, Treaty of (870). See BELGIUM: Ancient and medieval period.

MEERUT, city, district and division of British India, in the United Provinces; important military station. The city was the scene of the first outbreak in the Indian Mutiny, 1857. See INDIA: 1857; 1857 (May); also Map.

MEGABYZUS, or Megabazus, Persian general. See ATHENS: B. C. 460-455.

MEGALESIA, or Megalenses, ancient Roman theatrical performances in honor of the goddess Cybele. See LUDI.

MEGALITHIC TOMB. See EUROPE: Prehistoric; Neolithic period.

MEGALOPOLIS, ancient Greek city, built in Arcadia, on the banks of the Helisson. It was the seat of the federal diet of Arcadia, and served as a protection for southern Arcadia against the Spartans.

B. C. 371.—Founding of city. See GREECE: B. C. 371.

B. C. 317.—Defense against Polysperchon. See GREECE: B. C. 321-312.

B. C. 222.—Destruction and restoration.—The last exploit of Cleomenes of Sparta, in his struggle with the Achæan League and its ally, the king of Macedonia, before the fatal field of Sellasia, was the capture of Megalopolis, 222 B. C. Most of the citizens escaped. He offered to restore their town to them if they would forsake the League. They refused, and he destroyed it, so utterly that its restoration was believed to be impossible. But in the following year the inhabitants were brought back and Megalopolis existed again, though never

with its former importance.—Based on Polybius, *Histories*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 55 and after.

B. C. 194-183.—Achæan League.—"The city of Megalopolis held at this time [194-183 B. C.], the same sort of position in the Achæan League which the State of Virginia held in the first days of the American Union. Without any sort of legal pre-eminence, without at all assuming the character of a capital, Megalopolis was clearly the first city of the League, the city which gave the nation the largest proportion of its leading statesmen. Megalopolis, like Virginia, was 'the Mother of Presidents,' and that too of Presidents of different political parties. As Virginia produced both Washington and Jefferson, so Megalopolis, if she produced Philopomen and Lykortas, produced also Aristainos and Diophanes."—E. A. Freeman, *History of federal government*, ch. 9, sect. 2.—See also GREECE: B. C. 280-146.

MEGARA.—Megara, the ancient Greek city and state whose territory lay between Attica and Corinth, forming part of the Corinthian isthmus (see GREECE: Map of ancient Greece), "is affirmed to have been originally settled by the Dorians of Corinth, and to have remained for some time a dependency of that city. It is further said to have been at first merely one of five separate villages—Megara, Heræa, Peiræa, Kynosura, Tripodiskus—inhabited by a kindred population, and generally on friendly terms, yet sometimes distracted by quarrels [see CORINTH: B. C. 745-725]. . . . Whatever may be the truth respecting this alleged early subjection of Megara, we know it in the historical age, and that too as early as the 14th Olympiad, only as an independent Dorian city, maintaining the integrity of its territory under its leader Orsippus, the famous Olympic runner, against some powerful enemies, probably the Corinthians. It was of no mean consideration, possessing a territory which extended across Mount Geranea to the Corinthian Gulf, on which the fortified town and port of Pégæ, belonging to the Megarians, was situated. It was mother of early and distant colonies,—and competent, during the time of Solon, to carry on a protracted contest with the Athenians, for the possession of Salamis; wherein, although the latter were at last victorious, it was not without an intermediate period of ill-success and despair."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 9.—See also GREECE: Migrations of Hellenic tribes.

Circa B. C. 570.—Loss of Salamis to Athens. See ATHENS: B. C. 700-565.

B. C. 458-456.—Alliance with Athens in war with Corinth and Ægina. See GREECE: B. C. 458-456; ATHENS: B. C. 458.

B. C. 447.—Taken by Sparta from Athens. See ATHENS: B. C. 447.

B. C. 446-445.—Rising against Athens. See GREECE: B. C. 440-445.

B. C. 431-424.—Athenian invasions and ravages. See ATHENS: B. C. 431.

B. C. 339-338.—Resistance to Philip of Macedonia. See GREECE: B. C. 357-336.

B. C. 243.—In Achæan League. See GREECE: B. C. 280-146.

MEGARA, suburbs and gardens of Carthage. See CARTHAGE: Divisions.

MEGASTHENES (fl. c. 300 B. C.), ancient Greek writer and teacher. See HISTORY: 14; EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 15th-5th centuries: India.

MEGIDDO.—The Valley of Megiddo, forming the western part of the great Plain of Esdraelon, in northern Palestine—stretching from the valley of the Jordan to the Mediterranean sea, along the course of the river Kishon—was so often the meeting place of ancient armies that it seems to have

come to be looked upon as the typical battleground, and apparently the name Armageddon in *Revelation* is an allusion to it in that sense. The ancient city of Megiddo has been identified in site with the present town of Ledjun (El Lejjun), which is the legio of the Romans—the station of a Roman legion.

MEGIDDO, Battles of (c. 1500 B. C. and 608 B. C.). See **EGYPT**: About B. C. 1700-1400; **JEW**: B. C. 724-604.

MEGISTANES.—"The king [of the Parthian monarchy] was permanently advised by two councils, consisting of persons not of his own nomination, whom rights, conferred by birth or office, entitled to their seats. One of these was a family conclave, . . . or assembly of the full-grown males of the Royal House; the other was a senate comprising both the spiritual and the temporal chiefs of the nation, the Sophi, or 'Wise Men,' and the Magi, or 'Priests.' Together these two bodies constituted the Megistanes, the 'Nobles' or 'Great Men.'"—G. Rawlinson, *Sixth great oriental monarchy*, ch. 6.

MEHEMET AALI. See **AALI**, **MEHEMET**.

MEHEMET ALI (1760-1849), viceroy of Egypt. Involved in the disputes with the Mamelukes; waged a war against the Wahhabis, 1811-1818; and conquered Nubia, Sennaar, Kordofan and Syria. See **EGYPT**: 1803-1811; 1840-1869; **BOSPORUS**: 1832-1878; **TURKEY**: 1831-1840.

MEHERRINS, American aboriginal tribe. See **IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY**: Tribes of the south.

MEHRING, Franz (1846-1919), German writer and socialist. See **SOCIALISM**: 1912-1918.

MEHTAR, Persian title. See **INDIA**: 1895 (March-September).

MEHUL, Etienne Henri (or Etienne Nicolas) (1763-1817), French composer. Studied with Hauser at Laval Dieu convent; later in Paris with Edelmann and Gluck; furthered the development of instrumental parts in orchestral composition, carrying on Gluck's ideas; his opera "Joseph" is his best known work.—See also **MUSIC**: Modern: 1774-1864; 1860-1908.

MEIGHEN, Arthur (1874-), Canadian statesman. Member of the House of Commons, 1908-1917; became secretary of state, minister of mines, minister of interior, and superintendent-general for Indian affairs, 1917; became prime minister and secretary of state for external affairs, 1920. See **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921; **CANADA**: 1920 (July).

MEIGS, Fort, Siege of (1813). See **U. S. A.**: 1812-1813: Harrison's northwestern campaign.

MEIJI, name applied to the era following the restoration of the authority of the emperor of Japan in 1868. It means "enlightened rule." The name Meiji Tenno was given after his death to the emperor Mutsuhito. See **JAPAN**: 1804-1912.

MEISSEN, Heinrich von (Frauenlob, pseud.) (c. 1260-1318), German poet and minnesinger. See **MUSIC**: Medieval: 12th-14th centuries.

MEISSEN, German medieval margravate, now a part of Saxony. See **SAXONY**: 1180-1553.

MEISSONIER, Jean Louis Ernest (1815-1891), French genre and historical painter. See **PAINTING**: Europe (19th century).

MEISTERSANGER. See **GERMAN LITERATURE**: 1250-1650; **MUSIC**: Medieval: 12th-14th centuries.

MEISZAGOLA, Battle of. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 6.

MEKRAN, coastal region of western Baluchistan and southeastern Persia bordering on the Arabian sea.

1910-1911.—Gun running of the Afghans and Baluchis. See **BALUCHISTAN**: 1903-1914.

MELA, Pomponius (fl. c. 43 A. D.), Latin writer and geographer. See **ALBION**.

MELANCHTHON, Philipp (1497-1560), German reformer and associate of Luther. Became professor of Greek at Wittenberg, 1518; took a bachelor's degree in theology, 1519, but was never ordained; his first contribution to the Reformation was his "Locci Communes," 1521; became professor of theology, 1526; revised the "Augsburg Confession," 1530; drew up the "Apology," 1530; took part in the various Protestant conferences with the Roman Catholics.—See also **EDUCATION**: Modern: 15th-16th centuries: Relation of Renaissance and Reformation; 16th century: Melanchthon; **EUROPE**: Renaissance and Reformation: Melanchthon an aid to Luther; **ASTRONOMY**: 130-1600; **PAPACY**: 1517-1521; 1530-1531.

MELANESIA.—"Under the name of Melanesia, we comprehend all the islands and groups of islands stretching from New Guinea in the west to Viti or Fiji in the east; that is to say, the domain chiefly occupied by the Papuan race. The series begins with the still but little explored New Guinea, with its surrounding islands; and the Admiralty Isles, New Britain, and New Ireland, to the north-east. Proceeding still eastwards, or rather to the south-east, we meet with the Solomon Islands, the Santa Cruz or Queen Charlotte group, the New Hebrides, the French settlements of New Caledonia and the Loyalty Islands, and lastly, considerably farther east, the Fiji Archipelago."—A. R. Wallace, *Australasia* (*Stanford's compendium of geography*), ch. 22.—The Solomon islands, the Santa Cruz group, and the northern New Hebrides were discovered by Spanish navigators between 1567 and 1606. The French voyager Bougainville added some discoveries in 1768, which were carried farther by Captain Cook in 1774. Between these explorations and the visits of whalers and missionaries in the present century there is every reason, says Dr. Coddington, "to believe that all memory and tradition of white men had died away in the Solomon Islands and Santa Cruz."—R. H. Coddington, *Melanesians*.—The Solomon islands are controlled by Great Britain. A German protectorate was declared in 1884 over the New Britain and New Ireland groups and several adjacent islands, which were then renamed the Bismarck Archipelago. The Admiralty islands were also taken by Germany. New Caledonia, the Loyalty islands, and the New Hebrides belong to France, the former being a penal colony.—By the Versailles Treaty (1919) the Bismarck Archipelago was given under mandate to Australia.—See also **BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO**; **NEW HEBRIDES**.

First movements of the people. See **PACIFIC OCEAN**: People; B. C. 2500-A. D. 1500.

Their mythology. See **MYTHOLOGY**: Oceanic: Melanesian.

MELAS, Baron Michael von (1729-1806), Austrian commander. Served at Cassano, 1799; Genoa, 1799; and Marengo, 1800. See **FRANCE**: 1800-1801 (May-February).

MELAZKERD, or Manzikert, Battle of (1071). See **ARMENIA**: 908-1085.

MELBOURNE, William Lamb, 2nd Viscount (1770-1848), English statesman. Entered Parliament, 1806; chief secretary for Ireland, 1827; succeeded to the peerage, 1829; home secretary, 1830-1834; prime minister, 1834; 1835-1841.—See also **ENGLAND**: 1834-1837; 1837-1839; 1841-1842.

MELBOURNE, important seaport, capital of the state of Victoria, Australia, on Hobson's bay in the harbor of Port Philip, the entrance of which is forty miles south of the city. (See **AUSTRALIA**: Map.) It has the largest population of any Australian city (about 743,000 in 1919), and occupies

a high rank among British overseas ports; its tonnage being second only to that of Sydney in the over-seas trade. It was first given the native name of Dootigola, afterwards changed to Melbourne in honor of Viscount Melbourne, premier of Great Britain. Melbourne is an important manufacturing town, and commercial center. Almost the entire commerce of the state is carried on there, the chief exports being wool, hides, cattle, gold, silver and sheep. The first settlement was made in 1835. (See AUSTRALIA: 1787-1840.) In 1841 the population had leaped to 11,000, and scarcely more than a decade later the discovery of the Ballarat gold field brought such an influx of adventurers that the town increased rapidly in size, and had a population of 100,000 by 1842 when it was incorporated as a city, and sent representatives to the Parliament of New South Wales, of which colony it was still a part. In 1807, however, the Port Phillip district broke away from New South Wales, and became a separate colony under the name of Victoria, with Melbourne as the capital. After the federation of the Commonwealth, Melbourne became the temporary capital, and the first federal parliament was opened in the Exhibitions buildings in Carlton Gardens in 1901 by the Duke of York (George V).—See also AUSTRALIA: 1787-1840.

MELCHITES, name applied in the religious controversies of the sixth century, by the heretical Jacobites, to the adherents of the orthodox church.—Based on H. F. Tozer, *Church and the Eastern empire*, ch. 5.

MELIAN FAMINE. See GREECE: B. C. 416.

MELIGNANO, or Marignano, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1515.

MELIKOV, Loris, Count. See LORIS-MELIKOV, MICHAEL TARIELOVICH.

MELILLA, Spanish penal settlement and fortified station on the northern coast of Morocco. It was created a municipality in 1918, and in 1922 had a population of 42,500.

MÉLINE, Félix Jules (1838-), French statesman. Secretary of agriculture, 1883-1885; president of the Chamber of Deputies, 1888-1889; premier and minister for agriculture, 1896-1898; presidential candidate, 1899. See FRANCE: 1896 (April-May); 1898 (May-November).

MELLON, Andrew William (1854-), American cabinet officer. Appointed secretary of the treasury, 1921. See U. S. A.: 1921 (March); President Harding's cabinet.

MELORIA, Battle at (1284). See PISA: 1063-1203.

MELOS, Siege and massacre of. See GREECE: B. C. 416; ATHENS: B. C. 419-416.

MELUN, Siege of (1420), one of the important sieges in the second campaign of the English king, Henry V, in France.

MELVILLE, or Melvill, Andrew (1545-1622), Scottish reformer. See PURITANS: 1620-1660.

MEMEL, Baltic port, about seventy miles north of Königsberg, formerly belonging to Germany. "Article 99 of the Versailles Treaty compelled Germany to cede this extreme northeast corner of her territory, with a population of 140,000 [to the Allies], but as at that time the western powers had not yet decided what to do with Lithuania itself, they left the fate of the city to be determined later. The matter is now to be settled by the Council of Ambassadors. . . . Though governed by an allied high commissioner, Memel still has German police, German clergy, German school teachers, German law officers. Until last August German was the only language permitted in the courts; and even now Lithuanian is formally ex-

cluded from 130 primary schools. As to the nationality of the district, the Allied Supreme Council on June 18, 1919, made to the German protests against Article 99 the following reply: "The region in question has always been Lithuanian; a majority of the population is of Lithuanian origin and tongue. . . . The delay in the final attribution of the city has been used by the German residents of Memel, members of the German 'Heimathbund' of Berlin, to agitate, not in favor of being reintegrated with the Reich, which would seem at present impossible, but to have Memel put upon the same status as Danzig, that is, 'internationalized' as a free city. In order to counteract the Lithuanian element, they have proposed that Poles be invited to participate in the administration, to which the Lithuanians object that the part of the River Niemen bordered by Poland is not navigable."—*Christian Science Monitor*, Nov. 15, 1922.—"The Council of Ambassadors, on Feb. 16, awarded the Memel district, which Lithuanian forces had seized, to Lithuania, on the condition that the city and its vicinity be left autonomous, and that Poland and other interested nations be allowed to use the port. . . . Lithuania, on Feb. 20, notified the League Council of her acceptance of the terms of her sovereignty over Memel."—*New York Times Current History*, Apr., 1923, p. 160.—See also VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part III: Section X.

MEMORIAL DAY, United States. See DECORATION DAY.

MEMPHIS, capital of ancient Egypt, a short distance south of modern Cairo. "The foundation of Memphis is the first event in Egyptian history, the one large historical incident in the reign of the first king, who emerges a real man from the shadowland which the Egyptians called the reign of the gods. . . . Menes, the founder of Memphis and Egyptian history, came from the south. Civilization descended the Nile. His native place was Thisis, or This, in Upper Egypt, a still older town, where his shadowy predecessors ruled. . . . A great engineering work was the first act of the builder. He chose his site . . . but the stream was on the wrong side, flowing below the Libyan chain, flowing over where the city should be, offering no waterbulwark against the invader from the eastern border. So he raised, a few miles to the south, a mighty dyke, and turned the river into the present course, founding the city on the west bank, with the desert behind and the Nile before. . . . The new city received a name which reflects the satisfaction of the ancient founder; he called it Mennufre, 'the Good' or 'Perfect Mansion.' This was the civil name. . . . The civil name is the parent of the Greek Memphis and the Hebrew Moph, also found in the form Noph."—R. S. Poole, *Cities of Egypt*, ch. 2.—See also EGYPT: Old empire and the middle empire; BABYLONIA: Map.

B. C. 6th century.—Destroyed by Persians. See EGYPT: B. C. 525-332.

A. D. 640-641.—Surrender to Moslems. See CALIPHATE: 640-646.

MEMPHIS, city in southwestern Tennessee, on the Mississippi river. Generals Andrew Jackson and James Winthrop and Judge John Overton laid out the town and gave it its name. It was incorporated in 1826, and was granted an amended charter in 1899, which provided for a commission form of government. The population in 1920 was 162,351.

1862.—Naval fight on the river.—Surrender of city to Union forces. See U. S. A.: 1862 (June: On the Mississippi).

1907.—Surrender of charter and evasion of prohibition law. See TENNESSEE: 1887-1908.

1921.—Poverty relief. See CHARITIES: United States: 1921.

MENAM RIVER, largest river of Siam. See SIAM.

MENANDER (342-201 B. C.), Greek dramatist. See LATIN LITERATURE: B. C. 234-103.

MENANDER (fl. 2nd century B. C.), Græco-Indian dynasty. Referred to in Buddhist literature as Milinda. See INDIA: B. C. 231-A. D. 480.

MENAPII, Belgic tribe. See BELGÆ; IRELAND: Tribes of early Celtic inhabitants.

MÉNARD, René (1604-1661), French Jesuit missionary. See WISCONSIN: 1658-1669.

MENCIUS (372-287 B. C.), Chinese moral teacher. "He studied under K'wung Chi, the grandson of Confucius; and after having attained to a perfect apprehension of the roms or Way of Confucius, became, at the age of about forty-five, Minister under Prince Hsüan of the Ch'i State. But the latter would not carry out his principles, and Mencius threw up his post. Thence he wandered away to several States, advising their rulers to the best of his ability, but making no very prolonged stay. He then visited Prince Hui of the Liang State, and abode there until the monarch's death in B. C. 310. After that event he returned to the State of Ch'i and resumed his old position. In B. C. 311 he once more felt himself constrained to resign office, and retired finally into private life, occupying himself during the remainder of his days in teaching and in preparing the philosophical record which now passes under his name. He lived at a time when the feudal princes were squabbling over the rival systems of federation and imperialism, and he vainly tried to put into practice at an epoch of blood and iron the gentle virtues of the Golden Age. His criterion was that of Confucius, but his teachings were on a lower plane, dealing rather with man's well-being from the point of view of political economy. He was therefore justly named by Chao Ch'i the Second Holy One or Prophet, a title under which he is still known. He was an uncompromising defender of the doctrines of Confucius, and he is considered to have effectually 'snuffed out' the heterodox schools of Yang Chu and Mo Ti."—H. A. Giles, *History of Chinese literature*, pp. 35-37.—"While Confucius did not claim to be an originator but only a transmitter, Mencius was an independent and original thinker. He expounded the teachings of his great Master, and also added his own reflections on the nature of man and the essentials of good government. He held an extremely optimistic view as to the original goodness of human nature, and believed that it was possible for man by his own efforts to reach the state of perfection. His sayings are now included among the principal classics of Chinese literature, and he himself is regarded as being second only to Confucius."—F. L. H. Pott, *Sketch of Chinese history*, p. 29.—See also CONFUCIANISM: Origin and principles.

MENDAÑA DE NEYRA, Alvaro de (1541-1595), Spanish navigator and explorer. See MARIQUESAS ISLANDS.

MENDEL, Gregor Johann (1822-1884), Austrian botanist. See EVOLUTION: Mendel's law.

MENDELEEFF, Dmitri Ivanovich (1834-1907), Russian chemist. Famous for his work on the Periodic Law. See CHEMISTRY: General: Modern: Lavoisier's theories; SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Chemistry.

MENDELSSOHN, Moses (1729-1786), German-Jewish philosopher. See JEWS: Germany: 18th-19th centuries; Zionism: Definition; also Language and literature.

MENDELSSOHN-BARTHOLDY, Jakob

Ludwig Felix (1800-1847), German composer. Studied with Berger, Zelter, and Moscheles; produced the "Octet" for strings (Opus 20), 1825; "Midsummer Night's Dream," overture, 1827; appointed conductor of the Düsseldorf Festival, 1833; accepted the conductorship of the Gewandhaus concerts, Leipzig, 1835, and was instrumental in the founding of the Leipzig Conservatory; produced the oratorios "Saint Paul," at Düsseldorf, 1836; and "Elijah" at Birmingham, England, 1846.—See also MUSIC: Modern: 1818-1880.

MENDEZ, Joaquin (1862-), Guatemalan diplomat. Representative at the Paris peace conference, 1919. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

MENDICANT ORDERS. See CHRISTIANITY: 11th-16th centuries; MONASTICISM: 13th century; PAPACY: 1122-1250; ABBEY: Architectural features; BEGUINES; BENEDICTINE ORDERS; BLACK FRIARS; DOMINICAN FRIARS; FLAGELLANTS; FRANCISCAN FRIARS; OLIVETANS; also PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1600; 1000: Spanish friars; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 912-1257; England: Early Oxford; MINIMS.

MENDING FENCES, American political expression for the custom frequently followed by congressmen or other officials, when seeking reelection, of returning to their home districts to examine and improve the party machinery.

MENDON, Destruction of (1676). See NEW ENGLAND: 1676-1678.

MENDOZA, Antonio de, Count of Tendilla (c. 1485-1552), Spanish administrator. First viceroy of New Spain, 1535-1549; viceroy of Peru, 1550-1552. See LATIN AMERICA: 1535-1700; MEXICO: 1535-1822; PERU: 1550-1816.

MENDOZA, Diego Hurtado de (1503-1575), Spanish statesman and writer. See SPANISH LITERATURE: 1500-1600.

MENDOZA, Pedro de (c. 1487-1537), Spanish explorer. See BUENOS AIRES: 1535-1542; PARAGUAY: 1515-1557.

MENELIK II (Sahala Mariem) (1844-1913), king of Abyssinia, 1889-1913. Officially known as the *negus negusti*, or king of kings, of Ethiopia. See ABYSSINIA: 1896-1897; 1902; 1907-1920; 1913-1920.

MENENDEZ DE AVILÉS, Pedro (1510-1574), Spanish naval officer. Appointed governor of Cuba and Florida, and founded St. Augustine, 1565. See FLORIDA: 1564-1565; 1565; BUCCANEERS: French Buccaneers.

MENES, founder of the first historical dynasty of Egyptian kings. See EGYPT: Historical antiquity; MEMPHIS.

MENESTRIERS, minstrels of medieval France. See MUSIC: Medieval: 12th century.

MÉNFO, Battle of (1044). See HUNGARY: 972-1116.

MENGS, Antony Raphael (1728-1779), German painter. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

MENGWE, or Mingo, name by which the Iroquois Indians were known to the Delawares. See ALLEGHANS; MINGOES.

MENHIR.—Meaning literally "long-stone." The name is usually given to single, upright stones, sometimes very large, which are found in the British islands, France and elsewhere, and which are supposed to be the rude sepulchral monuments of some of the earlier races, Celtic and pre-Celtic.—Based on J. Lubbock, *Prehistoric times*, ch. 5.—See also EUROPE: Prehistoric: Neolithic period.

MENIN, town of Belgium, ten miles north of Lille, France.

1706.—Taken by Marlborough. See NETHERLANDS: 1706-1707.

1713.—Ceded to Holland. See NETHERLANDS: 1713-1715.

1744.—Captured by the French. See AUSTRIA: 1743-1744.

1914-1918.—British offensive in the Flanders campaigns. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: w, 12; w, 19; 1915: II. Western front: e, 2; 1917: II. Western front: d, 13; d, 16 to 20; 1918: II. Western front: c.

MENKARA, or Menkaura. See MYCERINUS.

MENNONITES.—“The Mennonites take their name from Menno Simons, born in Witmarsum, Holland, in 1492. He entered the priesthood of the Roman Catholic Church; . . . renounced Catholicism early in 1536, and was baptized at Leeuwarden. In the course of the following year he was ordained a minister in what was then known as the Old Evangelical or Waldensian Church. From this time on to his death, in 1550, he was active, . . . traveling through northern Germany, and preaching everywhere. The churches which he organized as a result of his labors rejected infant baptism and held to the principle of non-resistance. A severe persecution began to make itself felt against his followers, the Mennonites, and, having heard accounts of the colony established in the New World by William Penn, they began to emigrate to Pennsylvania near the close of the 17th century. . . . Successive immigrations from Holland, Switzerland, Germany, and, in the last twenty-five years, from southern Russia, have resulted in placing the great majority of Mennonites in the world on American soil, in the United States and Canada.”—H. K. Carroll, *Religious forces of the United States*, ch. 28.—“Since their settlement in this country [the United States], a number of minor divisions have taken place among the Mennonites occasioned by divergent views on some questions, but of late years the feeling has developed among nearly all branches that closer union and coöperation along certain common lines of gospel work would be desirable.”—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, pt. 2, p. 416.—In 1920, there were 887 churches of the denomination with 82,722 members.—See also BRETHREN, RIVER.

MENOCAL, Mario Garcia (1867-), president of Cuba, 1912-1921. See CUBA: 1912-1914; 1921 (January-March).

MENOMINEES, tribe of North American Indians. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; SACS.

MENOU, Jacques François, Baron de (1750-1810), French general. Succeeded Kléber in command of the army in Egypt, 1800. See FRANCE: 1800 (January-June).

MENPTAH, Egyptian pharaoh. See EGYPT: About B. C. 1350-1200.

MENSHEVIKI, minority party in Russia. See BOLSHEVIKI: Origin of name; Development and political form; RUSSIA: 1917 (August).

MENTAL TESTS FOR CHILDREN. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Intelligence tests.

MENTANA, Battle of (1867). See ITALY: 1867-1870.

MENTZ. See MAINZ.

MENTZEL, Saxon minister. Betrayed official papers to Frederick II of Prussia. See GERMANY: 1755-1756; 1756.

MEQUACHAKE TRIBE. See SHAWANESE.

MERAN, Dukes of. See TYROL: Origin.

MERBECK, or Marbeck, John (died c. 1585), English theological writer and musician. See MUSIC: Modern: 1540-1672.

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

MERCANTILE SYSTEM, economic policy, developed by the European states after the breakdown of feudalism, which emphasized the national economy rather than the local and territorial. See COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 17th-18th centuries; Mercantile system; TARIFF: 17th-18th centuries; 1776; ECONOMICS: 17th-18th centuries.

MERCED, Order of La, order of knighthood founded by King Jayme, of Aragon especially for the collecting of money with which to ransom captives from the Moors.

MERCENARIES, Revolt of the. See CARTHAGE: B. C. 241-238.

MERCENARY SOLDIERS. See MILITARY: ORGANIZATION: 5; 7; 15; 16; 18; 30; 35; 36.

MERCER, Sir Harvey Frederic (1858-), British general. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: c, 13, ii.

MERCER, Fort, on the Delaware river, New Jersey. See U. S. A.: 1777 (January-December).

MERCHANT ADVENTURERS.—“The original Company of the Merchant Adventurers carried on trade chiefly with the Netherlands. . . . In distinction from the staplers, who dealt in certain raw materials, the Merchant Adventurers had the monopoly of exporting certain manufactured articles, especially cloths. Though of national importance, they constituted a strictly private company, and not, like the staplers, an administrative organ of the British government. The former were all subjects of the English crown; the staplers were made up of aliens as well as Englishmen. . . . To carry on foreign trade freely in wool as well as in cloth, a merchant had to join both companies. . . . The earliest charter granted to it as an organized association dates from the year 1407. Their powers were greatly increased by Henry VII. The soul of this society, and perhaps its original nucleus, was the Mercers' Company of London. . . . Though the most influential Merchant Adventurers resided in London, there were many in other English towns. . . . The contrast between the old Gild Merchant and the Company of Merchant Adventurers is striking. The one had to do wholly with foreign trade, and its members were forbidden to exercise a manual occupation or even to be retail shopkeepers; the other consisted mainly of small shopkeepers and artisans. The line of demarcation between merchants and manual craftsmen was sharply drawn by the second half of the sixteenth century, the term ‘merchant’ having already acquired its modern significance as a dealer on an extensive scale. Besides the Company of Merchant Adventurers trading to the Low Countries—which during the eighteenth century was called the Hamburg Company—various new Companies of Merchant Adventurers trading to other lands arose in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, especially during the reigns of Elizabeth and her immediate successors. Among them were the Russian or Muscovy Company, the Turkey or Levant Company, the Guinea Company, the Morocco Company, the Eastland Company, the Spanish Company, and the East India Company.”—C. Gross, *Gild merchant*, pp. 148-156.—See also COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 16th-17th centuries; Industry and trade in England; Merchant trading companies; East India Company: British.

MERCHANT CLASS: Its appearance in Europe. See EUROPE: Modern: Rise of middle classes.

MERCHANT GUILD. See GUILDS: Types of guilds.

MERCHANT MARINE: Belgium.—Reconstruction. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XII. Reconstruction: b, 2.

Japan.—Growth of ship building. See COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1896-1917.

United States.—Development. See COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1789-1820; 1820-1920.

United States.—Right of search granted to revenue-cutter service. See REVENUE-CUTTER SERVICE, UNITED STATES.

Founding of International Mercantile Marine Company, 1902. See TRUSTS: 1902.

Effect of disappearance at outbreak of World War. See FOOD REGULATION: 1914-1915.

Vessels lost in World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: e; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 6.

Armed Merchantmen.—International law concerning right of search. See ARMED MERCHANTMEN; WASHINGTON CONFERENCE ON LIMITATION OF ARMAMENTS.

MERCHANT TRADING COMPANIES. See COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 16th-17th centuries: Merchant trading companies; also MERCHANT ADVENTURERS.

MERCIA, Kingdom of.—A kingdom formed at the close of the sixth century by the West Angles, on the Welsh border, or March. The people who formed it had acquired the name of Men of the March, from which they came to be called Mercians, and their kingdom Mercia. In the next century, under King Penda, its territory and its power were greatly extended, at the expense of Northumbria.—Based on J. R. Green, *Making of England*.—See also ENGLAND: 547-633.

MERCIER, Auguste (1834-1921), French general. Responsible for the conviction of Dreyfus, 1894. See FRANCE: 1894-1895.

MERCIER, Desiré Félicien François Joseph, Cardinal (1851-), Belgian ecclesiastic and philosopher. Held the chair in Aquinas' philosophy at Rome, 1882-1906; consecrated archbishop of Malines and primate of Belgium, 1906; made cardinal, 1907; wrote on metaphysics, psychology and philosophy. His most important work is entitled, "Les origines de la psychologie contemporaine," 1897. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: y; 1916: X. German rule, etc.: b, 1; b, 3; BELGIUM: 1919: Reconstruction.

MERCILESS PARLIAMENT. See PARLIAMENT, ENGLISH: 1388.

MERCURY, Roman name for Greek god Hermes. See MYTHOLOGY: Grecian: Anthropomorphic character, etc.; Germanic: Identification of Germanic gods, etc.

MERCY, Franz, Baron von (c. 1508-1645), German general. See GERMANY: 1640-1645; 1643-1644.

MERCY FOR THE REDEMPTION OF CHRISTIAN CAPTIVES, Order of.—"For the institution of this godlike order, the Christian world was indebted to Pope Innocent III., at the close of the 12th century. . . . The exertions of the order were soon crowned with success. One third of its revenues was appropriated to the objects of its foundation, and thousands groaning in slavery were restored to their country. . . . The order . . . met with so much encouragement that, in the time of Alberic, the monk (who wrote about forty years after its institution), the number of monastic houses amounted to 600, most of which were situated in France, Lombardy and Spain."—S. A. Dunham, *History of Spain and Portugal*, v. 4, bk. 3, sect. 3, ch. 4.

MERE ANGÉLIQUE, (Angélique Arnauld) (1591-1661), abbess of Port Royal. See PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1602-1700.

MEREDITH, Edwin Thomas (b. 1876), American cabinet officer. Secretary of agriculture, Janu-

ary, 1920-March, 1921. See IOWA: 1920-1921; U. S. A.: 1919-1920.

MEREDITH, George (1828-1909), English novelist. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1832-1880; 1880-1920.

MERGENTHEIM (formerly Marienthal), town in Württemberg, Germany, fifty-six miles northeast of Stuttgart.

1525.—Becomes city of Teutonic knights. See POLAND: 1333-1572.

1645.—Battle of. See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

1809.—Incorporated by Napoleon with kingdom of Württemberg. See GERMANY: 1809 (July-September).

MÉRICI, Angela, Saint (1470-1540), founder of the order of the Ursulines. See URSULINES.

MERIDA, town in the province of Badajoz, Spain, known in ancient times as Emerita Augusta. See EMERITA AUGUSTA.

712.—Siege and capture by Arab-Moors. See SPAIN: 711-713.

MERIDIAN, city in Mississippi, ninety miles east of Jackson. It was occupied by the Federal army under Sherman in 1864. See U. S. A.: 1863-1864 (December-April: Tennessee-Mississippi).

MÉRIMÉE, Prosper (1803-1870), French author. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1921: Realistic school.

MERINOS, Spanish local judges. See AUDIENCIAS.

MERIT MEDAL, Certificate of: United States.—Army and navy.—Pattern and origin. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VIII. War medals: a.

MERIT SYSTEM OF APPOINTMENT AND PROMOTION. See CIVIL SERVICE REFORM.

MERLIN (de Douai), Philippe Antoine, Count (1754-1838), French jurist and revolutionist. Member of Estates-General, national assembly, Committee of Public Safety; president of the convention after the Reign of Terror; minister of justice, 1795-1799; member of directory, 1797; became councillor of state under Napoleon, 1808; banished, 1815; returned to France, 1830; admitted to Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques.

MERLIN (de Thionville), Antoine Christophe (1762-1833), French revolutionist. Member of legislative assembly, 1791-1792; of Convention, 1792-1795; of Council of Five Hundred until 1798; proposed law confiscating property of the émigrés; took active part in revolution of August 10, 1792; appointed director-general of posts, 1798.

MERMNADÆ, third dynasty of the kings of Lydia, beginning with Gyges and ending with Croesus.—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 17.

MERODACH-BALADAN I (died c. 609 B. C.), ruler of Chaldea. Conquered Babylon, 721 B. C. See CHALDEA.

MEROË, ancient kingdom in Ethiopia. See ETHIOPIA.

MEROM, Battle of.—The final great victory won by Joshua in the conquest of Canaan, over the Canaanite and Amorite kings, under Jabin, king of Hazor, who seems to have been a kind of overking, or chieftain among them.—Based on Dean Stanley, *Lectures on the history of the Jewish church*, v. 1, lect. 12.

MEROPIUS, philosopher of Tyre, founder of the Abyssinian church. See ABYSSINIA: A. D. 4th century.

MEROVINGIANS, or Merwing, name of the first dynasty of Frankish kings established in power over entire Frankish kingdom by Clovis. See FRANKS: 448-456; 500-768; BURGUNDY: 534-752; SWITZERLAND: 536-843.

MERRIMAC, American collier. It was sunk in an attempt to blockade the Spanish fleet in the harbor of Santiago, Cuba, 1898. See ALABAMA, 1898; U. S. A.: 1898 (April-June).

MERRIMAC, American frigate. It was abandoned by the Federal government in 1861 and reconstructed as a Confederate armored warship and renamed the *Virginia*. See U. S. A.: 1862 (May; Virginia): Evacuation of Norfolk by the rebels; WARSHIPS: 1856-1905.

MERRIMAC AND MONITOR, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (March): Battle of Monitor and Merrimac.

MERRITT, Wesley (1836-1910), American general. Served in the Federal army during the Civil War; commander of American forces in the Philippine islands, 1898. See U. S. A.: 1898 (July-September).

MERRY DEL VAL, Raphael, Cardinal (1865-), Roman Catholic prelate of English birth. Became archbishop of Niçæa, 1900; pontifical secretary of state, 1903-1914; became archbishop of St. Peter's, Rome, 1914.

MERRYMAN, John, Case of. See U. S. A.: 1861-1863.

MERRYMOUNT, settlement in Massachusetts, founded in 1625, within the present limits of Quincy. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1622-1628.

MERSEBERG, Battle of (933). See HUNGARY: 934-955.

MERSEN, or Meerssen, Treaty of (870). See BELGIUM: Ancient and medieval period.

MERSENNE, Marin (1588-1648), French mathematician. See SCIENCE: Modern; 17th century.

MERSEY, John Charles Bigham, 1st Viscount (1840-), British lawyer. Conducted inquiry into the sinking of the *Lusitania*. See LUSITANIA CASE.

MERSINA, seaport, in the vilayet of Adana, on the southern coast of Asia Minor. In 1909 Armenian inhabitants were massacred by the Turks. See TURKEY: 1909.

MERTÆ, Celtic tribe in ancient Britain. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

MERTON, Statutes of (1236).—A body of laws enacted at a Great Council held at Merton, in England, under Henry III, which marks an important advance made in the development of constitutional legislation.—Based on G. W. Prothero, *Simon de Montfort*.

MERV, Meru, or Maur.—Merv is the name of an oasis and town now included in Transcaspia. It occupies a strategic position at the northwestern entrance into Afghanistan. Previous to the siege by Jenghiz Khan in 1221, it was one of the most famous cities of the East. In Hindu, Parsi, and Arab tradition it is looked upon as the ancient Paradise where the human race was born, and whence the Aryan tribes dispersed to rule the earth. It formed one of the satrapies of the ancient Persian empire, and a province of the Græco-Syrian, Parthian, and Persian kingdoms. During the fifth century it was the seat of a Christian archbishopric of the Nestorian church. Between 646 and 874 it was ruled by the Arabs, during whose domination it was one of the greatest schools of learning. In 1040 it fell into the hands of the Seljuk Turks under whom Merv reached the zenith of fame and splendor, as a luxurious and cultivated metropolis in a rich and bountiful agricultural district. "Merv Shahjahan" it was then called—"Meru, king of the world." In 1884 the Russians annexed the oasis as part of the Transcaspian province of the empire. In 1898 a strategical railroad from Merv to the frontier of Afghanistan was opened up. The

town of "New Merv," situated on both banks of the Murghab, is now the metropolis of the oasis, and a center for the export of the products of the district.

ALSO IN: II. Landsdell, *Russians at Merv and Herat*.—E. O'Donovan, *Merv oasis*.—C. Marvin, *Merv*.

MERVILLE, town in France, about eighteen miles west of Lille. In 1918 it was taken by the Germans and retaken by the British. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: d, 8; k, 5.

MERWAN I, caliph of Bagdad, 638-684.

MERWAN II, caliph of Bagdad, 744-750. See CALIPHATE: 715-750.

MERWING. See MEROVINGIANS.

MERXPLAS, penal colony established in northern Belgium, on the Dutch border. See PRISON REFORM: Belgium.

MESCALEROS, North American Indian tribe. See APACHE GROUP.

MESNE PROCESS FOR DEBT. See COMMON LAW: 1838.

MESNIL ST. GEORGES, village four miles west of Montdidier and about the same distance south of Cantigny, northern France. It was occupied by the Germans in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: d, 3.

MESOPOTAMIA, or Irak: Geography, area and population.—Strategic importance.—"Between the outer limits of the Syro-Arabian desert and the foot of the great mountain-range of Kurdistan and Luristan intervenes a territory long famous in the world's history. . . . Known to the Jews as Aram-Naharaim, or 'Syria of the two rivers' [see JEWS: Early Semitic migrations]; to the Greeks and Romans as Mesopotamia, or 'the between-river country'; to the Arabs as Al-Jezireh, or 'the island,' this district has always taken its name from the streams [the Tigris and Euphrates] which constitute its most striking feature."—G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies: Chaldaea, ch. 1*.—See also BABYLONIA: Position and importance, etc.; Land and its characteristics; TURKEY: The land; Map of Asia Minor.—It has an area of 143,250 square miles. Agriculture is being developed, and dates, cotton, wheat and barley are produced, but the chief product of the country is oil. "The revised figures of a recently completed census [1920] of Mesopotamia show the total population of the country to be 2,840,282. . . . Though the present population is exceedingly small, yet the evidences are abundant to justify the expectation that, under a decent government, there will be a steady increase fully commensurate with the needs of the country as it gradually develops. In less than three years the population of Basra, for example, increased nearly threefold: thousands of Arabs, who fled from Turkish oppression, having returned from India and elsewhere. All the other towns in Mesopotamia show signs of a substantial increase in numbers. Thousands of Indians were permanently domiciled in Kerbela, Kasmain, and Bagdad before the war; the pilgrims from Persia have enormously increased in numbers, and the sacred shrines will no doubt continue to attract many pilgrims and permanent settlers when the government has banished brigandage and blackmail from all the pilgrim roads. Some of the finest workers in Bagdad are the Christian Chaldeans who come from the villages in the north. If there is work to be done and decent pay to be had, the prolific Kurds will give up their predatory habits; for, in the absence of the patronage hitherto accorded them by the Turkish régime, they will be forced to provide sustenance for their large families by more legitimate means. The enormous emigra-

tion of the Christian population which took place under the stress of persecution and oppression will also cease when security of life and adequate employment can be found in Mesopotamia. There is not the slightest cause for anticipating that the development of the country will be retarded on account of the sparseness of the population. Some of the same circumstances that will henceforth give a new value to Mesopotamia will also help to provide it with the necessary population. This country will have a strategic value for many years to come. . . . The Berlin-Bagdad Railway was no fanciful enterprise; it threatened the existence of the British Empire. . . . [See BAGDAD RAILWAY: Plan.] The most obvious reason for placing the highest possible value upon Mesopotamia is its central geographical position in view of the development of overland traffic and the needs of aerial navigation. Here are the natural junctions for some of the greatest and busiest of the world's future highways."—J. T. Parfit, *Marvellous Mesopotamia*, pp. 15, 21-23.

B. C. 1700-1400.—Conquest by Egypt.—Invaded by Thothmes. See EGYPT: About B. C. 1700-1400; ASSYRIA: Later Assyrian empire.

A. D. 165.—Ceded to Rome. See PARTHIA. 3rd-4th centuries.—Struggles of Persians and Romans for control. See PERSIA: 226-627.

762.—Bagdad made capital by Caliph Mansur. See BAGDAD: 762-763.

1178.—In dominions of Saladin. See JERUSALEM: 1144-1187.

1914.—Entered by British. See WORLD WAR: 1914: IV. Turkey: i.

1915-1916.—Campaigns in war against Turks.—Battles of Kut-el-Amara and Ctesiphon. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: c; 1916: VI. Turkish theater: a; a, 5.

1915-1919.—Welfare work of Y. M. C. A. See YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: World War activities: 1915-1919.

1916 (May).—Ceded to Great Britain by Treaty of Sykes-Picot. See SYRIA: 1908-1921.

1917.—Recapture of Kut-el-Amara and Bagdad by the British.—Following events. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1; a, 2.

1918.—British and German operations.—Dunster force.—Speech of Lloyd George giving declaration of British war aims.—Yielded to Allies by Turkey in Armistice. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: a; b, 6; X. Statements of war aims: a; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: d.

1919.—Question as to British control at Paris conference. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Question of Syria and Mesopotamia.

1919-1921.—Effect of Treaty of Versailles.—Oil controversy. See ARABIA: 1919: Results of treaty; U. S. A.: 1920 (November): Note to Great Britain; 1921 (April-September).

1920-1921.—Becomes British mandatory.—Assumes ancient name.—Feisal crowned king.—In accordance with the Treaty of Sèvres, 1920, Mesopotamia became a mandatory state of Great Britain. (See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Contents of treaty: Part III: Political clauses: Syria and Mesopotamia.) In 1921 the country assumed its ancient name of Irak, and Emir Feisal was crowned king at Bagdad, August 23, of the same year.

1922.—Treaty with Great Britain.—"A treaty of alliance between Great Britain and Iraq [Irak] was signed at Bagdad on Oct. 10 [1922]. Although in British official quarters it is said that the treaty represents a first step toward the granting of self-government to Iraq, . . . Great Britain will continue to exercise a very large amount of

control, so large in fact that the independence of the new kingdom is merely nominal. Sir Percy Cox, British High Commissioner and Consul General, in the course of a statement on the occasion of signing the treaty, said that everything would be done to secure the speedy delimitation of the frontiers, so that Iraq might be in a position, when the treaty and the subsidiary agreements had been ratified and the organic law had been brought into operation, to apply for membership in the League of Nations."—*New York Times Current History*, Dec. 1922, p. 490.

1922-1923.—Represented at Genoa Congress of Oriental Peoples.—Frontiers of Irak maintained by Near East conference. See GENOA CONGRESS OF ORIENTAL PEOPLES; NEAR EAST CONFERENCE.

Architecture.—Religion. See ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: Mesopotamia; TEMPLES: Stage of culture represented, etc.; YEZIDAS.

ALSO IN: J. Davidson, *Political strategy: Mesopotamia (Nineteenth Century and After, Nov., 1922)*.

MESSALINA, Valeria (d. 48 A. D.), third wife of the Roman emperor, Claudius. Condemned on a charge of treason and executed, 48 A. D. See ROME: Empire: 47-54.

MESSAPIANS, ancient tribe in Italy. See CENOTRIANS.

MESSARA, Plain of. See CRETE: Effect of position, etc.

MESSENE, or Messana, capital of the district of Messenia, in the southwestern part of Peloponnesus, Greece.

B. C. 369-362.—Founding of city by liberated Messenians.—Rebuilding after destruction by Sparta. See MESSENIAN WARS: GREECE: B. C. 404-359; B. C. 371-362.

B. C. 338.—Territories restored by Philip of Macedon. See GREECE: B. C. 357-336.

B. C. 184.—Revolt from Achæan League.—A faction in Messene which was hostile to the Achæan League having gained the ascendancy, 184 B. C., declared its secession from the League. Philopœmen, the chief of the League, proceeded at once with a small force to reduce the Messenians to obedience, but was taken prisoner and was foully executed by his enemies. Bishop Thirlwall pronounces him "the last great man whom Greece produced." The death of Philopœmen was speedily avenged on those who caused it and Messene was recovered to the League.—Based on C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, ch. 65.

ALSO IN: Plutarch, *Philopœmer*.

MESSENE, Sicily. See MESSINA.

MESSENIAN WARS.—The Spartans were engaged in two successive wars with their neighbors of Messenia, whose territory, adjoining their own in the southwestern extremity of Peloponnesus, was rich, prosperous and covetable. "It was unavoidable that the Spartans should look down with envy from their bare rocky ridges into the prosperous land of their neighbours and the terraces close by, descending to the river, with their well-cultivated plantations of oil and wine. Besides, the Dorians who had immigrated into Messenia had, under the influence of the native population and of a life of comfortable ease, lost their primitive character. Messenia seemed like a piece of Arcadia, with which it was most intimately connected. . . . Hence this was no war of Dorians against Dorians; it rather seemed to be Sparta's mission to make good the failure of the Dorization of Messenia which had sunk back into Pelagic conditions of life, and to unite with herself the remains of the Dorian people still surviving there. In short, a variety of motives contributed to provoke a forcible extension of

Spartan military power on this particular side."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 1.—The First Messenian War was commenced B. C. 745 and lasted twenty years, ending in the complete subjugation of the Messenians, who were reduced to a state of servitude like that of the Helots of Sparta. After enduring the oppression for thirty-nine years, the Messenians rose in revolt against their Spartan masters, 685 B. C. The leader and great hero of this Second Messenian War was Aristomenes, whose renown became so great in the despairing struggle that the latter was called among the ancients the Aristomenean War. But all the valor and self-sacrifice of the unhappy Messenians availed nothing. They gave up the contest, 608 B. C.; large numbers of them escaped to other lands and those who remained were reduced to a more wretched condition than before. (See also SPARTA: B. C. 743-511.) "The whole of Laconia [B. C. 404] was shaken by an earthquake, which opened great chasms in the ground, and rolled down huge masses from the highest peaks of Taygetus: Sparta itself became a heap of ruins, in which not more than five houses are said to have been left standing. More than 20,000 persons were believed to have been destroyed by the shock, and the flower of the Spartan youth was overwhelmed by the fall of the buildings in which they were exercising themselves at the time."—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, ch. 17.—The Helots of Sparta, especially those who were descended from the enslaved Messenians, took advantage of the confusion produced by the earthquake, to rise in revolt. Having secured possession of Ithome, they fortified themselves in the town and withstood there a siege of ten years,—sometimes called the Third Messenian War. The Spartans invited the Athenians to aid them in the siege, but soon grew jealous of their allies and dismissed them with some rudeness. This was one of the prime causes of the animosity between Athens and Sparta which afterward flamed out in the Peloponnesian War. In the end, the Messenians at Ithome capitulated and were allowed to quit the country; whereupon the Athenians settled them at Naupactus, on the Corinthian gulf, and so gained an ardent ally, in an important situation.—Based on Thucydides, *History*, bk. 1, sect. 101-103.—Nearly one hundred years later (360 B. C.) when Thebes, under Epaminondas, rose to power in Greece and Sparta was humiliated, it was one of the measures of the Theban statesman to found at Ithome an important city which he named Messene, into which the long oppressed Messenians were gathered from slavery and from exile, and were organized in a state once more, free and independent.—Based on C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, ch. 9, 17, 30.—See also GREECE: B. C. 8th-5th centuries: Growth of Sparta; B. C. 425.

ALSO IN: G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 78.

MESSIDOR, tenth month of the French revolutionary calendar. See CHRONOLOGY: French revolutionary era, etc.

MESSINA, or **Messene**, important town in northeastern Sicily, built on the harbor and Straits of Messina, which take their name from the town. The estimated population in 1915 was 537,348. Calabria can be seen across the straits which are here only three and a half miles wide, while at the promontory of Faro they are but two miles across. "Zancle was originally colonised by pirates who came from Cyme the Chalcidian city in Opicia. . . . Zancle was the original name of the place, a name given by the Sicels because the

site was in shape like a sickle, for which the Sicel word is Zancle. These earlier settlers were afterwards driven out by the Samians and other Ionians, who when they fled from the Persians found their way to Sicily. Not long afterwards Anaxilas, the tyrant of Rhegium, drove out these Samians. He then re-peopled their city with a mixed multitude, and called the place Messene, after his native country."—Thucydides, *History* (tr. by Jowett), bk. 6, sect. 4.

B. C. 396.—**Destruction by the Carthaginians.** See SYRACUSE: B. C. 397-396.

B. C. 264.—**Mamertines.** See PUNIC WARS, FIRST; ROME: Republic: B. C. 264-241.

831.—**Capture by Saracens.** See SICILY: 827-878.

1860.—**Capture by Garibaldi.** See ITALY: 1850-1861.

1908-1909.—**Disastrous earthquakes.** See ITALY: 1908-1909.

MESSINES, village and ridge in western Belgium about six miles south of Ypres. It was taken by the Germans in 1914 and retaken by the New Zealanders in 1917. The Germans captured it again in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: u, 8; w, 14; 1917: I. Summary: b, 3; II. Western front: d, 1, to d, 3; 1918: II. Western front: d, 6; m.

MESTA.—"So that raw wool might be readily procured, the Catholic Kings recognized and even extended the privileges of the great corporation of the *Mesta*. Starting from La Mancha and Extremadura in April, flocks of sheep annually ravaged Castile, returning in September to the place whence they had come. The *cañada real*, or royal sheepwalk, was set aside for their exclusive use, and a prohibition was placed on clearing, working, or enclosing any part of that strip. In fact the sheppens ventured beyond the legal limits, and although required by law to pay damages in such cases were so powerful that they rarely did so. Withal, the stimulus to manufacturing was almost purely artificial, and the Spanish cities, even Barcelona, found competition with foreign cloths and other goods too keen. In the main, Spain continued to be a raw material land, exporting primary articles to foreign countries, in return for manufactures. Attempts were made to encourage agriculture, but the spirit of legislative interference and the superior importance accorded the grazing industry were not conducive to progress. The menace of the *Mesta* was responsible for the almost complete destruction of forestry and agriculture in many regions which were suitable to development in those respects, while the irrigation ditches of Andalusia and other former Moslem lands were too often allowed to decay."—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, pp. 228-229.—See also SPAIN: 1750-1788.

ALSO IN: J. Klein, *Mesta: A study in Spanish economic history*.

MESTIZO, in Spanish America, a person of mixed blood, especially the opposing of a person of European stock and an Indian, Negro, or Malay. See CHILE: 1540-1778; RACE PROBLEMS: Previous to 1000.

METABOLISM. See EVOLUTION: Summary.

METALS: Early use and alloy of.—**Production of precious metals.** See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Early industrial processes; MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1848-1803.

METAPONTUM. See SIRUS.

METASTASIO (Pietro Antonio Domenico Bonaventura Trapassi (1608-1782), Italian poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1600-1800.

METAURUS, Battle of the (207 B. C.). See PUNIC WARS: Second; ROME: Republic: B. C. 218-202.

METAYAGE SYSTEM. See AGRICULTURE: Modern: France: Land tenure.

METCALF, Victor Howard (1853-), American cabinet officer. Secretary of commerce and labor, 1904-1906; secretary of the navy, 1906-1908.

METCALFE, Charles Theophilus, Baron (1785-1846), British administrator. Governor of British India and the northwest provinces, 1835-1838; of Jamaica, 1839-1842; of Canada, 1843-1849. See CANADA: 1843-1849.

METCHNIKOFF, Elie (1845-1916), Russian biologist. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 18th-20th centuries: Serotherapy; 19th century: Opsonins; NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1908; HISTORY: 33.

METEMNEH, Battle of (1885). See EGYPT: 1884-1885.

METEORS. See ASTRONOMY: 1781-1846.

METEREN, village about fifteen miles northwest of Lille, northeastern France. It was a scene of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: d, 11; d, 15; g, 7, i.

METHODIST CHURCH, term broadly applied to the various forms of organization of the religious sect which came into being in consequence of the teaching of John Wesley.

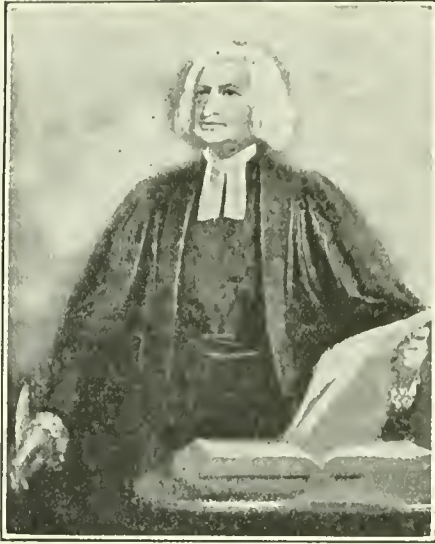
Origin of name.—**Background.**—**Statistics.**—“The word Methodism was only an old term revived, and not one newly coined. There had been, ages earlier, a school of physicians who discarded observation and held to the pure deductions of reason and logic. They took the name of Methodists, conveying thereby their strict adherence to logical processes. Their success in practice is not reported; their school was not long-lived. When . . . in 1729, John Wesley leading half a dozen young gentlemen at Oxford University began to read the New Testament in Greek and to try to conform their ideas and their behavior most strictly to the same, a young gentleman of Christ Church College called out: ‘Here is a new set of Methodists sprung up!’ The new quaint name found instant currency, and the ‘set’ were known as *Methodists* all over the University. Thus came the word now familiar through all the world. All to whom it was given were zealous members of the Church of England, and the idea of founding any new Christian body was far from their minds. They proposed to live logically and honestly after the rules given in their New Testament—blameless and harmless, doing good, as they found opportunity, to all men.”—A. B. Hyde, *Story of Methodism*, pp. 17-18.—The early eighteenth century in which Methodism arose called for a revival in the religious life of the Church of England. “A colorless moderation lacking in energizing power was the result of the attempt to steer safely between the Charybdis of Romanism and the Scylla of Puritanism. Sermons were generally dry moral dissertations on disputed subjects for which the people had little concern and less understanding. . . . Non-residence and pluralities and the abuse of ecclesiastical patronage in the interests of politics were widely prevalent. The gulf between the higher and the lower clergy became deeper. . . . Walpole’s political policy cast a blighting atmosphere over the whole church. He opposed all religious activity on the ground that it was inimical to the tranquil condition of the State. The majority of the people, though seemingly attached to the outward establishment, refused the obedience of their lives to its teaching.

They loved the Church, scouted the clergy, and obeyed neither. The religious situation among the Dissenters was almost equally bad. Presbyterian congregations lapsed into a sort of Arianism, and the religious life among the Baptists and Independents was in a lamentable condition. . . . Drunkenness, gambling, and immorality . . . seem to have been prevalent to an extraordinary extent in the period under discussion. . . . The economic change [brought about by the industrial revolution] caused suffering and hardship, and the new problems with which nobody seemed able to cope were not even considered by the Anglican Church. The masses were hoarded together in new congested districts. They were without schools and churches and were as wax in the hands of demagogues. . . . Idealism and self-sacrifice were swallowed up by an extremely sordid individualism, each man for himself. Conditions in England were rapidly approaching those which deluged France in blood toward the close of the century, and Lecky affirms that the new religious enthusiasm enabled England to escape the contagion by enlisting the turbulent spirits in its service.”—A. W. Nagler, *Pietism and Methodism*, pp. 75-78, 80-81.—The most numerous and influential bodies of Methodists in England, Wales and adjacent islands today are the original Wesleyan Methodists who had, by the latest statistics available in 1922, 484,000 members; the Primitive Methodists which sprang up in Staffordshire in 1810 under the leadership of Hugh Bowne and William Clowes after their expulsion from the Wesleyan Conference caused by excesses attending camp meeting services; the United Methodist Church formed in 1907 by the union of three Methodist denominations more or less related; the Independent Methodists, a body, congregational in its organization, with an unpaid ministry which held its first conference in 1805; and the Wesleyan Reform Union which seceded from the parent body in 1849 and counts its adherents mainly in the midland counties. By statistics available in 1922, Calvinistic Methodists were estimated to number 560,000 and the Lady Huntingdon Connexion 13,000. The total number of Methodists in Ireland was 62,382. There are also small groups in Scotland. In 1920 the total number of Methodists in the British Isles was estimated at 1,300,000; in the United States and Canada, 7,600,000; elsewhere, 3,000,000.

1729-1791: In Great Britain.—Whitefield and the Wesleys.—Early development.—First Methodist church.—In Ireland and Scotland.—Calvinistic controversy.—Calvinistic Methodism in Wales.—Countess of Huntingdon Connexion.—Separation from established church.—Later development of Calvinistic Methodism.—“Three figures detached themselves from the group [of Methodists] as soon as, on its transfer to London in 1738, it attracted public attention by the fervour and even extravagance of piety; and each found his special work in the task to which the instinct of the new movement led it from the first, that of carrying religion and morality to the vast masses of population which lay concentrated in the towns or around the mines and collieries of Cornwall and the north. Whitefield, a servitor of Pembroke College, was above all the preacher of the revival. Speech was governing English politics; and the religious power of speech was shown when a dread of ‘enthusiasm’ closed against the new apostles the pulpits of the Established Church, and forced them to preach in the fields. Their voice was soon heard in the wildest

and most barbarous corners of the land, among the bleak moors of Northumberland, or in the dens of London, or in the long galleries where in the pauses of his labour the Cornish miner listens to the sobbing of the sea. Whitefield's preaching was such as England had never heard before, theatrical, extravagant, often commonplace, but hushing all criticism by its intense reality, its earnestness of belief, its deep tremulous sympathy with the sin and sorrow of mankind. It was no

stood next to Whitefield; as hymn-writer he stood second to his brother Charles. But while combining in some degree the excellences of either, he possessed qualities in which both were utterly deficient; an indefatigable industry, a cool judgment, a command over others, a faculty of organization, a singular union of patience and moderation with an imperious ambition, which marked him as a ruler of men. He had besides a learning and skill in writing which no other of the Methodists possessed; he was older than any of his colleagues at the start of the movement, and he outlived them all. His life indeed almost covers the century. He was born in 1703 and lived on till 1791, and the Methodist body had passed through every phase of its history before he sank into the grave at the age of eighty-eight. It would have been impossible for Wesley to have wielded the power he did had he not shared the follies and extravagance as well as the enthusiasm of his disciples. Throughout his life his asceticism was that of a monk. At times he lived on bread only, and he often slept on the bare boards. He lived in a world of wonders and divine interpositions. It was a miracle if the rain stopped and allowed him to set forward on a journey. It was a judgment of heaven if a hailstorm burst over a town which had been deaf to his preaching. . . . But with all this extravagance and superstition Wesley's mind was essentially practical, orderly, and conservative. No man ever stood at the head of a great revolution whose temper was so anti-revolutionary. In his earlier days the bishops had been forced to rebuke him for the narrowness



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common enthusiast who could wring gold from the close-fisted Franklin and admiration from the fastidious Horace Walpole, or who could look down from the top of a green knoll at Kingswood on twenty thousand colliers, grimly from the Bristol coal-pits, and see as he preached the tears 'making white channels down their blackened cheeks.' On the rough and ignorant masses to whom they spoke the effect of Whitefield and his fellow Methodists was mighty both for good and ill. . . . All the phenomena of strong spiritual excitement, so familiar now, but at that time strange and unknown, followed on their sermons; and the terrible sense of a conviction of sin, a new dread of hell, a new hope of heaven, took forms at once grotesque and sublime. Charles Wesley, a Christ Church student, came to add sweetness to this sudden and startling light. He was the 'sweet singer' of the movement. His hymns expressed the fiery conviction of its converts in lines so chaste and beautiful that its more extravagant features disappeared. The wild throes of hysteric enthusiasm passed into a passion for hymn-singing, and a new musical impulse was aroused in the people which gradually changed the face of public devotion throughout England. But it was his elder brother, John Wesley, who embodied in himself not this or that side of the new movement, but the movement itself. Even at Oxford, where he resided as a fellow of Lincoln, he had been looked upon as head of the group of Methodists, and after his return from a quixotic mission to the Indians of Georgia he again took the lead of the little society, which had removed in the interval to London. In power as a preacher he



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From a portrait by George Romney

and intolerance of his churchmanship. When Whitefield began his sermons in the fields, Wesley 'could not at first reconcile himself to that strange way.' He condemned and fought against the admission of laymen as preachers till he found himself left with none but laymen to preach. To the last he clung passionately to the Church of England, and looked on the body he had formed as but a lay society in full communication with it. He broke with the Moravians, who had been the

earliest friends of the new movement, when they endangered its safe conduct by their contempt of religious forms. He broke with Whitefield when the great preacher plunged into an extravagant Calvinism. But the same practical temper of mind which led him to reject what was unmeasured, and to be the last to adopt what was new, enabled him at once to grasp and organize the novelties he adopted. He became himself the most unwearied of field preachers, and his journal for half a century is little more than a record of fresh journeys and fresh sermons. When once driven to employ lay helpers in his ministry he made their work a new and attractive feature in his system. His earlier asceticism only lingered in a dread of social enjoyments and an aversion from the gayer and sunnier side of life which links the Methodist movement with that of the Puritans. As the fervour of his superstition died down into the calm of age, his cool common sense discouraged in his followers the enthusiastic outbursts which marked the opening of the revival. His powers were bent to the building up of a great religious society which might give to the new enthusiasm a lasting and practical form. The Methodists were grouped into classes, gathered in love feasts, purified by the expulsion of unworthy members, and furnished with an alternation of settled ministers and wandering preachers; while the whole body was placed under the absolute government of a Conference of ministers. But so long as he lived, the direction of the new religious society remained with Wesley alone. 'If by arbitrary power,' he replied, with a charming simplicity to objectors, 'you mean a power which I exercise simply without any colleagues therein, this is certainly true, but I see no hurt in it.' The great body which he thus founded numbered a hundred thousand members at his death, and now counts its members in England and America by millions.—J. R. Green, *History of the English people*, v. 4, pp. 145-149.—See also CHURCH OF ENGLAND: 18th century.—During the year 1739 occurred the organization of the Methodist movement into the United Society and the publication by the Wesleys of their "Hymns and Sacred Poems," the source of Methodist psalmody. In the Calvinistic controversy which developed in the early years of the movement Wesley took the Arminian or general view of the redemption while Whitefield was convinced of Calvin's doctrine of predestination. They separated but were soon personally reconciled and even exchanged pulpits. "As a result of the labors of Wesley and Whitefield, the Methodist movement assumed broader proportions, and at Bristol the first Methodist church was planned and built. [See BRISTOL: 1739.] But before the Bristol church was opened for worship, John Wesley had purchased the old foundry near Moorfields, a building that was used by the British government for the molding of cannon. The foundry was subsequently remodeled and became the cradle of Methodism, the first Methodist church ever opened for worship [1739]."—G. S. Frazer, *Methodism*, pp. 23-24.—Wesley introduced Methodism into Ireland in 1747 where it was frequently asserted by its adherents notwithstanding considerable protests by the general populace. In Scotland Whitefield gained numerous adherents.

"Whitefield, being what he was, could hardly be expected to create any ecclesiastical organisation comparable with the one Wesley reared. Yet even in that direction his labours were not without result. In Wales, indeed, he left upon the reviving

religion of his times so strong an impress that 'Calvinistic Methodism' became one of the Principality's most prominent varieties of religious life, and so continues to this day. . . . Even in England a number of Churches—they remained so loosely bound together that it would be stretching language too far to look on them as in the full sense a Church—indirectly owed their origin to him. The title by which they have always been and still are known—for though now presided over for the most part by Congregational ministers, they preserve such corporate denominational separateness as they assumed at the beginning—that of 'The Countess of Huntingdon's Connexion,' appropriately indicates both their direct creator and their character. They make a 'Connexion' rather than a 'Church,' being really a number of congregations with no other bond than that implied in the common holding of Church of England doctrine interpreted in an evangelical spirit, and in the common usage of the Church of England prayers. And they make the 'Countess of Huntingdon's Connexion,' because it was under the direction and control of Selina, Countess of Huntingdon, that they were set each in its place. Undoubtedly the relation of the body to other denominations and its place in the general religious development of the country would have been more immediately conveyed to the observer if the body had borne in England the name it bore and bears in Wales; for the title 'Calvinistic Methodism' suggests at once both a likeness and an unlikeness between those Churches descending from Whitefield and those whose ancestry is traceable along the Wesley line. Yet it was natural enough, under the circumstances, that English Calvinistic Methodism—the Methodism which Whitefield fathered—should obtain the name it actually won. For the Countess of Huntingdon it was that built the Churches in which Whitefield's type of doctrine prevailed. . . . Whitefield's ministry had not long begun when the Countess invited him to preach in her drawing-room. . . . By degrees, the association grew closer; till in 1749 Whitefield, perhaps realising that Lady Huntingdon might be able to supply, or at any rate provide for, that 'watering' which he left undone, sent to her an impassioned appeal. 'A leader is wanting.' . . . The Countess was ready enough to respond. More and more her purse was placed at Whitefield's disposal, her influence at his back. By and by commenced the erection of churches, in various places—Brighton, Bath, Tunbridge Wells, Spa Fields in London, and others—all of them put in trust for the conducting of public worship after the Church of England manner, but all of them open to preachers of every order who struck the truly evangelical note. . . . A legal decision to the effect that the Bishop had a right to inhibit Church of England clergymen from preaching at Spa Fields . . . compelled the Countess in 1781—since only Nonconformist ministers could thenceforward be employed—to register her buildings under the Toleration Act as Whitefield registered the two Tabernacles which were specially his own; and in 1783, four years before Wesley took his decisive plunge on the same matter, an ordination was held within the walls. This was separation. . . . By 1787 Wesleyan Methodism, under Wesley's own supervision, had achieved [its] . . . marvellous organisation Calvinistic Methodism, deriving from Whitefield and fostered by Lady Huntingdon's affectionate care, had achieved an organisation not indeed comparable with that of Wesleyan Methodism, but

not by any means to be despised; and both these organisations were to all intents and purposes outside the pale of the established church."—H. W. Clark, *History of English nonconformity*, v. 2, pp. 235-238.—"The Calvinistic Methodists who had generally recognized in Lady Huntingdon's patronage and superintendance a bond of unity, were resolved, after Whitefield's death, into three sects: The first was known as Lady Huntingdon's Connection; it observed strictly the liturgical forms of the English Church, and its ministry ceased to itinerate; it possesses in our day about sixty chapels. . . . The second was called the Tabernacle Connection, or Whitefield Methodists. Some of its churches used the national liturgy, but many adopted the forms of the Congregational Independents, and most of them have been absorbed by the latter denomination. The third is known as the Welsh Calvinistic Methodists; it has continued to prosper down to our day. Its chapels are found in almost every village in Wales, and are alone equal to more than two-thirds the number belonging to the establishment. Its first Association was held in 1743; in 1785 it was more thoroughly organized by Rev. Thomas Charles, whose legislative genius has thus perpetuated in effective vigor the usefulness of Griffith Jones, Howell Harris, Daniel Rowlands, and their Calvinistic Methodist coadjutors."—A. Stevens, *History of Methodism*, v. 1, pp. 476-477.

1766-1920: In America.—First gatherings and chapel.—First conference.—Foundation of Methodist Episcopal church.—Growth.—Contrast with English Wesleyism.—Division.—Centenary movement.—"The first interest of the Wesleys in America was connected with a philanthropic movement started by General Oglethorpe in Georgia in 1733. They had apparently attracted his attention by their manner of life at Oxford, and in 1735 he invited them to come as spiritual advisers to his colony. Both accepted his invitation, and John Wesley remained until 1738, though Charles Wesley returned earlier. It was at this time that they first came into relations with the Moravians, through the colony established in the same vicinity by Count Zinzendorf. . . . In 1760 Philip Embury, a Wesleyan local preacher from Ireland, landed in New York with members of his Irish class, and six years later he gathered for regular worship a company of Methodists, who in 1768 erected and dedicated a chapel, since known as the 'John Street Church.' About the same time Robert Strawbridge, also an Irish Wesleyan preacher, assembled a small company in Frederick County, Md. Subsequently itinerant preachers were sent over by John Wesley . . . and in 1773 the first annual conference was held in Philadelphia. . . . The Bishop of London, having refused to ordain ministers for the Methodist societies in America, which were left by the Revolutionary War without the sacraments, Wesley, in 1784, by the laying on of hands, appointed or ordained men and gave them the authority to ordain others. He thus ordained Thomas Cnke, D. C. L., who was already a presbyter of the Church of England, to be superintendent of the Methodist societies in America. . . . On December 24 [1784], what has been known as the 'Christmas Conference' began in Baltimore, Md., 60 preachers meeting with Doctor Coke and his companions. . . . The conference then proceeded to form a Methodist Episcopal Church. . . . From the beginning the growth of the church has been remarkable. . . . In 1790 there were . . . 61,351 communicants. . . . In 1812 the number had increased to . . . 105,357;

[and in 1920 to 7,867,863]. The development of church government, while following the general lines laid down by Wesley, was somewhat different in England and in America. In England the conference remained supreme, and the superintendency was not emphasized. [See *BISHOP*: Since the Reformation.] In America the superintendency was in fact an episcopacy which while not corresponding exactly to the episcopacy of the Church of England, became a very decided factor in church life. In each country, but especially in America, considerable opposition has developed at different times in connection with some features of the parent body, and divisions have resulted. In every case, however, the general principles of the founders have been preserved, and, notwithstanding the various separations, the Wesleyan Methodist Connection in England and the Methodist Episcopal Church in the United States remain the strongest representatives of the movement initiated in Oxford nearly two centuries ago. It is to be noted that the influence of the Methodist doctrine and church organization have not been confined to those bodies which have adopted the name Methodist, but has been manifest in the development of a number of bodies which use modified forms of the episcopal, presbyterial, and congregational systems. In the United States several bodies, including the Evangelical Association and the United Evangelical Church, the United Brethren bodies, and particularly the large number of organizations emphasizing the doctrine of 'holiness,' or entire sanctification, claim to be true exponents of the doctrines of the Wesleys, while their polity is generally Methodist in type. On the other hand, the Welsh Calvinistic Methodists, with whom Whitefield identified himself, were Presbyterian in polity, though Methodist in every other respect, as are the Wesleyan Methodist and some other Methodist churches in England and America. . . . The question of union between the different branches of Methodism in the United States has been much discussed. . . . As yet, however, there has been no formal action toward the union of these bodies. The church has entered cordially into all general movements for church unity."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, pt. 2, pp. 446-449.—"American Methodism remained as a single organization, under the direction of one General Conference, until 1844. The fires of controversy which enveloped the whole nation and found expression in the Civil War, began to rage in the Church itself. The General Conference of 1844 gave full and exclusive authority to the 'Annual Conferences in the slave-holding States' to decide upon the necessity of organizing a separate ecclesiastical connection in the South. A separation was duly and legally effected, and American Methodism was divided into two distinct ecclesiastical bodies—the Methodist Episcopal Church and the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, both bodies remaining essentially one in doctrine and practice."—G. S. Frazer, *Methodism*, pp. 27, 28.—To celebrate the centenary of the Methodist Missionary Society, organized in 1810, the Methodist Episcopal Church, and the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, (both American churches) united in 1910 for a great financial drive and a general awakening of activity. A survey was made of home and foreign mission fields, with estimates of money needed for new personnel and equipment. In every local church a commission was organized, to canvass the membership for special subscriptions, to enlist new religious workers, etc. The original amount of money asked for by the Meth-

odist Episcopal Church for home and foreign missions was \$80,000,000 but this was later increased to about \$105,000,000 by the addition of the amount needed for war work, etc. The Methodist Episcopal Church, South, organized according to a similar plan, and asked for \$45,000,000 for home and foreign missions. A joint commission represented both churches. A great missionary world exhibit was held at Columbus, Ohio, attended by millions of people, and featured by a vast musical pageant, *The Wayfarer*. By July, 1919, the Methodist Episcopal Church reported subscriptions of more than \$113,000,000, and the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, reported more than \$54,000,000. Both of these were afterward increased.

ALSO IN: H. W. Clark, *History of English non-conformity*, v. 2.—W. J. Townsend, H. B. Workman, and G. Eayrs, *New history of Methodism*.—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England during the eighteenth century*, v. 2, ch. 8.

METHODIUS (c. 825-885), Christian missionary. Native of Thessalonica; did missionary work among the Bulgarians and Moravians; used the Slavic liturgy and is regarded as the inventor of the Slavic alphabet. See CHRISTIANITY: 9th century; Conversion of Moravia; 9th-10th centuries; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: 7th-11th centuries; MORAVIA: 9th century; RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 9th-14th centuries; SLAVS: 9th-10th centuries.

METHUEN, Rout of (1306).—The first Scotch army assembled by Robert Bruce after he had been crowned king of Scotland, was surprised and routed by Aymer de Valence.—Based on C. H. Pearson, *History of England during the Early and Middle Ages*, v. 2, ch. 14.

METHUEN TREATY (1703). See PORTUGAL: 1703; SPAIN: 1703-1704; TARIFF: 15th-17th centuries.

1713.—Treaty abrogated. See TARIFF: 1689-1721.

MÉTIS, Canadian descendants of Indian mothers and French or Scotch fathers. See CANADA: 1860-1873.

METOACS, tribe of North American Indians. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

METÆCI.—"Resident aliens, or Metæci, are non-citizens possessed of personal freedom, and settled in Attica. Their number, in the flourishing periods of the State, might amount to 45,000, and therefore was about half that of the citizens."—G. F. Schömann, *Antiquity of Greece: The state*, pt. 3, ch. 3, sect. 2.

METON, Year of.—"Hitherto [before the age of Pericles] the Athenians had only had the Octaëteris, i. e., the period of eight years, of which three were composed of thirteen months, in order thus to make the lunar years correspond to the solar. But as eight such solar years still amount to something short of 90 lunar months, this cycle was insufficient for its purpose. . . . Meton and his associates calculated that a more correct adjustment might be obtained within a cycle of 6,940 days. These made up 235 months, which formed a cycle of 19 years; and this was the so-called 'Great Year,' or 'Year of Meton.'"—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 3.

METRETES, Greek unit of measurement. See EPHAH.

METRIC SYSTEM, standard of measurement based on decimals. See INVENTIONS: 18th century: Measurement; Instruments.

METROPOLITAN, ecclesiastical title. See CHRISTIANITY: 312-337; PRIMATES.

METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART.—"Incorporated April 13, 1870, for the following purposes: to establish and maintain in the City of

New York a Museum and Library of Art; to encourage and develop the study of fine arts, and the application of the arts to manufactures and practical life; to advance the general knowledge of kindred subjects, and to that end, to furnish popular instruction. . . . Collections include the fine arts—painting, sculpture, and architecture—as well as decorative or industrial arts. Ancient art includes Egyptian, Babylonian, Assyrian, Phœnician, Cypriote, Etruscan, Greek, and Roman antiquities. In painting the attempt is made to illustrate the history of the art from the Middle Ages to the present time, with special attention to the work of American artists. The decorative arts include woodwork, metalwork, ceramics, and textile. The collections represent the East and the Near East (China, Japan, Persia, and Asia Minor), Europe and America."—*Year's Art*, 1921, pp. 248-249.—See also NEW YORK CITY: 1870-1921.

METROPOTAMIA, name of proposed state, to have been formed out of part of the Northwest Territory. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1784.

METTERNICH-WINNEBURG, Clemens Wenzel Nepomuk Lothar, Prince (1773-1859), Austrian statesman and diplomat. Appointed Austrian envoy to Saxony, 1801; ambassador to Berlin, 1803; ambassador to Paris, 1806; minister for foreign affairs, 1809-1848; appointed chancellor, 1821; leading statesman of Europe, 1815-1848; overthrown by revolution of 1848. See EUROPE: Modern: Revolutionary movement, etc.

Theory of intervention. See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 3.

Disregard for nationalist feeling. See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: c.

Influence as president of Congress of Vienna. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

Affronted by Napoleon. See GERMANY: 1813 (May-August).

Chief statesman of Holy Alliance. See EUROPE: Modern: Revolutionary movement for self-government; HOLY ALLIANCE; AUSTRIA: 1815-1846; 1846-1849.

Reactionary attitude toward suffrage. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1800-1840.

His "system" of government. See AUSTRIA: 1815-1835.

Overthrow of authority in Austria. See GERMANY: 1848.

Flight to England in 1848. See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849.

METZ, city of Lorraine on the Moselle, about 90 miles from Strassburg. The city is famous for its cathedral and fortress. The population, numbered in 1921, 62,311.

Original names.—The Gallic town of Divodurum acquired later the name of Mediomatrici, which modern tongues have changed to Metz.—Based on C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 34, foot-note.

451.—Destruction by Huns. See HUNS: 451.

511-752.—Austrasian capital. See FRANKS: 511-752.

16th century.—Importance of the city.—Cession to France in 1552. See ALSACE-LORRAINE: 1552-1774.

1552-1559.—Tracherous occupation by the French.—Siege by Charles V.—Cession to France. See FRANCE: 1547-1550.

1648.—Ceded to France in the Peace of Westphalia. See GERMANY: 1648; Peace of Westphalia.

1679-1680.—Chamber of reannexation. See FRANCE: 1679-1681.

1681.—Annexation by France. See FRANCE: 1679-1681.

1870.—French army under Bazaine.—Besieged by Germans.—Bazaine's surrender to Germans. See FRANCE: 1870 (July-August); (August-September); (September-October).

1871.—Cession to Germany. See FRANCE: 1871 (January-May).

1918.—Bombed by Allies.—Occupied by French troops. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VIII. Aviation; XI. End of the War: c.

1919.—Ceded to France. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part III: section V.

MEUNG, town in France, on the right bank of the Loire, eleven miles southwest of Orleans. It was the scene of a battle between Joan of Arc and the English in June, 1429. See FRANCE: 1429-1431.

MEUSE, or Maas, river rising on the plateau of northeastern France and flowing through Belgium and the Netherlands, where it joins the Waal, an arm of the Rhine, and empties into the North sea. On its course are historic Verdun, Sedan, Mézières, Dinant, Namur, and Liège.

1914-1918.—Region of fighting. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: a; 1916: II. Western front: b, 12; 1918: II. Western front: t, 1.

MEUSE VALLEY, part of the old province of Lorraine, bounded on the north by Belgium. The inhabitants of this district were victims of German atrocities during the World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities and violations of international law: a, 3.

MEUSE-ARGONNE, Battle of (September 26-November 11, 1918), major operation of the World War in which the Americans and the French cut the German main line of communication, materially hastening German defeat. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: i; u; v.

MEUSNIER, J. B. M. C. (1754-1793), French general, and one of the founders of the science of airship construction. See AVIATION: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1884-1897.

MEXICAN FREE ZONE. See MEXICO: 1861-1905.

MEXICAN PICTURE-WRITING. See AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE-WRITING.

MEXICAN WAR. See MEXICO: 1846-1847; 1847 (March-September).

MEXICO: Land.—Population.—Resources.—“Excluding the Yucatan Peninsula, the territory of the ‘United States of Mexico’ is a triangular mass which forms the southern extremity of the North American continent properly so called. These Hispano-American United States are bounded on the east side by the long curve of the Gulf of Mexico, on the west by the shores of the Pacific, which describe a still more extensive arc of a circle. Both curves gradually converge southwards in the direction of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, where Central America proper begins, if not in a political, at least in a geographical and historical sense. Both on the north and south sides, the frontiers are purely conventional, corresponding in no way with the natural parting lines of the fluvial basins. Doubtless, the north-east frontier, for a distance of about 750 miles, is traced by the Rio Bravo del Norte [Rio Grande], which separates Mexico from Texas. But this narrow stream is not a sufficiently salient geographical feature to constitute a true dividing line; on both sides the plains and hills present the same general aspect, and are subject to the same climate. . . . West of the Rio Bravo the frontiers, as laid down by the treaty between Mexico and the United States, are a mere succession of geometrical lines. At first they coincide with 30° 47′ north latitude for a distance of 100 miles; then they suddenly

drop southwards to 30° 20′ N., along which parallel they run westwards to 111° W. of Greenwich. At this point, the line is drawn obliquely to the Rio Colorado, 20 miles below the Rio Gila confluence, and then ascends this river to the confluence at Yuma, whence it follows a straight line across the neck of the Californian peninsula to the Pacific coast, 12 miles south of San Diego. Despite the fantastic character of this geometrical frontier, it coincides at certain points with prominent physical traits in the general relief of the land. Thus it connects the upper Bravo valley with the head of the Gulf of California, not far from the profound depressions between two distinct spurs of the Rocky Mountains traversed by the Rio Gila.”—E. Reclus, *Universal geography*, pp. 14-15.—“The boundary with Guatemala, which was finally adjusted by treaty in 1895, fixes the southern point of the republic almost at the mouth of the Zachiate River. The area of the country, inclusive of a few small outlying islands, is some 767,000 square miles. . . . Mexico has two peninsular parts—the peninsula of Lower California (officially, *Baja California*) and Yucatan, the latter properly comprising the two States of Yucatan and Campeche. The great Gulf of California, which separates the main mass of the republic from Lower California and receives at its northern extremity the Colorado River from the United States, occupies seemingly the position of a sunken block of the Earth's crust which broke continuity between what is now the peninsula apex and the protruding coastline of the State of Jalisco.”—A. Heilprin, *International geography*, p. 774.—In 1910 the population numbered 15,115,612. At the end of 1921, according to figures made public at the Mexican embassy in Washington on June 10, 1922, the population was 13,887,080, the decrease being attributed to the decade of revolution. The soil is rich throughout Mexico. Owing to the varying altitude of the country, crops of the tropical, semi-tropical and temperate zones may be produced. The principal industry is mining. The most important oil fields are in the Ebanos, Panuco, Huastaca, Tuxpam and the Tehuantepec-Tabasco districts. There were 334 productive wells in 1921, and 163,540,000 barrels of petroleum were produced in 1920. Vera Cruz and Tampico, both on the gulf of Mexico, are the most important ports of the country.

Agriculture.—“The rainfall conditions have been vitally important in the determination of the entire agricultural tendency of the country. . . . They have made corn (maize) the staple food of the country, as wheat is the staple of lands where there is winter snow and regular rainfall throughout the year. They have allowed the development of only the tropical products in the rich districts of Vera Cruz and Oaxaca which were partially developed by foreign stock companies under Diaz. They have, more than all, enthroned, as the chief agricultural export of Mexico, the sisal hemp of Yucatan. This desert product, which requires slow growth for the maturing of the long, stout fibers out of which are made rope and binder twine, is the greatest item of export of Mexico which is the combined product of nature's bounty and human enterprise. Coffee and some rubber and tobacco and a little sugar Mexico has raised for export in other days, but only sisal hemp, the product of the desert henequen plant, and cotton in a few favored localities have become wealth producers in any great quantity. Mexico has long been an importer of foodstuffs, for before the days of modern commerce famine came with terrible regularity. Under Diaz, food was imported in in-

creasing quantities, and since his fall, Mexico has been utterly dependent on the outside world for a large portion of the nutriment of her people."—*Mexican Year Book*, 1920-1921, pp. 92, 94.

Ahoriginal peoples.—Aztec civilization: Social and political organization.—Calendar Stone.—Religion.—Poetry and music.—Minor arts.—Costume.—Maya civilization: Government.—Architecture, sculpture and minor arts.—Calendar.—Comparison between Aztecs and Mayas.—Toltecs.—In Mexico there lived a great number of Indian tribes representing several linguistic stocks and various stages in the development of culture. Some of them reached the highest stage of civilization attained in the New World before the coming of the whiteman. Many theories have been put forth to explain the elaborate culture that existed in pre-historic times but on close analysis it is found that the fundamental elements of Mexican culture are exactly the same as the features which exist in the simpler cultures to the north.—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in Mexico, etc.; QUICHES AND CAKCHIQUELS.—“At the time of the conquest by the Spaniards of the province of Mexico, the dominant people was the Aztec population of Tenochtitlan (Mexico city), inhabiting a town built on an island in the lake of Tezcoco, or rather that portion of it known as the lake of Mexico. The Aztecs were confessedly immigrants, who had wandered south less than five hundred years before the conquest; by their superiority as fighting-men they had won the hegemony over the kindred tribes which they found settled in the valley of Mexico, and had extended their power to both oceans and as far at least as the isthmus of Tehuantepec. Both they and their immediate predecessors spoke the same language, called *Nahua* (strictly, *Nahuatl*), and they appear to be a branch of the great Shoshonean family which reaches as far north as the state of Montana. Beyond this, their ethnography and language would seem to connect them rather with the coastal tribes of the far North-West than with those to the east of the Rockies, but on this point little can be said at present. Immediately to the north and northwest of the settled peoples of the valley, the steppe country was inhabited by tribes, who lived mainly by hunting, called Chichimec and Otomi. . . . In the hilly volcanic country around lakes Pazcuaro and Chapala, a third speech was found, the Tarascan, of which the exact affinities are still doubtful. . . . Along the East coast, from the Panuco valley southward, were two peoples, speaking dialects of yet another language, the Maya tongue. In the north were the Huastec, primitive Maya, extending as far south as Tuxpan, where they were in touch with the linguistically related Totonac. To the north they stretched beyond the Panuco, but the remains of this region are practically unknown. . . . The early history of these tribes is very difficult to elucidate from the tangled mass of migration myths, often contradictory, which have survived. What may be termed the historical period starts only with the election of the first Aztec king, some years after the settlement of the tribe at Tenochtitlan, and this takes us back only to about 1376, or not much more than a century before the Spanish conquest. . . . Modern research has proved conclusively the existence, at those very localities especially associated with the Toltec, of pre-Aztec ruins, and of a relatively high culture which prevailed throughout the valley (and beyond) for a period considerably longer than that which elapsed between the Aztec

immigration and the Spanish conquest.”—T. A. Joyce, *Mexican archaeology*, pp. 5-8.—“Spanish historians often liken Tenochtitlan to the seat of an empire and speak of the ruler as one who had the power of an absolute monarch while other and more recent writers have declared that the tribal organization of the Aztecs was essentially democratic. The truth doubtless lies between these extremes. The people were warlike by nature and all men, except a few of the priesthood, were soldiers. Honors depended largely upon success in war and warriors were arranged in ranks according to their deeds. The common warriors formed one rank and next came those who had distinguished themselves by definite achievements which gave the right to wear certain articles of dress or to bear certain titles. The chiefs were elected for an indefinite term of office from the most distinguished fighters and could be removed for cause. But while the offices of state were elective there was, nevertheless, a tendency to choose from certain powerful families, and at least the foundation of an aristocratic policy. A chief was succeeded by his son or brother except when these candidates were manifestly unfit. In the actual succession of the great war chiefs of Tenochtitlan, a peculiar system seems to have been followed in that the candidates from the older generation were ordinarily exhausted before the next lower generation became eligible. Thus Huitzilihuitl, Chimalpopoca, and Itzcoatl were all sons of Acamapichtli, and the last and greatest was born of a slave mother. Then followed Moctezuma Ilhuicamina I, the son of Huitzilihuitl. This chief had no male heirs but the children of his daughter ruled in order; Axayacatl, Tizoc, and Ahuizotl. Moctezuma II was the son of the first of these as was Cuitlahua, while Cuauhtemoc, the last Aztec ruler, was the son of Ahuizotl. This peculiar succession was not in vogue in Tezcoco, where son succeeded father and the lawful wife was chosen from the royalty of Tenochtitlan. In the various annals, the genealogies are often indicated and the evidence that aristocracies existed is too strong to be overthrown. There are even cases of queens who succeeded to the chief power after the death of the royal husband.

“The great sculptured monument known as the Calendar Stone or Stone of the Sun, is the most valuable object that has come down intact from the time of the Aztecs. It is a single piece of porphyry, irregular except for the sculptured face. It now weighs over twenty tons and it is estimated that the original weight was over twice as much. The sculptured disk is about twelve feet in diameter. This great stone was transported by men over many miles of marshy lake bottom before it could be placed in position in front of the Temple of the Sun in the temple enclosure. . . . It is believed to have been set up horizontally and to have served as a sort of altar upon which human victims were sacrificed. The stone was doubtless thrown down from its original position by the soldiers of Cortez and may have been lost to sight. We know, however, that it was exposed to view about 1560 and was then buried by order of the archbishop of Mexico City lest its presence should cause the Indians to revert to their original pagan beliefs. It was rediscovered in 1700 and was afterwards built into the façade of the Cathedral where it remained until 1885, when it was removed to the nearby museum. The Calendar Stone is not only a symbol of the sun's face marked with the divisions of the year but it is a record of the cosmogonic myth of the Aztecs and the creations and

destructions of the world. In the center is the face of the sun god, Tonatiuh, enclosed in the middle of the symbol called Olin. Tonatiuh is often represented by a much simpler sign of a circle with four or more subdivisions resembling those of a compass which are intended to represent the rays of the sun. Olin is one of the day signs and means movement, or perhaps earthquake. It has also been explained as a graphic representation of the apparent course of the sun during the year. The history of the world, according to the Aztecs

that are intended to bring out the various aspects of his power. Over-lapping functions make it impossible to assign each god to his special province. There are universal gods, there are special gods, and there are patron gods of trade guilds. Moreover, there are foreign gods, some recent, some ancient. The religion of central Mexico had its objective, ritualistic side, which appealed directly to the understanding of the masses, and its more subtle theological or philosophical side, seen, for instance, in the poems written by priests and rulers. It was



CALENDAR STONE OF MEXICO

Original in the National Museum, Mexico City

myth, is divided into five suns or ages, four of which refer to the past and one to the present. . . . The religion of the Aztecs . . . was a polytheism in which special divinities controlled the powers of nature and the activities of men. The gods were perhaps further advanced towards human form and attributes than were those of the earlier culture to the south, but definite characterization was still accomplished by grotesque features and certain animal connections were still evident. The situation is confused beyond the point of analysis. The mythologies often ascribe different origins to the same deity. One god is addressed by many names, descriptive or figurative,

a mixture of spiritualism and the grossest idolatry. The ceremonial calendar, with a description of the feasts and sacrifices that occurred at different times of the year, has been preserved in a number of documents. Pageants, incense burning, and human sacrifice gave a strong dramatic quality to the religious rites. The conception of a supreme deity is seen in *Ometeuctli*, the Lord of Duality, a vague god head and creator who is sometimes addressed in some of the religious poems as the "Cause of All." In the background of the popular religion was the belief in the Earth Mother and the Sky Father and in the divinity of the Sun, the Moon, the Jaguar, the Serpent, and whatever else was

beautiful, powerful, and inexplicable. Tezcatlipoca, by reason of his magic and his omniscience, was placed at the head of the pantheon of active gods. Huitzilopochtli was, however, the favorite god of the Aztecs through his relation to war. Tlaloc, the god of rain, was naturally of great importance to agriculturists living in a rather arid region. Tonatiuh, the Sun God, was a more or less abstract deity who acted in part through other gods. But the list is too long to be repeated here. [See also MYTHOLOGY: Latin American.] . . . The languages of Central America were capable of considerable literary development. This is seen especially in the songs that were used in different religious ceremonies of the Aztecs, as well as in the reflective poems written by educated natives. Several very fine pieces have been preserved, and while there is no rhyme, there is much rhythm. When recited by a person speaking fluently the native tongue these poems are very impressive. Of course, translation is always hazardous, and fundamental differences in language, such as exist between English and Aztec, make it almost impossible. The most famous poet whose name has come down to us was Nezahualcoyotl, or Famishing Coyote, who was a ruler of Tezcoco and died at the advanced age of eighty years in 1472. . . . The Aztecs held concerts in the open air where poems were sung to the accompaniment of the drum and other simple instruments. [See MUSIC: Primitive: Mexico.] . . .

"Objects of minor art comprise pottery vessels, ornaments of gold, silver, copper, jade, and other precious materials, textiles, pieces of feather work, etc. The best known ceramic products are made of orange colored clay and carry designs in black that sometimes are realistic, but more often not. The tripod dishes with the bottoms roughed by cross scoring were used to grind chili. Heavy bowls with loop handles on the sides and a channel across the bottom were seemingly made to be strung on ropes. They may have held pitch and been used for street lights. The pottery figurines of the Aztec period are nearly all moulded and lack the sharp detail of the earlier examples. They often represent deities wearing characteristic dress and carrying ceremonial objects. Comparatively few specimens of ancient gold work in Mexico escaped the cupidity of the Spanish conquerors, but these attest a remarkable proficiency in casting. The moulds were made of clay mixed with ground charcoal and the melting of gold was accomplished by means of a blow pipe. The technique seen in Costa Rican gold work according to which details falsely appear to be added by soldered wire, was followed in Mexico. Modern Mexican filigree bears little relation to the ancient Indian work, but is probably of Moorish origin. The examples of Aztec gold work include finger rings, earrings, noserings, labrets, and pendants. Among the precious and semi-precious stones known to the Aztecs, the most valuable in their eyes was turquoise. This was probably obtained by trade from the Pueblo Indians. It was mostly cut into thin plates and used in the manufacture of mosaic objects. Red jasper, green jade, jet, gold, and shell of various colors was also used in these mosaics. Jade was highly prized and was known as *Chalchihuitl*. Ornaments of obsidian, a black volcanic glass, and of crystal quartz, are fairly common and others of opal and amethyst have been found. The textile decorations in vogue at the coming of the Spaniards can be restored from the pictures in codices. Mantles were often demanded as tribute and the designs are given on the conventional

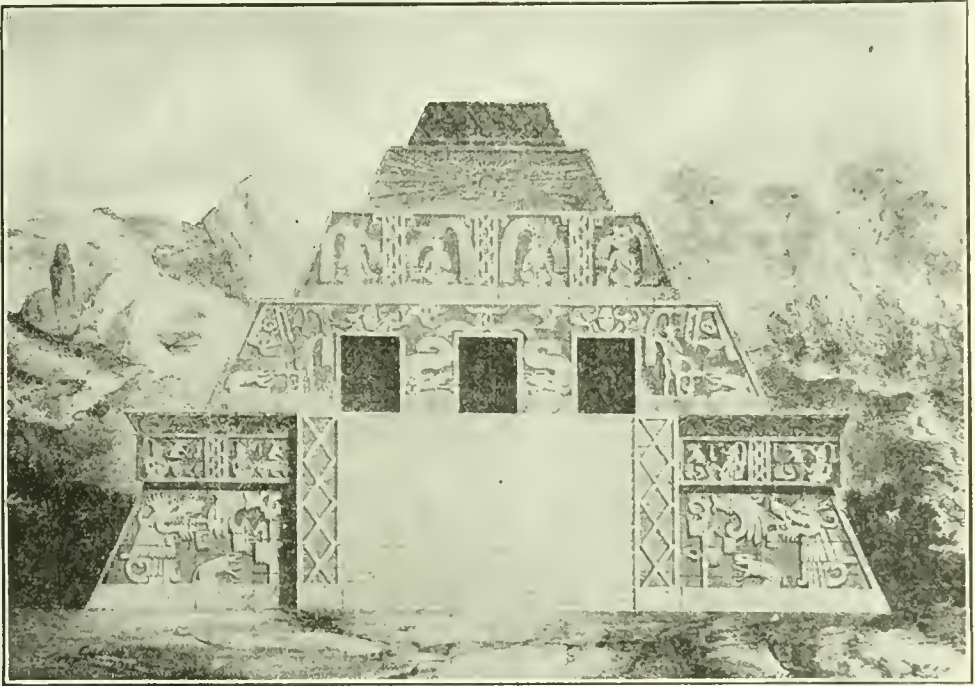
bundles in the tribute lists. Garments with certain designs served as insignia of office for several of the priesthoods. Feather mosaic was highly prized and was made according to several methods. Capes as well as shields and other objects were covered with brilliant feathers so arranged as to bring out designs in the natural colors."—H. J. Spinden, *Ancient civilization of Mexico and Central America*, pp. 184-185, 189, 191, 201, 203, 205, 212-216.

"Clothing was made from textiles, and was usually assumed about the age of five or six, children under that age going nude. The principal garment worn by men was a girdle of about a hand's breadth, the ends falling down before and behind. . . . These ends were ornamented by the women with embroidery or feather-work, and in the monuments they are shown furnished with the most elaborate designs, of which the most frequent is a grotesque face, often highly conventionalized, with long nose-ornaments, probably representing a water-deity. Wide, square shoulder-mantles were also worn, as well as sandals of plaited hemp or hide. The sandal-strings, again, were often highly decorative, and in the monuments the sandal itself is of so elaborate a nature that it may almost be said to be a shoe. . . . The manuscripts seem to show some sort of a leg-covering also. . . . Women wore a skirt, and often covered the upper portion of the body with a cloth or a tunic open at the sides; the breast-cloth was worn at Campeche and Balcalar and tunics elsewhere in Yucatan at the time of the conquest. It is possible that the ceremonial dress of the men in early times included a skirt, for it hardly seems probable that all the skirted figures in the monuments represent women. Ornaments were worn in great variety, beads of jadeite and other hard stone were strung as necklaces; masks, also of stone, were worn as breast ornaments, and shells appeared as fringes to the edges of garments."—T. A. Joyce, *Mexican archaeology*, p. 207.—See also MITLA.—While the Aztec civilization is usually thought of as the typical civilization of ancient Mexico, and the history of modern Mexico has been chiefly associated with the seat of the old Aztec culture in the Valley of Mexico, part of the old territory of the Mayan Indians is also included within the bounds of Mexico.

"At the discovery, the rule in Yucatan was divided among a number of princely houses who constituted a sort of feudal nobility. A chief was succeeded by his son, though his brothers ranked high and possessed much influence. The rulers governed their territory through sub-chiefs appointed in the outlying villages, who consulted them on all important matters, such interviews usually taking place at night. They maintained considerable state, being accompanied by a retinue when they left their residences, and etiquette enjoined that all visitors should bring some ceremonial present when they approached their overlord. This apart from the ordinary tribute of cotton tunics, game, cacao and personal service (such as house-building) which constituted the princely revenue. . . . Inheritance among petty chiefs followed Mexican lines, that is to say a petty chief was succeeded by his brothers in order of age, and his sons only came to power after the death of their paternal uncles. At an earlier period the various chieftains had been subjects of an overlord at Mayapan, to whom all paid tribute. The city was founded, according to tradition, by the descendants of the Tatal Xiu, now called the Itza, whose protecting deity was Kukulcan (in his later and degraded manifestation). The family of the

Cocomes, however, seem to have gained the supreme power, but in any case the government was for a time centralized. The tributary lords possessed residences at the capital which were under the charge of intendants appointed by them, and were supported by their respective provinces; the inhabitants of the actual district of Mayapan were exempt from tribute, but the members of the aristocracy served in the temples, assisting in the festivals by day and night. Eventually, however, the centrifugal tendency so characteristic of Mexican and Central American politics reasserted itself, and the 'league' split up into a number of independent, and often hostile, princelings. It is probable that each important group of ruins marks the site of some former centre of power, and buildings not definitely associated with religion may have been in part the residences of feudal

which is a great terraced mound serving as a common base or platform from which the individual pyramidal bases of several temples rise. At some sites this acropolis is a natural hill which has been trimmed down or added to, but at other sites it is entirely artificial. At Copan there is an especially fine example of artificial platform mound rising from one end of the Great Plaza and affording space for several temples as well as for sunken courts with stepped sides that may have been theatres. The river washing against one side of this great mound has removed perhaps a third of it and made a vertical section that shows the method of construction. It is apparent that the mound was enlarged and old walls and floors buried. Mayan buildings are of two principal kinds. One is a temple pure and simple and the other has been called a palace. The temple is a



RESTORATION OF THE PYRAMID AT XOICHICALCO

(Restoration by C. Niebel)

lords."—T. A. Joyce, *Mexican archaeology*, pp. 278-279.—"The wonderful culture of the Mayan Indians . . . was developed in the humid lowlands of Central America and especially in the Yucatan peninsula. Artists are everywhere of the opinion that the sculptures and other products of the Mayas deserve to rank among the highest art products of the world, and astronomers are amazed at the progress made by this people in the measuring of time by the observed movements of the heavenly bodies. Moreover, they invented a remarkable system of hieroglyphic writing by which they were able to record facts and events and they built great cities of stone that attest a degree of wealth and splendor beyond anything seen elsewhere in the New World. [See AZTEC AND MAYA-PICTURE WRITING.] . . . The idea of a civic center is admirably illustrated in Mayan cities, particularly those of the first brilliant period. The principal structures are built around courts or plazas and there is usually an artificial acropolis

rectangular structure crowning a rather high pyramid that rises in several steps or terraces. As a rule the temple has a single front with one or more doorways and is approached by a broad stairway. The pyramid is ordinarily a solid mass of rubble and earth faced with cement or cut stone and rarely contains compartments. Some temples have but a single chamber while others have two or more chambers, the central or innermost one being specially developed into a sanctuary. [See TEMPLES: Stage of culture represented, etc.] The so-called palace, are clusters of rooms on low and often irregular platforms. These palaces may have been habitations of the priests and nobility. The common people doubtless lived in palm-thatched huts similar to those used today in the same region. . . . The decoration of Mayan buildings may be considered under three heads: first, interior decoration; second, façade decoration; third, supplementary monuments. In many temples at Yaxchilan, Tikal, etc., are found splendidly sculptured

lintels of stone or wood. At Copan we see wall sculptures that adorn the entrance to the sanctuary and at Palenque finely sculptured tablets let into the rear wall of the sanctuary. Elsewhere are occasional examples of mural paintings, sculptured door jambs, decorated interior steps, etc. The

façade decorations of the earlier Mayan structures are freer and more realistic than those of the later buildings. In many cases they consist of figures of men, serpents, etc., modeled in stucco or built up out of several nicely fitted blocks of stone. Grotesque faces also occur. In the later styles,



STONE LINTEL OF A TEMPLE AT MENCHÉ, MEXICO

Showing a worshipper making an offering of blood, by drawing a cord, armed with thorns, through his tongue, before a divine figure
(Exhibited in the British Museum)

decoration consists largely of 'mask panels,' which are grotesque front view faces arranged to fill rectangular panels, but there is an increasing amount of purely geometric ornament. The masked panels represent in most instances a highly elaborated serpent's face which sometimes carries the special markings of one of the greater gods. These panels, considered historically, pass through some interesting developments. Angular representations of serpent heads in profile are sometimes used at the sides of doorways. The supplementary monuments are stelæ and altars. These are monolithic sculptures that are often set up in definite relation to a building either on the terraces or at the foot of the stairway. The stelæ are great plinths or slabs of stone carved on one or more sides with the figures of priests and warriors loaded down with religious symbols. The altars are smaller stones usually placed in front of the stelæ. Many stelæ and altars are set up in plazas and have no definite architectural quality. . . . While the richly ornamented temples and the great monoliths attract first attention as works of art, the humbler products of the potter, the weaver, and the lapidary also attained to grace and dignity. The Mayas were expert potters and employed a variety of technical processes in the decoration of their wares, such as painting, modeling, engraving, and stamping. We can only take time to examine a few examples of the best works, leaving the commoner products practically undescribed. Suffice it to say, that tripod dishes were much used, as well as bowls, bottle-necked vessels, and cylindrical vases, and that the common decorative use of hieroglyphs serves to mark off Mayan pottery from that of other Central American peoples. The realistic designs are drawn in accordance with the highest principles of decorative art. Serpents, monkeys, jaguars, various birds, as well as priests and supernatural beings, are used as subjects for pottery embellishment. Geometric decoration is also much used. The polychrome pottery is rare and exceptionally beautiful, with designs relating to religious subjects. The background color of these cylindrical vases is usually orange or yellow, the designs are outlined in black, and the details filled in with delicate washes of red, brown, white, etc. The surface bears a high polish made by rubbing. . . . The textile arts of the ancient Mayas can be recovered in part from a study of the monuments since the designs on many garments are reproduced in delicate relief. The designs are mostly all-over geometric patterns, but borders reproducing the typical 'celestial band,' a line of astronomical symbols, are also seen. The techniques of brocade and lace were understood by the ancient weavers. In the minor textile art of basketry the products must also have ranked high. . . . Jade and other semi-precious stones were carved by the Mayas into beautiful and fantastic shapes. There was a considerable use of mosaic veneer on masks and other ceremonial objects. Metal was rare and could not be used for tools, but the working of gold and copper in the manufacture of ornaments was on a high plane. . . .

"The Mayan calendars were made possible by: first, the knowledge of astronomical time periods; second, the possession of a suitable notation system; third, the discovery of a permutation system of names and numbers. . . . There is reason to believe that the Mayas had first a lunar calendar of twelve months of thirty days, each, making a year of 360 days, and that they modified this so that the number of days in the 'month' became

twenty instead of thirty to agree with the value of the second digit in their notation system and that the number of months was increased from twelve to eighteen, still making up a total of 360 days which agreed with the value of the third digit. With a truer knowledge of the length of the year an extra five day month was added to make a year of 365 days. Beyond this the "leap year" error was calculated but not interpolated. As proof that the lunar month of thirty days preceded the notation of month of twenty days, it need only be pointed out that the name for this period, *uinal*, seems to be connected with the name for moon, *u*, and that the hieroglyph for moon has the value, twenty, in the inscriptions and ancient books. . . . A remarkably close analogy may be drawn between the Mayas and Aztecs in the New World and the Greeks and Romans in the Old, as regards character, achievements, and relations one to the other. The Mayas, like the Greeks, were an artistic and intellectual people who developed sculpture, painting, architecture, astronomy, and other arts and sciences to a high plane. Politically, both were divided into communities or states that bickered and quarreled. There were temporary leagues between certain cities, but real unity only against a common enemy. Culturally both were one people, in spite of dialectic differences, for the warring factions were bound together by a common religion and a common thought. To be sure the religion of the Mayas was much more barbaric than that of the Greeks but in each case the subject matter was idealized and beautified in art. The Aztecs, like the Romans, were a brusque and warlike people who built upon the ruins of an earlier civilization that fell before the force of their arms and who made their most notable contributions to organization and government. The Toltecs stand just beyond the foreline of Aztec history and may fitly be compared to the Etruscans. They were the possessors of a culture derived in part from their brilliant contemporaries that was magnified to true greatness by their ruder successors."—H. J. Spinden, *Ancient civilization of Mexico and Central America*, pp. 65, 69, 76, 77, 79, 81, 97, 178-179.

"Notwithstanding evident marks of similarity in nearly all the manifestations of the progressional spirit in aboriginal America, in art, thought, and religion, there is much reason for and convenience in referring all the native civilization to two branches, the Maya and the Nahua, the former the more ancient, the latter the more recent and widespread. . . . It is only, however, in a very general sense that this classification can be accepted, and then only for practical convenience in elucidating the subject; since there are several nations that must be ranked among our civilized peoples, which, particularly in the matter of language, show no Maya nor Nahua affinities. Nor is too much importance to be attached to the names Maya and Nahua, by which I designate these parallel civilizations. The former is adopted for the reason that the Maya people and tongue are commonly regarded as among the most ancient in all the Central American region, a region where formerly flourished the civilization that left such wonderful remains at Palenque, Uxmal, and Copan; the latter as being an older designation than either Aztec or Toltec, both of which stocks the race Nahua includes. The civilization of what is now the Mexican Republic, north of Tebuantepec, belonged to the Nahua branch, both at the time of the conquest and throughout the historic period preceding. Very few traces of the Maya element occur north

of Chiapas, and these are chiefly linguistic, appearing in two or three nations dwelling along the shores of the Mexican gulf. In published works upon the subject the Aztecs are the representatives of the Nahuatl element; indeed, what is known of the Aztecs has furnished material for nine tenths of all that has been written on the American civilized nations in general. The truth of the matter is that the Aztecs were only the most powerful of a league or confederation of three nations, which in the 16th century, from their capitals in the valley, ruled central Mexico."—H. H. Bancroft, *Native races of the Pacific states*, v. 2, ch. 2.—"The national names that appear in connection with the closing struggles are the Toltecs, Chichimecs, Quichés, Nonohualcas, and Tatal Xius, none of them apparently identical with the Xibalbans. . . . Of the tribes that were successively defeated and forced to seek new homes, those that spoke the Maya dialects, although considering themselves Nahuas, seem to have settled chiefly in the south and east. Some of them afterwards rose to great prominence in Guatemala and Yucatan. . . . The Nahuatl-speaking tribes as a rule established themselves in Anáhuac and in the western and north-western parts of Mexico. . . . The valley of Mexico and the country immediately adjoining soon became the centre of the Nahuas in Mexico."—*Ibid.*, v. 5, ch. 3.—See also MAYAS; AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE-WRITING.—"The natives of the city of Tula were called, from its name, Tolteca, which simply means 'those who dwell in Tollan.' And who, let us ask, were these Toltecs? They have hovered about the dawn of American history long enough. To them have been attributed not only the primitive culture of Central America and Mexico, but of lands far to the north, and even the earthworks of the Ohio Valley. It is time they were assigned their proper place, and that is among the purely fabulous creations of the imagination, among the giants and fairies, the gnomes and sylphs, and other such fancied beings which in all ages and nations the popular mind has loved to create. Toltec, Toltecatl, which in later days came to mean a skilled craftsman or artificer, signifies . . . an inhabitant of Tollan—of the City of the Sun—in other words, a Child of Light. . . . In some, and these I consider the original versions of the myth, they do not constitute a nation at all, but are merely the disciples or servants of Quetzalcoatl. They have all the traits of beings of supernatural powers."—D. G. Britton, *American hero-myths*, ch. 3, sect. 3.—"The old-time story, how the Toltecs in the 6th century appeared on the Mexican table-land, how they were driven out and scattered in the 11th century, how after a brief interval the Chichimecs followed their footsteps, and how these last were succeeded by the Aztecs who were found in possession,—the last two, and probably the first, migrating in immense hordes from the far northwest,—all this is sufficiently familiar to readers of Mexican history. . . . It is probable, however, that this account, accurate to a certain degree, has been by many writers too literally construed; since the once popular theory of wholesale national migrations of American peoples within historic times, and particularly of such migrations from the north-west, may now be regarded as practically unfounded. The 6th century is the most remote period to which we are carried in the annals of Anáhuac by traditions sufficiently definite to be considered in any proper sense as historic records. . . . At the opening . . . of the historic times, we find the Toltecs in possession of Anáhuac and the surrounding country. Though

the civilization was old, the name was new, derived probably, although not so regarded by all, from Tollan, a capital city of the empire, but afterward becoming synonymous with all that is excellent in art and high culture. Tradition imputes to the Toltecs a higher civilization than that founded among the Aztecs, who had degenerated with the growth of the warlike spirit, and especially by the introduction of more cruel and sanguinary religious rites. But this superiority, in some respects not improbable, rests on no very strong evidence, since this people left no relics of that artistic skill which gave them so great traditional fame; there is, however, much reason to ascribe the construction of the pyramids at Teotihuacan and Cholula to the Toltec or a still earlier period. Among the civilized peoples of the 16th century, however, and among their descendants down to the present day, nearly every ancient relic of architecture or sculpture is accredited to the Toltecs, from whom all claim descent. . . . So confusing has been the effect of this universal reference of all traditional events to a Toltec source, that, while we can not doubt the actual existence of this great empire, the details of its history, into which the supernatural so largely enters, must be regarded as to a great extent mythical. There are no data for fixing accurately the bounds of the Toltec domain, particularly in the south. There is very little, however, to indicate that it was more extensive in this direction than that of the Aztecs in later times, although it seems to have extended somewhat farther northward. On the west there is some evidence that it included the territory of Michoacan, never subdued by the Aztecs; and it probably stretched eastward to the Atlantic. . . . During the most flourishing period of its traditional five centuries of duration, the Toltec empire was ruled by a confederacy, similar in some respects to the alliance of later date between Mexico, Tezcuco and Tlacopan. The capitals were Culhuacan, Otompan, and Tollan, the two former corresponding somewhat in territory with Mexico and Tezcuco, while the latter was just beyond the limits of the valley toward the north-west. Each of these capital cities became in turn the leading power in the confederacy. Tollan reached the highest eminence in culture, splendor, and fame, and Culhuacan was the only one of the three to survive by name the bloody convulsions by which the empire was at last overthrown, and retain anything of her former greatness. Long-continued civil wars, arising chiefly from dissensions between rival religious factions, . . . gradually undermine the imperial thrones. . . . So the kings of Tollan, Culhuacan, and Otompan, lose, year by year, their prestige, and finally, in the middle of the 11th century, are completely overthrown, leaving the Mexican table-land to be ruled by new combinations of rising powers."—H. H. Bancroft, *Native races of the Pacific states*, v. 2, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: D. G. Brinton, *Essays of an Americanist*, pp. 83-100.—D. Charnay, *Ancient cities of the New World*.

1325-1502.—Chichimecs.—Aztecs.—Empire of Montezuma.—"The new era succeeding the Toltec rule is that of the Chichimec empire, which endured with some variations down to the coming of Cortés. The ordinary version of the early annals has it, that the Chichimecs, a wild tribe living far in the north-west, learning that the fertile regions of Central Mexico had been abandoned by the Toltecs, came down in immense hordes to occupy the land. . . . The name Chichimec at the time of the Spanish conquest, and subsequently, was

used with two significations, first, as applied to the line of kings that reigned at Tezcuco, and second, to all the wild hunting tribes, particularly in the broad and little-known regions of the north. Traditionally or historically, the name has been applied to nearly every people mentioned in the ancient history of America. This has caused the greatest confusion among writers on the subject, a confusion which I believe can only be cleared up by the supposition that the name Chichimec, like that of Toltec, never was applied as a tribal or national designation proper to any people, while such people were living. It seems probable that among the Nahuatl peoples that occupied the country from the 6th to the 11th centuries, a few of the leading powers appropriated to themselves the title Toltecs, which had been at first employed by the inhabitants of Tollan, whose artistic excellence soon rendered it a designation of honor. To the other Nahuatl peoples, by whom these leading powers were surrounded, whose institutions were identical, but whose polish and elegance of manner were deemed by these self-constituted aristocrats somewhat inferior, the term Chichimecs, barbarians, etymologically 'dogs,' was applied. After the convulsions that overthrew Tollan, and reversed the condition of the Nahuatl nations, the 'dogs' in their turn assumed an air of superiority and retained their designation, Chichimecs, as a title of honor and nobility."—H. H. Bancroft, *Native races of the Pacific states*, v. 2, ch. 2.—"We begin to leave . . . [the] twilight of legend when we meet the Aztecs already encamped in the Valley of Mexico. Finding the most obviously eligible sites preoccupied, they were sagacious enough to detect the advantages of a certain marshy spot through which the outlets of lakes Chalco and Xochimilco, besides sundry rivulets, flowed northward and eastward into Lake Tezcuco. Here in the year 1325 they began to build their pueblo, which they called Tenochtitlan,—a name whereby hangs a tale. When the Aztecs, hard pressed by foes, took refuge among these marshes, they came upon a sacrificial stone which they recognized as one upon which some years before one of their priests had immolated a captive chief. From a crevice in this stone, where a little earth was imbedded, there grew a cactus, upon which sat an eagle holding in its beak a serpent. A priest ingeniously interpreted this symbolism as a prophecy of signal and long-continued victory, and forthwith diving into the lake he had an interview with Tlaloc, the god of waters, who told him that upon that very spot the people were to build their town. The place was therefore called Tenochtitlan, or 'place of the cactus-rock,' but the name under which it afterward came to be best known was taken from Mexitl, one of the names of the war-god Huitzilopochtli. The device of the rock and cactus, with the eagle and serpent, formed a tribal totem for the Aztecs, and has been adopted as the coat-of-arms of the present Republic of Mexico. The pueblo of Tenochtitlan was surrounded by salt marshes, which by dint of dikes and causeways the Aztecs gradually converted into a large artificial lake, and thus made their pueblo by far the most defensible stronghold in Anáhuac,—impregnable, indeed, so far as Indian modes of attack were concerned. The advantages of this commanding position were slowly but surely realized. A dangerous neighbour upon the western shore of the lake was the tribe of Tecpanecas, whose principal pueblo was Azcatputzalco. The Aztecs succeeded in making an alliance with these Tecpanecas, but it was upon unfavourable terms and involved the

payment of tribute to Azcatputzalco. It gave the Aztecs, however, some time to develop their strength. Their military organization was gradually perfected, and in 1375 they elected their first tlacatecuhtli, or 'chief-of-men,' whom European writers, in the loose phraseology formerly current, called 'founder of the Mexican empire.' The name of this official was Acamapichtli, or 'Handful-of-Reeds.' During the eight-and-twenty years of his chieftaincy the pueblo houses in Tenochtitlan began to be built very solidly of stone, and the irregular water-courses flowing between them were improved into canals. Some months after his death in 1403 his son Huitzilbuhtli, or 'Humming-bird,' was chosen to succeed him. This Huitzilbuhtli was succeeded in 1414 by his brother Chimalpopoca, or 'Smoking Shield,' under whom temporary calamity visited the Aztec town. The alliance with Azcatputzalco was broken, and that pueblo joined its forces to those of Tezcuco on the eastern shore of the lake. United they attacked the Aztecs, defeated them, and captured their chief-of-men, who died a prisoner in 1427. He was succeeded by Icoatzin, or 'Obsidian Snake,' an aged chieftain who died in 1436. During these nine years a complete change came over the scene. Quarrels arose between Azcatputzalco and Tezcuco; the latter pueblo entered into alliance with Tenochtitlan, and together they overwhelmed and destroyed Azcatputzalco, and butchered most of its people. What was left of the conquered pueblo was made a slave mart for the Aztecs, and the remnant of the people were removed to the neighbouring pueblo of Tlacopan, which was made tributary to Mexico. By this great victory the Aztecs also acquired secure control of the springs upon Chepultepec, or 'Grasshopper Hill,' which furnished a steady supply of fresh water to their island pueblo. The next step was the formation of a partnership between the three pueblo towns, Tenochtitlan, Tezcuco, and Tlacopan, for the organized and systematic plunder of other pueblos. All the tribute or spoils extorted was to be divided into five parts, of which two parts each were for Tezcuco and Tenochtitlan, and one part for Tlacopan. The Aztec chief-of-men became military commander of the confederacy, which now began to extend operations to a distance. The next four chiefs-of-men were Montezuma, or 'Angry Chief,' the first, from 1436 to 1464; Axayacatl, or 'Face-in-the-Water,' from 1464 to 1477; Tizoc, or 'Wounded Leg,' from 1477 to 1486; and Ahuizotl, or 'Water-Rat,' from 1486 to 1502. Under these chiefs the great temple of Mexico was completed, and the aqueduct from Chepultepec was increased in capacity until it not only supplied water for ordinary uses, but could also be made to maintain the level of the canals and the lake. In the driest seasons, therefore, Tenochtitlan remained safe from attack. Forth from this well-protected lair the Aztec warriors went on their errands of blood. Thirty or more pueblo towns, mostly between Tenochtitlan and the Gulf coast, scattered over an area about the size of Massachusetts, were made tributary to the Confederacy; and as all these communities spoke the Nahuatl language, this process of conquest, if it had not been cut short by the Spaniards, might in course of time have ended in the formation of a primitive kind of state. This tributary area formed but a very small portion of the country which we call Mexico. If the reader will just look at a map of the Republic of Mexico in a modern atlas, and observe that the states of Queretaro, Guanajuato, Michoacan, Guerrero, and a good part of La Puebla, lie outside the region

sometimes absurdly styled 'Montezuma's Empire,' and surround three sides of it, he will begin to put himself into the proper state of mind for appreciating the history of Cortés and his companions. Into the outlying region just mentioned, occupied by tribes for the most part akin to the Nahuas in blood and speech, the warriors of the Confederacy sometimes ventured, with varying fortunes. They levied occasional tribute among the pueblos in these regions, but hardly made any of them regularly tributary. The longest range of their arms seems to have been to the eastward, where they sent their tax-gatherers along the coast into the isthmus of Tehuantepec, and came into conflict with the warlike Mayas and Quiches. . . . Such was, in general outline, what we may call the political situation in the time of the son of Axayacatl, the second Montezuma, who was elected chief-of-men in 1502, being then thirty-four years of age.—J. Fiske, *Discovery of America*, v. 2, ch. 8.

1517-1518.—First found by the Spaniards. See AMERICA: 1517-1518.

1519 (February-April).—Coming of Cortés and the Spaniards.—Some time in the latter part of the year 1517, the Spaniards in Cuba had acquired definite knowledge of a much civilized people who inhabited "terra firma" to the west of them, by the return of Hernandez de Cordova from his involuntary voyage to Yucatan. (See AMERICA: 1517-1518.) In the spring of 1518 the Cuban governor, Velasquez, had enlarged that knowledge by sending an expedition under Grijalva to the Mexican coast, and, even before Grijalva returned, he had begun preparations for a more serious undertaking of conquest and occupation in the rich country newly found. For the command of this second armament he selected Hernando Cortés, one of the boldest and most ambitious of the adventurers who had helped to subdue and settle the island of Cuba. Before the fleet sailed, however, a jealous distrust of his lieutenant had become excited by some cause in the governor's mind, and he attempted to supersede him in the command. Cortés slipped out of port, half prepared as he was for the voyage, defied the orders of his superior, and made his way (February, 1519) to the scene of his future conquests, actually as a rebel against the authority which commissioned him. "The companions of Cortés were unfamiliar with fear. Cortés followed the same route as Grijalva. . . . At the Tabasco River, which the Spanish called Rio de Grijalva, because that explorer had discovered it, they had a fight with some natives who resisted their approach. These natives fought bravely, but the fire-arms, and above all the horses, which they conceived to be of one piece with their riders, caused them extreme terror, and the rout was complete. . . . The native prince, overcome, sent gifts to the conqueror, and, without much knowing the extent of his agreement, acknowledged himself as vassal of the king of Spain, the most powerful monarch of the world." Meantime, tidings of a fresh appearance of the same strange race which had briefly visited the shores of the empire the year before were conveyed to Montezuma, and the king, who had sent envoys to the strangers before, but not quickly enough to find them, resolved to do so again. "The presents prepared for Grijalva, which had reached the shore too late, were, alas! all ready. To these were now added the ornaments used in the decoration of the image of Quetzalcoatl, on days of solemnity, regarded as the most sacred among all the possessions of the

royal house of Mexico. Cortés accepted the rôle of Quetzalcoatl and allowed himself to be decorated with the ornaments belonging to that god without hesitation. The populace were convinced that it was their deity really returned to them. A feast was served to the envoys, with the accompaniment of some European wine which they found delicious. . . . During the feast native painters were busy depicting every thing they saw to be shown to their royal master. . . . Cortés sent to Montezuma a gilt helmet with the message that he hoped to see it back again filled with gold. . . . The bearer of this gift and communication, returning swiftly to the court, reported to the monarch that the intention of the stranger was to come at once to the capital of the empire. Montezuma at once assembled a new council of all his great vassals, some of whom urged the reception of Cortés, others his immediate dismissal. The latter view prevailed, and the monarch sent, with more presents to the unknown invader, benevolent but peremptory commands that he should go away immediately. . . . Meanwhile the Spanish camp was feasting and reposing in huts of cane, with fresh provisions, in great joy after the weariness of their voyage. They accepted with enthusiasm the presents of the emperor, but the treasures which were sent had an entirely different effect from that hoped for by Montezuma; they only inflamed the desire of the Spaniard to have all within his grasp, of which this was but a specimen. It was now that the great mistake in policy was apparent, by which the Aztec chieftain had for years been making enemies all over the country, invading surrounding states, and carrying off prisoners for a horrible death by sacrifice. These welcomed the strangers and encouraged their presence."—S. Hale, *Story of Mexico*, ch. 13.

ALSO IN: Bernal Diaz del Castillo, *Memoirs* (tr. by Lockhart), v. 1, ch. 2-39.—J. Fiske, *Discovery of America*, v. 2, ch. 8.

1519 (June-October).—Advance of Cortés to Tlascala.—"Meanwhile Cortés, by his craft, quieted a rising faction of the party of Velasquez which demanded to be led back to Cuba. He did this by seeming to acquiesce in the demand of his followers in laying the foundations of a town and constituting its people a municipality competent to choose a representative of the royal authority. This done, Cortés resigned his commission from Velasquez, and was at once invested with supreme power by the new municipality. The scheme which Velasquez had suspected was thus brought to fruition. Whoever resisted the new captain was conquered by force, persuasion, tact, or magnetism; and Cortés became as popular as he was irresistible. At this point messengers presented themselves from tribes not far off who were unwilling subjects of the Aztec power. The presence of possible allies was a propitious circumstance, and Cortés proceeded to cultivate the friendship of these tribes. He moved his camp day by day along the shore, inuring his men to marches, while the fleet sailed in company. They reached a large city [Cempoalla, or Zempoalla, the site of which has not been determined], and were regaled. Each chief told of the tyranny of Montezuma, and the eyes of Cortés glistened. The Spaniards went on to another town, slaves being provided to bear their burdens. Here they found tax-gatherers of Montezuma collecting tribute. Emboldened by Cortés's glance, his hosts seized the Aztec emissaries and delivered them to the Spaniards. Cortés now played a double game. He propitiated the servants of Montezuma by secretly releasing them,

and added to his allies by enjoining every tribe he could reach to resist the Aztec collectors of tribute. The wandering municipality, as represented in this piratical army, at last stopped at a harbor where a town (La Villa Rica de Vera Cruz) sprang up, and became the base of future operations." At this point in his movements the adventurer despatched a vessel to Spain, with letters to the king, and with dazzling gifts of gold and Aztec fabrics. "Now came the famous resolve of Cortés. He would band his heterogeneous folk together—adherents of Cortés and of Velasquez—in one common cause and danger. So he adroitly led them to be partners in the deed which he stealthily planned. Hulk after hulk of the apparently worm-eaten vessels of the fleet sank in the harbor, until there was no flotilla left upon which any could desert him. The march to Mexico was now assured. The force with which to accomplish this consisted of about 450 Spaniards, six or seven light guns, fifteen horses, and a swarm of Indian slaves and attendants. A body of the Totonacs accompanied them. Two or three days brought them into the higher plain and its enlivening vegetation. When they reached the dependencies of Montezuma, they found orders had been given to extend to them every courtesy. They soon reached the Anáhuac plateau, which reminded them not a little of Spain itself. They passed from cacique to cacique, some of whom groaned under the yoke of the Aztec; but not one dared do more than orders from Montezuma dictated. Then the invaders approached the territory of an independent people, those of Tlascalala, who had walled their country against neighboring enemies. A fight took place at the frontiers, in which the Spaniards lost two horses. They forced passes against great odds, but again lost a horse or two,—which was a perceptible diminution of their power to terrify. The accounts speak of immense hordes of the Tlascalans, which historians now take with allowances, great or small. Cortés spread what alarm he could by burning villages and capturing the country people. His greatest obstacle soon appeared in the compacted army of Tlascalans arrayed in his front. The conflict which ensued was for a while doubtful. Every horse was hurt, and 60 Spaniards were wounded; but the result was the retreat of the Tlascalans. Divining that the Spanish power was derived from the sun, the enemy planned a night attack; but Cortés suspected it, and assaulted them in their own ambush. Cortés now had an opportunity to display his double-facedness and his wiles. He received embassies both from Montezuma and from the senate of the Tlascalans. He cajoled each, and played off his friendship for the one in cementing an alliance with the other. But to Tlascalala and Mexico he would go, so he told them. The Tlascalans were not averse, for they thought it boded no good to the Aztecs, if he could be bound to themselves. Montezuma dreaded the contact, and tried to intimidate the strangers by tales of the horrible difficulties of the journey. Presently the army took up its march for Tlascalala, where they were royally received, and wives in abundance were bestowed upon the leaders. Next they passed to Cholula, which was subject to the Aztecs."—J. Winsor, *Narrative and critical history of America*, v. 2, ch. 6.

1519 (October).—Massacre at Cholula.—March to Mexico.—"The distance from Tlascalala to Chololan [or Cholula] is but from 15 to 20 miles. It was a kind of holy place, venerated far and wide in Anáhuac; pilgrimages were made thither, as the Mahometans go to Mecca, and

Christians to Jerusalem or Rome. The city was consecrated to the worship of Quetzalcoatl, who had there the noblest temple in all Mexico, built, like all the temples in the country, on the summit of a truncated pyramid. The traveller of the present day beholds this pyramid on the horizon as he approaches Puebla, on his route from Vera Cruz to Mexico. But the worship of the beneficent Quetzalcoatl had been perverted by the sombre genius of the Aztecs. To this essentially good deity 6,000 human victims were annually immolated in his temple at Chololan. . . . The Spaniards found at Chololan an eager and, to all appearance at least, a perfectly cordial welcome." But this hospitality masked, it is said, a great plot for their destruction, which Montezuma had inspired and to aid which he had sent into the neighborhood of the city a powerful Mexican army. The plot was revealed to Cortez—so the Spanish



HERNANDO CORTÉS

historians relate—and "he took his resolution with his accustomed energy and foresight. He made his dispositions for the very next day. He acquainted the caciques of Chololan that he should evacuate the city at break of dawn, and required them to furnish 2,000 porters or 'tamanes,' for the baggage. The caciques then organized their attack for the morrow morning, not without a promise of the men required, whom, in fact, they brought at dawn to the great court in which the foreigners were domiciled. The conflict soon began. The Spaniards, who were perfectly prepared, commenced by massacring the caciques. The mass of Chololans that attempted to invade their quarters were crushed under the fire of their artillery and musketry, and the charges of their cavalry. Hearing the reports, the Tlascalans, who had been left at the entrance of the city, rushed on to the rescue. . . . They could now glut their hatred and vengeance; they slaughtered as long as they could, and then set to work at plunder. The Spaniards, too, after having killed all that resisted, betook themselves to pillage. The unfortunate city of Chololan was thus inundated with blood, and sacked. Cortez, however, enjoined that the women and children should be spared, and we are assured that

in that he was obeyed, even by his cruel auxiliaries from Tlascalala. . . . To the praise of Cortez it must be said that, after the victory, he once more showed himself tolerant: he left the inhabitants at liberty to follow their old religion on condition that they should no longer immolate human victims. After this signal blow, all the threats, all the intrigues of Montezuma, had no possible effect, and the Aztec emperor could be under no illusion as to the inflexible intention of Cortez. The latter, as soon as he had installed new chiefs at Chololan, and effaced the more hideous traces of the massacre and pillage that had desolated the city, set out with his own troops and his Indian auxiliaries from Tlascalala for the capital of the Aztec empire, the magnificent city of Tenochtitlan."—M. Chevalier, *Mexico, ancient and modern*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 4.

CAPITAL OF MONTEZUMA AS DESCRIBED BY CORTÉS AND BERNAL DIAZ.—"This Province is in the form of a circle, surrounded on all sides by lofty and rugged mountains; its level surface comprises an area of about 70 leagues in circumference, including two lakes, that overspread nearly the whole valley, being navigated by boats more than 50 leagues round. One of these lakes contains fresh, and the other, which is the larger of the two, salt water. On one side of the lakes, in the middle of the valley, a range of highlands divides them from one another, with the exception of a narrow strait which lies between the highlands and the lofty Sierras. This strait is a bow-shot wide, and connects the two lakes; and by this means a trade is carried on between the cities and other settlements on the lakes in canoes without the necessity of travelling by land. As the salt lake rises and falls with its tides like the sea, during the time of high water it pours into the other lake with the rapidity of a powerful stream; and on the other hand, when the tide has ebbed, the water runs from the fresh into the salt lake. This great city of Temixtitlan [Tenochtitlan—Mexico] is situated in this salt lake, and from the main land to the denser parts of it, by whichever route one chooses to enter, the distance is two leagues. There are four avenues or entrances to the city, all of which are formed by artificial causeways, two spears' length in width. The city is as large as Seville or Cordova; its streets, I speak of the principal ones, are very wide and straight; some of these, and all the inferior ones, are half land and half water, and are navigated by canoes. All the streets at intervals have openings, through which the water flows, crossing from one street to another; and at these openings, some of which are very wide, there are also very wide bridges, composed of large pieces of timber, of great strength and well put together; on many of these bridges ten horses can go abreast. . . . This city has many public squares, in which are situated the markets and other places for buying and selling. There is one square twice as large as that of the city of Salamanca, surrounded by porticoes, where are daily assembled more than 60,000 souls, engaged in buying and selling; and where are found all kinds of merchandise that the world affords, embracing the necessaries of life, as for instance articles of food, as well as jewels of gold and silver, lead, brass, copper, tin, precious stones, bones, shells, snails, and feathers. . . . Every kind of merchandise is sold in a particular street or quarter assigned to it exclusively, and thus the best order is preserved. They sell everything by number or measure; at least so far we have not observed them to sell any thing by weight. There is a building in the great square that is used as an audience house, where ten or

twelve persons, who are magistrates, sit and decide all controversies that arise in the market, and order delinquents to be punished. . . . This great city contains a large number of temples, or houses for their idols, very handsome edifices, which are situated in the different districts and the suburbs. . . . Among these temples there is one which far surpasses all the rest, whose grandeur of architectural details no human tongue is able to describe; for within its precincts, surrounded by a lofty wall, there is room enough for a town of 500 families. Around the interior of this enclosure there are handsome edifices, containing large halls and corridors, in which the religious persons attached to the temple reside. There are full 40 towers, which are lofty and well built, the largest of which has 50 steps leading to its main body, and is higher than the tower of the principal church at Seville. The stone and wood of which they are constructed are so well wrought in every part that nothing could be better done. . . . This noble city contains many fine and magnificent houses; which may be accounted for from the fact that all the nobility of the country, who are the vassals of Montezuma, have houses in the city, in which they reside a certain part of the year; and, besides, there are numerous wealthy citizens who also possess fine houses."—H. Cortés, *Despatches* (tr. by G. Folsom), letter 2, ch. 5. —"We had already been four days in the city of Mexico, and neither our commander nor any of us had, during that time, left our quarters, excepting to visit the gardens and buildings adjoining the palace. Cortés now, therefore, determined to view the city, and visit the great market, and the chief temple of Huitzilopochtli. . . . The moment we arrived in this immense market, we were perfectly astonished at the vast numbers of people, the profusion of merchandise which was there exposed for sale, and at the good police and order that reigned throughout. . . . Every species of goods which New Spain produces were here to be found; and everything put me in mind of my native town Medina del Campo during fair time, where every merchandise has a separate street assigned for its sale. . . . On quitting the market, we entered the spacious yards which surround the chief temple. . . . Motecusuma, who was sacrificing on the top to his idols, sent six papas and two of his principal officers to conduct Cortés up the steps. There were 114 steps to the summit. . . . Indeed, this infernal temple, from its great height, commanded a view of the whole surrounding neighbourhood. From this place we could likewise see the three causeways which led into Mexico. . . . We also observed the aqueduct which ran from Chapultepec, and provided the whole town with sweet water. We could also distinctly see the bridges across the openings, by which these causeways were intersected, and through which the waters of the lake ebbed and flowed. The lake itself was crowded with canoes, which were bringing provisions, manufactures and other merchandise to the city. From here we also discovered that the only communication of the houses in this city, and of all the other towns built in the lake, was by means of drawbridges or canoes. In all these towns the beautiful white plastered temples rose above the smaller ones, like so many towers and castles in our Spanish towns, and this, it may be imagined, was a splendid sight."—Bernal Diaz del Castillo, *Memoirs* (tr. by Lockhart), v. 1, ch. 92.

VIEWED IN THE LIGHT OF MODERN HISTORICAL CRITICISM.—"In the West India Islands the Spanish

discoverers found small Indian tribes under the government of chiefs; but on the continent, in the Valley of Mexico, they found a confederacy of three Indian tribes under a more advanced but similar government. In the midst of the valley was a large pueblo, the largest in America, surrounded with water, approached by causeways; in fine, a water-girt fortress impregnable to Indian assault. This pueblo presented to the Spanish adventurers the extraordinary spectacle of an Indian society lying two ethnical periods back of European society, but with a government and plan of life at once intelligent, orderly, and complete. . . . The Spanish adventurers who captured the pueblo of Mexico saw a king in Montezuma, lords in Aztec chiefs, and a palace in the large joint-tenement house occupied, Indian fashion, by Montezuma and his fellow-householders. It was, perhaps, an unavoidable self-deception at the time, because they knew nothing of the Aztec social system. Unfortunately it inaugurated American aboriginal history upon a misconception of Indian life which has remained substantially unquestioned until recently. The first eye-witnesses gave the keynote to this history by introducing Montezuma as a king, occupying a palace of great extent crowded with retainers, and situated in the midst of a grand and populous city, over which, and much besides, he was reputed master. But king and kingdom were in time found too common to express all the glory and splendor the imagination was beginning to conceive of Aztec society; and emperor and empire gradually superseded the more humble conception of the conquerors. . . . To every author, from Cortés and Bernal Diaz to Brasseur de Bourbourg and Hubert H. Bancroft, Indian society was an unfathomable mystery, and their works have left it a mystery still. Ignorant of its structure and principles, and unable to comprehend its peculiarities, they invoked the imagination to supply whatever was necessary to fill out the picture. . . . Thus, in this case, we have a grand historical romance, strung upon the conquest of Mexico as upon a thread; the acts of the Spaniards, the pueblo of Mexico, and its capture, are historical, while the descriptions of Indian society and government are imaginary and delusive. . . . There is a strong probability, from what is known of Indian life and society, that the house in which Montezuma lived, was a joint-tenement house of the aboriginal American model, owned by a large number of related families, and occupied by them in common as joint proprietors; that the dinner [of Montezuma, in his palace, as described by Cortés and Bernal Diaz] . . . was the usual single daily meal of a communal household, prepared in a common cook-house from common stores, and divided, Indian fashion, from the kettle; and that all the Spaniards found in Mexico was a simple confederacy of three Indian tribes, the counterpart of which was found in all parts of America. It may be premised further that the Spanish adventurers who thronged to the new world after its discovery found the same race of Red Indians in the West India Islands, in Central and South America, in Florida, and in Mexico. In their mode of life and means of subsistence, in their weapons, arts, usages, and customs, in their institutions, and in their mental and physical characteristics, they were the same people in different stages of advancement. No distinction of race was observed, and none in fact existed. . . . Not a vestige of the ancient pueblo of Mexico (Tenochtitlan) remains to assist us to a knowledge

of its architecture. Its structures, which were useless to a people of European habits, were speedily destroyed to make room for a city adapted to the wants of a civilized race. We must seek for its characteristics in contemporary Indian houses which still remain in ruins, and in such of the early descriptions as have come down to us, and then leave the subject with but little accurate knowledge. Its situation, partly on dry land and partly in the waters of a shallow artificial pond formed by causeways and dikes, led to the formation of streets and squares, which were unusual in Indian pueblos, and gave to it a remarkable appearance. . . . Many of the houses were large, far beyond the supposable, wants of a single Indian family. They were constructed of adobe brick and of stone, and plastered over in both cases with gypsum, which made them a brilliant white; and some were constructed of a red porous stone. In cutting and dressing this stone flint implements were used. The fact that the houses were plastered externally leads us to infer that they had not learned to dress stone and lay them in courses. It is not certainly established that they had learned the use of a mortar of lime and sand. In the final attack and capture, it is said that Cortés, in the course of seventeen days, destroyed and levelled three-quarters of the pueblo, which demonstrates the flimsy character of the masonry. . . . It is doubtful whether there was a single pueblo in North America, with the exception of Tlascalala, Cholula, Tezucoco, and Mexico, which contained 10,000 inhabitants. There is no occasion to apply the term 'city' to any of them. None of the Spanish descriptions enable us to realize the exact form and structure of these houses, or their relations to each other in forming a pueblo. . . . It is evident from the citations made that the largest of these joint-tenement houses would accommodate from 500 to 1,000 or more people, living in the fashion of Indians; and that the courts were probably quadrangles, formed by constructing the building on three sides of an inclosed space, as in the New Mexican pueblos, or upon the four sides, as in the House of the Nuns, at Uxmal.—L. H. Morgan, *Houses and house-life of the American aborigines* (*United States Geographical and Geological Survey of Rocky Mountain Regions: Contributions to North American Ethnology*, v. 4, ch. 10).

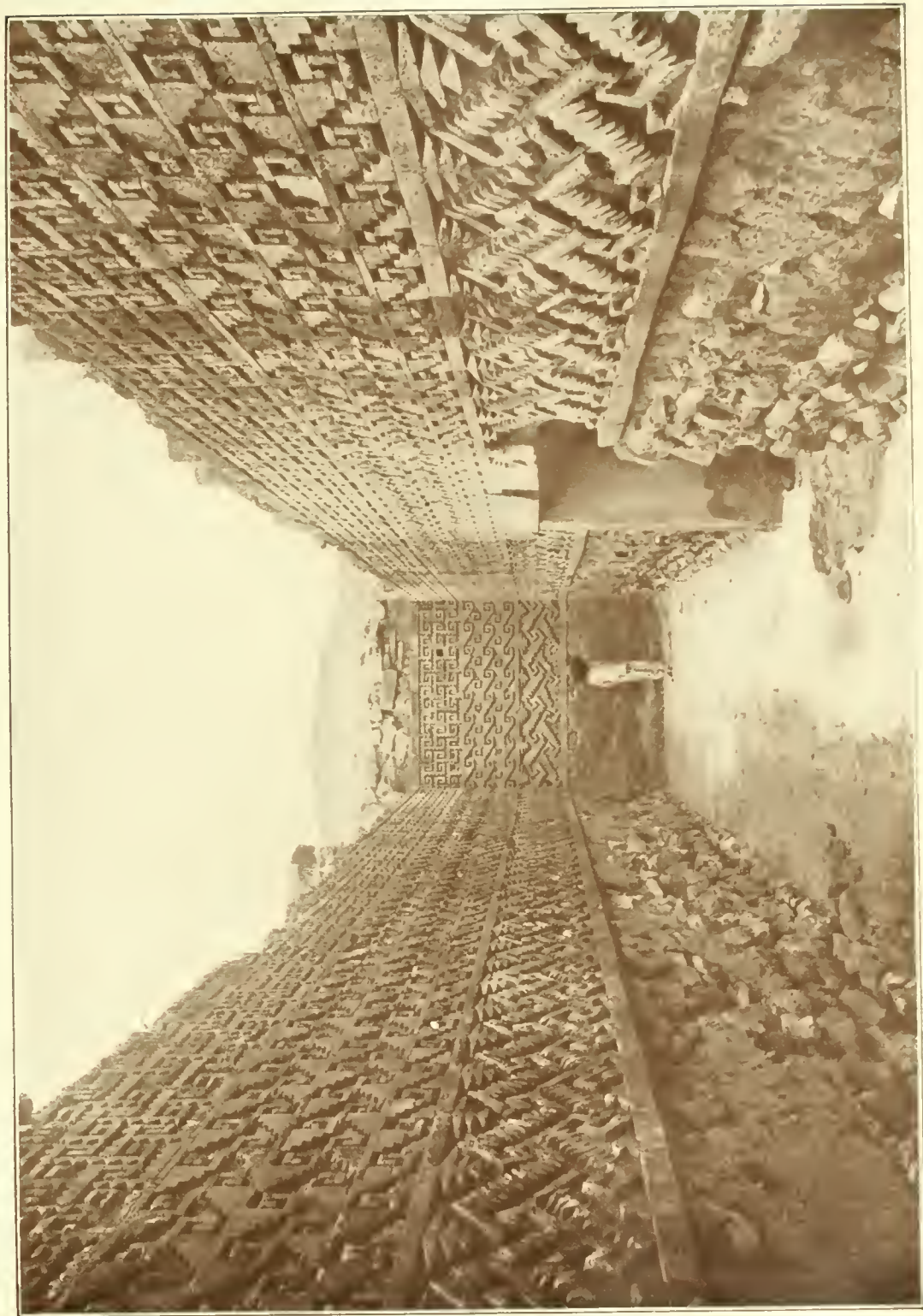
1519-1520.—Captivity of Montezuma, Cortés ruling in his name.—Discomfiture of Narvaez.—Revolt of the capital.—“When Cortés had time to survey and to realize his position in the Mexican capital, he saw that it was full of extreme danger. To be isolated with so small a force in the midst of any hostile, populous city would be perilous; but in Mexico that peril was immeasurably increased by the peculiar situation and construction of the island city—Venice-like in its insulation, and connected with the mainland by long and narrow causeways and bridges, easily broken and difficult to secure for retreat. With characteristic audacity, the Spanish leader mastered the danger of the situation, so to speak, by taking Montezuma himself in pledge for the peace and good behavior of his subjects. Commanded by Cortés to quit his palace, and to take up his residence with the Spaniards in their quarters, the Mexican monarch remonstrated but obeyed, and became from that day the shadow of a king. ‘During six months that Cortés remained in Mexico [from November, 1510, until May, 1520], the monarch continued in the Spanish quarters, with an appearance of as entire satisfaction and tranquillity

as if he had resided there, not from constraint, but through choice. His ministers and officers attended him as usual. He took cognizance of all affairs; every order was issued in his name. . . . Such was the dread which both Montezuma and his subjects had of the Spaniards, or such the veneration in which they held them, that no attempt was made to deliver their sovereign from confinement, and though Cortés, relying on this ascendant which he had acquired over their minds, permitted him not only to visit his temples, but to make hunting excursions beyond the lake, a guard of a few Spaniards carried with it such a *terror* as to intimidate the multitude, and secure the captive monarch. Thus, by the fortunate temerity of Cortés in seizing Montezuma, the Spaniards at once secured to themselves more extensive authority in the Mexican empire than it was possible to have acquired in a long course of time by open force; and they exercised more absolute sway in the name of another than they could have done in their own. . . . Cortés availed himself to the utmost of the powers which he possessed by being able to act in the name of Montezuma. He sent some Spaniards, whom he judged best qualified for such commissions, into different parts of the empire, accompanied by persons of distinction, whom Montezuma appointed to attend them both as guides and protectors. They visited most of the provinces, viewed their soil and productions, surveyed with particular care the districts which yielded gold or silver, pitched upon several places as proper stations for future colonies, and endeavoured to prepare the minds of the people for submitting to the Spanish yoke.' At the same time, Cortés strengthened his footing in the capital by building and launching two brigantines on the lake, with an equipment and armament which his royal prisoner caused to be brought up for him from Vera Cruz. He also persuaded Montezuma to acknowledge himself a vassal of the King of Castile, and to subject his kingdom to the payment of an annual tribute. But, while his cunning conquest of an empire was advancing thus prosperously, the astute Spanish captain allowed his prudence to be overridden by his religious zeal. Becoming impatient at the obstinacy with which Montezuma clung to his false gods, Cortés made a rash attempt, with his soldiers, to cast down the idols in the great temple of the city, and to set the image of the Virgin in their place. The sacrilegious outrage roused the Mexicans from their tame submission and fired them with an inextinguishable rage. At this most unfortunate juncture, news came from Vera Cruz which demanded the personal presence of Cortés on the coast. Velasquez, the hostile governor of Cuba, to whom the adventurer in Mexico was a rebel, had sent, at last, an expedition, to put a stop to his unauthorized proceedings and to arrest his person. Cortés faced the new menace as boldly as he had faced all others. Leaving 150 men in the angry Mexican capital, under Pedro de Alvarado, he set out with the small remainder of his force to attack the Spanish intruders. Even after picking up some detachments outside and joining the garrison at Vera Cruz, he could muster but 250 men; while Narvaez, who commanded the expedition from Cuba, had brought 800 foot soldiers and 80 horses, with twelve pieces of cannon. The latter had taken possession of the city of Zempoalla and was strongly posted in one of its temples. There Cortés surprised him in a night attack, took him prisoner, in a wounded state, and compelled

his troops to lay down their arms. Nearly the whole of the latter were soon captivated by the commanding genius of the man they had been sent to arrest, and enlisted in his service. He found himself now at the head of a thousand well-armed men; and he found in the same moment that he needed them all. For news came from Mexico that Alvarado, thinking to anticipate and crush a suspected intention of the Mexicans to rise against him, had provoked the revolt and made it desperate by a most perfidious, brutal massacre of several hundred of the chief persons of the empire, committed while they were celebrating one of the festivals of their religion, in the temple. The Spaniards at Mexico were now beleaguered as the consequence, in their quarters, and their only hope was the hope that Cortés would make haste to their rescue,—which he did."—W. Robertson, *History of America*, v. 2, bk. 5.

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 4, ch. 17-23.

1520 (June-July).—Return of Cortés to the Mexican capital.—Battle in the city.—Death of Montezuma.—Disastrous retreat of the Spaniards.—“La noche triste.”—The alarming intelligence which came to him from the Mexican capital called out in Cortés the whole energy of his nature. Hastily summoning back the various expeditions he had already sent out, and gathering all his forces together, he “reviewed his men, and found that they amounted to 1,300 soldiers, among whom were 96 horsemen, 80 cross-bowmen, and about 80 musketeers. Cortez marched with great strides to Mexico, and entered the city at the head of this formidable force on the 24th of June, 1520, the day of John the Baptist. Very different was the reception of Cortez on this occasion from that on his first entry into Mexico, when Montezuma had gone forth with all pomp to meet him. Now, the Indians stood silently in the doorways of their houses, and the bridges between the houses were taken up. Even when he arrived at his own quarters he found the gates barred, so strict had been the siege, and he had to demand an entry.” The Mexicans, strangely enough, made no attempt to oppose his entrance into the city and his junction with Alvarado; yet the day after his return their attack upon the Spanish quarters, now so strongly reinforced, was renewed. “Cortez, who was not at all given to exaggeration, says that neither the streets nor the terraced roofs (‘azoteas’) were visible, being entirely obscured by the people who were upon them; that the multitude of stones was so great that it seemed as if it rained stones; and that the arrows came so thickly that the walls and the courts were full of them, rendering it difficult to move about. Cortez made two or three desperate sallies, and was wounded. The Mexicans succeeded in setting fire to the fortress, which was with difficulty subdued, and they would have scaled the walls at the point where the fire had done most damage but for a large force of cross-bowmen, musketeers, and artillery, which Cortez threw forward to meet the danger. The Mexicans at last drew back, leaving no fewer than 80 Spaniards wounded in this first encounter. The ensuing morning, as soon as it was daylight, the attack was renewed. . . . Again, and with considerable success, Cortez made sallies from the fortress in the course of the day; but at the end of it there were about 60 more of his men to be added to the list of wounded, already large, from the injuries received on the preceding day. The



AZTEC RUINS, MITLA, MEXICO

third day was devoted by the ingenious Cortez to making three movable fortresses, called 'mantas,' which, he thought, would enable his men, with less danger, to contend against the Mexicans upon their terraced roofs. . . . It was on this day that the unfortunate Montezuma, either at the request of Cortez, or of his own accord, came out upon a battlement and addressed the people." He was interrupted by a shower of stones and arrows and received wounds from which he died soon after. The fighting on this day was more desperate than it had been before. The Spaniards undertook to dislodge a body of the Indians who had posted themselves on the summit of the great temple, which was dangerously near at hand. Again and again they were driven back, until Cortés bound his shield to his wounded arm and led the assault. Then, after three hours of fighting, from terrace to terrace, they gained the upper platform and put every Mexican to the sword. But 40 Spaniards perished in the struggle. "This fight in the temple gave a momentary brightness to the arms of the Spaniards and afforded Cortez an opportunity to resume negotiations. But the determination of the Mexicans was fixed and complete. . . . They would all perish, if that were needful, to gain their point of destroying the Spaniards. They bade Cortez look at the streets, the squares, and the terraces, covered with people; and then, in a business-like and calculating manner, they told him that if 25,000 of them were to die for each Spaniard, still the Spaniards would perish first. . . . It generally requires at least as much courage to retreat as to advance. Indeed, few men have the courage and the ready wisdom to retreat in time. But Cortez, once convinced that his position in Mexico was no longer tenable, wasted no time or energy in parleying with danger. Terror had lost its influence with the Mexicans, and superior strategy was of little avail against such overpowering numbers. . . . Cortez resolved to quit the city that night [July 1, 1520]. . . . A little before midnight the stealthy march began. The Spaniards succeeded in laying down the pontoon over the first bridge-way, and the vanguard with Sandoval passed over; but, while the rest were passing, the Mexicans gave the alarm with loud shouts and blowing of horns. . . . Almost immediately upon this alarm the lake was covered with canoes. It rained, and the misfortunes of the night commenced by two horses slipping from the pontoon into the water. Then the Mexicans attacked the pontoon-bearers so furiously that it was impossible for them to raise it up again." After that, all seems to have been a confused struggle in the darkness, where even Cortés could do little for the unfortunate rear-guard of his troops. "This memorable night has ever been celebrated in American history as 'la noche triste.' In this flight from Mexico all the artillery was lost, and there perished 450 Spaniards, . . . 4,000 of the Indian allies, 46 horses, and most of the Mexican prisoners, including one son and two daughters of Montezuma, and his nephew the King of Tezcoco. A loss which posterity will ever regret was that of the books and accounts, memorials and writings, of which there were some, it is said, that contained a narrative of all that had happened since Cortez left Cuba. . . . In the annals of retreats there has seldom been one recorded which proved more entirely disastrous."—A. Helps. *Spanish conquest in America*, v. 2, bk. 10, ch. 7-8.

1520-1521.—Retreat to Tlascalala.—Reinforcements and recovery.—Cortés in the field again.

—Preparations to attack Mexico.—"After the disasters and fatigues of the 'noche triste,' the melancholy and broken band of Cortez rested for a day at Tacuba, whilst the Mexicans returned to their capital, probably to bury the dead and purify their city. It is singular, yet it is certain, that they did not follow up their successes by a death blow at the disarmed Spaniards. But this momentary paralysis of their efforts was not to be trusted, and accordingly Cortez began to retreat eastwardly, under the guidance of the Tlascalans, by a circuitous route round the northern limits of lake Zumpango. The flying forces and their auxiliaries were soon in a famishing condition, subsisting alone on corn or on wild cherries gathered in the forest, with occasional refreshment and support from the carcass of a horse that perished by the way. For six days these fragments of the Spanish army continued their weary pilgrimage, and, on the seventh, reached Otumba." At Otumba their progress was barred by a vast army of the Aztecs, which had marched by a shorter road to intercept them; but after a desperate battle the natives fled and the Spaniards were troubled no more until they reached the friendly shelter of Tlascalala. The Tlascalans held faithfully to their alliance and received the flying strangers with helpful hands and encouraging words. But many of Cortez' men demanded permission to continue their retreat to Vera Cruz. "Just at this moment, too, Cuitlahua, who mounted the throne of Mexico on the death of Montezuma, despatched a mission to the Tlascalans, proposing to bury the hatchet, and to unite in sweeping the Spaniards from the realm." A hot discussion ensued in the council of the Tlascalcan chiefs, which resulted in the rejection of the Mexican proposal, and the confidence of Cortez was restored. He succeeded in pacifying his men, and gave them employment by expeditions against tribes and towns within reach which adhered to the Mexican king. After some time he obtained reinforcements, by an arrival of vessels at Vera Cruz bringing men and supplies, and he began to make serious preparations for the reconquest of the Aztec capital. He "constructed new arms and caused old ones to be repaired; made powder with sulphur obtained from the volcano of Popocatepetl; and, under the direction of his builder, Lopez, prepared the timber for brigantines, which he designed to carry, in pieces, and launch on the lake at the town of Tezcoco. At that port, he resolved to prepare himself fully for the final attack, and, this time, he determined to assault the enemy's capital by water as well as by land." The last day of December found him once more on the shores of the Mexican lake, encamped at Tezcoco, with a Spanish force restored to 600 men in strength, having 40 horses, 80 arquebuses and nine small cannon. Of Indian allies he is said to have had many thousands. Meantime, Cuitlahua had died of smallpox—which came to the country with the Spaniards—and had been succeeded by Guatemozin, his nephew, a vigorous young man of twenty-five. "At Tezcoco, Cortez was firmly planted on the eastern edge of the valley of Mexico, in full sight of the capital which lay across the lake, near its western shore, at the distance of about twelve miles. Behind him, towards the sea-coast, he commanded the country. . . . while, by passes through lower spurs of the mountains, he might easily communicate with the valleys of which the Tlascalans and Cholulans were masters." One by one he reduced and destroyed or occupied the neighboring towns,

and overran the surrounding country, in expeditions which made the complete circle of the valley and gave him a complete knowledge of it, while they re-established the prestige of the Spaniards and the terror of their arms. On the 28th of April the newly built brigantines, 12 in number, were launched upon the lake, and all was in readiness for an attack upon the city, with forces now increased by fresh arrivals to 87 horse and 818 Spanish infantry, with three iron field pieces and 15 brass falconets.—B. Mayer, *Mexico, Aztec, Spanish and Republican*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 6-8.

1521 (May-July).—**Beginning of siege of Aztec capital.**—"The observations which Cortés had made in his late tour of reconnaissance had determined him to begin the siege by distributing his forces into three separate camps, which he proposed to establish at the extremities of the principal causeways," under three of his captains, Alvarado, Olid and Sandoval. The movement of



PEDRO DE ALVARADO

forces from Tezcuco began on the 10th of May, 1521. Alvarado and Olid occupied Tacuba, cut the aqueduct which conveyed water from Chapultepec to the capital, and made an unsuccessful attempt to get possession of the fatal causeway of "the noche triste." Holding Tacuba, however, Alvarado commanded that important passage, while Sandoval, seizing the city of Iztapalapan, at the southern extremity of the lake, and Olid, establishing himself near the latter, at Cojohuacan, were planted at the two outlets, it would seem, of another of the causeways, which branched to attain the shore at those two points. When so much had been accomplished, Cortés, in person, set sail with his fleet of brigantines and speedily cleared the lake of all the swarm of light canoes and little vessels with which the unfortunate Mexicans tried vainly though valorously to dispute it with him. "This victory, more complete than even the sanguine temper of Cortés had prognosticated, proved the superiority of the Spaniards, and left them, henceforth, undisputed masters of the Aztec sea. It was nearly dusk when the squadron, coasting along the great southern cause-

way, anchored off the point of junction, called Xoloc, where the branch from Cojohuacan meets the principal dike. The avenue widened at this point, so as to afford room for two towers, or turreted temples, built of stone, and surrounded by walls of the same material, which presented altogether a position of some strength, and, at the present moment, was garrisoned by a body of Aztecs. They were not numerous; and Cortés, landing with his soldiers, succeeded without much difficulty in dislodging the enemy, and in getting possession of the works." Here, in a most advantageous position on the great causeway, the Spanish commander fortified himself and established his headquarters, summoning Olid with half of his force to join him and transferring Sandoval to Olid's post at Cojohuacan. "The two principal avenues to Mexico, those on the south and the west, were now occupied by the Christians. There still remained a third, the great dike of Tepejacac, on the north, which, indeed, taking up the principal street, that passed in a direct line through the heart of the city, might be regarded as a continuation of the dike of Iztapalapan. By this northern route a means of escape was still left open to the besieged, and they availed themselves of it, at present, to maintain their communications with the country, and to supply themselves with provisions. Alvarado, who observed this from his station at Tacuba, advised his commander of it, and the latter instructed Sandoval to take up his position on the causeway. That officer, though suffering at the time from a severe wound, . . . hastened to obey; and thus, by shutting up its only communication with the surrounding country, completed the blockade of the capital. But Cortés was not content to wait patiently the effects of a dilatory blockade." He arranged with his subordinate captains the plan of a simultaneous advance along each of the causeways toward the city. From his own post he pushed forward with great success, assisted by the brigantines which sailed along side, and which, by the flanking fire of their artillery, drove the Aztecs from one barricade after another, which they had erected at every dismantled bridge. Fighting their way steadily, the Spaniards traversed the whole length of the dike and entered the city; penetrated to the great square; saw once more their old quarters; scaled again the sides of the pyramid-temple, to slay the bloody priests and to strip the idols of their jewels and gold. But the Aztecs were frenzied by this sacrilege, as they had been frenzied by the same deed before, and renewed the battle with so much fury that the Spaniards were driven back in thorough panic and disarray. "All seemed to be lost;—when suddenly sounds were heard in an adjoining street, like the distant tramp of horses galloping rapidly over the pavement. They drew nearer and nearer, and a body of cavalry soon emerged on the great square. Though but a handful in number, they plunged boldly into the thick of the enemy," who speedily broke and fled, enabling Cortés to withdraw his troops in safety. Neither Alvarado nor Sandoval, who had greater difficulties to overcome, and who had to help from the brigantines, reached the suburbs of the city; but their assault had been vigorously made, and had been of great help to that of Cortés. The success of the demonstration spread consternation among the Mexicans and their vassals, and brought a number of the latter over to the Spanish side. Among these latter was the prince of Tezcuco, who joined Cortés, with a large force, in the next assault which the latter made presently upon the

city. Again penetrating to the great square, the Spaniards on this occasion destroyed the palaces there by fire. But the spirit of the Mexicans remained unbroken, and they were found in every encounter opposing as obstinate a resistance as ever. They contrived, too, for a remarkable length of time, to run the blockade of the brigantines on the lake and to bring supplies into the city by their canoes. But, at length, when most of the great towns of the neighborhood had deserted their cause, the supplies failed and starvation began to do its work in the fated city. At the same time, the Spaniards were amply provisioned, and their new allies built barracks and huts for their shelter. Cortés "would gladly have spared the town and its inhabitants. . . . He intimated more than once by means of the prisoners whom he released, his willingness to grant them fair terms of capitulation. Day after day, he fully expected his proffers would be accepted. But day after day he was disappointed. He had yet to learn how tenacious was the memory of the Aztecs."—W. H. Prescott, *History of the conquest of Mexico*, bk. 6, ch. 4-5.

1521 (July).—Disastrous repulse of Spaniards.—"The impatience of the soldiers grew to a great height, and was supported in an official quarter—by no less a person than Alderete, the king's treasurer. Cortez gave way, against his own judgment, to their importunities" and another general attack was ordered. "On the appointed day Cortez moved from his camp, supported by seven brigantines, and by more than 3,000 canoes filled with his Indian allies. When his soldiers reached the entrance of the city, he divided them in the following manner. There were three streets which led to the market-place from the position which the Spaniards had already gained. Along the principal street, the king's treasurer, with 70 Spaniards and 15,000 or 20,000 allies, was to make his way. His rear was to be protected by a small guard of horsemen. The other two streets were smaller, and led from the street of Tacuba to the market-place. Along the broader of these two streets Cortez sent two of his principal captains, with 80 Spaniards and 10,000 Indians; he himself, with eight horsemen, 75 foot-soldiers, 25 musketeers, and an 'infinite number' of allies, was to enter the narrower street. At the entrance to the street of Tacuba he left two large cannon, with eight horsemen to guard them, and at the entrance of his own street he also left eight horsemen to protect the rear. . . . The Spaniards and their allies made their entrance into the city with even more success and less embarrassment than on previous occasions. Bridges and barricades were gained, and the three main bodies of the army moved forward into the heart of the city." But in the excitement of their advance they left unrepaired behind them a great breach in the causeway, ten or twelve paces wide, although Cortez had repeatedly enjoined upon his captains that no such dangerous death-trap should be left to catch them in the event of a retreat. The neglect in this case was most disastrous. Being presently repulsed and driven back, the division which had allowed this chasm to yawn behind it was engulfed. Cortez, whose distrust had been excited in some way, discovered the danger, but too late. He made his way to the spot, only to find "the whole aperture so full of Spaniards and Indians that, as he says, there was not room for a straw to float upon the surface of the water. The peril was so imminent that Cortez not only thought that the Conquest of Mexico was gone, but that the term of his life

as well as of his victories had come, and he resolved to die there fighting. All that he could do at first was to help his men out of the water; and, meanwhile, the Mexicans charged upon them in such numbers that he and his little party were entirely surrounded. The enemy seized upon his person, and would have carried him off but for the resolute bravery of some of his guard, one of whom lost his life there in succouring his master. . . . At last he and a few of his men succeeded in fighting their way to the broad street of Tacuba, where, like a brave captain, instead of continuing his flight, he and the few horsemen who were with him turned round and formed a rear guard to protect his retreating troops. He also sent immediate orders to the king's treasurer and the other commanders to make good their retreat."—A. Helps, *Spanish conquest in America*, v. 2, bk. 11, ch. 1.—"As we were thus retreating, we continually heard the large drum beating from the summit of the chief temple of the city. Its tone was mournful indeed, and sounded like the very instrument of Satan. This drum was so vast in its dimensions that it could be heard from eight to twelve miles distance. Every time we heard its mournful sound, the Mexicans, as we subsequently learnt, offered to their idols the bleeding hearts of our unfortunate countrymen. . . . After we had at last, with excessive toil, crossed a deep opening, and had arrived at our encampment, . . . the large drum of Huitzilopochtli again resounded from the summit of the temple, accompanied by all the hellish music of shell trumpets, horns, and other instruments. . . . We could plainly see the platform, with the chapel in which those cursed idols stood; how the Mexicans had adorned the heads of the Spaniards with feathers, and compelled their victims to dance round the god Huitzilopochtli; we saw how they stretched them out at full length on a large stone, ripped open their breasts with flint knives, tore out the palpitating heart and offered it to their idols. Alas! we were forced to be spectators of all this, and how they then seized hold of the dead bodies by the legs and threw them headlong down the steps of the temple, at the bottom of which other executioners stood ready to receive them, who severed the arms, legs, and heads from the bodies, drew the skin off the faces, which were tanned with the beards still adhering to them, and produced as spectacles of mockery and derision at their feasts; the legs, arms, and other parts of the body being cut up and devoured. . . . On that terrible day the loss of the three divisions amounted to 60 men and 7 horses."—Bernal Diaz del Castillo, *Memoirs* (tr. by Lockhart), v. 2, ch. 152.

1521 (August).—Last days of the siege.—Taking of ruined city by the Spaniards.—End of Aztec dominion.—"Guatemozin's victory diffused immense enthusiasm among the Aztecs and those who remained united to them. The priests proclaimed that the gods, satiated by the sacrifice of the Spanish prisoners, had promised to rid the country of the foreigners, and that the promise would be fulfilled within eight days. This intelligence spread alarm among the allies of the Spaniards. They deserted in great numbers—not to go over to the Aztecs, whose anger they dreaded, but to return to their homes. Cortez had good watch kept in the camp. The sorties of the besieged were repulsed; the eight days passed without the Spaniards having lost more than a few marauders. The allies, seeing that the oracle was wrong, came back to their former friends. The

aggressive ardour of the besieged grew cooler, and they soon found themselves assailed by the plagues that ordinarily attack troops massed in a city—not only famine, but epidemic diseases, the result of want and overcrowding. . . . Famine pinched them more cruelly day after day. Lizards and such rats as they could find were their richest nourishment; reptiles and insects were eagerly looked for, trees stripped of their bark, and roots stealthily sought after by night. Meanwhile, Cortez, seeing that there was no other means of bringing them to submission, pursued the work of destruction he had resolved on with so much regret. . . . Heaps of bodies were found in every street that was won from them; this people, so punctilious in their customs of sepulture, had ceased to bury their dead. . . . Soon there was left to the besieged but one quarter, and that the most incommodious of all, forming barely an eighth of the city, where there were not houses enough to give them shelter. . . . The 13th August, 1521, had now arrived, and that was to be the last day of this once flourishing empire. Before making a final assault, Cortez once more invited the emperor to his presence. His envoys came back with the 'cihuacoatl,' a magistrate of the first rank, who declared, with an air of consternation, that Guatemozin knew how to die, but that he would not come to treat. Then, turning towards Cortez, he added: 'Do now whatever you please.' 'Be it so,' replied Cortez; 'go and tell your friends to prepare; they are going to die.' In fact, the troops advanced; there was a last mêlée, a last carnage, on land and on the lake. . . . Guatemozin, driven to the shore of the lake, threw himself into a canoe with a few warriors, and endeavoured to escape by dint of rowing; but he was pursued by a brigantine of the Spanish fleet, taken and brought to Cortez, who received him with the respect due to a crowned head. . . . The Aztec empire had ceased to exist; Spanish sway was established in Mexico. The Cross was triumphant in that fine country, and there was no sharer in its reign. The number of persons that perished in the siege has been differently estimated. The most moderate calculation puts it at 120,000 on the side of the Aztecs. Very many Indians fell on the side of the besiegers. The historian Ixtlixochitl says there were 30,000 dead of the warriors of Tezucuo alone. All that were left alive of the Aztecs were, at the request of Guatemozin, allowed to leave the city in freedom, on the morning after it was taken. . . . They dispersed in all directions, everywhere spreading a terror of the Spaniards, and the feeling that to resist them was impossible. That conviction must have been established speedily and firmly, for there was no further attempt at resistance, unless it were at one point, in the territory of Panuco, near the Atlantic Ocean."—M. Chevalier, *Mexico, ancient and modern*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 8-9.

ALSO IN: H. Cortés, *Despatches* (tr. by G. Folsom), letter 3, ch. 5.

1521-1524.—Rebuilding of the capital.—Completion of the conquest.—"The first ebullition of triumph was succeeded in the army by very different feelings, as they beheld the scanty spoil gleaned from the conquered city;" and Cortés was driven, by the clamors and suspicions of his soldiers, to subject his heroic captive, Guatemozin, to torture, in the hope of wringing from him a disclosure of some concealment of his imagined treasures. Its only result was to add another infamy to the name and memory of the conquerors.

"The commander-in-chief, with his little band of Spaniards, now daily recruited by reinforcements from the Islands, still occupied the quarters of Cojohuacan, which they had taken up at the termination of the siege. Cortés did not immediately decide in what quarter of the Valley to establish the new capital which was to take the place of the ancient Tenochtitlan. . . . At length he decided on retaining the site of the ancient city, . . . and he made preparations for the reconstruction of the capital on a scale of magnificence which should, in his own language, 'raise her to the rank of Queen of the surrounding provinces, in the same manner as she had been of yore.' The labor was to be performed by the Indian population, drawn from all quarters of the Valley, and including the Mexicans themselves, great numbers of whom still lingered in the neighborhood of their ancient residence. . . . In less than four years from the destruction of Mexico, a new city had risen on its ruins, which, if inferior to the ancient capital in extent, surpassed it in magnificence and strength. It occupied so exactly the same site as its predecessor that the 'plaza mayor,' or great square, was the same spot which had been covered by the huge 'teocalli' and the palace of Montezuma; while the principal streets took their departure as before from this central point, and, passing through the whole length of the city, terminated at the principal causeways. Great alterations, however, took place in the fashion of the architecture." Meantime, Cortés had been brought into much danger at the Spanish court, by the machinations of his enemies, encouraged by Bishop Fonseca, the same minister who pursued Columbus with hostility. His friends in Spain rallied, however, to his support, and the result of an investigation, undertaken by a board to which the Emperor Charles V. referred all the charges against him, was the confirmation of his acts in Mexico to their full extent. "He was constituted Governor, Captain-General, and Chief Justice of New Spain, with power to appoint to all offices, civil and military, and to order any person to leave the country whose residence there he might deem prejudicial to the interests of the Crown. This judgment of the council was ratified by Charles V., and the commission investing Cortés with these ample powers was signed by the emperor at Valladolid, October 15th, 1522. . . . The attention of Cortés was not confined to the capital. He was careful to establish settlements in every part of the country which afforded a favourable position for them. . . . While thus occupied with the internal economy of the country, Cortés was still bent on his great schemes of discovery and conquest." He fitted out a fleet to explore the shores of the Pacific, and another in the Gulf of Mexico—the prime object of both being the discovery of some strait that would open one ocean to the other. He also sent Olid in command of an expedition by sea to occupy and colonize Honduras, and Alvarado, by land, at the head of a large force to subdue Guatemala. The former, having partly accomplished his mission, attempted to establish for himself an independent jurisdiction, and his conduct induced Cortés to proceed to Honduras in person. It was in the course of this expedition that Guatemozin, the dethroned Mexican chief, who had been forced to accompany his conqueror, was accused of a plot against the Spaniards and was hung to a tree. We have the testimony of Bernal Diaz, one of the Spaniards on the spot, that the execution "was most unjust, and was thought wrong by all of

us." "Within three short years after the Conquest [Cortés] had reduced under the dominion of Castile an extent of country more than 400 leagues in length, as he affirms, on the Atlantic coast, and more than 500 on the Pacific; and, with the exception of a few interior provinces of no great importance, had brought them to a condition of entire tranquillity."—W. H. Prescott, *History of the conquest of Mexico*, bk. 7, ch. 1-3.

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 5 (*Mexico*, v. 2), ch. 1-8.

1535-1540.—Introduction of printing. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1535-1705.

1535-1822.—Under Spanish viceroys.—"Antonio de Mendoza, Conde de Tendilla, was the first viceroy sent by Charles V. to New Spain. He arrived in the autumn of 1535. . . . He had a well-balanced and moderate character, and governed the country with justice and generosity combined. He . . . set himself to reform the abuses which had already appeared, protected the Indians from the humiliations which the newly arrived Spaniards were disposed to put upon them; he stimulated all branches of agriculture, and finding the natives were already well informed in the cultivation of land, he encouraged them in this pursuit by all possible efforts. . . . To the religious orders in Mexico is due in great measure the firm base upon which the government of Spain was established there. The new viceroy fully recognized this, and encouraged the foundations of colleges and schools already undertaken by them. In every way he promoted the prosperity and growth of the country, and had the satisfaction in the course of his government, which lasted 15 years, to see everything bear the marks of his judgment and enterprise. It was he who founded two cities [Guadalajara and Valladolid] which have reached great importance. . . . Cortés was away when the Viceroy Mendoza arrived in Mexico. He still retained his title as governor, with the same powers always conferred upon him; but his long absences from the capital made it necessary, as he fully recognized, that some other strong authority should be established there. Nevertheless, he never got on very well with such other authorities, and on his return soon became at odds with Mendoza, who, in his opinion, interfered with his prerogatives. It was then that Cortés bade farewell to his family, and taking with him his eldest son and heir, Don Martin, then eight years old, he embarked for Spain, leaving Mendoza undisturbed in the execution of his office. . . . In 1530 was issued the first book printed in Mexico, on a press imported by Mendoza, and put into the hands of one Juan Pablos. . . . In 1550 this good ruler [Mendoza] sailed away from Mexico. . . . He passed on to take charge of the government of Peru, by a practice which came to be quite common—a sort of diplomatic succession by which the viceroys of New Spain were promoted to the post at Peru. Don Luis de Velasco, second viceroy of New Spain, made his entrance into the capital with great pomp, at the end of the year 1550. He, like his predecessor, had been selected with care by the orders of Charles V. . . . His first decree was one liberating 150 Indians from slavery, who were working chiefly in the mines. . . . He established in Mexico, for the security of travellers upon the highway, the tribunal of the Holy Brotherhood, instituted in Spain for the same purpose in the time of Isabella. He founded the Royal University of Mexico, and the Royal Hospital for the exclusive use of the natives. . . . The good Viceroy Velasco died in 1564, having gov-

erned the country for 14 years. . . . During the government of this ruler and his predecessor all the administration of New Spain, political, civil, and religious was established upon so firm a foundation that it could go on in daily action like a well regulated machine." In the meantime, Charles V had resigned the burden of his great sovereignty, transferring all his crowns to his narrow-souled son, Philip II, who cared nothing for the New World except as a source of gold and silver supply and a field for religious bigotry. Under Philip "the character of the viceroys was lowered from the high standard adhered to when Charles the Emperor selected them himself. To follow the long list of them would be most tedious and useless, as they passed in rotation, governing according to the best of their lights for several years in Mexico, and then passing on, either by death or by promotion to Peru. In 1571 the Inquisition was fully established. . . . and the next year the Jesuits arrived. . . . The first 'auto-da-fé' was celebrated in the year 1574, when, as its chronicler mentions cheerfully, 'there perished 21 pestilent Lutherans.' From this time such ceremonies were of frequent occurrence, but the Inquisition never reached the point it did in Old Spain. [See INQUISITION: 1487-1567.] . . . The viceroys of New Spain under Philip III. [1578-1621] were, for the most part, men of judgment and moderation. While the government at home, in the hands of profligate favorites, was growing weaker and weaker, that of Mexico was becoming more firmly established." It was not shaken nor disturbed by the War of the Spanish Succession, during the early years of the eighteenth century; but the Revolution in France, which convulsed Europe before that century closed, wrought changes which were lasting in the New World as well as the Old. "There were in all 64 viceroys, beginning with Don Antonio de Mendoza, 1535, and ending with Juan O'Donoju in 1822."—S. Hale, *Story of Mexico*, ch. 20-22.

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 5-6 (*Mexico*, v. 2-3).—D. E. Smith, *Viceroy of New Spain in the eighteenth century*.—H. I. Priestly, *José Gálvez*.

1539-1586.—Expeditions of Niza, Coronado, and others to the North.—Search for the seven cities of Cibola and Quivera. See AMERICA: 1530-1541: PUEBLOS.

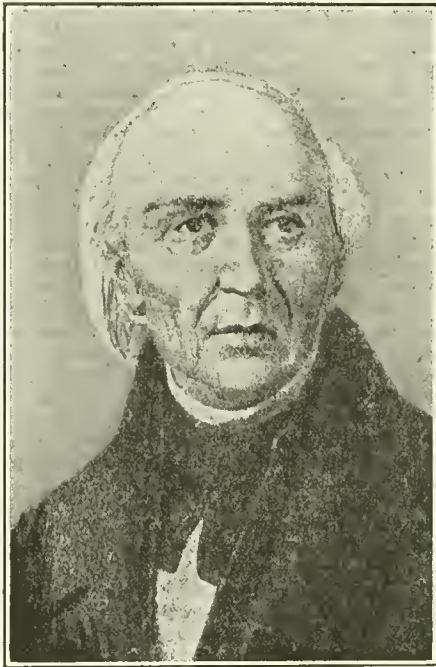
1564-1572.—Commercial relations with Philippines. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1564-1572.

1786.—Government by Intendants. See LATIN AMERICA: 1715-1810; INTENDANTS.

1789.—Nootka Sound controversy. See NOOTKA SOUND CONTROVERSY.

1810-1819.—First revolutionary movement causes.—Hidalgo.—Allende.—Morelos.—"The causes of the coming revolution were not hidden. The law that excluded Spaniards born in America from equal rights with those who were immigrants was a natural, not to say necessary, source of discontent among people whose good-will was much needed by any viceroy. There was inevitably not a little mutual repugnance between the Mexican and Spanish stocks, and the home government did nothing to mollify such asperities. There were commercial monopolies militant against public interests. The clergy were alienated, and since they were not thus so serviceable as formerly in the part of mediators in enforcing governmental aims, it was found necessary to use force where the people were not accustomed to it. The Viceroy José de Iturrigaray practised a seeming concession that deceived no one, and he pursued

his exactions partly by reason of self-interest, and partly in order to supply Madrid with means to meet the financial troubles that the Napoleonic era was creating. After some years of these conditions in New Spain, a conspiracy, resulting from a reaction, sent the viceroy back to Spain a prisoner. This gave strength to revolutionary sentiments, and a few trials for treason increased the discontent. The men who were now put successively in the vice-regal place had few qualities for the times, and a certain timidity of policy was not conducive to strength of government. . . . The outbreak, when it came, brought to the front a curate of Dolores, a native priest, Miguel Hidalgo, who commanded the confidence of the disaffected, and was relied upon to guide the priesthood. Ignacio de Allende had some of the soldierly qualities needed for a generalissimo. The purpose of these



MIGUEL HIDALGO Y COSTILLA

men and their allies, before they should openly proclaim a revolt, was to seize some of the leading Spaniards; but their plot being discovered, they hastily assembled at Dolores and raised the standard of revolt (1810). Thus banded together, but badly organized and poorly armed, a body of 5,000 insurgents marched from Dolores, headed by Hidalgo and Allende, and approached Guanajuato, where the intendente Riaña had entrenched himself in a fortified alhondiga, or granary. The attack of the rebels was headlong and bloody. The gates were fired with flaming rubbish, and through the glowing way the mad throng rushed, and after a hand-to-hand conflict (September 28, 1810) the fortress fell. The royalist leader had been killed, and scenes of pillage and riot followed. Meanwhile the viceroy in Mexico prepared to receive the insurgents, and his ally, the church, excommunicated their leaders. The military force of the royalists was inconsiderable, and what there was, it was feared, might prove not as loyal as was desirable. As Hidalgo marched towards

the capital, he tried to seduce to his side a young lieutenant, Augustin Iturbide, who was in command of a small outlying force. The future emperor declined the offer, and, making his way to the city, was at once sent to join Trujillo, who commanded a corps of observation which confronted the insurgents, and who finally ran the chances of a battle at Las Cruces. . . . The insurgents soon surrounded him, and he was only able to reach the city by breaking with a part of his force through the enveloping line. Hidalgo had lost 2,000 men, but he had gained the day. He soon intercepted a despatch and learned from it that General Calleja had been put in motion from San Luis Potosi, and it seemed more prudent to Hidalgo that, instead of approaching Mexico, he should retreat to be nearer his recruiting ground. The retrograde movement brought the usual result to an undisciplined force, and he was already weakened by desertions when Calleja struck his line of march at Aculco. Hidalgo felt it important for the revolution to have time enough to spread into other parts of the province, and so he merely fought Calleja to cover his further retreat. The rebel leader soon gathered his forces at Celaya, while Allende, his colleague, posted himself at Guanajuato. Here the latter was attacked by Calleja and routed, and the royal forces made bloody work in the town. Hidalgo, moving to Valladolid, reorganized his army, and then, proceeding to Guadalajara, he set up a form of government, with Ignacio Lopez Rayon as Secretary-general. At this time the insurgents held completely the provinces of Nueva Galicia, Zacatecas, and San Luis Potosi, a belt of country stretching from sea to sea in the latitude of Tampico. . . . In January, 1811, the signs were not very propitious for the royalists. . . . At this juncture . . . Hidalgo moved out from Guadalajara with his entire force, which was large enough, consisting of 60,000 foot, 20,000 horse, and 100 canon; but it was poorly armed, and without effective discipline; while Calleja commanded a well-equipped and well-organized force, but in extent it only counted 3,000 foot, with as many horse, and ten guns. At the bridge of Calderon, 10 or 11 leagues from the city, Hidalgo prepared to stand. Here Calleja attacked him," and won the day, entering Guadalajara as a victor on the 21st of January, 1811. "Hidalgo fled with his broken army, and soon resigned the command to Allende. This general had scarcely 4,000 or 5,000 men left when he reached Saltillo, where he joined Jimenes. The disheartenment of defeat was spreading through the country. Town after town was heard from as yielding to the victors. The leaders, counselling together at Saltillo, resolved to escape to the United States; but, as they were marching,—about 2,000 in all, with 24 guns and a money-chest,—they fell into an ambush planned in the interest of a counter-revolution by one Elizondo, and, with nothing more than a show of resistance, the party was captured, one and all. The judgment of death upon Hidalgo, Allende, and Jimenes soon followed. The main force of the insurgents had thus disappeared, but a small body still remained in arms under the lead of José Maria Morelos." Morelos was uneducated, but capable and energetic, and he kept life in the rebellion for two years. He captured Orizaba in October, 1812, Oajaca in the following month, and Acapulco in the spring of 1813. In November of that year he appeared before Valladolid, the capital of Michoacan, but was attacked there by Iturbide and routed. "In January, 1814, Morelos

made a final stand at Puruaran, but Iturbide still drove him on. Disaster followed upon disaster, till finally Morelos was deposed by his own congress. This body had adherents enough to make it necessary for Calleja to appeal to the home government for a reinforcement of 8,000 troops. . . . Morelos, meanwhile, commanding an escort which was protecting the migratory congress, was intercepted and captured by a force of royalists, and, after the forms of a trial, he was executed December 22, 1815. The campaign of 1816 was sustained by the insurgents against a force of 80,000 men which Calleja had collected. . . . Neither side had much success, and the war was simply tedious. At last, in August, a new viceroy, Juan Riaz de Apodaca, succeeded to Calleja, and uniting a more humane policy with vigor in disposing his forces, the leading rebel officers . . . surrendered in January, 1817. . . . A certain quixotic interest is lent to the closing months of the revolution by the adventurous exploits of Espoz y Mina. He had fitted out a small expedition in the United States, which, landing on the Gulf coast, for a while swept victoriously inland. . . . But Mina was finally surprised and executed. Other vagrant rebel leaders fell one by one into the hands of the royalists; but Guadalupe Victoria held out, and concealed himself in the wilds for two years."—J. Winsor, *Spanish North America (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 8, ch. 4)*.

ALSO IN: W. D. Robinson, *Memoirs of the Mexican Revolution*.

1819.—Texas occupied as a province. See TEXAS: 1819-1835.

1820-1826.—Independence from Spain.—Brief empire of Iturbide and its fall.—Constitution of republic of united Mexican states.—"The establishment of a constitutional government in Spain, in 1820, produced upon Mexico an effect very different from what was anticipated. As the constitution provided for a more liberal administration of government in Mexico than had prevailed since 1812, the increased freedom of the elections again threw the minds of the people into a ferment, and the spirit of independence, which had been only smothered, broke forth anew. Moreover, divisions were created among the old Spaniards themselves; some being in favor of the old system, while others were sincerely attached to the constitution. Some formidable inroads on the property and prerogatives of the church alienated the clergy from the new government, and induced them to desire a return to the old system. The Viceroy, Apodaca, encouraged by the hopes held out by the Royalists in Spain, although he had at first taken the oath to support the constitution, secretly favored the party opposed to it, and arranged his plans for its overthrow. Don Augustin Iturbide, the person selected by the Viceroy to make the first open demonstration against the existing government, was offered the command of a body of troops on the western coast, at the head of which he was to proclaim the re-establishment of the absolute authority of the king. Iturbide, accepting the commission, departed from the capital to take command of the troops, but with intentions very different from those which the Viceroy supposed him to entertain. Reflecting upon the state of the country, and convinced of the facility with which the authority of Spain might be shaken off,—by bringing the Creole troops to act in concert with the old insurgents,—Iturbide resolved to proclaim Mexico wholly independent of the Spanish nation. Having his head quarters at the little

town of Iguala, on the road to Acapulco, Iturbide, on the 24th of February, 1821, there proclaimed his project, known as the 'Plan of Iguala,' and induced his soldiers to take an oath to support it. This 'Plan' declared that Mexico should be an independent nation, its religion Catholic, and its government a constitutional monarchy. The crown was offered to Ferdinand VII, of Spain, provided he would consent to occupy the throne in person; and, in case of his refusal, to his infant brothers, Don Carlos and Don Francisco. A constitution was to be formed by a Mexican Congress; . . . all distinctions of caste were to be abolished. . . . The Viceroy, astonished by this unexpected movement of Iturbide, and remaining irresolute and inactive at the capital, was deposed, and Don Francisco Novello, a military officer, was placed at the head of the government; but his authority was not generally recognized, and Iturbide was left to pursue his plans in the interior without interruption. Being joined by Generals Guerrero



AUGUSTIN ITURBIDE

and Victoria as soon as they knew that the independence of their country was the object of Iturbide, not only all the survivors of the first insurgents, but whole detachments of Creole troops flocked to his standard, and his success was soon rendered certain. The clergy and the people were equally decided in favor of independence; . . . and, before the month of July, the whole country recognized the authority of Iturbide, with the exception of the capital, in which Novello had shut himself up with the European troops. Iturbide had already reached Queretaro with his troops, on his road to Mexico, when he was informed of the arrival, at Vera Cruz, of a new Viceroy. . . . At Cordova, whither the Viceroy had been allowed to proceed, for the purpose of an interview with Iturbide, the latter induced him to accept by treaty the Plan of Iguala, as the only means of securing the lives and property of the Spaniards then in Mexico, and of establishing the right to the throne in the house of Bourbon. By this agreement, called the 'Treaty of Cordova,' the Viceroy, in the name of the king, his master, recognized the independence of Mexico, and gave up the capital

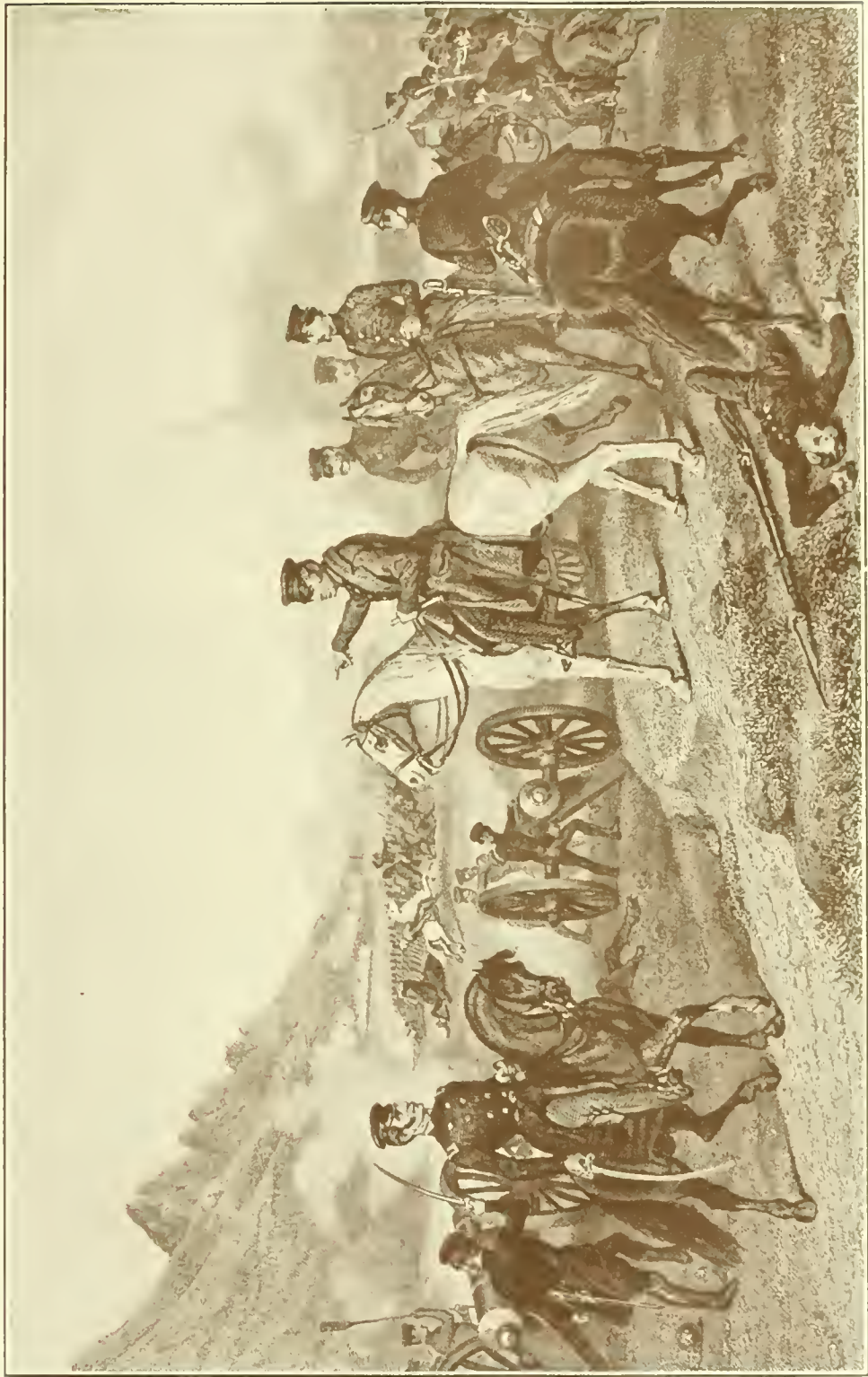
to the army of the insurgents, which took possession of it, without effusion of blood, on the 27th of September, 1821. All opposition being ended, and the capital occupied, in accordance with a provision of the Plan of Iguala a provisional junta was established, the principal business of which was to call a congress for the formation of a constitution suitable to the country. At the same time a regency, consisting of five individuals, was elected, at the head of which was placed Iturbide. . . . When the congress assembled [Feb. 24, 1822], three distinct parties were found amongst the members. The Bourbonists, adhering to the Plan of Iguala altogether, wished a constitutional monarchy, with a prince of the house of Bourbon at its head; the Republican, setting aside the Plan of Iguala, desired a federal republic; while a third party, the Iturbidists, adopting the Plan of Iguala with the exception of the article in favor of the Bourbons, wished to place Iturbide himself upon the throne. As it was soon learned that the Spanish government had declared the treaty of Cordova null and void, the Bourbonists ceased to exist as a party, and the struggle was confined to the Iturbidists and the Republicans." By the aid of a mob demonstration in the city of Mexico, on the night of May 18, 1822, the former triumphed, and Iturbide was declared emperor, under the title of Augustin the First. "The choice was ratified by the provinces without opposition, and Iturbide found himself in peaceable possession of a throne to which his own abilities and a concurrence of favorable circumstances had raised him. Had the monarch-elect been guided by counsels of prudence, and allowed his authority to be confined within constitutional limits, he might perhaps have continued to maintain a modified authority; but forgetting the unstable foundation of his throne, he began his reign with all the airs of hereditary royalty. On his accession a struggle for power immediately commenced between him and the congress." After arbitrarily imprisoning the most distinguished members of that body, Iturbide, at last, proclaimed its dissolution and substituted a junta of his own nomination. "Before the end of November an insurrection broke out in the northern provinces, but this was speedily quelled by the imperial troops." It was followed in December by a more formidable revolt, led off by Santa Anna (or Santana), a young general who had supported Iturbide, but who had been haughtily dismissed from the government of Vera Cruz. Santa Anna was joined by Victoria and other old Republican leaders, and the power of Iturbide crumbled so rapidly that he resigned his crown on the 19th of March, 1823, promising to quit the country, on being assured a yearly allowance of \$25,000 for his support. "With his family and suite he embarked for Leghorn on the 11th of May. . . . From Italy he proceeded to London, and made preparations for returning to Mexico; in consequence of which, congress, on the 28th of April, 1824, passed a decree of outlawry against him. He landed in disguise at Soto la Marina, July 14th, 1824; was arrested by General Garza, and shot at Padilla by order of the provincial congress of Tamaulipas, on the 10th of that month. . . . On the departure of Iturbide, a temporary executive was appointed, consisting of Generals Victoria, Bravo, and Negrete, by whom the government was administered until the meeting of a new congress, which assembled at the capital in August, 1823. This body immediately entered on the duties of preparing a new constitution, which was submitted on the 31st of January, 1824, and

definitively sanctioned on the 4th of October following. By this instrument, modeled somewhat after the constitution of the United States, the absolute independence of the country was declared, and the several Mexican Provinces were united in a Federal Republic. The legislative power was vested in a Congress, consisting of a Senate and a House of Representatives. . . . The supreme executive authority was vested in one individual, styled the 'President of the United Mexican States.' . . . The third article in the constitution declared that 'The Religion of the Mexican Nation is, and will be perpetually, the Roman Catholic Apostolic. The Nation will protect it by wise and just laws, and prohibit the exercise of any other whatever.' . . . On the 1st of January, 1825, the first congress under the federal constitution assembled in the city of Mexico; and, at the same time, General Guadalupe Victoria was installed as president of the republic, and General Nicholas Bravo as vice-president. The years 1825 and 1826 passed with few disturbances; the administration of Victoria was generally popular; and the country enjoyed a higher degree of prosperity than at any former or subsequent period."—M. Willson, *American history*, bk. 3, pt. 2, ch. 4-5.

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 7 (*Mexico*, v. 3), ch. 29-33, and v. 8, ch. 1-2.

1822-1824.—Duration of union of Costa Rica with Mexico. See COSTA RICA: 1821-1848.

1822-1828.—Free-Masonry in politics.—Rival branches of the order.—Escocés and the Yorkinos.—For some years a furious contest raged between two political societies, "known as the 'Escocés' and 'Yorkinos'—or, as we should call them, Scotch Free-Masons and York Free-Masons—whose secret organizations were employed for political purposes by two rival political parties. [See MASONIC SOCIETIES: Central and South America.] At the time of the restoration of the Constitutional Government of Spain in 1820, Free-Masonry was introduced into Mexico; and as it was derived from the Scotch branch of that order, it was called, after the name of the people of Scotland, 'Escocés.' Into this institution were initiated many of the old Spaniards still remaining in the country, the Creole aristocracy, and the privileged classes—parties that could ill endure the elevation of a Creole colonel, Iturbide, to the Imperial throne. When Mr. Poinset was sent out as Ambassador to Mexico [1822], he carried with him the charter for a Grand Lodge from the American, or York order of Free-Masons in the United States. Into this new order the leaders of the Democratic party were initiated. The bitter rivalry that sprang up between these two branches of the Masonic body kept the country in a ferment for ten years, and resulted finally in the formation of a party whose motto was opposition to all secret societies, and who derived their name of Anti-Masons from the party of the same name then flourishing in the United States. When the Escocés had so far lost ground in popular favor as to be in the greatest apprehension from their prosperous but imbibed rivals, the Yorkinos, as a last resort, to save themselves, and to ruin the hated organization, they pronounced against all secret societies. . . . 'General Bravo, Vice-President of Mexico, and leader of the Escocés, having issued his proclamation declaring that, as a last resort, he appealed to arms to rid the republic of that pest, secret societies, and that he would not give up the contest until he had rooted them out, root and branch, took up his position at Tulansingo—a village about 30



BATTLE OF BUENA VISTA, 1847
In the foreground are General Taylor and Captain Bragg
(After painting by W. H. Powell)

miles north of the City of Mexico. Here, at about daylight on the morning of the 7th January, 1828, he was assailed by General Guerrero, the leader of the Yorkinos, and commander of the forces of government.' After a slight skirmish, in which eight men were killed and six wounded, General Bravo and his party were made prisoners; and thus perished forever the party of the Escocés. This victory was so complete as to prove a real disaster to the Yorkinos. The want of outside pressure led to internal dissensions; so that when two of its own members, Guerrero and Pedraza, became rival candidates for the presidency, the election was determined by a resort to arms."—R. A. Wilson, *Mexico: Its peasants and its priests*, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *history of the Pacific states*, v. 8 (*Mexico*, v. 5) ch. 2

1824.—Represented at first congress of South American republics. See LATIN AMERICA: 1822-1830.

1824-1835.—Control of Texas.—Motives for war with Texas. See TEXAS: 1819-1835; 1824-1835.

1828-1844.—Rise of Santa Anna.—Dissolution of the federal system.—Pastry War.—Unitary republic established.—Recognition by Spain.—Retgression and decline.—"After the death of Iturbide, by far the most powerful person in the nation was the Creole general Santa Anna, who, at the age of 24, had already destroyed the military empire of his chief. Santa Anna at first interested himself in the visionary project of Bolivar for framing a general confederation of the new nations of South America. [See COLOMBIA: 1826.] This project . . . failed completely; and for several years he settled down as governor of Vera Cruz, reconciled himself to the Federal Republic, and took no part in public life. In 1828, however, the Presidential election led to a civil war in which Santa Anna and his favourite Vera-crusanos first found out their capabilities; and they had an opportunity of testing them again in the next year, when the feeble force of Barrados, the last military attempt made by Spain to reduce Mexico, was cut to pieces at Tampico. From that movement Santa Anna became the sole controller of the destinies of the country: and in 1833 he was elected President. Forty years ago all Europe knew the picture of Santa Anna, with his tall spare figure, sunburnt face, and black hair curling over his forehead; how he lived on his hacienda of Manga de Clavo, cockfighting, gambling, and horse-racing, occasionally putting himself at the head of his bronzed troops, and either making a dash at an insurrection, or making a pronunciamiento on his own account. Mexican histories tell how gallantly he defended Vera Cruz in 1830, against the French invasion under Prince de Joinville [called 'the Pastry War,' because consequent on the non-payment of French claims, among which there was prominence given to a certain pastry-cook's claim for goods destroyed in the riot of a revolution at the capital in 1828]; how his leg, having been shattered by a ball, was buried with a solemn service and a funeral oration in the cemetery of Santa Paula in Mexico; and how, in a few years, when Santa Anna was in disgrace with the people, they destroyed the tomb, and kicked Santa Anna's limb about the streets with every mark of hatred and contempt. . . . The manifold difficulties of government in Mexico sufficiently attested the weakness of the Federal constitution; and in 1835, after a trial of eleven years, the state governments were dissolved, and

the Republic, one and indivisible, set up for a time in their place. There was now to be a President, elected by an indirect vote for eight years, a Senate, and a House of Deputies, both elected by a direct popular vote, and an elective Supreme Court. Santa Anna, who was identified with the Unitary principle, was re-elected three times; so that with some intermission he governed Mexico for 20 years. The dissolution of the Federal government naturally strengthened the hands of Santa Anna; and in 1836 Mexico was for the first time recognized by Spain. But the unitary republic was a time of disaster and disgrace; and from the point of view of progress it was a period of reaction. . . . Europe looked forward, almost without jealousy, to the time when the great nation of North America should absorb this people of half-civilized Indians mixed with degenerate Spaniards. Events which now happened greatly strengthened this impression."—E. J. Payne, *History of European colonies*, ch. 20, sect. 6-7.

1829-1837.—Abolition of slavery.—"The general affairs of the country in the second half of 1829 were in a chaotic state. Disorganization fettered every branch of the government. . . . And yet, amidst its constant struggle, Guerrero's administration decreed several progressive measures, the most important of which was the abolition of slavery. African slavery had indeed been reduced to narrow limits. The Dominican provincial of Chiapas, Father Matias Cordoba, gave freedom to the slaves on the estates of his order. On the 16th of September, 1825, President Victoria had liberated in the country's name the slaves purchased with a certain fund collected for that purpose, as well as those given up by their owners to the patriotic junta. The general abolition, however, was not actually carried out for some time, certain difficulties having arisen; and several states, among which was Zacatecas, had decreed the freedom of slaves before the general government arrived at a final conclusion on the subject. As a matter of fact, the few remaining slaves were in domestic service, and treated more like members of families than as actual chattels. At last Deputy Tornel, taking advantage of the time when Guerrero was invested with extraordinary powers, drew up and laid before him a decree for total abolition. It was signed September 15, 1820, and proclaimed the next day, the national anniversary. The law met with no demur save from Coahuila and Texas, in which state were about 1,000 slaves, whose manumission would cost heavily, as the owners held them at a high valuation. It seems that the law was not fully enforced; for on the 5th of April, 1837, another was promulgated, declaring slavery abolished without exception and with compensation to the owners."—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 8 (*Mexico*, v. 5), ch. 4.—See also TEXAS: 1824-1830.

1834-1837.—Revolutionary outbreaks in California. See LOS ANGELES: 1781-1846.

1835-1836.—War with Texas.—Independence of Texas. See TEXAS: 1835-1836.

1836.—Independence recognized by Spain. See LATIN AMERICA: 1836-1895.

1845.—Annexation of Texas to United States. See TEXAS: 1836-1845; U.S.A.: 1841-1844.

1846.—American aggression which precipitated war.—"Texas had claimed the Rio Grande as her western limit, though she has never exercised actual control over either New Mexico or the country lying between the Nueces and the Rio Grande. The groundless character of the claims of Texas to the Rio Grande as its western

boundary was even admitted by some friends of the measure. . . . Silas Wright, . . . referring to the boundaries of Texas, declared that 'they embraced a country to which Texas had no claims, over which she had never asserted jurisdiction, and which she had no right to cede.' Mr. Benton denounced the treaty [of annexation and cession of territory] as an attempt to seize 2,000 square miles of Mexican territory by the incorporation of the left bank of the Rio del Norte, which would be an act of direct aggression. . . . In ordering, therefore, General Taylor to pass a portion of his forces westward of the river Nueces, which was done before annexation was accomplished, President Polk put in peril the peace and the good name of the country. In his Annual Message of December of that year [1845] he stated that American troops were in position on the Nueces, 'to defend our own and the rights of Texas.' But, not content with occupying ground on and westward of the Nueces, he issued, on the 13th of January, 1846, the fatal order to General Taylor to advance and 'occupy positions on or near the left bank of the Rio del Norte.' That movement of the army from Corpus Christi to the Rio Grande, a distance of more than 100 miles, was an invasion of Mexican territory,—an act of war for which the President was and must ever be held responsible by the general judgment of mankind."—H. Wilson, *History of the rise and fall of the slave power in America*, v. 2, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: T. H. Benton, *Thirty years' view*, v. 2, ch. 149.

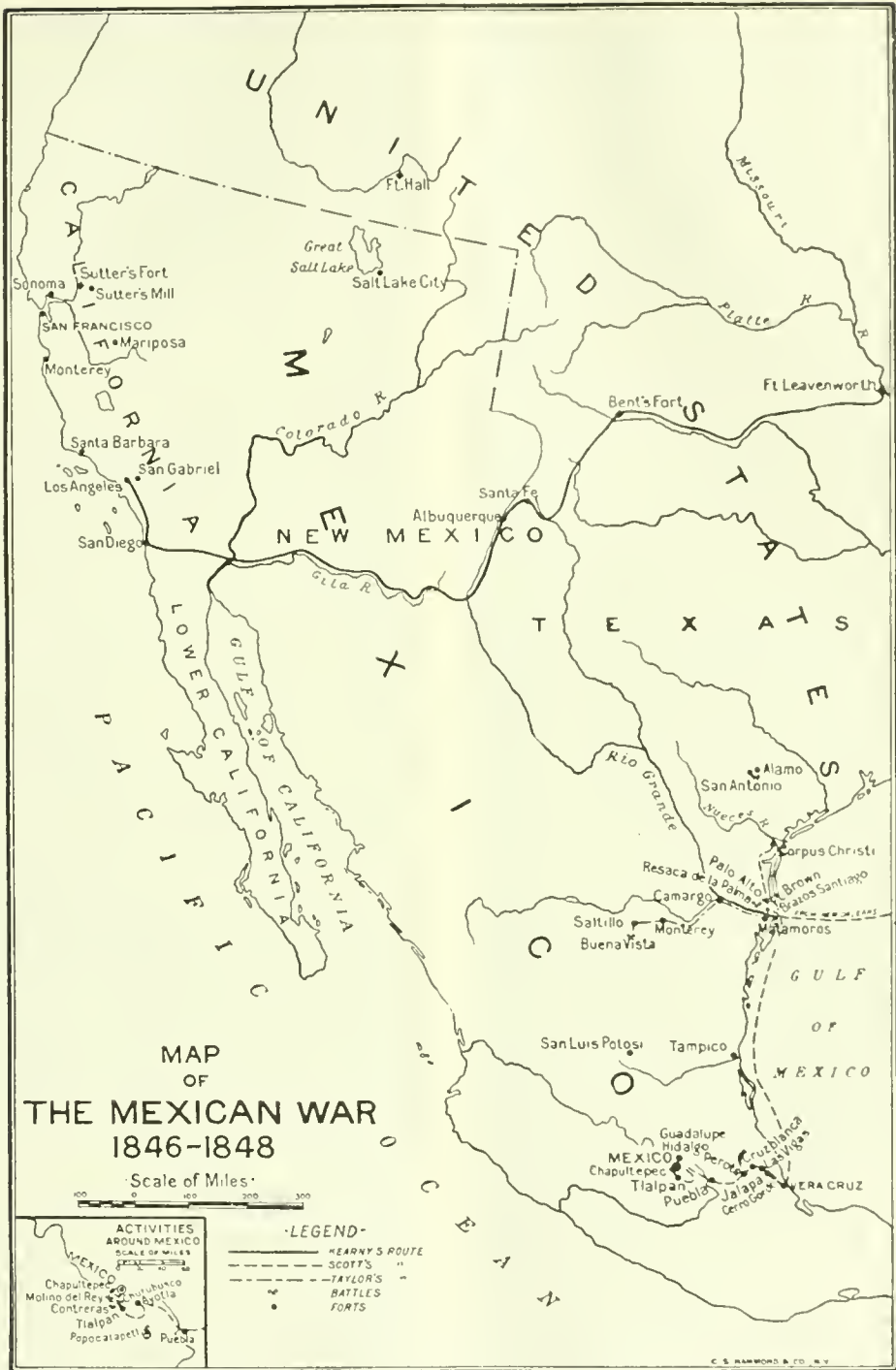
1846-1847.—American conquest of California. See CALIFORNIA: 1846-1847.

1846-1847.—War with the United States.—First movements of American invasion.—Palo Alto.—Resaca de la Palma.—Monterey.—Buena Vista.—Fifémont in California.—"The annexation of Texas accomplished [see TEXAS: 1824-1835; 1835-1836; 1836-1845], General Taylor, the United States commander in the Southwest, received orders to advance to the Rio Grande. Such was the impoverished and distracted condition of Mexico that she apparently contemplated no retaliation for the injury she had sustained, and, had the American army remained at the Nueces, a conflict might perhaps have been avoided. But, on Taylor's approaching the Rio Grande, a combat ensued [May 8, 1846] at Palo Alto with Arista, the Mexican commander, who crossed over that stream. It ended in the defeat of the Mexicans, and the next day another engagement took place at Resaca de la Palma, with the same result. These actions eventually assumed considerable political importance. They were among the causes of General Taylor's subsequent elevation to the Presidency. As soon as intelligence of what had occurred reached Washington, President Polk, forgetting that the author of a war is not he who begins it, but he who has made it necessary, addressed a special message to Congress announcing that the Mexicans 'had at last invaded our territory, and shed the blood of our fellow-citizens on our own soil.' Congress at once (May 13th, 1846) passed an act providing money and men. Its preamble stated, 'Whereas, by the act of the Republic of Mexico, a state of war exists between that country and the United States, be it enacted,' etc. As long previously as 1843, Mr. Bocanegra, the Mexican Minister of Foreign Relations, had formally notified the American government that the annexation of Texas would inevitably lead to war. General Almonte, the Mexican minister at Washington, in a note to Mr. Upshur, the Sec-

retary of State, said that, 'in the name of his nation, and now for them, he protests, in the most solemn manner, against such an aggression; and be moreover declares, by an express order of his government, that, on sanction being given by the executive of the Union to the incorporation of Texas into the United States, he will consider his mission ended, seeing that, as the Secretary of State will have learned, the Mexican government is resolved to declare war as soon as it receives intimation of such an act.' War being thus provoked by the American government, General Scott received orders (November 18th, 1846) to take command of the expedition intended for the invasion of Mexico."—J. W. Draper, *History of the American Civil War*, v. 1, ch. 23.—After his defeat at Resaca de la Palma, the Mexican general Arista "retreated in the direction of San Luis Potosi, and was superseded by Gen. Pedro Ampudia. General Taylor marched his forces across the Rio Grande on the 17th of May and the invasion of Mexico was begun in earnest. From the 21st to the 24th of September, he was engaged with 7,000 men in the attack upon Monterey, the capital of Nueva Leon, garrisoned by a force of 9,000. He met with the same success which had attended his former engagements. General Ampudia was also forced to retire to San Luis Potosi. The brilliant features of this attack were the assault upon Obispaño Viejo by General Worth on the first day of the fight, and the storming of the heights above on the following day. . . . Upon the defeat of Ampudia, Santa Anna, having then just attained to the chief magistracy of Mexico [the American blockading squadron at Vera Cruz had permitted him to return to the country, expecting that his presence would be advantageous to the invaders], and left it in the hands of his Vice-President, Gomez Farias, took the command of the Mexican forces and set out to check the advance of General Taylor. On the 23d of February, 1847, the bloody battle of Angostura, as it is called by the Mexicans (known to the Americans as the battle of Buena Vista), was fought, and lost by the Mexican army. Santa Anna returned to San Luis Potosi, whence he was called to the capital to head off the insurrection against Gomez Farias, by the party called derisively the Polkos, because their insurrection at that time was clearly favorable to the movements of the American army, and because James K. Polk was then the President of the United States and head of the American party favorable to the war. It was at this time that the army of Taylor was reduced to about 5,000 men in order to supply General Winfield Scott with forces to carry out his military operations, and the field of war was transferred to the region between Vera Cruz and the capital. While these events were in progress an expedition under Gen. John C. Fremont had been made over-land through New Mexico and into California [see CALIFORNIA: 1846-1847; NEW MEXICO: 1846], and under the directions of the United States government the Mexicans of California had been invited to revolt."—A. H. Noll, *Short history of Mexico*, ch. 9.

ALSO IN: H. von Holst, *Constitutional and political history of the United States*, v. 3, ch. 4-9.—H. O. Ladd, *History of the War with Mexico*, ch. 4-8.—E. D. Mansfield, *History of the Mexican War*, ch. 2-4, 8.—O. O. Howard, *General Taylor*, ch. 8-10.—E. I. McCormac, *James K. Polk*.

1847 (March-September).—General Scott's campaign.—From Vera Cruz to the capital.—Cerro Gordo.—Contreras.—Churubusco.—Molino del Rey.—Chapultepec.—Conquest complete.



—“General Winfield Scott was ordered to Mexico, to take chief command and conduct the war according to his own plan. This was, in brief, to carry an expedition against Vera Cruz, reduce its defences, and then march on the city of Mexico by the shortest route. . . . On the 7th of March [1847], the fleet with Scott’s army came to anchor a few miles south of Vera Cruz, and two days later he landed his whole force—nearly 12,000

men—by means of surf-boats. Vera Cruz was a city of 7,000 inhabitants, strongly fortified. . . . On the 22d the investment was complete. A summons to surrender being refused, the batteries opened, and the bombardment was kept up for four days, the small war vessels joining in it. The Mexican batteries and the castle [of San Juan de Ulloa, on a reef in the harbor] replied with spirit, and with some little effect; but the city and

castle were surrendered on the 27th. The want of draught animals and wagons delayed till the middle of April the march upon the capital of the country, 200 miles distant. The first obstacle was found at Cerro Gordo, 50 miles northwest of Vera Cruz, where the Mexicans had taken position on the heights around a rugged mountain pass, with a battery commanding every turn of the road. A way was found to flank the position on the extreme left, and on the morning of April 18th the Americans attacked in three columns. . . . The divisions of Twiggs and Worth . . . attacked the height of Cerro Gordo, where the Mexicans were most strongly intrenched, and where Santa Anna commanded in person. This being carried by storm, its guns were turned first upon the retreating Mexicans, and then upon the advanced position that Pillow was assaulting in front. The Mexicans, finding themselves surrounded, soon surrendered. Santa Anna, with the remainder of his troops, fled toward Jalapa, where Scott followed him and took the place."—W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *Popular history of the United States*, v. 4, ch. 14.—"Less than a month later [after the battle of Cerro Gordo] the American army occupied the city of Puebla. Scott remained at Puebla during June and July, awaiting reinforcements and drilling them as they arrived. On the 7th of August he set out for the capital, which was now defended by about 30,000 troops. A series of encounters took place on the 10th, and on the next day three battles were fought, at Contreras, Churubusco, and San Antonio. They were in reality parts of one general engagement. The troops on both sides fought with stubbornness and bravery, but in the end the Mexicans were completely routed, and the pursuit of the flying enemy reached almost to the gates of the capital. A commissioner, Nicholas P. Trist, having been previously appointed to negotiate with the Mexicans, an armistice was now agreed upon, to begin on the 23d of August. The armistice, from a strategic point of view, was a mistake, the advantage of the overwhelming victories of the 19th and 20th was in great part lost, and the Mexicans were enabled to recover from the demoralization which had followed their defeat. The position of the American army, in the heart of the enemy's country, where it might be cut off from reinforcements and supplies, was full of danger, and the fortifications which barred the way to the capital, Molino del Rey, Casa Mata, and Chapultepec, were exceedingly formidable. On the 7th of September the armistice came to an end. The negotiations had failed, and General Scott prepared to move on the remaining works. A reconnoissance was made on that day, and on the 8th Scott attacked the enemy. The army of Santa Anna was drawn up with its right resting on Casa Mata and its left on Molino del Rey. Both these positions were carried by assault, and the Mexicans, after severe loss, were defeated and driven off the field. The next two days were occupied in preparing for the final assault upon Chapultepec. A careful disposition was made of the troops, batteries were planted within range, and on the 12th they opened a destructive fire. On the 13th a simultaneous assault was made from both sides, the troops storming the fortress with great bravery and dash, and the works were carried, the enemy flying in confusion. The army followed them along the two causeways of Belen and San Cosmé, fighting its way to the gates of the city. Here a struggle continued till after nightfall, the enemy making a desperate defence. Early the next morning, a deputation of the city council waited upon Gen-

eral Scott, asking for terms of capitulation. These were refused, and the divisions of Worth and Quitman entered the capital. Street fighting was kept up for two days longer, but by the 16th the Americans had secured possession of the city. Negotiations were now renewed, and the occupation of the territory, meanwhile, continued. The principal towns were garrisoned, and taxes and duties collected by the United States. Occasional encounters took place at various points, but the warfare was chiefly of a guerrilla character. Towards the close of the war General Scott was superseded by General Butler. But the work had been already completed."—J. R. Soley, *Wars of the United States, 1789-1850 (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 7, ch. 6)*.

Also in: H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 8, (*Mexico*, v. 5), ch. 17-20.—Gen. W. Scott, *Memoirs, by himself*, v. 2, ch. 27-32.—J. Smith, *War with Mexico.—President's message and documents*, Dec. 7, 1847 (*Senate Executive Document, no. 1, 30th Congress, 1st session*).

1848.—Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.—Territory ceded to the United States.—"The Mexican people had now succumbed to the victorious armies of the 'barbarians of the North.' The Mexican Government was favorable to the settlement of the questions which had caused this unhappy war. A new administration was in power. General Anaya on the 11th of November was elected President of the Mexican Republic until the 8th of January, 1848, when the constitutional term of office would expire. . . . National pride . . . bowed to the necessities of the republic, and the deputies assembled in the Mexican Congress favored the organization of a commission for the purpose of reopening negotiations with Mr. Trist, who still remained in Mexico, and was determined to assume the responsibility of acting still as agent of the United States [although his powers had been withdrawn]. The lack of coöperation by the adherents of Santa Anna prevented immediate action on the part of these commissioners. On the 8th of January, 1848, General Herrera was elected Constitutional President of the Mexican Republic. . . . Under the new administration negotiations were easily opened with a spirit of harmony and concession which indicated a happy issue. Mexico gave up her claim to the Nueces as the boundary-line of her territory, and the United States did not longer insist upon the cession of Lower California and the right of way across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. The previous offer of money by the United States for the cession of New Mexico and Upper California was also continued. . . . On the 2d of February a treaty of peace was unanimously adopted and signed by the commissioners at the city of Guadalupe Hidalgo. . . . The ratifications of the Mexican Congress and of the United States Senate were exchanged May 30th, 1848. The United States, by the terms of this treaty, paid to Mexico \$15,000,000 for the territory added to its boundaries. They moreover freed the Mexican Republic from all claims of citizens of the United States against Mexico for damages, which the United States agreed to pay to the amount of \$3,250,000. The boundary-line was also fixed between the two republics. It began in the Gulf of Mexico three miles from the mouth of the Rio Grande del Norte, running up the centre of that river to the point where it strikes the southern boundary of New Mexico; then westward along that southern boundary which runs north of El-paso, to its western termination; thence northward along the western line of New Mexico until it in-

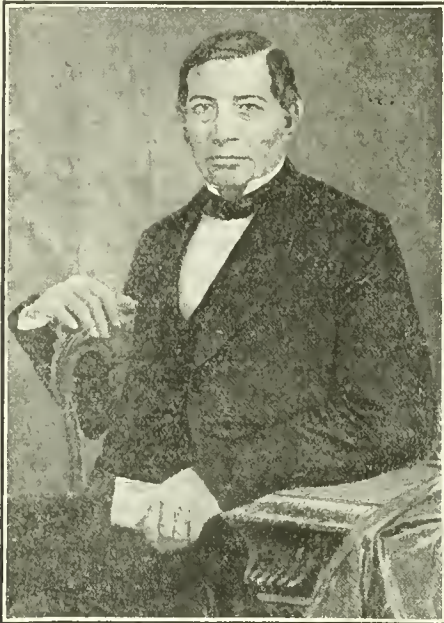
tersects the first branch of the river Gila, thence down the middle of the Gila until it empties into the Rio Colorado, following the division line between Upper and Lower California to the Pacific Ocean, one marine league south of the port of San Diego. On the 12th of June, the last of the United States troops left the capital of Mexico. . . . The partisan supporters of President Polk's administration did not hesitate to avow that the war with Mexico was waged for conquest of territory. . . . The demands of indemnity from Mexico first made by the United States were equal, exclusive of Texas, to half of the domain of Mexico, embracing a territory upward of 800,000 square miles. . . . The area of New Mexico, as actually ceded by treaty to the United States, was 526,078 square miles. The disputed ground of Texas, which rightfully belonged to Mexico, and which was also yielded in the treaty of peace, contained no less than 125,520 square miles. The acquisition of the total amount of 651,591 square miles of territory was one of the direct results of this war, in which President Polk was ever pretending 'to conquer a peace.' To this must be added the undisputed region of Texas, which was 325,520 square miles more, in order adequately to represent the acquisition of territory to the United States, amounting to 851,590 square miles. This has been computed to be seventeen times the extent of the State of New York. . . . The territory thus acquired included ten degrees of latitude on the Pacific coast, and extended east to the Rio Grande, a distance of 1,000 miles. . . . [More than 1000] miles of sea-coast were added to the possessions of the United States. . . . The mineral resources of the conquered territory, including California, New Mexico, Arizona, Western Colorado, Utah, and Nevada, have been developed to such an extent that their value is beyond computation."—H. O. Ladd, *History of the war with Mexico*, ch. 30-31.

ALSO IN: *Treaties and conventions between the United States and other countries* (ed. of 1889), pp. 681-694.

1848-1861.—Succession of revolutions and the War of the Reform.—New constitution.—Government of Juarez and the nationalization of church property.—“For a brief period, after the withdrawal of the American army, the Mexican people drew the breath of peace, disturbed only by outbreaks headed by the turbulent Paredes. . . . In June, 1848, Señor Herrera (who had been in power at the opening of the war with the United States) took possession of the presidential chair. For the first time within the memory of men then living, the supreme power changed hands without disturbance or opposition. . . . The army . . . was greatly reduced, arrangements were made with creditors abroad, and for the faithful discharge of internal affairs. General Mariano Arista, formerly minister of war, assumed peaceful possession of power, in January, 1851, and continued the wise and economical administration of his predecessor. But Mexico could not long remain at peace, even with herself; she was quiet merely because utterly prostrated, and in December, 1852, some military officers, thirsting for power, rebelled against the government. They commenced again the old system of ‘pronunciamientos’; usually begun by some man in a province distant from the seat of government, and gradually gaining such strength that when finally met by the lawful forces they were beyond control. Rather than plunge his country anew into the horrors of a civil war, General Arista resigned his office and sailed for Europe, where he died in poverty a few years later. It

may astonish any one except the close student of Mexican history to learn the name of the man next placed in power by the revolutionists, for it was no one else than General Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna! Recalled by the successful rebels from his exile in Cuba and South America, Santa Anna hastened to the scene of conflict. . . . He commenced at once to extend indefinitely the army, and to intrench himself in a position of despotic power, and, in December, 1853, he issued a decree which, in substance, declared him perpetual dictator. This aroused opposition all over the country, and the Liberals, who were opposed to an arbitrary centralized government, rose in rebellion. The most successful leaders were Generals Alvarez and Comonfort, who, after repeated victories, drove the arch conspirator from the capital, on the 9th of August, 1855. Santa Anna secretly left the city of Mexico, and a few days later embarked at Vera Cruz for Havana. During several years he resided in Cuba, St. Thomas, Nassau, and the United States, constantly intriguing for a return to power in Mexico.”—F. A. Ober, *Young folks' history of Mexico*, ch. 33.—“Upon the flight of Santa Anna, anarchy was imminent in the capital. The most prominent promoters of the revolution assembled quickly, and elected Gen. Romulo Diaz de la Vega acting-president, and he succeeded in establishing order. . . . By a representative assembly Gen. Martin Carrera was elected acting-president, and he was installed on the 15th of August, 1855, but resigned on the 11th of the following month, when the presidency devolved a second time upon Gen. Romulo Diaz de la Vega. The revolution of Alvarez and Comonfort, known as the Plan de Ayotla, was entirely successful, and under the wise and just administration of Diaz de la Vega, the country was brought to the wholly abnormal state of quiet and order. Representatives of the triumphant party assembled in Cuernavaca and elected Gen. Juan Alvarez president ad interim, and upon the formation of his cabinet he named Comonfort his Minister of War. Returning to the capital, he transferred the presidency to his Minister of War, and on the 12th of December, 1855, Gen. Ignacio Comonfort entered upon the discharge of his duties as acting-president. He was made actual president by a large majority in the popular election held two years later, and was reinstalled on the 1st of December, 1857. He proved to be one of the most remarkable rulers of Mexico, and his administration marks the beginning of a new era in Mexican history. Scarcely had Comonfort begun his rule as the substitute of Alvarez, when revolutions again broke out and assumed formidable proportions. Puebla was occupied by 5,000 insurgents. Federal troops sent against them joined their cause. Comonfort succeeded in raising an army of 16,000 men, well equipped, and at its head marched to Puebla and suppressed the revolution before the end of March. But in October another rebellion broke out in Puebla, headed by Col. Miguel Miramon. The government succeeded in suppressing this, as well as one which broke out in San Luis Potosi, and another, under the leadership of Gen. Tomas Mejia, in Queretaro. It was by Comonfort that the war between the Church and the government, so long threatened, was precipitated. In June, 1856, he issued a decree ordering the sale of all the unimproved real estate held by the Church, at its assessed value. The Church was to receive the proceeds, but the land was to become thereby freed from all ecclesiastical control.” Upon information of a conspiracy centering in one of the

monasteries of the city of Mexico, the president sent troops to take possession of the place, and finally ordered it to be suppressed. These measures provoked an implacable hostility on the part of the supporters of the Church. "On the 5th of February, 1857, the present [written in 1903] Constitution of Mexico was adopted by Congress. Comonfort, as Provisional President, subscribed it, and it was under its provisions that he was elected actual president. But ten days after his inauguration in December, 1857, and his taking the oath to support the new Constitution, the President, supposing that he could gain the full support of the Liberals, and claiming that he had found the operation of the Constitution impracticable, dissolved Congress and set the Constitution aside. He threw his legal successor, Benito Juarez, the President of the Supreme Court of Justice, and one of the supporters of the new Constitution,



BENITO PABLO JUAREZ
(After painting by Chappel)

into prison." Revolution upon revolution now followed in quick succession. Comonfort fled the country. Zuloaga, Pezuela, Pavon, Miramon, were seated in turn in the presidential chair for brief terms of a half recognized government. "Constitutionally (if we may ever use that word seriously in connection with Mexican affairs), upon the abandonment of the presidency by Comonfort, the office devolved upon the President of the Supreme Court of Justice. That office was held at the time by Don Benito Juarez, who thereupon became president de jure of Mexico. . . . The most curious specimen of the nomenclature adopted in Mexican history is that which gives to the struggle between the Church party and its allies and the Constitutional government the name of the War of the Reform. . . . What was thereby reformed it would be difficult to say, . . . further than the suppression of the outreaching power, wealth, and influence of the Church, and the assertion of the supremacy of the State. . . . But the 'War of the Reform' had all the bitterness of a

religious war. . . . Juarez, who is thus made to appear as a reformer, was the most remarkable man Mexico has ever produced. He was born in 1806 in the mountains of Oaxaca. . . . He belonged to the Zapoteca tribe of Indians. Not a drop of Spanish blood flowed in his veins. . . . Upon the flight of Comonfort, Juarez was utterly without support or means to establish his government. Being driven out of the capital by Zuloaga he went to Guadalajara, and then by way of the Pacific coast, Panama, and New Orleans, to Vera Cruz. There he succeeded in setting up the Constitutional government, supporting it out of the customs duties collected at the ports of entry on the Gulf coast. It was war to the knife between the President in Vera Cruz and the Anti-Presidents in the capital. . . . On the 12th of July, 1859, Juarez made a long stride in advance of Comonfort by issuing his famous decree, 'nationalizing'—that is, sequestrating, or more properly confiscating—the property of the Church. It was enforced at Vera Cruz at once. . . . The armies of the two rival governments met in conflict on many occasions. It was at Calpulalpan, in a battle lasting from the 21st to the 24th of December, 1860, that Miramon was defeated and forced to leave the country. General Ortega, in command of the forces of Juarez, advanced to the capital and held it for the return of his chief. When the army of Juarez entered the capital, on the 27th of December, the decree of sequestration began to be executed there with brutal severity. . . . Monasteries were closed forthwith, and the members of the various religious orders were expelled from the country. . . . It is said that from the 'nationalized' church property the government secured \$20,000,000, without, as subsequent events showed, deriving any permanent benefit from it. It helped to precipitate another war, in which it was all dissipated, and the country was poorer than ever. . . . The decree issued by Juarez from Vera Cruz in 1859, nationalizing the property of the Church, was quickly followed up by a decree suspending for two years payment on all foreign debts. The national debt at that time amounted to about \$100,000,000, according to some statements, and was divided up between England, Spain, and France. England's share was about \$80,000,000. France's claim was comparatively insignificant. They were all said to have been founded upon usurious or fraudulent contracts, and the French claim was especially dubious. . . . Upon the issuing of the decree suspending payment on these foreign debts, the three creditor nations at once broke off diplomatic relations with Mexico, and Napoleon III., of France, proceeded to carry out a plan which had for some time occupied his mind."—A. H. Noll, *Short history of Mexico*, ch. 10-11.

1853.—Sale of part of Arizona to the United States.—Gadsden Treaty. See ARIZONA: 1853.

1854.—First railroad. See RAILROADS: 1854-1906.

1857-1867.—Establishment of national library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Mexico.

1861-1867.—French intervention.—Maximilian's ill-starred empire and its fate.—The expedition against Mexico "was in the beginning a joint undertaking of England, France, and Spain. Its professed object, as set forth in a convention signed in London on October 31st, 1861, was 'to demand from the Mexican authorities more efficacious protection for the persons and properties of their (the Allied Sovereigns') subjects, as well as a fulfilment of the obligations contracted toward

their Majesties by the Republic of Mexico.' . . . Lord Russell, who had acted with great forbearance towards Mexico up to this time, now agreed to co-operate with France and Spain in exacting reparation from Juarez. But he defined clearly the extent to which the intervention of England would go. England would join in an expedition for the purpose, if necessary, of seizing on Mexican custom-houses, and thus making good the foreign claims. But she would not go a step further. She would have nothing to do with upsetting the Government of Mexico, or imposing any European system on the Mexican people. Accordingly, the Second Article of the Convention pledged the contracting parties not to seek for themselves any acquisition of territory or any special advantage, and not to exercise in the internal affairs of Mexico any influence of a nature to prejudice the right of the Mexican nation to choose and to constitute freely the form of its government. The Emperor of the French, however, had already made up his mind that he would establish a sort of feudatory monarchy in Mexico. He had long had various schemes and ambitions floating in his mind concerning those parts of America on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, which were once the possessions of France. . . . At the very time when he signed the convention with the pledge contained in its second article, he had already been making arrangements to found a monarchy in Mexico. If he could have ventured to set up a monarchy with a French prince at its head, he would probably have done so; but this would have been too bold a venture. He, therefore, persuaded the Archduke Maximilian, brother of the Emperor of Austria, to accept the crown of the monarchy he proposed to set up in Mexico. The Archduke was a man of pure and noble character, but evidently wanting in strength of mind, and he agreed, after some hesitation, to accept the offer. Meanwhile the joint expedition sailed. We [the English] sent only a line-of-battle ship, two frigates, and 700 marines. France sent in the first instance about 2,500 men, whom she largely reinforced immediately after. Spain had about 6,000 men, under the command of the late Marshal Prim. The Allies soon began to find that their purposes were incompatible. There was much suspicion about the designs of France. . . . Some of the claims set up by France disgusted the other Allies. The Jecker claims were for a long time after as familiar a subject of ridicule as our own Pacific claims had been. A Swiss house of Jecker & Company had lent the former Government of Mexico \$750,000, and got bonds from that Government, which was on its very last legs, for \$15,000,000. The Government was immediately afterwards upset, and Juarez came into power. M. Jecker modestly put in his claim for \$15,000,000. Juarez refused to comply with the demand. He offered to pay the \$750,000 lent and five per cent. interest, but he declined to pay exactly twenty times the amount of the sum advanced. M. Jecker had by this time become somehow a subject of France, and the French Government took up his claim. It was clear that the Emperor of the French had resolved that there should be war. At last the designs of the French Government became evident to the English and Spanish Plenipotentiaries, and England and Spain withdrew from the Convention. . . . The Emperor of the French 'walked his own wild road, whither that led him.' He overran a certain portion of Mexico with his troops. He captured Puebla after a long and desperate resistance [and after suffering a defeat on the 5th

of May, 1862, in the battle of Cinco de Mayo]; he occupied the capital, and he set up the Mexican Empire, with Maximilian as Emperor. French troops remained to protect the new Empire. Against all this the United States Government protested from time to time. [See MONROE DOCTRINE: 1827-1867.] . . . However, the Emperor Napoleon cared nothing just then about the Monroe doctrine, complacently satisfied that the United States were going to pieces, and that the Southern Confederacy would be his friend and ally. He received the protests of the American Government with unveiled indifference. At last the tide in American affairs turned. The Confederacy crumbled away; Richmond was taken; Lee surrendered; Jefferson Davis was a prisoner. Then the United States returned to the Mexican Question, and the American Government informed Louis Napoleon that it would be inconvenient,



MAXIMILIAN

gravely inconvenient, if he were not to withdraw his soldiers from Mexico. A significant movement of American troops under a renowned General, then flushed with success, was made in the direction of the Mexican frontier. There was nothing for Louis Napoleon but to withdraw [March, 1867]. . . . The Mexican Empire lasted two months, and a week after the last of the French troops had been withdrawn. Maximilian endeavoured to raise an army of his own, and to defend himself against the daily increasing strength of Juarez. He showed all the courage which might have been expected from his race, and from his own previous history. But in an evil hour for himself, and yielding, it is stated, to the persuasion of a French officer he had issued a decree that all who resisted his authority in arms should be shot. By virtue of this monstrous ordinance, Mexican officers of the regular army, taken prisoners while resisting, as they were bound to do, the invasion of a European prince, were shot like brigands. The Mexican general, Ortega, was one of

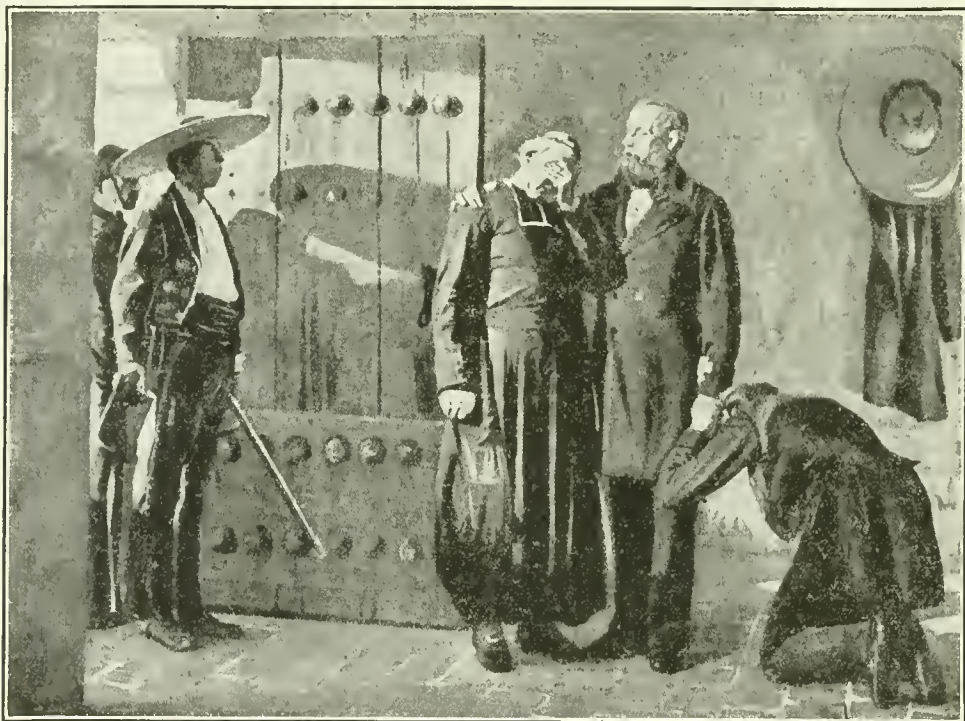
those thus shamefully done to death. When Juarez conquered, and Maximilian, in his turn, was made a prisoner, he was tried by court-martial, condemned and shot. . . . The French Empire never recovered from the shock of this Mexican failure."

—J. McCarthy, *History of our own times*, ch. 44.

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 9 (*Mexico*, v. 6), ch. 1-14.—H. M. Flint, *Mexico under Maximilian*.—F. Salm-Salm, *My diary in Mexico* (1867).—S. Schroeder, *Fall of Maximilian's empire*.—Count E. de Keratry, *Rise and fall of the Emperor Maximilian*.—J. M. Taylor, *Maximilian and Carlotta*.—U. R. Burke, *Life of Benito Juarez*.

1861-1905.—Free Zone.—The Free Zone was a narrow strip of territory extending along the northern border from the gulf of Mexico to the

practicable to export such products to that country. All merchandise imported into the zone destined for consumption therein was admitted on a basis of ten per cent of the regular tariff duties, but such merchandise when reshipped into the interior of Mexico was required to pay an additional duty of 90 per cent, making, in connection with the 10 per cent already paid, the regular tariff duty of Mexico. The franchise granted the Free Zone consisted, in the beginning, in not levying any duty upon imported articles; afterwards, however, some small duties, purely local, were established, and the ordinance of 1887 established as a fixed basis 3 per cent on the value of the duties according to tariff—a basis which was raised to 10 per cent by the ordinance of 1891. By subsequent decrees the duties were raised 1½ per



LAST MOMENTS OF MAXIMILIAN OF MEXICO

(After painting by J. P. Laurens)

Pacific ocean, with a latitudinal area of about twelve and one-half miles to the interior, and embracing a portion of the states of Tamaulipas, Coahuila, Chihuahua, Sonora, and the territory of Lower California. It was established in 1861 by the Central Government, as a compromise or concession to the states bordering the Rio Grande, as a protection against smuggling from the United States. The principal cities of the zone were Matamoros, Camargo, Mier, Guerrero, Laredo, Porfirio Diaz (Piedras Negras), Juarez and Nogales. The total population did not exceed 100,000 people. According to the official reports, there existed within the limits of the free zone no industries worth mentioning, which was explained by the fact that all industrial products manufactured in the zone when sent into the interior of the country were required to pay the regular duties charged on imports into the country; and, on account of the protective tariff of the United States, it was im-

cent for the municipality and 7 per cent for stamps for internal revenue, the result of all this being that the merchandise introduced into the Free Zone from abroad paid 18½ per cent upon the importation duties according to tariff. The Free Zone was abolished July 1, 1905.

1867-1892.—Restored republic.—“On the 15th of July [1867] Juarez made a solemn entry into the capital. Many good citizens of Mexico, who had watched gloomily the whole episode of the French intervention, now emerged to light and rejoiced conspicuously in the return of their legitimate chief. . . . He was received with genuine acclamations by the populace, while high society remained within doors, curtains close-drawn, except that the women took pride in showing their deep mourning for the death of the Emperor. . . . Peace now came back to the country. A general election established Juarez as President, and order and progress once more consented to test the good

resolutions of the Republic." Santa Anna made one feeble and futile attempt to disturb the quiet of his country, but was arrested without difficulty and sent into exile again. But Juarez had many opponents and enemies to contend with. "As the period of election approached, in 1871, party lines became sharply divided, and the question of his return to power was warmly contested. A large body still advocated the re-election of Juarez, as of the greatest importance to the consolidation of the Constitution and reform, but the admirers of military glory claimed the honors of President for General Diaz, who had done so much, at the head of the army, to restore the Republic. A third party represented the interests of Lerdo, minister of Juarez all through the epoch of the intervention, a man of great strength of character and capacity for government. . . . The campaign was vigorous throughout the country. . . . The election took place; the Juaristas were triumphant. Their party had a fair majority and Juarez was re-elected. But the Mexicans not yet had learned to accept the ballot, and a rebellion followed. The two defeated parties combined, and civil war began again. Government defended itself with vigor and resolution, and, in spite of the popularity of General Diaz as a commander, held its own during a campaign of more than a year. Its opponents were still undaunted, and the struggle might have been long continued but for the sudden death of Juarez, on the 10th of July, 1872. . . . Don Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada, then President of the Supreme Court, assumed the government, was elected President, and the late agitation of parties was at an end. For three years peace reigned in Mexico, and then began another revolution. Towards the end of 1875, rumors of dissatisfaction were afloat. . . . Early in the next year, a 'Plan' was started, one of those fatal propositions for change which have always spread like wildfire through the Mexican community. By midsummer, the Republic was once more plunged in civil war. Although he had apparently no hand in the 'Plan' of Tuxtepec, General Porfirio Diaz appeared at the head of the army of the revolutionists. . . . During the summer there was fighting and much confusion, in the midst of which the election took place for the choice of President for another term of four years. The result was in favor of Lerdo de Tejada, but he was so unpopular that he was obliged soon after to leave the capital, on the 20th of November, accompanied by his ministers and a few other persons. The other Lerdistas hid themselves, Congress dissolved, and the opposition triumphed. Thus ended the government of the Lerdistas, but a few days before the expiration of its legal term. On the 24th of November, General Porfirio Diaz made his solemn entry into the capital, and was proclaimed Provisional President. After a good deal of fighting all over the country, Congress declared him, in May, 1877, to be Constitutional President for a term to last until November 30, 1880. . . . President Diaz was able to consolidate his power, and to retain his seat without civil war, although this has been imminent at times, especially towards the end of his term. In 1880, General Manuel Gonzalez [Gonzalez] was elected, and on the 1st of December of that year, for the second time only in the history of the Republic, the retiring President gave over his office to his legally elected successor. . . . The administration of Gonzalez passed through its four years without any important outbreak. . . . At the end of that term General Diaz was re-elected and became President December 1, 1884. The treasury of the country was empty, the Republic without credit, yet he has [1888, when

he was re-elected for a third term] . . . succeeded in placing his government upon a tolerably stable financial basis, and done much to restore the foreign credit of the Republic."—S. Hale, *Story of Mexico*, ch. 41-42.—President Diaz was re-elected for a fourth term, December 1, 1892.

Also in: H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 9 (*Mexico*, v. 6), ch. 19.

1873-1882.—Railroad development under Diaz.—Plans for railway across isthmus. See RAILROADS: 1854-1906.

1885-1908.—Yaqui Indians.—Under Spanish and Mexican rule until coming of Diaz.—Under Diaz régime.—Execution of their chief, Cajeme.—Confiscation of their lands.—Revolt and wholesale destruction of Yaquis.—Deportation to Yucatan.—"There are few things in the history of the native races of North America of such absorbing interest as the career of the Yaqui Indians. The Spanish conquistadores found them living in this country three hundred and fifty years ago. They were a strong and stalwart race. Put a Yaqui by the side of an Iroquois and you can hardly tell them apart. Put a Yaqui and an Iroquois by the side of any other Indians in North America, and their physical superiority is seen at once. Compare them physically with all the other races of the earth and you will find that they have few, if any, superiors. The Yaquis were not, however, like their prototypes, the Iroquois, dependent upon the chase for their food. From the beginning they were not woodsmen, but farmers. Cabeza de Yaca, after his long, romantic and perilous journey across the continent, found great fields of Indian corn waving along the Yaqui River as far back as 1636. When the early Spanish missions were established in the Californias they obtained their supplies from the agricultural Indians in the Yaqui Valley, and many are the Spanish armies that have been saved from starvation in times past by the Yaqui corn fields."—W. S. Logan, *Yaqui, the land of sunshine and health*, p. 17.—"At the time of the Spanish conquest they were a nation of from one to two hundred thousand people, supposed by some authorities to have been offshoots from the Aztecs. The Spanish were never able to subdue them completely, and after two hundred and fifty troublous years a peace was entered into whereby the Yaquis gave up a part of their territory and, as acknowledgement of their rightful ownership of the rest of it, the King of Spain gave them a patent signed by his own hand. This was nearly one hundred and fifty years ago [written in 1010], but the royal patent was honored by every ruler and chief executive of Mexico down to Diaz. During all that time the Yaquis were at peace with the world. Their reputation as a naturally peaceful nation was established. It remained for the government of Diaz to stir them into war. During these years of peace the Yaquis became part and parcel of the Mexican nation. They lived like other Mexicans. They had their own personal farms, their own homes, and they paid taxes on their property like other Mexicans. During the war against Maximilian they sent soldiers to help Mexico, and many of them distinguished themselves by brilliant service. But the Yaquis were goaded into war. The men at the head of the government of Sonora wanted the Yaqui lands. . . . They sent . . . surveyors through the Yaqui valley to mark out the land and tell the people that the government had decided to give it to foreigners. They confiscated \$80,000 in a bank belonging to Chief Cajeme. Finally, they sent armed men to arrest Cajeme, and when the latter could not find him they set fire to his house and

to those of his neighbors, and assaulted the women of the villages, even Cajeme's wife not being respected. . . . Since that day twenty-five years ago [written in 1910] the Mexican government has maintained an army almost perpetually in the field against the Yaquis, an army ranging in numbers from 2,000 to 6,000 men. Thousands of soldiers and tens of thousands of Yaquis have been killed in battle and many hundreds of the latter have been executed after being taken prisoners. After a few years Chief Cajeme was captured and publicly executed in the presence of a large body of his people who had been taken prisoner with him. Tebiate, another Yaqui, was promptly elected to Cajeme's place, and the fight went on. Finally, in 1894, at one fell swoop, as it were, the ground was literally taken from under the feet of the rebels. By act of the federal government the best of their lands were taken from them and handed over to one man, General Lorenzo Torres, who is at this writing chief of the army in Sonora, then second in command. . . . In 1898 the government troops were armed for the first time with the improved Mauser rifle, and in that year they met and wiped out an army of Yaquis at Mazacoba, the killed numbering more than 1,000. This ended warfare on anything like an equal footing. There were no more large battles; the Yaqui warriors were merely hunted. Thousands of the Indians surrendered. Their leaders were executed, and they and their families were granted a new territory to the north, to which they journeyed as to a promised land. But it proved to be a barren desert, entirely waterless and one of the most uninhabitable spots in all America. Hence the peaceful Yaquis moved to other sections of the state, some of them becoming wage-workers in the mines, others finding employment on the railroads, and still others becoming peons on the farms. Then and there this portion of the Yaqui nation lost its identity and became merged with the people about it. But it is these Yaquis, the peaceful ones, who are sought out and deported to Yucatan. . . . The deportation of Yaquis to Yucatan and other slave sections of Mexico began to assume noticeable proportions about 1905. It was carried out on a small scale at first, then on a larger one. Finally, in the spring of 1908, a despatch was published in American and Mexican newspapers saying that President Diaz had issued a sweeping order decreeing that every Yaqui, wherever found, men, women and children, should be gathered up by the War Department and deported to Yucatan. During my journeys in Mexico I inquired many times as to the authenticity of this despatch, and the story was confirmed. It was confirmed by men in the public departments of Mexico City. It was confirmed by Colonel Cruz, chief deporter of Yaquis. And it is certain that such an order, wherever it may have come from, was carried out. Yaqui workingmen were taken daily from mines, railroads and farms, old workingmen who never owned a rifle in their lives, women, children, babes, the old and the young, the weak and the strong. Guarded by soldiers and *rurales* they traveled together over the exile road. And there are others besides Yaquis who traveled over that road. Pimas and Opatas, other Indians, Mexicans, and any dark people found who were poor and unable to protect themselves were taken, tagged as Yaquis, and sent away to the land of Henequen."—J. K. Turner, *Barbarous Mexico*, pp. 40-41, 44, 46.

1890. — Represented at first international American congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890.

1898.—Material progress under Diaz.—Im-

provement of national harbors.—**Drainage canal.**—"One of the most important of the lines of material progress under Porfirio Diaz was the improvement of the national harbors. Improvement at Tampico was undertaken when Porfirio Diaz was in the cabinet of Manuel Gonzales as Minister of Fomento. In the old days Tampico was a place of small significance; located near the mouth of the Panuco river, it was accessible to vessels of small draught only in favorable conditions of the weather. Ships drawing more than nine feet could never be sure of entrance, on account of the formation of sandbars at the river's mouth in connection with gulf storms. The improvements at Tampico were planned by American engineers and largely carried out by our people; to-day the mouth of the Panuco river is at all times open to the entrance of vessels drawing even as much as twenty or twenty-two feet. As a result, the city of Tampico has grown by leaps and bounds; its business, both of import and of export, has developed handsomely. Since those days, great improvements have been made in all the other important harbors of Mexico on both coasts. Many millions of dollars were spent during the Diaz administration on the port of Vera Cruz. The harbor of Coatzacoalcos, in connection with the development of the Tehuantepec Railway, has been enormously bettered; it is now called Puerto Mexico. At the other end of the Tehuantepec Railroad, the Pacific port of Salina Cruz has been practically created. Other Pacific ports, as those of Mazatlan and Manzanillo, have been developed beyond recognition. . . . In the direction of public utility, many important enterprises were carried through. Preëminent among these is the famous drainage canal of the valley of Mexico. In the olden time, the lakes in the valley of Mexico were subject to serious overflow. With this overflow the city was subject to frightful inundation, with resulting loss of life, property, and subsequent disease. During the three hundred years of Spanish rule, the problem was a serious one, and many efforts were made toward its solution. The great cut of Nichistongo remains as an impressive monument of such endeavors. In the cutting of the great tunnel of Nichistongo years of time, millions of dollars, hundreds of lives were demanded; when it was finished, it was not a complete solution of the difficulty. Things were improved, but inundation of the city still took place at times with all its frightful losses. The drainage canal, however, undertaken [1885] and carried through to completion under Porfirio Diaz [1898], has satisfactorily settled the problem, and to-day the city is free from danger of floods. The drainage canal is but one of many enterprises for public advantage to be credited to the past regime. Many institutions of philanthropy, education, and betterment were due to the Porfirian administration."—F. Starr, *Mexico and the United States*, pp. 223-224.

1898-1900.—Results of twenty years of presidency of Porfirio Diaz.—**Material progress.**—**Status of education.**—"Diaz governed well in a financial way. When he succeeded Gonzalez the finances of Mexico were at the lowest ebb. The country had no credit at home or abroad. Diaz, with the help of his able Minister of Finance, Limantour, managed so that debts were paid as they became due and a large national capital accumulated. This was partly through economy in the administration of the government, and partly through the increased revenues due to the growth of Mexican commerce and industries. When Diaz first came to the Presidency, there was but one short railroad in the country—the one which con-

nected Vera Cruz with the capital. Before he ended there were more than ten thousand miles of railroad. The country was opened up from ocean to ocean, and from the United States to Yucatan. Most of these were built by United States capital. Trolley lines and electric lights, telephones and telegraphs, improved street cleaning and water systems, made the larger Mexican cities as comfortable to live in as American ones, and incidentally made money for the foreigners who installed them. The pueblos of the Indians, however, remained just as primitive and probably more unsanitary than in Aztec times. Great engineering works, also accomplished by foreigners, improved the harbors on both coasts. Cotton mills, tobacco factories, sugar refineries, sprang up as if by magic. Before Diaz, mining rights in Mexico had been difficult for foreigners to obtain. He made them easy. He allowed foreigners to acquire control of the great plantations in coffee, rice, sugar, cocoa and other products, which were worked by cheap native labor."—L. S. Hasbrouck, *Mexico from Cortés to Carranza*, pp. 200-202.—"Education, . . . is administered under three branches—gratuitous, lay, and obligatory. . . . The law making education compulsory was promulgated March 23, 1888, but its enforcement was not decreed at that time, and the first Congress of Public Education was convened for the purpose of adopting such measures as should tend to establish an efficient and uniform system of education. This congress met on December 1, 1889, and closed its sessions on March 31, 1890. . . . A second congress was convened on December 1, 1890, which solved certain problems on compulsory elemental education, fixed the methods to be followed in the schools of superior primary education, and settled matters pertaining to normal schools, preparatory education, and special schools. As the result of this congress, the law of March 21, 1891, was enacted, regulating compulsory education in the Federal District and the Territories of Tepic and Lower California, which law became effective on January 17, 1892. . . . On May 10, 1896, the law of public education was promulgated, its salient points being as follows: Official primary elemental education in the Federal Districts and Federal Territories was placed under the exclusive control of the Executive; primary superior education was organized as an intermediate educational system between elementary and preparatory instruction. A general board of primary education was created, charged to develop and maintain the same under a scientific and administrative plan. Preparatory education was decreed to be uniform for all professions, its extent being limited to the study of such matters as are necessary to the development of the physical and intellectual faculties and the morals of youth, it being further directed that professional education be reorganized, limiting it to technical matters which pertain to the profession or professions to which each particular school is devoted. By virtue of this law public education ceased to be in charge of the Board of Aldermen (ayuntamientos) of the above-mentioned sections. At the time of its promulgation the municipality of Mexico contained 113 schools, supported by the Board of Aldermen, 14,246 students being entered on the rolls, with an average attendance of 9,708. Each State defrays the expenses of public education, either with funds specially appropriated for that purpose or with the municipal funds. According to statistical data, in 1876, there were throughout the country 8,165 primary schools, with 368,754 students of both sexes. In 1895 Government schools reached the number of 4,056, of

which 2,189 were for males, 1,119 for females, and 748 for both sexes; municipal schools numbered 3,394—for males, 1,754; females, 932; both sexes, 708. These comprised 7,380 primary, 32 secondary, and 35 professional schools, the number of students enrolled being 310,496 males and 181,484 females (a total of 491,980), and the mean attendance 338,066. The total cost to the Government and the municipalities for the maintenance of these institutions was \$3,973,738. In the same year private schools to the number of 1,816 were being conducted, 659 for males, 460 for females, and the remainder under a coeducational system. In addition, 276 were supported by the clergy and 146 by associations, the total number of students enrolled being 68,879, of which 40,135 were males and 38,744 females. The total number of private schools was accordingly 2,238, of which 2,193 were devoted to primary education, 34 to secondary instruction, and 11 to professions. Using the figures given in 1896 for Vera Cruz and the Federal District as identical for 1897, it may be safely assumed that on December 31, 1897, the public schools in Mexico (Federal, State, and municipal) stood as follows:

Number of schools.....	9,065
Students enrolled.....	666,787
Average monthly attendance.....	458,035
Private institutions.....	2,361
Number of students.....	92,387
Average attendance.....	75,857."

—*Bureau of American republics, Mexico: Geographical sketch*, p. 313.—"The percentage of illiteracy in the thirty-five years of [Diaz'] . . . rule was lowered from ninety to eighty-six percent., but only in the cities. The rural school system was almost completely neglected, or was turned over to the care of priests and nuns."—Carlo de Fornaro, *Carranza and Mexico*, p. 46.—"The 'hacendados' opposed any attempt to educate their peons. 'Luis Caberra . . . who was a school master in Tlaxcala in the year 1895 [in a speech delivered in the Chamber of Deputies, December 3, 1912, said] although he was paid by the government, when he arrived at the 'hacienda,' he was furnished with the following instructions by the . . . manager of the farm: 'You must teach here only reading, writing, and the Catholic catechism. I forbid you absolutely to teach arithmetic and that useless thing called civics.'"—R. B. Brinsmade, *Mexican problems*, p. 5.

1899.—Represented at peace conference at The Hague. See HAGUE CONFERENCE: 1899: Constitution.

1900 (January).—Reëlection of President Diaz.—President Porfirio Diaz was reëlected on January 1, for a sixth term of four years.

1900.—Allied with Salvador. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1895-1902.

1901.—Represented at second international American conference at Mexico City. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902.

1902.—Pan-American conference. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: MODERN: 1902.

1904-1905.—Arbitration Treaty with the United States.—Reëlection of President Diaz for seventh term.—Extension of the term.—Currency reform.—"Mexico was one of the countries with which the United States government negotiated an arbitration treaty early in the year [1905], a treaty which was dropped, like its fellows, by the Washington administration, because of the Senate amendments. . . . Though the

tentative arbitration treaty between the United States and Mexico . . . fell through, another very practical and useful arbitration convention was concluded between the two nations during the year. This was the convention agreed to in principle during the Pan-American Conference in the city of Mexico in the winter of 1901-02, which provides for the settlement by arbitration of all international questions growing out of pecuniary claims. The representatives of several of the nations taking part in that conference affixed their signatures to this preliminary compact, and it has since become operative among a number of them. It was ratified by the Mexican Senate during its spring sessions. As pecuniary claims have in point of fact been one of the most fruitful sources of difficulty between the United States and the other nations of the western hemisphere, the conclusion of an agreement, in a binding form, to dispose by arbitration of any such cases as may arise in the future, is a distinct gain for the cause of the rational adjustment of international controversies, and is a guarantee, not indeed absolute, but most substantial, of lasting peace among the nations of this continent. . . . There were no striking developments in the political situation in Mexico. On December 1 of the previous year (1904) President Diaz had entered on his sixth consecutive term and his seventh term in all. By a constitutional amendment, a regular vice-president of the republic, for the first time since the early days of Mexico's history, took the oath of office at the same time as the president, on December 1, 1904. The gentleman previously elected, and now occupying the position of vice-president, is the Honorable Ramon Corral, formerly governor of the state of Sonora. By virtue of another constitutional amendment, the present and future presidential terms will be six years, instead of four as formerly. . . . A measure of vital importance to the economic well-being of the nation was promulgated on March 25, 1905. This was the decree for the reform of the currency, issued by the Executive under an enabling Act of Congress, approved on December 9, 1904. The new monetary system, due to the initiative of the very able finance minister Señor José Yves Limantour, went into effect on the first of May, but the free coinage of silver ceased on April 16. Broadly speaking, the new system gives Mexico a fifty-cent dollar. It declares that the theoretical unit of the monetary system of the United Mexican States is represented by seventy-five centigrams of pure gold, and is denominated a peso."—F. R. Guernsey, *Year in Mexico* (*Atlantic Monthly*, v. 97).

1906.—Celebration of the centenary of Benito Juárez.—His relation to the secularizing movement a generation ago.—Present pacific relations between church and state.—"Though Juárez is generally credited with the paternity of the laws generically known as the Reform Laws, and although he undoubtedly was the life and soul of the secularizing movement of his day, it is worthy of note that he had no formal participation in the chief measures framed against the Church. . . . He was not a signatory of the Constitution of 1857, which first attacked the existence of the religious orders; the law for the confiscation of church property was framed by Miguel Lerdo de Tejada, the Finance Minister of President Comonfort (1856); and the constitutional amendments which definitely established the separation of Church and State, instituted civil marriage, placed monastic communities outside the pale of the law, and forbade open-air religious services, were not enacted until 1873 and 1874, after the death of Juárez, and

during the presidency of Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada. March 21, 1906, was, by a decree of Congress, observed as a general holiday in Mexico. Pilgrimages to the tomb of Juárez took place in the morning; commemorative tablets were unveiled in the afternoon, and at night General Diaz, surrounded by his cabinet, presided in the Arbu Theatre at an apotheosis of Juárez, during which the career and character of the reforming president were extolled in an eloquent oration by Hon. Justo Sierra, Minister of Public Instruction. On the stage with the President during these exercises were the son and other surviving descendants of Juárez, who are numerous. Curiously enough, a question involving the interpretation of the Reform Laws arose soon after the celebration of the Juárez centenary. The ministers of all denominations in Mexico had been accustomed to conduct a service at the graveside in connection with the burial of the dead. It was generally held that this practice did not conflict with Article 5 of the Law of December 14, 1874, forbidding all forms of religious service other than those held inside the churches. But in May, 1906, the Interior Department issued a circular declaring open-air burial services conducted in the cemeteries to be illegal. This rule has led to the erection of mortuary chapels in the cemeteries which previously were unprovided with them, and the burial services are held inside these chapels. While this episode shows that there is no intention on the part of the governmental authorities of Mexico to relax one iota of the laws which curtailed the power of the Church, it is worthy of note that there is no serious religious conflict in Mexico at the present time [1907]; and, under laws which are probably as restrictive as those recently enacted in France, which have so agitated that country, Church and State in the Mexican Republic move smoothly in their separate orbits, with conciliatory if not cordial sentiments toward each other."—F. R. Guernsey, *Year in Mexico* (*Atlantic Monthly*, v. 99).

1906.—Joint action with the United States in Central American mediation. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1906.

1906.—Participation in third international conference of American republics. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

1906-1920.—Opening of Isthmus railroad.—Railway consolidation. See RAILROADS: 1854-1906; 1906-1920.

1907.—Mediation in Central American War. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1907.

1907.—Represented at second Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

1908.—Creelman interview with Diaz.—Effect.—"It is not often that a reporter's interview for periodical publication becomes an important political document. Such a fate was, however, in store for an interview of James Creelman with President Diaz, which was printed in the March number of Pearson's Magazine for 1908. In that interview the President of the Mexican Republic said: 'No matter what my friends and supporters say, I retire when my presidential term of office ends, and I shall not serve again. I shall be eighty years old then. I have waited patiently for the day when the people of the Mexican Republic should be prepared to choose and change their government at every election without danger of armed revolution and without injury to the national credit or interference with national progress. I believe that day has come. I welcome an opposition party in the Mexican Republic. If it appears, I will regard it as a blessing, not an evil.

And if it can develop power, not to exploit, but to govern, I will stand by it, support it, advise it, and forget myself in the successful inauguration of complete democratic government in the country.' This interview became the rallying cry for the opposition which voiced the sentiments of 'No reelection.' It precipitated the book of Francisco I. Madero—*La Sucesion Presidencial en 1910*; it unquestionably hastened the revolution.—F. Starr, *Mexico and the United States*, p. 253.

1909.—Last year of presidency of Diaz.—His long practical autocracy, and its effects on the nation.—Since Napoleon remodeled a French republic into an empire there has been nothing of its kind in political workmanship to equal the masterpiece of practical autocracy which Porfirio Diaz erected in Mexico, on a basis of nominal democracy, within 30 years. On December 1, 1909, Diaz entered the last year of his presidency. "It is only fair to Diaz to say that his long rule has been divided by the historians into two periods: the first, when he governed without help; the second, when, as he grew older, he came under the influence of a group of advisers, consisting of his Cabinet and the so-called *científicos*, who were not really scientific men, as the Spanish term implies, but merely clever, unscrupulous persons, solely on the outlook for their own interests. The first part of Diaz' rule was much better than the last. At the first, the Indians loved him; at the last, they hated him. Under the influence of his advisers, his love of power grew, until it robbed his administration of even the pretense of justice. . . . The Mexican Congress under Diaz resembled a school debating society. The members spent their time listening to minutes of the last meeting, and holding debates of a literary character. Occasionally they all stood up and waved their hands in the air, which was their way of voting approval of one of Diaz' decrees. In a free country like the United States the elections are always hotly contested. Does it not seem strange that in Mexico, with many millions of inhabitants, *not one vote* should be cast for any one but the President for eight successive elections? It is more than strange—it is incredible—unless the presidential forces were in complete control of the voting booths. And such was the case. Not one real election was held during all the Diaz régime. So it came about that in spite of the wealth and apparent prosperity and order which came to Mexico under the rule of Porfirio Diaz, there was discontent all over the land. There was discontent among the peons, toiling until they dropped in mines and plantations; there was discontent in the army, which held so many men drafted unwillingly on account of being obnoxious to the Government that it was called the 'National Chain-gang'; and there was discontent among the educated people of democratic ideas, who saw that Porfirio Diaz, once a leading Liberal, had become a worse despot than the Czar of Russia. Such discontent is never repressed for long. Suddenly, towards the close of the last century, Liberal clubs began to organize. At first there was nothing political in their nature. No, indeed! They had merely organized for purposes of peaceful reform. But by and by, towards the beginning of the twentieth century, it was rumored that the Liberals planned to nominate a candidate of their own at the next Presidential election. This was going too far! Their meetings, no matter how peaceful, were broken up by the police, their members imprisoned or drafted into the army. As a consequence the Liberal party disappeared; but it was not long before the Democratic party took its place. This party, organized

in 1909, adopted a program of reform, but at the same time nominated Diaz for President in the coming election. However, they named for Vice-President a different man from the Government candidate. The Government objected strongly and began oppressing the Democrats as it had the Liberals. But the feeling of the opposition had grown so deep that persecution only aroused, instead of suppressing it. Steadily the Democratic movement grew. Finally the members had the audacity to nominate their own candidate, Francisco I. Madero, for President against Diaz."—L. S. Hasbrouck, *Mexico from Cortés to Carranza*, pp. 292-295.

1909.—Meeting of President Diaz with President Taft. See U.S.A.: 1909 (September-October).

1910.—Represented at fourth international American conference. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1910.



PORFIRIO DIAZ

1910-1913.—Revolution.—Fall of Diaz.—Madero in power.—Uprisings.—Criticisms of Madero.—His fall and death.—Dictatorship of Huerta.—"Long immunity and an atmosphere of adulation had rendered Diaz absurdly confident in his power, and in common with the *Scientíficos* he remained up to the last moment entirely blind to the powerful spirit of revolt among the people. On the other hand, he allowed himself to be foolishly irritated by some mild attacks made upon him by an academic politician named Francisco Madero, a member of the wealthy and influential Madero family of Jewish origin. To draw this new enemy into the open and test his strength, Diaz cunningly announced that he would not present himself again as candidate for President. Cunningly, we say, but not wisely, for Madero immediately announced himself as candidate for President on a radical platform which insured him the support of the whole Mexican common people. The audacity of the move caught Diaz off his guard. Unable to stem the tide of popular enthu-

siasm for the new candidate, he threw him into jail, and when the elections came due in July, 1910, had himself proclaimed once more President of Mexico. Even then he failed to recognize the real seriousness of the situation, and yielding to the pressure of the wealthy and powerful Madero family he released Francisco Madero on bail, and permitted him to flee the country, confident that he had received sufficient warning to keep him from creating further disturbance. In this he was entirely mistaken. Encouraged by the tremendous success of his campaign, Francisco Madero, before leaving Mexico, drew up and signed a manifesto [Plan of San Luis Potosí] calling upon the people to rise in arms for the defence of the following principles: 1. Effective suffrage (free ballot). 2. Non-re-election (single term for all executive officers throughout the country). 3. Restoration of the lands of



FRANCISCO INDALECIO MADERO

the common people. After he had gained the temporary safety of the United States he caused this manifesto to be widely distributed throughout Mexico. The response was tremendous. Through the activity of the Liberal junta the Mexican people were already well aware of the strong fraternal feeling of the American labour organizations toward them, and their spirit was consequently no longer crushed by fear of United States intervention. In the month of November, 1910, Castulo Herrera, president of the Boiler Makers' and Mechanics' Union, and Pascal Orozco, a small commission merchant, started the revolt with a handful of mountaineers in Chihuahua. It was a fitting thing that the state which saw the massacre of Tomochic, Temosachic, and Guerrero should fire the first shot in the new struggle against the oppressor. Within a few weeks the entire country was ablaze. In Durango, Coahuila, in Zacatecas and Sinaloa, thousands of peons flocked to the

standard of revolt. In the State of Morelos, Emiliano Zapata and Eufemio Zapata, his brother, dispossessed small land-owners, gathered a strong force of peons under their leadership and entered upon an uncompromising fight for their liberties. In Guerrero, Ambrosio Figueroa headed a similar uprising, while in the old revolutionary states of Jalisco, Nuevo Leon, and Tamaulipas, where some remnants of the agrarian democracy still remained, the people rose to a man. . . . Meanwhile the Científicos had awakened to the fact that Madero personally would prove as convenient a tool as Diaz, and that his installation as President would put an end at once to a condition of affairs that was beginning to prove ruinous to their financial operations. Accordingly Porfirio Diaz was dismissed from the presidency. Francisco Leon de la Barra, the recognized leader of the Catholic Church, was proclaimed provisional President in his place, and the nation was summoned to a constitutional election. This change of tactics was entirely successful, and the peons gladly threw down their arms to engage in the political struggle. In order to keep some check upon Madero, the Científicos then endeavoured to force the candidacy of Francisco Leon de la Barra upon the people as Vice-President; failing in this they put him forward as candidate for the presidency itself. The people, however, were fully alive to the issue and the first phase of the Revolution closed in an incredibly short space of time with the election of Madero as constitutional President of the Republic of Mexico by the largest popular vote ever cast for a President in the history of the country."—L. Gutiérrez de Lara and E. Pinchon, *Mexican people: Their struggle for freedom*, pp. 345-346.—"Francisco I. Madero, who was elected President on October 2, 1911, with Pino Suarez as Vice-President, was in every respect a contrast to his predecessor. He was a sincere idealist who really believed in his mission to restore freedom to Mexico and in the practicability of free elections and an impartial judiciary. He was anxious to conciliate all parties, and disgusted his northern supporters by his moderation towards the defeated. Through his family he was in touch with the ruling class of the old régime, and he made no general change in the administrative officials. Gustavo Madero, who was his brother's political manager during the revolution and after his advent to power, was a man of a completely different type who employed to some extent the violent and corrupt methods of the Diaz system in support of the new régime. His power was based on the Extreme Democrats, while the rest of the family were Conservatives. The new Government failed utterly to put an end to the disorder which had broken out everywhere on the fall of Diaz. In the south Zapata, whose followers were chiefly Indians, and who demanded the division of a third of the arable land amongst the peons, was supreme in Morelos, and there was another serious rising in the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. In the north General Reyes's attempt at the end of 1911 was a complete failure, but in the following spring a far more serious rising under Pascual Orozco and Vasquez Gomez broke out in Chihuahua. . . . Their party included many of the leaders of Madero's rising, and in a short time Orozco had made himself master of the whole state. However, in May the Federal forces under General Huerta inflicted some severe defeats on the insurgents and after July they were reduced to guerrilla fighting. In October 1912 the new Congress met—the result of the first free election that had taken place for at least a generation.

The official government party, known as the Constitutional Progressive party, was under the management of Gustavo Madero, but the President had also encouraged the formation of the National Catholic party under the leadership of Señor Gamboa, which was to play the part of an official opposition. There were in addition several independent parties. Although the elections were free the final results were said to have been manipulated by Gustavo Madero so as to leave 190 out and 232 seats in the hands of the supporters of the Government. . . . By the autumn of 1912 the situation of the Government had become very precarious. The President had quite lost his popularity with the Liberals, while Gustavo had aroused the hatred of the official classes and of the supporters of Diaz. On October 23, 1912, the attempted rising of Felix Diaz, nephew of the dictator, at Vera Cruz was crushed and its leader captured. Thus the two chief opponents of Madero, were both prisoners; it is characteristic of the moderation of the President that neither of them was executed."—*Handbook of Mexico (Prepared by the Geographical Section of the Naval Intelligence Division, Naval Staff, Admiralty Great Britain, pp. 86-88)*.—"Among the criticisms of the President [Madero], which were heard on every hand, were such as these: First: He had not destroyed the old régime, root and branch. He had promised to do so. When the time came to carry out his promise, he found it difficult and inexpedient. . . . Second: He had not kept his promises in reference to a complete investigation and overhauling of the financial affairs of the old administration. In the Plan of San Luis Potosi he had definitely promised [to do so]. . . . Third: In the same famous document Madero had said: 'by taking advantage of the law of public uncultivated lands numerous small proprietors, for the most part indigenes, have been despoiled of their property, either by the approval of the Secretary of Fomento or by decisions of the tribunals of the Republic. It being the part of justice to restore to their ancient possessors the lands of which they had been despoiled in a mode so arbitrary, such dispossessions and judgments are declared to be subject to revision, and it will be demanded of those who have acquired them in a mode so immoral, or from their heirs, that they should restore them to their primitive owners, to whom also they will pay an indemnity for the losses suffered. Only in the case where such lands have passed to a third party before the promulgation of this plan, the ancient proprietors will receive indemnification from those in whose benefit the spoliation took place.' This was one of the powerful influences which had helped him in his revolution. The fact that he had promised to the dispossessed the return of their little properties had been a mighty factor in his favor. It was easy for the leader of a revolution to make such promises. It was difficult for a man at the head of the government to keep them. Fourth: It is probable that the election of Madero was honest; it was more nearly a genuine election than Mexico had known for many years. But if his own election was honest, the same could not be said for that of the Vice-President, Pino Suarez. To secure the election of his friend and helper in the revolution, Madero lent himself to the same unscrupulous methods of which he had complained so bitterly under the old régime. Fifth: One of the chief complaints against Porfirio Diaz was that he held unfit, unpopular, and wicked men in office, simply because they were devoted to his personal interests or could be depended upon, on

account of their own interests, to support him at every cost. No one had more loudly complained of this condition than Madero. Yet once in power, he forced unpopular officials upon the public simply because they were his friends or relatives. Pino Suarez had no claim to be made Governor of Yucatan, a post of special difficulty and delicacy; nor was he the man for Vice-President of the Republic. Nor was it wise to use his own personal family largely in official life. A brother and an uncle in the Cabinet was too large a representation. . . . Sixth: Money had been squandered; the treasury was empty; the nation faced bankruptcy. Worse, the Secretary of the Treasury, Ernesto Madero, was arbitrary in his rendering of accounts. He claimed the right to disburse large sums of money without a statement as to the purpose of expenditure. The money which the family claimed to have expended in the conduct of the revolution had been reimbursed. The very respectable sum of 700,000 pesos was entered as a single item without a word as to its destination. Here indeed was opportunity for suspicion, and it was claimed by many that this large sum was the return of loans from American interests, who had advanced aid to the revolution. Seventh: Under the influence of Gustavo Madero and Pino Suarez, it was claimed that the idealist, the Democrat, was tending toward an autocracy as arbitrary as that of the old dictator. Eighth: Doubt was felt as to the sincerity of Madero in the matter of reflection. . . . This doubt was increased by the fact that the President had already broken pledges made in the Plan of San Luis Potosi. If he had not destroyed the old régime, if he had not investigated their financial record, if he had not taken steps to restore the properties to the little dispossessed land-owners, what reason was there to believe that he would hold to the motto of his revolution—effective suffrage and no reflection? These were but a part of the just causes of complaint so violently urged in the opposition press and on the floors of Congress."—F. Starr, *Mexico and the United States*, pp. 316-319.—"In February, 1913, came the blow that put an end to all of Madero's efforts and aspirations. A military uprising in the city of Mexico made him a prisoner, forced him to resign, and set up a provisional government under the dictatorship of Victoriano Huerta, one of his chief lieutenants. Two weeks later both Madero and the Vice-President were assassinated while on their way supposedly to a place of safety."—W. R. Shepherd, *Hispanic nations of the New World*, pp. 202-203.

Also in: D. Hanny, *Diaz*, pp. 293-306.

1910-1923.—Agrarian situation.—Growth of peonage.—Absentee landlordism.—Origin of land companies.—Reforms.—"During the epoch of Diaz, the current sophism of the landowners seeking to excuse themselves to compassionate foreigners for the miserable condition of the peon was: 'The huge landed estates have nothing to do with the poverty of the masses, for the Indians would not till the soil even if each one of them owned a ranch.' This statement is false, not only in the light of history, both before and after the conquest, but also at the present time [1910], as any one may discover for himself by travelling a little. I have journeyed many miles through rich, extensive valleys owned by absent millionaires (who lived in the capital of the States or in Europe) where the only dwellings were huts erected within the boundaries of the farm and inhabited by the miserable serfs of the region. The free Indians were confined to the neighboring

mountains, where very often they had under extensive cultivation, slopes as abrupt and arid as the thatched roof of a hut, while at the foot of the hills spread the monotonized valleys of badly cultivated lands. The Mexican farm (*hacienda*) is a modern representative of the old Phœnician latitud; that pernicious agricultural system of extensive lands owned by absentees and worked by serfs which caused the ruin of Carthage. . . . Although slavery was abolished in Mexico in the year 1810, the War of Independence did not give freedom to the land slave, or peon. Peonage is absolutely forbidden by article Five of the Federal Constitution; . . . but notwithstanding, it flourished everywhere during the Díaz régime, and the principal duty of the *Rurales* was to maintain it. A peon was enslaved not only for his own debts, but also for those of his father, as debts were transmitted from father to son in an interminable chain. His debts increased constantly, because his ordinary salary was insufficient for the sustenance of his family, and consequently he was bound to request advances of money on the eve of religious holidays for which he received no pay. These advances usually amounted to \$20.00 or \$30.00 in the year, and he was never able to pay them off so as to be finally free from indebtedness unless the manager or 'majordomo' of the *hacienda* cancelled the debt as a special favor. The average salary of a peon—18 to 25 cents per day—which prevailed in Puebla, for example, at the time of President Lerdo de Tejada, was not insufficient then, because with it the peon was enabled to provide food and cover for his family which compared favorably with what was given to cattle. But in 1910, the day wages in Puebla were 25 to 37 cents, the increase since 1870 being merely 50% while the price of corn had increased 200% and that of chile 800%; an investigation made by the Federal Department of Communications and Industry in 1913 has proved that this condition was not merely local, but prevailed almost everywhere in the country. The peon in the '*haciendas*' had truly reached the 'minimum of subsistence' of the classical economists; had he received one cent less, he would have starved. . . . As the '*haciendados*' refused to increase salaries while the price of necessities rose, the peon, conquered by hunger, was forced to escape and try to secure work in the mines or in the cities. The inhabitants of the farms near the railway were often successful in their flight; but in sections farther from the railroad they were caught and if the first and second attempts resulted simply in a beating, the third meant two years in the army. . . . In order to replace the peons who escaped from the '*haciendas*' situated in the highlands, and to obtain new victims for the inhuman conditions of tropical agriculture existing in Yucatan and in the Valle Nacional, the system of 'enganche' was installed with the help of the *Rurales*. [See also PEONAGE: Mexico.] . . .

"In the year 1910, at the beginning of the last Revolution, the ownership and the value of Mexican lands was as follows:

Kinds of Land	Area Square kilmts.	%
11,000 ' <i>Haciendas</i> '	880,000	44
18 ' <i>Land Companies</i> '	80,000	4
Other <i>Land Companies</i>	120,000	6
' <i>Sitios</i> ' and ' <i>commons</i> '	120,000	6
Small ranches	400,000	20
National Lands	400,000	20
Total Rural property	2,000,000	100

. . . This table shows a concentration of property which is surprising: 11,000 *haciendas* embrace 44% of the total area of the country, and the best lands at that. The average area of these farms is about 80 square kilometers (8,000 hectares), the equivalent of three square Spanish leagues. When, as is often the case, one person owns several farms, his holdings constitute a colossal amount. In this way, therefore, Luis Terrazas, in Chihuahua, owns about 60,000 square kilometers, a larger area than that contained in all Costa Rica; and the Central Mexican Railway in Hidalgo traverses thirty leagues of land belonging to José Escandón. The estates of Lorenzo Torres, in Sonora; of the Gurza brothers, in Durango; of 'Los Cedros,' in Zacatecas; of Inigo Noriega, in the State of Mexico; of García Pimentel, in Morelos; of Juventino Ramirez, in Puebla; and of the Madero family, in Coahuila; are a few of the many examples which could be quoted of enormous family estates throughout the country. The estates of the eighteen more important land companies average 4,444 square kilometers each, that is to say, about one half of the area of Portugal; while about a dozen other companies are in possession of ten per cent (10%) of the total area, that is to say, one half of what is owned by the small farmers, and about 67% more than the land which constitutes communal property. The whole free population of Mexico is, therefore, restricted to practically one-fourth of the total area, and this consists of the poorer class of land; while the greater part of the national lands is taken up by mountainous or desert lands, or marshes. At the present time, [1910] several thousand individuals and a few companies hold the power to exclude a nation of fifteen millions from the best lands of their own country. The small ranches of the present day originated principally from the division of the national lands which began in 1821, or of the '*commons*,' which started in 1856. Some of the '*haciendas*' date from the period of the Conquest, (and they have often increased by the acquisition of lands from the division of national lands or of commons) while others are formed from lands that belonged to the nation and which were created in order to benefit fortunate politicians. It now remains for us to explain the origin of the vast possessions of the land companies. European capital, not Spanish, began to pour into Mexico at the same time that the new Creoles began to settle here, after the year 1821; but foreign wealth was invested principally in mining and commercial ventures. Although the first railroad, from Vera Cruz to Mexico City, was completed in 1873, it was only when the Central Railway (Mexico City to El Paso) was finally in operation in the year 1884, that the real influx of foreign capital into the country began. Besides mines and railroads, ranches and woods offered great and sure sources of profit. The best woods were the property of feudal landowners who generally refused to sell, since they had kept their '*haciendas*' with an eye to political influence and social prestige, sometimes from personal vanity, as well as for the rental value of the property. After the '*haciendas*' the best large properties were the undivided commons of the Indians, and very soon the ambitious speculators in land found 'defects' in the titles of ownership, and won President Díaz to their side. Between the years 1883 and 1894, a series of decrees was issued under the name of '*Leyes de Deslindes*' ('*Leyes sobre Tierras*,' 1863 a 1912, Sec. de Fomento, México, D.F.), '*Boundary Laws*,' which ruined financially thousands of Indian villages lo-

cated principally in the North and the West. The system followed was this: The natural boundaries of the 'ejidos,' as described in the royal concessions of the year 1573 and following ones, were declared null, and all the lands of an 'ejido' over and above the 'sitio' (one square league), were called 'demasias,' (excess) and liable to public protest and claim. Then the Mexican politicians established what was known as the 'Compañía de Deslindes' (Demarcation companies) with the object of securing concessions from the Federal Government to carry out the survey of a State in whole or in part. In exchange for such survey, (generally cheap, inaccurate, or even fraudulent), the company received on account of the concession, two-thirds of the surface of 'the excess' which it found within the commons. Not only that, but often, after the topographic survey had been made, the 'sitio' for the Indians was allotted from the poorer land, and they were notified that they had to vacate their original grant, or pay rent. If any of them opposed this measure, a force of Rurales was detailed to 're-establish order,' and to apprehend or, if necessary, to shoot the recalcitrants. The surveying companies had also the option to purchase the third left of the national excess, and of any other public lands comprised in their concessions, at a normal price, (usually, 50 cts. Mex. per hectare) under some pretext, such as that of 'projected colonization.' About one year after a company had secured in this manner all the land which it wanted, it would allege impossibility to colonize; and immediately, the complaisant officials would relieve it of a fine amounting to about 25 cts. Mex. per hectare. Feudal land-holders lost nothing through the surveying operations, and the more ambitious ones had an opportunity for gain, whether as shareholders in the companies, or by annexing to their farms, under some plausible pretext, choice sections of the land which might still have been left within the 'commons.' These Land Companies were surreptitiously incorporated in the United States or in Europe, with a view to impede any efforts which a native government might make to annul at a future time land titles thus secured."—R. B. Brinsmade, *Mexican problems (pamphlet)*, pp. 3-4, 8-11.—"Realizing that there would be no peace until land monopoly had been corrected, the leaders of the revolution determined to make the Indian villagers independent of the hacendado by providing them with land on which they might grow their food. Early in 1915 the Carranza government put out an 'agrarian law' which called for a National Agrarian Commission, with a local agrarian commission in every state, which should pass on petitions for ejidos. If such were approved, the village should receive land either as 'restitution' or 'donation.' Wanting a claim for 'restitution,' the village might be 'donated' land sufficient to provide each head of a family or male over eighteen years of age with twelve and one-half acres of irrigated land, or fifteen acres of plow land not irrigated, or inferior land in proportion. For villages near the city or the railway the allotment was one-third or two-fifths less. The new ejido was to be carved from the surrounding properties exceeding a certain maximum, which ran from 375 acres to 1250 acres according to the quality of the land. Land reform was not pushed energetically under Carranza and this was one cause of his downfall. Since the Obregon government came in in May 1920, much energy has been shown in putting through this program, so that the agrarian commissions are now about halfway down their row. Three thou-

sand, or nearly one half, of the villages of Mexico have petitioned for land. Of these petitions about one hundred have been denied, twenty-four hundred are pending, while five hundred and twenty have actually received land. Of this, 600,000 acres have been 'restituted,' while 1,500,000 acres have been 'donated,' out of the larger adjacent properties. Altogether about a thousand haciendas have been nicked. When, in about two years, the work is completed, it will take rank as one of the giant agrarian adjustments of history. . . . As authorized by the Constitution of 1917 and on lines which it lays down, several of the states have passed agrarian laws of their own. Of these the pace setter is San Luis Potosi, which aspires to lead Mexico in constructive reform legislation. . . . Here the hacendados are given a year to 'fraction' their estate and if they neglect to do so the State may go about it. In the western semi-arid section of San Luis Potosi the owner may reserve for himself any block of 10,000 acres in his hacienda; in the middle section 7,500 acres; in the well-watered eastern section 5,000 acres. The rest may be taken, divided into single-family farms and sold on installments to persons who are equipped to work a farm. . . . The states of Michoacan, Durango, and Zacatecas have passed laws modeled more or less on that of San Luis Potosi. Last spring the state of Chihuahua passed a law which fixes the maximum holding at 2,500 to 10,000 acres (depending on the water supply) plus 100,000 acres of grazing land. Governor Truchuelo of Queretero is a strong man. For example, he cleaned up the ejidos matter in short order. He convened the fifty big land owners in his small state, convinced them that land reform is inevitable and got them to agree to fit out the twenty-five petitioning villages with ejidos and to take the bonds offered them. Now he proposes that his state break up the big haciendas by taking land holders progressively according to the amount of their holdings and to fix a term of years, say seven, at the expiration of which no one in the state shall own land in excess of 3,750 acres. The state of Vera Cruz has been notorious for its drastic land policy."—E. A. Ross, *Land reform in Mexico (New Republic, Apr., 1923)*.

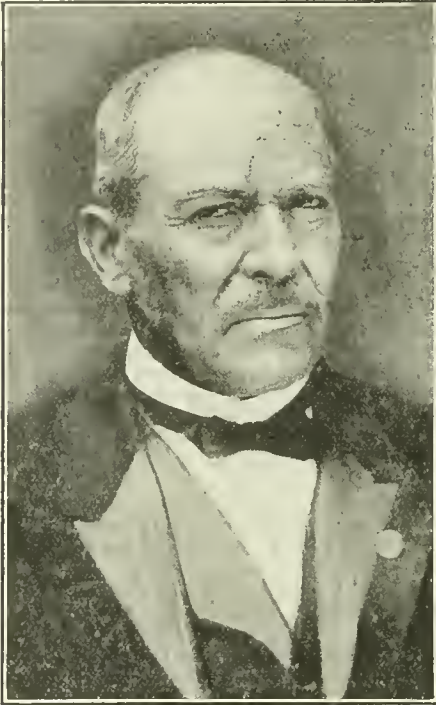
1911.—Abolition of peonage. See PEONAGE: Mexico.

1911-1912.—Rumor of Japanese acquisition of naval base on Magdalena bay.—Opposition of the United States. See MONROE DOCTRINE: 1911-1914; U.S.A.: 1912 (July).

1913.—Relations with United States.—Mission of John Lind.—President Wilson's address to Congress. See U.S.A.: 1913 (August).

1913-1914.—Huerta in power.—Refusal of United States to recognize his administration.—Revolt led by Carranza and Villa.—Arrest of United States marines at Tampico.—Mediation conference at Niagara.—Fall of Huerta.—"Huerta was a rough soldier of Indian origin, possessed of unusual force of character and strength of will, ruthless, cunning, and in bearing alternately dignified and vulgar. A *científico* in political faith, he was disposed to restore the Diaz régime, so far as an application of shrewdness and force could make it possible. But from the outset he found an obstacle confronting him that he could not surmount. Though acknowledged by European countries and by many of the Hispanic republics, he could not win recognition from the United States, either as provisional President or as a candidate for regular election to the office. Whether personally responsible for the murder of Madero or not, he was not regarded by the Ameri-

can Government as entitled to recognition, on the ground that he was not the choice of the Mexican people. [See U.S.A.: 1913 (October).] In its refusal to recognize an administration set up merely by brute force the United States was upheld by Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Cuba. The elimination of Huerta became the chief feature for a while in its Mexican policy."—W. R. Shepherd, *Hispanic nations of the New World*, p. 203.—"Venustiano Carranza, governor of Coahuila during the Madero administration, and an earnest friend and supporter of Madero, refused from the first to acknowledge Huerta as President and lost no time in organizing a revolt against him. . . . The first act in the war drama was played by General Obregon. . . . He was now put in command of the forces raised, and fought a fierce battle with the Federal troops, driving them from



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the whole of Sonora except the port of Guaymas, which they continued to hold. At the same time Villa, who had so narrowly escaped execution at the hands of Huerta, and had no love for that personage, organized a force in Sonora, while Urbina did the same in the north of Durango. The greatest difficulty of the revolutionists at this stage of the conflict was the lack of arms and money, but this was partly overcome by the Madero family, which contributed \$1,000,000 in support of the movement. [See also U.S.A.: 1914 (April): Mexican situation.] . . . The Constitutionalists were ready to make peace, but only on the acceptance by the Mexican people of the following conditions: 1st. The elimination from the government of Huerta and his supporters. 2d. Complete surrender to the Constitutionalist cause of the political faction opposing it. 3d. Restoration of the Constitution as the basis of the Mexican government. 4th. Selection of a Provisional President acceptable to the Constitution-

alists, and suitable provision for a popular election. 5th. Guarantee of a change in the land laws so that deeds to land would be more generally distributed. 6th. Ratification of the confiscation of the Terrazas, Creel, and other large landed estates. 7th. Nullification of all acts of the Huerta régime. Such were the planks of the platform for which the Constitutionalists were fighting, and such the state of affairs existing on December 1, 1913."—C. Morris, *Story of Mexico*, pp. 276, 278-279, 285-286.—May 13, 1914, the Carranza forces captured Tampico, depriving Huerta of his base in the north and the chief remaining source of revenue. "The order to assemble a great naval force at Tampico, on the Mexican coast, was issued by Secretary Daniels, on the President's instruction, on Tuesday, April 14 [1914]. . . . A few days earlier several American bluejackets had been arrested in Tampico and detained by the Federal soldiers who were in control of the place, and against whom the Constitutionalist troops were at that time fighting."—*Review of Reviews*, May, 1914, p. 517. (See also U.S.A.: 1914 (April): Occupation of Vera Cruz.) "On April 27 [1914] it became known, through the Spanish Ambassador at Washington that the offer laid before General Huerta by the representatives of the three A. B. C. powers in Mexico City had been accepted 'in principle' by him. . . . The date for the meeting of the conference was set for May 20 [1914] at Niagara Falls, Canada, so that the deliberations might be on neutral ground."—*Ibid.*, June, 1914, pp. 670-671.—"On May 20 the mediation conference was opened at Niagara. It was suggested that Huerta should resign, and that a government should be formed under a provisional president nominated by Huerta, which should hold office until a new government pledged to reform should be installed. This plan, however, was wrecked by the refusal of Carranza, supported by President Wilson, to recognize any government appointed by Huerta, or including any of his supporters. It was indeed obvious that the Constitutionalists were now masters of the situation."—*Handbook of Mexico (Prepared by the Geographical Section of the Naval Intelligence Division, Naval Staff, Admiralty Great Britain, pp. 92-93.)* (See also A B C CONFERENCE.) Huerta finally realized that his situation was hopeless and left Mexico City, July 15, 1914, embarking with his family from Puerto Mexico for Spain. The following year he returned to the United States, and was arrested on charges of conspiracy to start a revolution, but died before his case came up for trial.

1914.—Percentage of government control of railways. See RAILROADS: 1917-1919.

1914.—German propoganda preceding outbreak of World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship: d, 1.

1914-1915.—Convention at Aguas Calientes.—War between Carranza and Villa.—Carranza recognized as provisional president of Mexico by the United States and principal countries of South America.—"The Federals, on Huerta's departure, ceased serious opposition to the constitutionalist cause, and within a month General Obregon occupied the capital. Felix Diaz, who had returned to the country, announced that he would start a new revolution. In the north Maytorena led an uprising in Sonora. Obregon and Villa, sent to suppress the outbreak, fell out, and Villa placed Obregon under arrest. Obregon managed, however, to escape and return to Mexico City, while Villa, after announcing himself as dictator of Northern Mexico, declared war on the

Constitutionalists, so that, five weeks after the latter had occupied Mexico City, they had a new revolution on their hands. Leaders in Mexico City called a national convention, to meet at Aguas Calientes, partly for the purpose of organizing a permanent government and partly to secure, if possible, a union of all parties in a new program. Villa, at the head of a large force of light cavalry, swept down unexpectedly from the North, and overawed the convention, which resulted in the formation of a Villa-Zapata party called the Conventionalists. The Constitutionalists, meanwhile, had organized a government in the Capital. One of their first acts was to ask the United States to withdraw its troops from Vera Cruz, which was evacuated by the American forces on November 23rd [1914]. The Belgian minister was given his passports as a result of a communication which offended the government. The government took over the operation of the National Railways, partly for military reasons and partly, doubtless, as a source of income. At the same time the government took possession of the tramways system in Mexico City. The Constitutionalists, threatened by the Zapata forces from the south and Villa forces from the North, decided to evacuate Mexico City, and withdrew on November twenty-fifth, going to Vera Cruz, which then became their headquarters. . . . Mexico City, during the next two months, witnessed a series of political and military shifts probably never equaled in history. Zapata occupied the city on November twenty-fifth. . . . Ten days later Villa entered the city with a large force and was soon wrangling with Zapata over the latter's suggestion that Emilio Vasquez Gomez should be named President. The Zapata forces withdrew from the city the first of December to engage the Constitutionalist army, abandoned the capital. In the meanwhile Gutierrez, installed as provisional president by a combination of different elements in the city, including Villa, had refused to be Villa's tool and had to flee, being succeeded by Roque Gonzalez Garza. The latter now attempted to reach some arrangement with Carranza, but, the negotiations failing, he left the city, Obregon, with the Constitutionalist troops, reëntering on January twenty-eighth. . . . Villa proclaimed himself dictator of all Mexico and, with a large force supporting him, he threatened to make his claim good. Obregon . . . on March eleventh, again evacuated Mexico City, the 'Zaps' marching in and assuming control of affairs. The seat of government continued to be in Vera Cruz, from which point General Carranza directed the campaign. The Constitutionalist armies led by Obregon, Gonzales and Trevino, had the great advantage that they were acting in a common cause and were loyal to one chief, while their opponents, Villistas, Zapatistas and other 'istas' were running more or less individual affairs and unlikely to act in unison. The campaign was pushed through the Spring and early Summer of 1915. Obregon, operating in the North, defeated Villa forces in many skirmishes and some heavy fighting. Trevino dislodged Villa troops from important points in Tamulipas and Nuevo Leon, and Gonzalez, by a long series of operations, secured control of all territory surrounding Mexico City. On July tenth the Zapatistas evacuated the City, and the Constitutionalists again took possession."—E. D. Trowbridge, *Mexico*, pp. 151-152, 154-155.—In October, 1915, Carranza was recognized as the provisional president of Mexico by the United States and the principal countries of South America.

1916-1917.—Villa's raids into New Mexico.—General Pershing ordered to Mexican border.—American troops in Mexico.—Carranza demand for the immediate withdrawal of American troops from Mexico.—Battle of Carrizal between Carranzistas and United States troops.—Gradual withdrawal of American troops.—In the spring of 1916 Villa, with a small band, crossed into New Mexico and killed a number of Americans. To prevent further outrages President Wilson sent a detachment of the regular army, under the command of General Pershing, to pursue Villa. The troops penetrated more than a hundred miles into Mexico, but were unable to capture the bandit. "Carranza was supposed to consent to the invasion, but in April, a month after the Americans had entered, a small force of United States soldiers were attacked by his men. This led to a dispatch of heavy reinforcements to General Pershing and



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the general contraction of the American lines. The pursuit of Villa was virtually abandoned, but our troops were still kept in the country. On May 31, the United States government received a note from Carranza stating that the Pershing expedition had gone into Mexico without Carranza's consent, and asking for the immediate withdrawal of the American troops in Mexican territory. On June 16, Carranza's representative, General Trevino, informed General Pershing that if the American troops moved in any direction but northward it would be considered a hostile act. . . . President Wilson informed Carranza that he refused to withdraw the American troops and that any attempt to expel the American troops by force would be followed by 'the gravest consequences.' Then occurred the battle at Carrizal, Chihuahua [see U.S.A.: 1916 (March): Villa], where Pershing's soldiers were ambushed by Carranzistas and a score of them killed. The responsibility for this affair has never been fully fixed. Secretary Lane called the explanatory statement submitted by the Mexican government 'a

formal avowal of a deliberately hostile action.' Soon after, President Wilson accepted Carranza's offer for a joint commission to confer regarding the withdrawal of American troops and the origin of bandit raids. This commission met in September and continued till November, when it drew up a protocol. Carranza found this unsatisfactory and refused to sign it. The Pershing forces were gradually withdrawn from Mexico during the winter of 1917, the National Guard having returned to their homes by detachments during the fall. [See U.S.A.: 1917 (January-March).] Though the expedition had not succeeded in capturing Villa, it showed that the United States was ready and able to protect its border against his or similar depredations. . . . He was soon defeated by Carranza and his faction under the leadership of General Obregon. . . . For a year or more his whereabouts and even existence were in doubt. In the fall of 1917 . . . he reappeared. . . . He attacked the Mexican town of Ojinaga with a small force, and defeated the Carranzista troops, but the victory was unimportant."—L. H. Hasbrouck, *Mexico from Cortés to Carranza*, pp. 322-324.

ALSO IN: F. A. Ogg, *National progress*, pp. 297-301.—J. H. Latané, *History of the United States*, pp. 552-553.

1917.—New constitution.—"The new constitution was promulgated with great solemnity on February 5, 1917, and became operative on May 1, 1917. The new constitution . . . follows the principles of the constitutions of the United States and of New Zealand and Australia. Its main differences as compared with the old constitution are: the independence of the Judicial Power, the division of large estates, the creation of small property and homestead, the autonomy of municipalities as the basis for the political organization of the States, the establishment of the basis on which Congress and the State legislatures may legislate on labor matters and labor contracts, and the recognition of the right of the workmen to strike and of the employers to the lockout."—*Latin-American Year Book*, 1920, p. 438.

ALSO IN: *New York Times*, Mar. 18, 1917.—*Mexican Review*, Washington, D. C., Mar., 1917.

1917.—Carranza recognized by United States. See U.S.A.: 1917 (January-March).

1917.—Intrigues with Germany against United States. See U.S.A.: 1917 (January): Germany declares, etc.

1917-1918.—Efforts to make peace.—Neutrality in World War.—Refusal to take part in League of Nations.—Part in final re-adjustment of peace.—Meeting of new congress.—Improvement of political and social conditions.—"On Feb. 11, [1917] the Government of Mexico addressed a note to each of the countries still neutral in the European war, including the United States, proposing in an effort 'toward bringing about the earliest possible termination of the European war, or at least so circumscribing it as to remove the possibility of future complications and thus bringing into sight an early ending,' that 'the groups of contending powers be invited, in common accord and on the basis of absolutely perfect equality on either side, to bring this war to an end, either by their own effort or by availing themselves of the good offices of friendly mediation of all the countries which would jointly extend that invitation. If within a reasonable term peace could not be restored by this means, the neutral countries would then take the necessary measures to reduce the conflagration to its nar-

rowest limit by refusing any kind of implements to the belligerents and suspending commercial relations with the warring nations until the said conflagration shall have been smothered.' [The text of the note goes on as follows]: 'The Mexican Government is not unconscious of its somewhat departing from the principles of international law which have heretofore regulated the relations between neutrals and belligerents when it offers its propositions; but it must be admitted that the present war is a conflict without a precedent in the history of mankind that demands supreme efforts, and novel remedies that are not to be found among the narrow and somewhat selfish rules of international law as accepted until now. Mexico believes that, confronted by a catastrophe of such large proportions the like of which never was seen, by a war in which political, social, military, and economic factors that could never be foreseen have been brought into play, it can not go astray in proposing that the remedies to be applied to the conflict be also new, extraordinary, and commensurate with the circumstances. The Government of Mexico understands that no neutral nation, no matter how mighty, could singly take a step of this character, and that the measure can only be brought to a successful issue through the coöperation of the neutral governments wielding the greatest international influence with the belligerent nations. It is specially incumbent on the United States, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile in America; Spain, Sweden, and Norway in Europe, as being more influential and freer to arrive at a decision toward the belligerents to father an initiative which is none the less worthy of thorough study and earnest consideration than for its coming from a nation which is supposed to be weakened at present and therefore incapable of any effective international effort. The Government of Mexico cherishes the hope that if this idea is accepted and put into practice it may serve as a precedent and basis for a new shaping of international law that would give neutrals the opportunity to assist in preventing and mending future international wars while most strictly respecting the sovereignty of the belligerents.' In its reply, dated March 16, the American Government expressed its regret at its inability to accept the proposal of the Mexican Government and referred to the futile peace efforts of President Wilson, the recent activities of the German Government and the position taken by the Government of the United States in reply to the Austro-Hungarian note of Aug. 12, 1915, with reference to the shipment of munitions of war to the belligerents. The note concluded: "The President would not be understood, however, as desiring to impede the progress of a movement leading to the resumption of peaceful relations between all of the belligerents, and would not, therefore, wish the Mexican Government to feel that his inability to act in the present stage of affairs should in any way militate against the attainment of the high ideals of General Carranza by the coöperation of other neutral Governments in the use of their good offices and friendly mediation to bring about the end of the terrible war which is being waged between the great powers of Europe.'"—F. G. Wickware, ed., *American Year Book*, 1917, pp. 49-50.—"The Mexican Republic observed, as it is well known, a perfect neutrality during that conflict, for even though certain enemies of the Government and people interested on various occasions expressed the opinion that the Mexican Government was not strictly neutral, it must be admitted that no one may at

present nor shall ever be able to mention an act or omission of the Mexican Government to prove the slightest breach of our neutrality if judging in accordance with the most exacting principles of International Law, of the Treaties in force and of practices universally established. But at the same time, most unfortunately, the rights of Mexico as a neutral were not always duly respected, for some United States warships remained in exceptional cases over twenty-four hours in our territorial waters, and have constantly been and still are anchored in Tampico, under the excuse of affording protection to their citizens. When the struggle was over the Governments of the Allied Powers got together to constitute a League of Nations, to which it was said that almost all countries would have access under certain conditions; all of them were invited excepting a few, Mexico among them, and our Government has done nothing, nor shall ever do, to enter into that international society, because the bases upon which it was formed do not establish, neither as to its functions nor as to its organization, a perfect equality for all nations and all races, while the Mexican Government has proclaimed as the main principles of its international policy that all the powers of earth must have the same rights and the same obligations, and also that no individual may pretend to be placed in a privileged situation nor demand extraordinary protection in a country under the pretext of being a foreigner or for any other reason. In view that the acceptance of the Monroe Doctrine was discussed at the Paris Conference, the Government of Mexico found itself compelled to make a public declaration and notify officially the friendly powers, that Mexico had not recognized nor would do it, that doctrine because it upholds, without the consent of all the peoples of America, a thesis and creates a situation on which no opinion has ever been consulted with such peoples, and therefore that doctrine impairs the sovereignty and independence of Mexico and would constitute for all the nations of America a forced tutelage. Last December the French Legation informed the Department of Foreign Affairs that according to the clauses of the Armistice signed at Treveris in November last year, the German delegates had agreed with the Allied powers not to dispose, without their previous consent, of any stock in money, securities, etc., owned in foreign countries by the German Government or by private German subjects, and informed also that measures would be adopted to deprive of such property whoever might acquire it through purchase or transfer of any kind, for all dealings regarding such property would be fraudulent. The Italian Legation addressed an identical note to our Foreign Office, to which the Mexican Government replied that it could not recognize any effect to that agreement within our territory, because it was against our Constitution, as also against a treaty still in force between Mexico and Germany, more so since the German authorities had given no special advice to Mexico in that regard. The United States Embassy and the Legations of Italy and France in April ult., informed our Department of Foreign Affairs that the Supreme Allied Council of Paris had entrusted the United States Government with the mission to take from Mexican waters the merchant-ships belonging to citizens or subjects of enemy countries, and that the German Government would notify Mexico also in that regard. The Department answered that it expected to receive Germany's advice in order to then resolve the case and such advice was

received last July in our Department, expressing the agreement to place at the disposal of the Allies, while the armistice lasted, German steamships from 500 to 2,000 tons. The official who was in charge of the British interests in Mexico addressed himself directly to the Executive, informing that, without including the sailships, the enemy ships referred to in the above mentioned notes should be delivered to the British Government instead of to the United States, as was said before, and that the only ship in the conditions described was the *Antonino*, anchored at Tampico.—*Message of President Carranza to the National Congress, Sept. 1, 1919 (L. J. De Bekker, Plot against Mexico, pp. 257-260)*. —“During 1917 . . . a new Congress duly assembled in Mexico City, and this was the first national legislature to be convened since 1913, when the Mexican Parliament was forcibly dissolved by the usurping dictator, ‘General’ Huerta. It was therefore legitimate to assume that the republic was returning to more stable conditions. General Carranza remained in power throughout 1918, and the improvements in political and social conditions continued.”—*Annual Register, 1918, p. 307*.

1918.—Importance of oil industry.—Oil situation.—Survey of legal ownership.—Ownership of oil under new constitution.—Taxation.—“That Mexico's destinies should be influenced if not dominated by the oil interests is natural and inevitable. These constitute such a paramount element in her economic life that even domestic politics in that country is now [written in 1921] wedded to them for better or for worse. The American oil companies in Mexico recently announced that during the first quarter of 1921 oil stood for no less than 62.1 per cent. of that country's total exports to the United States, while of its principal imports (manufactures of iron and steel), 40 per cent. enter very largely into the oil industry. Thus it is petroleum that supplies the staple of Mexico's foreign trade and industry and will have to bear the brunt of taxation. The bulk of the revenue is drawn from that, and before other forms of commerce and industry can be fully revived or be called to life to vie with oil, the treaty, it is assumed, will have been signed and the Constitution amended or abolished, or else Mexico will be on the way to Cubanization. That is the current belief in the United States. No wonder the attention of natives and foreigners is focussed upon the subsoil and its treasures, or that the current history of the Republic is soaked through and through with oil. But the allegation that the oil men have lately broken bounds and encroached upon the domain of politics should not blind one to the facts that certain of their grievances were genuine and their demand for the protection of property justified at least in law.”

—E. J. Dillon, *Mexico on the verge*, pp. 160-161. —“The oil industry in Mexico has been developed by foreigners, principally Americans, since 1901, though the presence of asphalt and oil was known in Mexico even before the Spanish occupation. The value of the Mexican fields, however, was not proved until the exploration work of two Americans, Messrs. Doheny and Canfield, was crowned with success in 1901. Since then the development has been very rapid. . . . The total output has risen from 10,345 barrels in 1901 to 55,202,770 in 1917, with an estimated possible production of 250,000,000 barrels a year, or nearly one-half of the total world production in 1917. The oil is nearly all exported, and consumed on foreign ships or engines or in foreign automobiles. In July, 1918, for example, 3,435,545 barrels were shipped to the United States, and 1,309,200 barrels to other points

abroad. The Mexican Government is now [written in 1919] receiving a share of the profits. . . . The tendency has been for the ownership and handling of the oil to be concentrated in the hands of foreign interests which own the refineries, the pipe lines, and the tank ships. The principal organizations are the Mexican Petroleum (Doheny interests), the Waters-Pierce (Standard Oil), the Pan-Mexican Fuel Oil (Standard Oil), the East Coast Oil (Southern Pacific), the Corona Oil (Dutch Shell), and the Mexican Eagle (Pearson English interests). The amount invested is already very large. A recent estimate puts the British and American capital invested in this business at \$300,000,000, of which \$200,000,000 is American. The legal history of the ownership of oil in Mexico begins with the Spanish period. All grants of land were made by authority of the king, but they did not include minerals underlying the surface, which were granted separately on condition of exploitation and the payment of an annual production tax. The law was based on the principle that the right to develop the natural wealth of the subsoil should be granted only to persons who would utilize it, and on the condition that it be utilized, so that the industry might be developed and the royal treasury enriched by a share of the proceeds. If the concessionaire did not fulfill the conditions of his grant, the property reverted to the crown. In 1783 the mining edicts were combined into a code. On achieving independence, the Mexican nation succeeded to the ownership of minerals as well as to the other rights of the Spanish crown, and the old system of granting mining concessions was followed. In the Constitution of 1857, mining legislation was left to the States, but a constitutional amendment in 1883 transferred that right to the Federal Congress, and in 1884 the President, acting on a general authorization of the Congress, issued a decree containing a federal mining code. The code changed the policy of the law in regard to certain products of the subsoil, among which were coal and petroleum, by expressly declaring them to be the property of the owner of the surface. Since 1783 there had been conflicting opinions as to whether coal, at least, was the property of the owner of the surface or of the State, and the draftsman of 1884 decided in favor of the land owner. There was no declaration of national ownership of the other minerals, but as they could be acquired only through concession from the Government on conditions laid down by the Government, they were practically part of the public domain. This division of minerals was the result of the deliberate action of the executive commission which drafted the decree, contrary to the judgment of many Mexican authorities. The division of the subsoil products was reaffirmed in an act of Congress of 1892, which introduced another important change in the mining law by making the grant of publicly-owned minerals perpetual, dependent only on the payment of taxes. Even in regard to these minerals, therefore, the principle of the Spanish law that a mine must be continuously worked was given up, and the necessity of paying a tax was depended upon to insure operation. The latest mining code, that of 1909, adopted by Congress since the great expansion of the petroleum industry, follows the preceding act in these respects. It expressly states that minerals in general are the property of the nation, but that certain products, including mineral combustibles and bituminous substances, are 'the exclusive property of the owner of the soil.' In the debate over the code in Congress, it was said that the legislature could not change the conditions of the substances which the code of 1884 had declared to be private property, and thus

placed under the protection of the Constitution. The Mexican law-making power, in other words, has repeatedly recognized the proprietor of the surface as the owner of the petroleum, and the Mexican Government has permitted, indeed encouraged, the investment of large sums of money in the purchase of oil-bearing lands, or of leases of the right to pump oil, depending on the existing statutes, and in the erection of refineries and other plants to utilize the property so acquired. Article 27 of the new Constitution [1917] profoundly changed this legal situation. [See MEXICO, CONSTITUTION OF.] Petroleum was expressly included among the mineral resources of the nation which are inalienable, but which may be exploited by individuals under concession on condition of regular development. The Constitutional Convention returned in general to the Spanish theory of mining ownership. Concessions can be granted only to Mexican citizens, to Mexican corporations, or to foreigners who agree to be considered as Mexicans in regard to such property and not to invoke the protection of their Governments in respect of it; furthermore, Mexican citizens are to be preferred in grants of concessions. Foreign corporations cannot acquire ownership in concessions, consequently foreign corporations cannot continue in the industry in Mexico. Mexican corporations owning oil lands suffer a further limitation. Article 27 allows them to hold only as much land as 'is absolutely necessary for their purpose,' the amount to be fixed by the Executive; so that a corporation loses not only the oil underlying the land which it owned, but in addition the land itself, unless it obtains a concession to utilize the petroleum, when it may keep the amount of land necessary for its purposes. This provision of Article 27 has not as yet been put into effect. Realizing the finality of constitutional provisions, save as changed by regularly adopted amendments, those who believe that the petroleum should remain in private ownership attempt to construe the Constitution to meet their opinion. It is argued that Article 27, so far as it deprives the owners of the soil of their petroleum rights, is nullified by other rules laid down in the same instrument. Article 14 provides that no law shall be given a retroactive effect, and Article 27 itself stipulates that private property shall not be taken except for public purposes and upon indemnification. Article 14 undoubtedly prohibits retroactive legislation by Congress, but it cannot limit the power of the Constitutional Convention, nor has one section of the Constitution more authority than another. If Article 14 can be said to limit Article 27, Article 27 can equally limit the application of Article 14. The meaning of the Constitution is the only question at issue. The only value of Article 14, as applied to Article 27, is that it lays down a general principle which would help in its interpretation if its meaning be doubtful; but there can be no doubt of the meaning of the language used in Article 27. As practically all the known oil-bearing lands are privately owned, Article 27, if it is to have any extended application, must apply to lands held in private ownership; so to admit the argument drawn from Article 14 would be practically to nullify Article 27, in enacting which the Convention evidently did not intend a 'vain thing.' Señor Pastor Rouaix, now a member of the Mexican Cabinet, the draftsman of the article, which was adopted practically without amendment, authoritatively states that the national ownership of all petroleum was intended whether or not it underlay lands privately owned. The Mexican Government, also, composed of men intimately acquainted with the intent of the Convention and headed by President Carranza, its

master spirit, has acted on the same theory in its subsequent decrees. The words of the article, and its contemporary interpretation by the Government and by its draftsman, are too clear to permit the general rule laid down in Article 14 to be resorted to for aid in its interpretation, even if Article 14 applies to the Constitution at all. It is equally evident that the limitation on the right to take property except for a public use and on payment of compensation does not apply to such taking by the Constitution itself. The former operators were allowed to continue work under the new Constitution. Taxes were laid on their product, but their possession was not threatened until the President acting under the general power in regard to finance granted by Congress, issued the decree of February 19, 1918. This decree fixed a royalty of five per cent. on output, a tax of five pesos (\$2.50) a hectare (2½ acres) on all oil lands, and a steeply-graduated tax on the rent paid under oil leases running up to fifty per cent. of the royalty. The intention to maintain the ownership of the nation, resulting from Article 27, was evidenced by a section requiring owners or lessees who desired to operate the land held by them to file a statement within three months, and by providing that at the expiration of that period all lands not so registered would be open to claim. Only leases executed prior to May 1, 1917, were recognized. This decree gave a privilege to the holders of oil lands or oil leases, an exclusive prior right for three months to file claims on the oil lands previously held, plainly foreshadowing the grant of a concession. It apparently recognizes their moral right to consideration, and also the economic advantage to the state and to the laborers in the oil fields of a steady continuation of production. This decree caused great commotion among the oil operators, who affirmed that it showed an intention to take away their property. If, however, Article 27 is to be given the effect which we believe it has, it had already appropriated the oil rights, so there was nothing left for the decree to confiscate. The United States, in a note dated April 2, 1918, protested against the decree as an interference with the rights of operators who were American citizens. It also objected to the tax imposed 'as indicating a trend' towards confiscation, and criticised other objectionable features in the system of collecting the royalty. England, France, and Holland have also entered protests on behalf of their nationals. The Mexican Government could not be shaken from its legal position; but it showed its unwillingness to take action by extending the period for registration to July 31, this being done through the decree of May 18, issued on the day before the expiration of the three months' period of the decree of February 19. On July 31, again, after a conference with representatives of foreign interests, the period was extended through August 15. On August 8 a new decree was issued, requiring the owner or lessee who had registered his property to file a claim for a concession within three months (the lessee within two months) after August 15, or his prior right would lapse. A foreign corporation could transfer its right to a Mexican corporation, and a foreign individual must relinquish the protection of his Government in respect of the concession. Tracts of land of over four hectares (ten acres), which was declared to be the size of a petroleum claim, could, if they had been registered before August 15, be patented only if wells were already in operation or were being drilled. The legal and economic position resulting from these decrees was unsatisfactory to the foreign operators, who refused to register their lands. The Government again did not join issue. A decree of

August 12, only four days before the expiration of the preferential right of the owners and lessees, provided that no surveyed oil property in which capital had been invested should be open to claim, but that the owner or lessee might operate the property until the 'special contracts' were prepared under which he was to be allowed to operate in the future. He must, however, pay the land tax and the five per cent. royalty on output. The Mexican Government, without abandoning its position that the nation is the owner of the oil, which it emphatically defends in a statement dated August 25, has impliedly admitted that the operators should in justice be given concessions for the operation of the petroleum underlying land owned or leased by them, and which they had begun to develop. The rights arising from the concession, however, would be different from those of an owner. The concessionaire cannot speculate on his oil for higher prices by holding it unused; he must submit to regulations, and, until the bases of the 'special contracts' are made public, he will not know the limitations on his privilege or the rapidity with which he must develop the property conceded. The Carranza Government, on November 23, introduced a bill into Congress dealing with the oil situation. The bill is based on Article 27 of the Constitution. Owners are given consideration in the provisions that lands in which capital was invested before May 1, 1917, for the exploitation of petroleum, shall not be subject to denunciation, and granting to the owner or lessee three months in which to justify his rights. These properties, however, must pay the land taxes and taxes on production. Leases are continued during the term fixed in each lease, subject to the 50 per cent. tax on the royalty paid under the lease; then the lessee may secure the oil rights on application within three months. The owner of lands, or lessees on leases made before May 1, 1917, who have not put capital into their land, are to have a preference for one year if they justify their right within three months. The problem of the taxation of the oil fields is apart from the far more serious question of their ownership. Originally there was no taxation upon oil; indeed, following the policy of the Diaz Government in encouraging development of the natural wealth of the country, petroleum was included with certain other mineral products in an exemption from all Federal, local, and municipal taxes by the law of June 6, 1887. Under the revolution, however, a light tax was laid upon petroleum, which subsequently developed into a tax of ten per cent. ad valorem, the value to be fixed every two months by the Mexican finance authorities, not on the basis of the price at Tampico, but on the basis of the price in the United States, whither most of the product was shipped. The tax is in effect an export tax, and is defended as an economic measure by the Mexican Government on the ground that Mexico was being deprived of the advantage of its petroleum deposits, since the developing companies were interested in the large foreign market and paid little attention to the smaller Mexican needs. Consequently, this tax was used as an economic, as well as a fiscal, measure to make it worth while to the oil companies to develop the Mexican market. The tax is fixed every two months and is in addition to the royalty and the land tax provided in the decrees cited. It is also in addition to a land tax on mining claims."—J. P. Chamberlain, *Mexican oil situation* (*Nation*, Jan. 11, 1910).

1919.—Improved conditions.—Finances.—Army.—International relations.—“The Republic had sensibly progressed in spite of the vain designs of the reactionaries and bandits. The interior admini-

istration is firm and has not been weakened by the elections of local officials. It is true that in some States elections have provoked effervescence, but the local troubles have developed in a legal form. Highly significant is the persistency with which our institutions have been transformed by means of the initiatives of law presented to the Congress, the decrees that the Executive has issued in use of its extraordinary powers and the regulations that have been approved upon an ascending scale of order and justice. The intervened properties have been returned to their owners, with the exception of those belonging to the responsible accomplices of the uprising in 1913, who have responsibilities clearly determined by our constitution. Nationals and foreigners have confidence in the interior conditions of the Republic and this is proved by the increasing of immigration and the return of Mexicans. The solicitation of concessions to invest capital in the Republic is a fact upon which the foreign press have made comment as well as the investors interested in bringing to Mexico their elements of labour. Comparisons of the importations and exportations of the period previous to the revolution and the last year, 1918, in which the commerce of the world was very much restricted, shows that in spite of all circumstances our foreign commerce considerably exceeded that of the best years registered in our statistics. The exportation was almost double that of 1910. The public finances offer a decisive betterment. In 1917 the deficit was \$35,000,000, more or less; in 1918 it was \$18,000,000, and in the present year the expenses will be totally covered. The time is coming when the Government will begin to pay its debts. The army has a disproportionate organization, as it was observed that an excess of officials over the troops always existed. At present the army is thoroughly organized, it is subject to ordinances, and it can be asserted that the discipline is habitual in almost all military components. The majority of the rebel leaders have died, and those that still menace the absolute pacification are dispersed. As proofs of the national development are the statistics of the departments of Communications, Industry and Commerce, and of Agriculture and Development, in comparison with the administrative volume of the preceding years. . . . The agricultural school is in operation. We have continued the purchasing of agricultural machinery in great quantities to extend its use among the farmers. From the immigration, the prosperity of agriculture and industry, the equalization of the expenses and the income, the solidification of the administration, the accomplishment of all the revolutionary promises, especially that regarding lands, the watching of the finances of the government, the impulse given to our culture, and all the detailed news you have heard, you cannot doubt the importance of the labour of the administration which has given all the possible profits in accordance with its capacity in this period of world wide crisis. The respectability of Mexico before all the nations of the world has been maintained with the energy and prudence demanded by internationalities. The cause of trouble can be divided into four different sections: Those regarding special conditions on the border of the United States; those originated by damages to foreign properties; those which refer to personal injuries of citizens of foreign countries residing in Mexico; and those arising from the application of the revolutionary laws. Regarding the first one, history mentions the frequent passage of American troops into the national territory and the problem principally is of policing for the safety of both countries. The invasions of American troops have

been repeated since the middle of last century, and various arrangements have been projected with the object of prosecuting the bandits who cross from one country into the other. The government believes that this cause of trouble will disappear as soon as an agreement is reached to protect the border. Regarding the damages to foreign properties, it may be stated that in spite of the fact that a mixed commission of reclamations has been operating, only a small number of foreigners have demanded indemnizations for the damages caused by the revolution since 1913. As a proof of the goodwill the government has to repair even the damages caused by the bandits, there has been introduced into the law of the Commission of Indemnizations a new rule of covering the damages caused by bandits, when these damages are not caused by the imprudence of the injured person, and the authorities can be blamed with omissions, and also when the injured persons are not in sympathy with the bandits. The law recognizes the damages to foreigners and pledges to the immediate payment of the indemnization with the same limits that are mentioned for the damages to properties. Regarding this point, it is to be stated that it is impossible for a government, especially after a revolution, to prevent in all the regions of the nation the attacks against nationals or foreigners. The efficacy with which the government has punished those responsible for offences against foreigners is very significant, when it is considered that Mexico and the United States have unfortunately been in the same circumstances regarding the attacks that the inhabitants of one country have committed against the citizens of the other. . . . The fourth cause of trouble is of a severe nature. It deals with objections that are practically a limitation to our national sovereignty. The revolution has put in force reforms that represent the welfare and the progress and tranquillity of the Mexican people, renewing its institutions in important branches, as that regarding lands and the exploitation of the natural wealth. The government desires to respect and consolidate the existent rights, but it absolutely cannot accept the limitation of the liberty of the Mexicans to be governed in accordance with their own needs. A conciliatory spirit and a desire for harmony in accordance with the law will be exerted to conquer the difficulties which may arise, but always maintaining firm our sovereignty. Mexico will comply with its obligations with nationals and foreigners. The doubts arising in this matter have been due only to misinterpretations of the conduct of the government, which is not capable of denying its legitimate obligations. The delay in the payment is due to motives that cannot be overcome at present."—*Message of President Carranza to the national congress, Sept., 1, 1919.* (L. J. De Bekker, *Plot against Mexico*, pp. 267-272).

1919 (June-December).—Mexican bandits cross American border and fire into El Paso.—Bandits pursued into Mexico by American forces.—Kidnapping of W. O. Jenkins.—“Unfortunately the friction between the United States and Mexico continued throughout the year [1919]. In the middle of June some of ‘General’ Villa’s bandits crossed the American border and fired into the town El Paso, and a number of Americans were said to have been killed. A small American force under the command of Major-General de Resey Cabell was then thrown across the border into the town of Juarez; and cavalry was sent in pursuit of the bandits. One body of the Mexicans was rounded up and an engagement ensued in which the Mexicans were reported to have lost twenty killed and seventy wounded. After thus punishing and



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dispersing the Villista forces, the American troops were withdrawn across the border. . . . Another incident of a somewhat more serious character arose at the end of October. The American Consular Agent at Puebla, a certain Mr. W. O. Jenkins, was kidnapped by bandits and held for a ransom of 150,000 dollars. The ransom was paid by Mr. Jenkins's friends and he was released by the bandits, but he was then suddenly arrested by the agents of the Mexican Government itself, who declared that Mr. Jenkins had been conspiring with the bandits. The American Government then peremptorily demanded that Mr. Jenkins should be released. The Mexican Government procrastinated and made all manner of excuses, but at the beginning of December Carranza yielded to direct threats from Washington and Mr. Jenkins was released."—*Annual Register*, 1919, pp. 288-289.

1920.—Railroad strikes. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1918-1922: Latin America.

1920.—Organization of Labor party. See LABOR PARTIES: 1920.

1920.—Railroad conditions. See RAILROADS: 1906-1920.

1920.—Relations with the United States.—Controversy over oil property. See U.S.A.: 1920 (November): Foreign policy.

1920 (April-May).—State of Sonora rebels against Carranza.—Revolutionary plan.—Rapid spread of revolution.—Mexico City abandoned by Carranza and occupied by revolutionary forces.—Extraordinary session of Congress.—Adolfo de la Huerta elected provisional president.—In April, 1920, the State of Sonora rebelled against President Venustiano Carranza, who had been elected for the term, 1916-1920, because the president attempted to invade the State with troops in order to interfere with the presidential election. On April 23, a revolutionary plan was adopted at Agua Prieta, Sonora, repudiating President Carranza, on the ground that he had interfered with freedom of election. The text of the plan adopted by the revolution is as follows:

"Article 1. Venustiano Carranza ceases hereby in his capacity as chief executive of the Republic.

"Art. 2. All public officials whose authority has its origin in the last election in the States of Guanajuato, San Luis Potosi, Queretaro, Nueva Leon, and Tamaulipas, are hereby repudiated.

"Art. 3. The members of the municipal council of the City of Mexico who were declared elected in consequence of the recent election are also hereby repudiated.

"Art. 4. José Santos Godínez is hereby recognized as Constitutional Governor of the State of Nayarit.

"Art. 5. Recognition is also granted hereby to all legitimate Federal and State authorities. The Liberal Constitutional Army will support said authorities, as long as they do not oppose or antagonize the present movement.

"Art 6. The political Constitution of February 5, 1917, is hereby expressly recognized.

"Art. 7. The Liberal Constitutionalist Army shall be formed by all generals and officers who may support this program. The present Constitutional governor of Sonora, C. Adolfo de la Huerta, shall act temporarily as supreme head of the army, with all necessary power for the political, military, and administrative organization of this movement.

"Art. 8. The Constitutional governors of the States supporting and assisting this movement shall each appoint within thirty days after the date of the present program a representative, duly authorized, and said delegates, at a meeting to be held sixty days after the date of the present programs,

at such place as designated by the supreme chief ad interim, shall appoint, by a majority of votes, the permanent supreme chief of the Constitutional Army.

"Art. 9. If for any circumstances, originated by the campaign, the meeting provided for in Article 8 is not attended by the required majority, the present Constitutional governor, C. Adolfo de la Huerta, shall act thereafter as the permanent head of the Liberal Constitutional Army.

"Art. 10. As soon as the present program is adopted by the majority of the country, and the City of Mexico is occupied by the Liberal Constitutionalist Army, a provisional president of the Republic shall be designated in the manner provided below.

"Art. 11. Should the present movement be accomplished before the end of the present congressional term, the Supreme Chief of the Liberal Constitutionalist Army shall call an extraordinary session of Congress, at the best available place, and the members of the Congress shall elect the provisional president in conformity with the Constitution.

"Art. 12. Should the case referred to in Article 11 occur after the end of the present congressional term, the supreme chief of the Liberal Constitutionalist Army shall assume the office of provisional president of the Republic.

"Art. 13. The provisional president shall call the election of legislative and executive powers of the Republic immediately after he assumes office.

"Art. 14. The supreme chief of the Liberal Constitutionalist Army shall appoint provisional governors for the States of Guanajuato, San Luis Potosi, Queretaro, Nuevo Leon, and Tamaulipas, and of any other State whose governor may oppose or repudiate this movement.

"Art. 15. After the triumph of this program is consolidated, the provisional president shall give the provisional governors the authority to call immediately a local election in accordance with the respective statutes.

"Art. 16. The Liberal Constitutionalist Army shall be governed by the military laws and regulations now in force in the Republic.

"Art. 17. The supreme chief of the Liberal Constitutionalist Army and all military and civil authorities supporting this program shall grant both Mexicans and foreigners full guaranties, and shall protect especially commerce and business in general."

—*Latin-American Year Book*, pp. 439-440.—"President Carranza sought to compromise with the revolutionary leaders and sent eighteen members of the Mexican National Congress to Sonora to attempt a settlement of the difficulties between the States and the Federal Government. They arrived at Hermosillo on April 25. . . . Their efforts were fruitless. . . . The first clash between Carranza troops and the revolutionists occurred on April 25 in the mountains dividing the States of Chihuahua and Sonora near Pulpito Pass."—*New York Times Current History*, June, 1920, pp. 408-409.—"The revolution swept the whole country so rapidly that President Carranza was compelled to abandon the city of Mexico on May 7, and on the next day revolutionary forces occupied the city. An extraordinary session of Congress was called in accordance with the revolutionary plan, and Governor Adolfo de la Huerta, of Sonora, was elected provisional president. The presidential election was called for September, and General Alvaro Obregón resumed his election campaign with every chance in his favor of being elected."—*Latin-American Year Book*, 1920, p. 440.

1920 (May).—Flight and death of Carranza.—"The body of President Carranza was borne into

Necaxa, in the northern part of the State of Puebla, on Sunday, May 23. It had been brought from Tlaxcalantongo, where he was the victim of a most brutal and cowardly assassination on the morning of May 21. After escaping on May 14 through the cordon of revolutionary troops which almost surrounded him in the battle of Rinconda . . . Carranza with about 150 soldiers had turned north toward the Zacapoaxtia mountains. . . . He was reported on May 8 at Cuautempano. There he called a conference to decide on the route to be taken. General Murguía, who commanded the Carranza forces, General Francisco Muriel, Ygnacio Bonillas and others took part. They were advised by people living in the mountains that it was dangerous to continue, as Colonel Lindoro Hernandez and General Rodolfo Herrera, whose soldiers were known to be in the vicinity, had joined the revolution. Nevertheless General Mariel insisted that they proceed. Soon afterward General Herrera, with a small body of troops at Patla, met the Carranza party. . . . No distrust was felt, as Herrera had surrendered to Carranza last March and had been assigned to the forces of General Mariel. . . . Under Herrera's guidance Carranza and his escort continued north, arriving on May 20 at Tlaxcalantongo. . . . Here Herrera assured Carranza he was absolutely safe from attack and personally escorted him to a hut. . . . Just before 4 o'clock the next morning all were awakened by the sound of brisk firing. Herrera's men were attacking the hut where Carranza was sleeping. . . . The firing was soon over and Carranza was dead. . . . The four men who had been sleeping in the same room were made prisoners, as were about sixty others of the Carranza party. These were hastily driven north by the forces of Herrera, who feared the return of General Mariel. They were freed later, Herrera forcing the leaders to sign papers saying that Carranza had committed suicide. . . . Details of the tragedy were telegraphed from Necaxa that evening in a dispatch signed by Ygnacio Bonillas. . . . General Obregon thereupon ordered the arrest of Herrera and his forces, commanding that they be brought to Mexico City for trial by court-martial. . . . General Herrera, who voluntarily went to Mexico City, repeated the suicide story before the military court which was conducting an official inquiry. . . . During the session, which lasted ten hours, so many contradictions in his testimony were revealed that the Judge ordered his immediate arrest."—*New York Times Current History*, July, 1920, pp. 585-587.

1920 (July).—Revolt.—Capture of General Pablo Gonzalez.—On July 14 General Pablo Gonzalez, one of the presidential candidates, started a revolt. General Villareal, one of his commanders, attacked Monterey, but was easily repulsed by the Obregon troops. General Gonzalez and two of his officers were captured.

1920-1921.—Obregón formally declared president.—His administration.—The Mexican congress, acting as the Electoral College, formally declared Alvaro Obregón president for the term beginning December 1. Obregón received 1,131,751 votes. Robles Dominguez, the opposing candidate, had 47,000 votes, and 2,357 were scattered. On December 1, Obregón took the oath of office before the Deputies in Mexico City. "During the brief period that has passed since his inauguration, [written in 1921] the new President has swept away some of the worst abuses, drafted a series of excellent schemes which are gradually being inscribed on the Statute Book, and accomplished more in the direction of reforms than was done by the best of his predecessors during their whole

term of office. The masterly way in which he checkmated the railway strikers won for him a high tribute of universal praise. He has closed gambling houses and other haunts of vice, has begun to purge the prisons which were seminaries of crime and has adopted a series of measures for the reformation of criminals. Further, he has issued a number of hygienic regulations in various parts of the Republic, and has put disinfecting apparatus in forty towns and the principal ports. He has begun the irrigation of vast tracts of land in Guanajuato, framed a law for disposing of the agrarian movement, given orders for the preservation and expansion of ancient crafts and industries, laid extensive plans for improving communications by land and water, bettered the railway services and laid a bill for the creation of a merchant marine before Congress. The problem of colonization by foreign immigrants has also received careful attention, and comprehensive arrangements have already been made for the sifting, classification and reception of many thousands of husbandmen from Canada, Italy, Germany, Austria and other countries, to whom considerable inducements are being offered, during the first years of their residence in the Republic. The army is being rapidly demobilized, and has already been reduced to fifty thousand men, the strength adequate for a minor State whose sheet-anchor of safety is henceforward to be the moral support of the civilized world. The numerous misunderstandings with foreign governments, corporations and citizens have likewise been closely studied in a spirit of equity and with a sincere desire to deal fairly by all. The national debt has been recognized and means considered for resuming payment of the interest. A plan for meeting the demands of foreign residents who sustained losses during the Revolution has also been formulated and will be duly acted upon. It is right to say that this scheme was originally thought out by Carranza, who first laid down the principle involved. General Obregon has merely resolved to redeem the promises of his predecessor."—E. J. Dillon, *Mexico on the verge*, pp. 288-289.—"Business has revived to such an extent that in the month of May 1921 only four countries bought more goods in the United States than Mexico, who imported more than all the countries of South America by nearly two million dollars. . . . Despite the defective condition of much of the railways' rolling stock, the trains run almost on time, and accidents are fewer in relation to the number of passengers than in France."—*Ibid.*, p. 167.

1922.—Agreement on debt.—American oil interest safeguarded.—Elections.—Recognition of Obregón government.—"Agreement was reached on the Mexican debt question on June 16 [1922] at the conclusion of conferences held in New York between international bankers and Adolfo de la Huerta, Mexican Finance Minister. The plan of adjustment relates to all external Mexican Government debt direct or guaranteed, the National Railways' debts largely held outside of Mexico. Payments on current interest on Mexican bonds are to be begun after Jan. 2, 1923. For such part as is not met in cash, scrip will be issued. A special fund for the payment of current interest will be increased each year until Jan. 1, 1928, when full service will be resumed. The oil export taxes and a surcharge on railway receipts will be paid into this fund. The National Railways are to be operated by private management as before the Revolution, the Government retaining its 56 per cent. of the stock. . . . American oil interests are safeguarded against any confiscatory action under Article 27 of the Mexican Constitution by recent decisions of the Supreme

Court, according to assurances received by the embassy in Washington from the Mexican Foreign Office on July 7. The statement declares that Article 27, under which the Carranza régime took action against the oil interests, is not retroactive or confiscatory. . . . Elections for the new Congress which meets in September were held on July 2 and resulted in a great increase in both houses of the Coalition parties which support President Obregon. The Liberals and the Nacionalistas—the latter the Catholic party—were overwhelmed. The Constitutionalists, the leading party when Obregon was elected, has been split since then and the groups which have gained the ascendancy include the Co-operationists, the Labor men, the Social Democrats and various factions of Socialists. In addition to twenty-seven previous recognitions [numbering among them Argentina, Brazil, Japan, Germany, Austria, Italy, Spain, Norway and Holland] President Obregon's Administration has received recognition from Poland, Finland, Czecho-Slovakia, Georgia and the Free State of Fiume and has recognized them in turn."—*New York Times Current History, Aug., 1922, p. 911.*

1922.—Labor laws.—Eight hour day.—Legislation for women.—Labor organization. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1921-1922; Canada; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1920-1922; MEXICO, CONSTITUTION OF.

1922-1923.—End of thirtieth congress.—Fascista movement.—Amnesty granted to rebels.—"Violence marked the end of the Thirtieth Mexican Congress, which adjourned on Dec. 30. Pistols were drawn and challenges to duels freely made, owing to a revival of the long-standing feud between the Co-operistas, the party of President Obregon, and the Liberal Constitutionalists. Petroleum legislation went over to the next Congress, which the President is expected to convene in extra session in April. A bill proposing amnesty for all rebel prisoners was passed by the chamber on Dec. 26. The Fascisti movement, which began in Jalapa, Vera Cruz, last Autumn, has made rapid strides, at present claiming a membership of 100,000. . . . [Gustavo Lainz de Sicilia] opened headquarters in Mexico City in December and said in an interview that the Mexican Fascisti were not organized on a military basis, like the Italians, but would endeavor to control the Government through economic pressure. Clashes between the Fascisti and radicals were reported from Jalapa, necessitating the intervention of Federal troops. The Secretary of War, Señor Serrano, made a special trip from Mexico City to confer on the subject with Governor Tejeda of Vera Cruz. . . . Mexico is one of the few countries spending less on military affairs than on instruction. The Department of Education has been allotted 45,000,000 pesos for this year, [1923] and the War Department 33,000,000. At the request of President Obregon amnesty was granted to all rebel prisoners in order to turn them back into useful occupations and 256 were released from jail on Jan. 5. The War Department has dissolved the numerous rural auxiliary military bodies which have acted as home defense troops, supplementing the Federal forces."—*New York Times Current History, Feb., 1923, pp. 877-878.*

1923 (February).—Concession for railway.—Recognition of Obregon government.—Obregon resolution regarding recognition.—"A concession for a railway from Vera Cruz into the State of Campeche, passing through the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, opening up one of the richest farming parts of Mexico, and bringing the Southern States within four days of Mexico City, was granted Feb. 10. The National Railways of Mexico have signed a contract to operate drilling works in the

Federal oil fields for the purpose of obtaining mineral oil to run their trains, thus making them independent of foreign companies. . . . Colombia has recognized Mexico and named Dr. Luis Felipe Angulo as Minister after a lapse of diplomatic relations lasting 25 years, according to a dispatch from Mexico City on Feb. 21. The Oregon State Senate on Feb. 17 unanimously adopted a resolution calling on President Harding to recognize the Obregon Government."—*New York Times Current History, Apr., 1923, p. 170.*

See also FLAGS: Mexico; LATIN AMERICA.

ALSO IN: A. H. Keane, *Stanford's compendium of geography and travel: Central and South America*.—P. F. Martin, *Mexico of the twentieth century*.—T. P. Terry, *Mexico: Handbook for travellers*.—J. K. Goodrich, *Coming Mexico*.—F. Starr, *In Indian Mexico*.—N. O. Winter, *Mexico and her people of to-day*.—M. R. Wright, *Mexico*.—E. I. Bell, *Political shame of Mexico*.—C. de Fornaro, *Diaz, Czar of Mexico*.—Idem, *Carranza and Mexico*.—R. J. MacHugh, *Modern Mexico*.—A. H. Noll, *Short history of Mexico*.—Idem, *From empire to republic*.—R. Prida, *From despotism to anarchy*.—J. Reed, *Insurgent Mexico*.—G. L. Rives, *United States and Mexico, 1821-1848*.—J. Sierra, ed., *Mexico: Its social evolution*.—D. E. Smith, *Viceroy of New Spain*.—L. Spence, *Civilization of ancient Mexico*.—R. de Zayas Enriquez, *Case of Mexico and the policy of President Wilson*.—C. A. Conant, *Banking system of Mexico*.—W. F. Dodd, *Modern constitutions, v. 2*.—J. Wheless, *Compendium of the laws of Mexico*.—*Mexican Year Book*.—H. I. Priestley, *Mexican nation*.—C. L. Jones, *Mexico and its reconstruction*.—G. H. Blakeslee, ed., *Clark University Addresses, Mexico and the Caribbean (1920)*.

MEXICO, Constitution of.—The new constitution was promulgated February 5, 1917, and became operative May 1, 1917. "The legislative power of the United States of Mexico is vested by the new constitution, as it was by the old [one of 1857] in a general Congress which shall consist of a House of Representatives and a Senate. The House of Representatives consists of representatives of the nation, all of whom shall be elected every two years by the citizens of Mexico, one representative to be chosen for each 60,000, or any fraction thereof exceeding 20,000, on the basis of a general federal census of the district and of each state and territory. Every state or territory shall have at least one representative regardless of the amount of population. The representatives are to be elected by a direct vote of the people; they must be citizens by birth and under no legal disability; they must be over 25 years of age on the day of election; they must be natives of the states or territories respectively electing them, or domiciled and actual residents therein for six months immediately prior to the election. They must not be in the active service of the federal army, nor in command of any police force or rural constabulary in the district where the election takes place, nor must they have been during the 90 days immediately prior to the election. They shall not hold office as secretary or assistant secretary of any executive department, nor justice of the Supreme Court, unless they shall have resigned therefrom 90 days prior to the election, and no state Governor, secretary of state of any state, or state judge shall be eligible in the district within their several jurisdictions, unless they have resigned at least 90 days prior to the election; no minister of any religious creed is eligible. The Senate shall consist of two Senators from each state and two from the federal district, chosen in direct election (Article 56). The Senators shall serve for four

years, one from each state retiring every two years, and the qualifications are the same as those of a Representative, except that the Senator must have attained the age of 35 years on the day of election. By Article 61 both Senators and Representatives are guaranteed immunity for all opinions expressed by them in the discharge of their duties. Both Representatives and Senators are prohibited from accepting any other office, federal or state, or accepting a commission of any kind, federal or state, for which any emolument is received, without previous permission of the House of which he is a member, and in the event that any Senator or Representative accepts any such commission or office, he shall forthwith lose his representative character for such time as he shall hold such appointive office, violation of this provision being punished by forfeiture of the office as Representative or Senator, as the case may be. Reasonable provisions are made for enforcing attendance of members. Regular sessions of the Congress shall be held each year, beginning on the 1st day of September and ending by operation of law not later than the 31st day of December. Congress may be called in extraordinary session, or either House may be called in extraordinary session, when in the judgment of the President that becomes necessary. The Houses must meet at the same place and shall not move to another place to hold their sessions without having first agreed upon the time, the manner and place of so doing. By the terms of Chapter II of Title III, at the same time and in the same manner that Representatives and Senators are elected, alternates for each must be elected, possessing the same qualifications the principals have, to the end that should the principal fail for any reason to discharge his functions there shall exist no vacancy in the office, but that the rights, privileges, duties and emoluments conferred by the constitution or the laws upon the principal shall forthwith devolve on the alternate who shall thereafter discharge all the duties resting on such Representative or Senator, as the case may be. By section II of Article 71, Title III, the right to originate legislation pertains first to the President of the republic, second to the Representatives and Senators of the Congress, and third to the state legislatures, with the proviso that all bills submitted by the President of the republic, by state legislatures, or by delegations of the states, shall be at once referred to committee, whereas those introduced by Representatives or Senators shall be subject to the rules of procedure. Provisions are made for reference to committees and consideration of proposed laws by the House and Senate, respectively, which are not dissimilar to those ordinarily found in American state constitutions. Provisions for vetoing by the executive and procedure in cases of veto are substantially those with which American lawyers are familiar. By Section III of Title III the powers of Congress are prescribed and defined. . . . By Section IX of Article 73 it is provided that the Congress shall have power 'to enact tariff laws on foreign commerce and to prevent restrictions from being imposed on interstate commerce.' This is the interstate commerce clause of the Mexican Constitution. Congress is especially authorized to legislate for the entire republic in all matters relating to mining, commerce and credit institutions, and to establish the sole bank of issue as provided for in Article 28 of the constitution; to create and abolish federal offices and to fix, increase or diminish the compensations assigned thereto; to declare war; to regulate the manner in which letters of marque may be issued; to enact laws according to which prizes on land and sea shall be adjudged

valid or invalid; and to frame the admiralty law in times of peace and war. It is authorized to raise and maintain an army and navy; provide for a national guard, reserving, however, to the citizens who compose it the right to appoint their respective commanders and officers, and to the states the power of instructing it in conformity with discipline prescribed by the regulations of the federal government. It is authorized to enact laws on means of communication, post roads and post offices; to establish mints, regulate the value and kinds of the national currency, fix the value of foreign moneys and adopt a general system of weights and measures; to make rules for the occupation and sale of public lands; to enact laws for the organization of the diplomatic and consular services; to define crimes and prescribe punishments therefor. The Congress is authorized to grant amnesty for offenses subject to the jurisdiction of the federal courts, but by Section XIV of Article 89 the pardoning power is expressly granted to the executive. The Congress is also authorized to elect justices of the Supreme Court, and superior and inferior judges of the federal district and territories, and to accept the resignations of the several judges which it is authorized to elect. It is further authorized to establish professional schools, museums, libraries, observatories and other institutions of higher learning, but it is expressly provided that these powers shall not pertain exclusively to the federal government. In certain contingencies it is authorized to elect a President of the republic and to accept the resignation of the President; to audit the accounts which must be submitted to it by the executive, and to see that the money is expended for the purpose for which it is appropriated; to make all laws necessary to carry into effect the powers expressly granted to it, and all other powers vested by the constitution in the several branches of the government. By Article 74 the House of Representatives is given the following exclusive powers: First, to sit as an electoral college to exercise the powers conferred by law as to the election of the President. It is quite difficult to see just what the meaning of this clause is, as the power of electing a President in certain contingencies is given to Congress, which includes both House and Senate, and there is no provision in the constitution which expressly authorizes an election of the House alone. Second, to supervise the general auditor of the republic in the discharge of his duty. Third, to appoint the higher officers and employees of the auditing department. Fourth, to approve the annual budget after determining what taxes in its judgment must be made to meet the fixed expenditures. Fifth, to take cognizance of all charges brought against public officials, and, where the circumstances warrant, to impeach before the Senate. By Article 76 the Senate shall have the following exclusive powers: First, to approve the treaties and diplomatic conventions concluded by the executive with foreign powers. Second, to ratify nominations for public office made by the President, where confirmations are necessary. Third, to authorize the executive to allow the national troops to go beyond the limits of the republic, or to permit foreign troops to pass through the national territory and to consent to the presence of foreign fleets for more than one month in Mexican waters. Attention is called to the fact that neither the executive nor any other department of the government is authorized by this constitution to permit foreign troops to remain within any portion of the republic for any purpose whatsoever. . . . By Section IV of Article 70 the Senate is authorized to give its consent to the use by the President of the national guard beyond the

limits of the respective states or territories and to fix the amount of force to be used. Section V of Article 76 is one that finds no parallel in the American Constitution; it reads as follows:

"Art. 76. The Senate shall have the following exclusive powers:

"V. To declare when the constitutional powers of any state have disappeared, that the occasion has arisen to give to the said state a provisional Governor, who shall call for elections to be held according to the constitution and laws of the said state. The appointment of such a Governor shall be made by the Senate with the approval of two-thirds of its members present or during recess by the Permanent Committee by the same two-thirds majority from among three names proposed by the President. The official thus elected shall not be chosen constitutional Governor in the elections to be held under the call which he shall issue. This provision shall govern whenever the state constitutions do not provide for the contingency."

"Section VIII of the same article reads as follows:

"VIII. To adjust all political questions arising between the powers of a state whenever one of them shall appeal to the Senate or whenever by virtue of such differences a clash of arms has arisen to interrupt the constitutional order. In this event the Senate shall decide in accordance with the federal constitution and the constitution of the state involved."

"Section VI of Article 76 reads as follows:

"Art. 76. The Senate shall have the following exclusive powers: . . .

"VI. To sit as a Grand Jury to take cognizance of such official offenses of functionaries as are expressly prescribed by this constitution."

"It would seem that the use of the term 'Grand Jury' was inaccurate; all of the functions of the grand jury in matters of official misconduct are performed by the House of Representatives. The function of the Senate is that of a petit jury to try where the House as a grand jury has indicted. This brings us to the consideration of a governmental agency which finds no counterpart under our system of government and that is the Permanent Committee authorized by Articles 78 and 79 of the new constitution. Those articles read as follows:

"Art. 78. During the recesses of the Congress there shall be a Permanent Committee consisting of 20 members, 15 of whom shall be Representatives and 14 Senators, appointed by the respective Houses on the eve of the day of adjournment.

"Art. 79. In addition to the powers expressly vested in it by this constitution, the Permanent Committee shall have the following powers:

"I. To give its consent to the use of the national guard as provided in Article 76, Clause IV.

"II. To administer the oath of office, should the occasion arise, to the President, to the members of the Supreme Court, to the superior judges of the federal district and territories, on such occasions as the latter officials may happen to be in the City of Mexico.

"III. To report on all pending matters, so that they may be considered in the ensuing session.

"IV. To call extraordinary sessions in the case of official offenses or offenses of the common order committed by secretaries of executive departments or justices of the Supreme Court, and official offenses committed by state Governors, provided the case shall have been already instituted by the Committee of the Grand Jury, in which event no other business of the Congress shall be con-

sidered, nor shall the session be prolonged beyond the time necessary for a decision. . . . The exercise of the supreme executive power of the nation is vested in a single individual who shall be called "President of the United States of Mexico." (Article 80.) 'The election of the President shall be direct in accordance with the provisions of the electoral law.' The qualifications are, he shall be a Mexican citizen by birth, in the enjoyment of his legal rights, and he must be the son of Mexican parents by birth. He must be over 35 years of age at the time of his election; he must have resided in the country the entire year preceding the election; he must not belong to any ecclesiastical order nor be a minister of any religious creed. If he has ever belonged to the army he must have retired from active service 90 days immediately preceding the election. If he has been secretary or assistant secretary of any executive department he must have resigned from office 90 days prior to the election, and 'he shall not have taken part, directly or indirectly, in any uprising, riot or military coup.' . . . The office of Vice-President does not exist in Mexico, but in the event of the permanent disability of the President, the Congress, two-thirds of its whole membership being present, shall elect, by secret ballot and majority vote, some one to fill the office until a President can be elected, should the vacancy or disability occur during the first two years of the presidential term. If it occurs during the last two years of the presidential term the President so elected shall hold to the end of the term. Should Congress not be in session when the death or disability of the President occurs, the Permanent Committee shall elect an *ad interim* President to hold until a President can be elected by Congress which shall forthwith be called in extraordinary session. The citizen designated as President *ad interim* cannot be elected to fill the vacancy. If the disability of the President be only temporary, the Permanent Committee designates a citizen to discharge the duty during the interim. The President possesses the veto power, as does the American President. He is expressly given the power to initiate legislation, . . . and is charged with the specific duties as to many details of government, such as enforcing the laws of the republic as to public health, expenditures of public money and other duties ordinarily vested under our government in chief clerks and bureau heads. On the other hand, in addition to the executive powers generally vested in the President, powers of such transcendent importance are given to him as the power to revoke franchises, forfeit land grants, expel any foreigner from the republic that he may see fit to expel, and . . . 'in cases of grave disturbance to the public peace or any other emergency which may place society in grave danger or conflict, he shall have the power to suspend throughout the republic, or any portion thereof, such provisions of the Bill of Rights and other constitutional guaranties as shall be a hindrance to meeting the situation promptly and readily.' . . . The judicial power of the federation is vested in a Supreme Court and in circuit and district courts whose number and powers shall be fixed by law. The Supreme Court of Justice consists of 11 members. . . . Two-thirds of the members are necessary to a quorum, and all decisions shall be rendered by a majority vote. The first court created shall serve for two years; those elected at the conclusion of the first term shall serve for four years, and from and after the year 1923 the justices of the Supreme Court and the circuit and district judges can only be re-

moved for malfeasance and after impeachment proceedings. A justice of the Supreme Court must be a Mexican citizen by birth, possessed of all civil and political rights, over 35 years of age at the time of his election, and must be a graduate in law of some institution or corporation authorized by law to confer such degrees. The constitution expressly provides that they (the justices of the Supreme Court or judges) 'shall be of good repute and not have been convicted of any offense punishable with more than one year's imprisonment, but conviction of larceny, deceit, forgery, embezzlement, or any offense seriously impairing their good names in the public mind shall disqualify them for office whatever may have been the penalty imposed.' (Sub. IV, Art. 95.) The justices of the Supreme Court must have resided in the country for the last five years, except in the case of absence due to public service abroad for a period not exceeding six months. . . . Circuit and district judges hold office for four years, unless removed by impeachment proceedings, or for incapacity to discharge their duties, but after 1923 will hold during good behavior. They are appointed by the Supreme Court, and that court is authorized to remove judges from one district to another, or to fix their seats as it may be most advantageous to the public business, and the same procedure applies to circuit judges. The Supreme Court is also authorized to appoint auxiliary circuit and district judges where the work in the court becomes so excessive as to make this necessary for the speedy administration of justice. The Supreme Court is also authorized to appoint whenever it shall deem it advisable, or on the request of the President or either House of Congress, or of any state Governor, special commissioners charged with the duty of inquiring into the behavior of any judge or federal justice, or into any fact or facts which amount to a violation of any individual rights, or to subversion of the popular will, or any other offense punishable by federal statute. It is also provided that the Supreme Court judges shall be made supervisors over the several circuit and district judges, and shall visit them periodically, observing the conduct of the judges, listening to any complaints presented against them, 'and they shall perform all such other acts as the law may require.' The Supreme Court is authorized to choose one of its own members as Chief Justice. . . . In an examination of those articles of the constitution establishing the executive, legislative and judicial departments of the government a number of provisions appear giving each of those departments control over the states in certain respects. When we consider Title V of the constitution we find many limitations on the rights and powers of the states, while the constitution itself declares it is the will of the Mexican people to constitute themselves into a democratic, federal, representative republic. These limitations upon the powers of the states make the Mexican Republic far less a federal republic than our own. . . . Speaking generally, however, it is fair to say that the new constitution of Mexico provides for that country a representative republican form of government in which the powers of the government are divided into three departments; that the general functions of these departments are similar to those of the corresponding departments of our own, and that while there are many pronounced differences the general forms, powers and functions of the governments are not wholly unlike. The three features of this constitution which distinguish it most from all others . . . are to

be found in Title I, The Rights of Man, Title VI, Labor and Social Welfare, and Title VII, containing general provisions, most of which look to the regulation of religious institutions generally. . . . The Bill of Rights is most elaborate. The proponents of this constitution claim for it that it is a justification of the revolution which has so torn and impoverished Mexico during the last six years and a half [written in 1917], and that it offers more and stronger guaranties of individual liberty than any charter of human rights ever written. . . . The Bill of Rights starts with a declaration that those rights shall never be abridged or suspended except in cases and under the conditions as therein provided, and it later provides for the suspension of every one of them at the will of the executive, not only in cases of invasion or grave disturbance of the public peace but in any other emergency which may place society in grave danger or conflict. By the terms of the Bill of Rights slavery is forbidden. Instruction is declared to be free, but must be non-sectarian. Religious corporations and ministers of any religious creed are forbidden to establish or direct schools of primary instruction. All private primary schools shall be under government supervision, and in public institutions instruction shall be free. It is to be noted, however, that no provision is made in the constitution itself for the establishment of a system of public education. The right to engage in any profession or industrial or commercial pursuit is guaranteed by Article 4, but by the terms of the same article may be expressly forbidden by executive decree. By Article 5 the system of peonage is declared illegal and contracts tending to abridge the liberty of man by any means whatever are forbidden, this being declared to apply especially to monastic orders. . . . Full and adequate provisions are made for guaranteeing the freedom of speech and freedom of the press, but these rights are guaranteed, for all practical purposes, to citizens of Mexico only. The rights of peaceable assembly and petition are guaranteed by Article 9, but, as in so many other provisions of the Bill of Rights, this article carries the seeds of its own death in it. It provides, among other things:

"No meeting or assembly shall be deemed unlawful, nor may it be dissolved, which shall have for its purpose the petitioning of any authority or the presentation of any protest against any act, provided no insults are proffered against the said authority, nor violence resorted to, nor threats used to intimidate or to compel the said authority to render a favorable decision.' . . . The right to keep and to bear arms is guaranteed, but with limitations. The right to enter and to leave the republic, and to travel through its territory, and to change his residence, is vouchsafed to the citizen, but the clause that guarantees it carries a limitation on that right in that the power is given to the executive to regulate the right. Titles of nobility are forever prohibited. Article 13 provides that no one shall be tried according to special laws or by special tribunals; that military jurisdiction is confined to persons within the army and to military offenses, and that no one shall have special privileges or emoluments. Retroactive laws are forbidden, and in Article 14 we find the broad, comprehensive provision:

"No person shall be deprived of life, liberty, property, possessions or rights without due process of law instituted before a duly created court, in which the essential elements of procedure are observed and in accordance with previously existing laws. In criminal cases no penalty shall be imposed by mere analogy or even by a *priori* evi-

dence, but the penalty shall be decreed by a law in every respect applicable to the crime in question.'

"Of course, we must bear in mind this does not apply to persons not citizens of Mexico, for as to them the executive is given by express grant the power to expel them from the republic and to confiscate their property. Adequate provisions are made against the surrender, through extradition treaties, of political offenders. Unlawful searches and seizures, and imprisonment for debt, are forbidden; and the old practice of holding a man accused of crime *incommunicado* is abolished. The citizen is guaranteed a speedy, impartial, public trial. He is allowed bail prior to his trial. He may not be forced to be a witness against himself. He must be publicly notified within 48 hours after his arrest of the offense with which he is charged. He must be confronted with the witnesses against him who must testify in his presence, if they are to be found in the place where the trial is held, so that he may cross-examine them in his defense. However, under a similar provision in the previous constitution, actually confronting the witnesses was held to be not necessary and depositions could be taken against the defendant in a criminal case. The defendant must be given adequate time to obtain the attendance of his witnesses if they are to be found at the place of the trial. He shall be furnished with all the information of record needed for his defence. He must be tried within four months for an offense the maximum penalty of which does not exceed two years' imprisonment, and within one year if the maximum penalty be greater. He shall be heard in his own defense, either personally or by counsel, or both, as he may desire, and if he is without means to employ counsel the court must appoint counsel to defend him. The accused shall have the right to name his counsel immediately on arrest and shall be entitled to have him present at every stage of the trial. For the first time in Mexico, trial by jury is made a matter of constitutional right. . . . Punishments by mutilation, infamy, branding, flogging, torture of any kind, excessive fines and penalties, confiscation and unusual punishments are prohibited. Capital punishment is likewise forbidden for all political offenses, and in case of offenses other than political it shall only be imposed for high treason committed during a foreign war, parricide, murder with malice aforethought, arson, abduction, highway robbery, piracy and grave military offenses. No one shall be twice put in jeopardy for the same offense. By Article 24 it is provided:

"Every man is free to embrace the religion of his choice and to practice such ceremony, devotions of observances of the respective creed, either in places of public worship or at home, provided they do not constitute an offense punishable by law. Every religious act of public worship shall be performed strictly within the places of public worship which shall be at all times under governmental supervision.' By Article 25 the inviolability of the mail is provided for, and Article 26 provides against quartering soldiers on citizens in times of peace. . . . The right of the nation at all times to impose such limitations on private property and upon the development of natural resources, as it may see fit in order to conserve them and equitably distribute the public wealth, is expressly declared. By Article 27 the distribution of large landed estates for the purpose of developing small land holdings, establishing centers of rural population, for the encouragement of agriculture, and the prevention of the destruction of the natural resources, and the protection of property from damage which would be

detrimental to society, is provided for. All the grants of land made up to the date of the adoption of the constitution under the decree of January 6, 1915, are confirmed, and all private property acquired for that purpose is declared to have been taken for public use. By the terms of the same article it is expressly provided that the ownership of all minerals or substances which in veins, masses, or beds constitute deposits whose nature is different from the components of the land, such as minerals from which metals and metalloids used for industrial purposes are extracted; beds of precious stones, rock, salt and salt lakes formed directly by marine waters; products derived from the decomposition of rocks, when their exploitation requires underground work; phosphates which may be used for fertilizers; solid mineral fuels; petroleum and all hydrocarbons—solid, liquid or gaseous—is in the nation. The waters, as well as the minerals and lands, are declared to be the property of the nation, with certain minor exceptions. The legal capacity to acquire the ownership of lands and waters of the nation shall be governed by the following provisions:

"I. Only Mexicans by birth or naturalization and Mexican companies have the right to acquire ownership in lands, waters and their appurtenances, or to obtain concessions to develop mines, waters, or mineral fuels in the Republic of Mexico. The nation may grant the same right to foreigners, provided they agree before the Department of Foreign Affairs to be considered Mexicans in respect to such property, and accordingly not to invoke the protection of their governments in respect to the same, under penalty, in case of breach, of forfeiture to the nation of property so acquired. Within a zone of 100 kilometers from the frontiers, and of 50 kilometers from the seacoast, no foreigner shall under any condition acquire direct ownership of lands and waters.

"II. The religious associations known as churches, irrespective of creed, shall in no case have legal capacity to acquire, hold or administer real property or loans made on such real property; all such real property or loans as may be at present held by the said religious associations, either on their own behalf, or through third parties, shall vest in the nation, and anyone shall have the right to denounce property so held. Presumptive proof shall be sufficient to declare the denunciation well-founded. Places of public worship are the property of the nation, as represented by the federal government, which shall determine which of them may continue to be devoted to their present purposes. Episcopal residences, rectories, seminaries, orphan asylums or collegiate establishments of religious associations, convents or any other buildings built or designed for the administration, propaganda, or teaching the tenets of any religious sect shall forthwith vest, as of full right, directly in the nation, to be used exclusively for the public services of the federation or of the states, within their respective jurisdictions. All places of public worship which shall later be erected shall be the property of the nation.

"III. Public and private charitable institutions for the sick and needy, for scientific research, or for the diffusion of knowledge, mutual aid societies, or organizations formed for any other purpose shall in no case acquire, hold and administer loans made on real property, unless the mortgage terms do not exceed 10 years. In no case shall institutions of this character be under the patronage, direction, administration, charge or supervision of religious corporations or institutions, nor of ministers of any religious sect or of their dependents, even though

either the former or the latter shall not be in service.

"IV. Commercial stock companies may not acquire, hold, or administer rural properties. Companies of this nature which may be organized to develop any manufacturing, mining, petroleum or other industry, excepting only agricultural industries, may acquire, hold or administer lands only in an area absolutely necessary for their establishments or adequate to serve the purposes indicated, which the executive of the Union or of the state in each case shall determine.

"V. The banks duly organized under the laws governing institutions of credit may make mortgage loans on rural and urban property in accordance with the provisions of the said laws, but they may not own or administer more real property than that absolutely necessary for their direct purpose; and they may furthermore hold temporarily for the brief term fixed by law such real property as may be judicially adjudicated to them in execution proceedings.' By the same article of the constitution it is provided that the state and federal laws shall determine, within their respective jurisdictions, those cases in which the occupation of private property is to be considered of public utility. Where they have so determined they may take the land upon paying therefor the amount at which it is valued for fiscal (taxation) purposes in the revenue office, whether this value be that manifested by the owner or merely impliedly accepted by reason of the payment of his taxes on such a basis, and to which basis there shall be added 10 per cent. If improvements have been made on the land after the assessment of its value, the amount to be paid for the improvements is left open for determination. This article of the constitution also contains one of the provisions under which the holdings of Americans and other foreigners, and corporations owned by them, are to be taken from them. It reads as follows:

"All proceedings, dispositions, decisions and all operations of demarcation, concession, composition, judgment, compromise, alienation, or auction which may have deprived properties held in common by co-owners, hamlets situated on private property, settlements, congregations, tribes and other settlement organizations still existing since the law of June 25, 1856, of the whole or a part of their lands, woods and waters, are declared null and void. All dispositions, resolutions and operations which may subsequently take place and produce the same effects, shall likewise be null and void.' By the terms of this article it is made the duty of the several administrative officers of the state and federal governments to immediately take over this property, and while it is declared that this shall be done by judicial process, it is expressly provided that the order under which it is done shall be issued within the period of one month, and that the administrative officers shall proceed to the occupation of the lands and waters, and that in no event shall their acts be set aside until the final decree. [This is no longer valid. (See MEXICO: 1922.)] The constitution, by the same article, provides that in each state and territory there shall be fixed the maximum area of land which one individual or legally organized corporation may own. The remainder is to be subdivided and forthwith sold, payments to be made in annual amounts sufficient to amortize the principal and interest within a period of not less than 20 years, during which time the purchaser cannot sell. The rate of interest shall not exceed 5 per cent, and it is provided that the owner shall be compelled to receive special bonds to guarantee the payment of the

property expropriated, and that the Congress shall issue a law authorizing the states to issue bonds to meet their agrarian obligations. By subdivision 'f' of the same article it is provided that the local laws will govern the extent of the family estate and determine what property will constitute the same on the basis of its inalienability. Attention is directed especially to the following general clause of confiscation:

"All contracts and concessions made by former governments from and after the year 1870, which shall have resulted in the monopoly of land, waters and natural resources of the nation by a single individual or corporation, are declared subject to revision, and the executive is authorized to declare those null and void which seriously prejudice the public interests.' . . . Monopolies and combinations in restraint of trade are provided for and prohibited by the terms of Article 28 of the Bill of Rights; that is to say, those relating to the coinage of money, to the postal, telegraphic and radio-telegraphic service, the issuance of bills by a single banking institution to be controlled by the federal government, are given to the government, and all others prohibited. Associations of labor organized to protect their own interests are declared to be not a monopoly. Under certain conditions, combinations may be formed between producers when, in defense of their own interests or the general public, they sell directly in foreign markets national or industrial products which are the principal source of the wealth of the region in which they are produced, provided they be not necessities; and provided further that such associations are under the supervision and protection of the federal government or the state, and provided further that authorization be in each case obtained from the respective legislative bodies. The cornering of necessities is expressly prohibited, as are any agreements or combinations entered into between producers, manufacturers, merchants, common carriers, or any of them, to compel the consumer to pay exorbitant prices. Title VI, 'Of Labor and Social Welfare,' is the most remarkable feature of the new constitution. . . . The Congress and the state legislatures are especially charged with the duty of making labor laws in conformity with the general principles announced in the constitution, but bearing in mind the special needs and conditions of the localities in which they are to apply. The laws are to be made applicable to all labor, 'skilled and unskilled workmen, employees, domestic servants, and artisans, and, in general every contract of labor.' This, it will be observed, is without regard to whether they be employees of individuals or of corporations, whether in hazardous or safe employments, whether in public, quasi-public or domestic service. Eight hours is made the maximum of a day's work, seven hours the maximum limit of night work. Women, and children under 16 years of age, are forbidden employment in unhealthy and dangerous occupations. Night work in factories is likewise forbidden to women, and children under 16 years of age, nor shall they be employed in commercial establishments after 10 o'clock at night. The maximum limit of a day's work for children over 12 and under 16 is 6 hours, and the work of children under 12 is not to be the subject of a contract; while one day's rest for every six days' work is mandatory. . . . By Subdivision V of Article 123 it is provided that 'women shall not perform any physical work requiring considerable effort during the three months immediately preceding parturition. During the months following parturition they shall necessarily enjoy a period of rest and shall receive their salary or wages in full, and

retain their employment, and the rights they may have acquired under their contracts. During the period of lactation they shall enjoy two extraordinary daily periods of rest of one-half hour each in order to nurse their children.' . . . By Sub-division VI it is provided that a minimum wage shall be paid to a worker, and that that minimum 'wage shall be considered sufficient, according to the conditions prevailing in the region or country in which he is situated, to satisfy the normal needs of the life of the workman, his education and his lawful pleasures, considering him as the head of a family'; and that in all agricultural, commercial, manufacturing and mining enterprises he shall have a right to participate in the profits of the business, the extent of this participation to be determined by special commissions to be appointed by each municipality, they in turn to be subordinated to the central Board of Conciliation to be established in each state. This minimum wage shall be exempt from attachment, set-off or discount, and the same compensation shall be paid for the same work without regard to sex or nationality. All wages shall be paid in legal currency, and shall not be paid in merchandise, orders, counters, or any other representative token. Should special circumstances arise in which extra work becomes necessary it shall be paid for at the rate of 100 per cent more than the regular rate. In no event can the extra hours exceed three, nor continue for more than three successive days, and no woman, or boy under the age of 16 years, can engage in overtime work under any conditions. In every agricultural, industrial, mining, or similar class of work, the employers are bound to furnish their workmen with comfortable, sanitary homes, for which they may charge rents not exceeding one-half of 1 per cent a month of the assessed value of the properties. They shall establish schools, dispensaries, and other services necessary to the community, and in all labor centers, wherever the population exceeds 200, the employer shall set aside a space of land, of not less than 5000 square meters, for the establishment of public markets, and the construction of buildings designed for municipal services, and places of amusement. No saloons, nor gambling houses, shall be permitted in such labor centers. The employers shall be bound to observe in the installation of their establishments all the provisions of law regarding hygiene and sanitation, and to prevent accidents due to the use of machinery, tools and working materials, and so organize the work as to insure the greatest guaranties possible for the health and lives of workmen, compatible with the nature of the work; all of this under penalties which the law shall determine. The employers are made absolutely liable for occupational diseases or accidents, for which they must pay proper indemnity, whether the accident or occupational disease result in death or only permanent or temporary disability. It is expressly provided that the workmen and employers shall have the right to unite in the defense of their respective interests by forming syndicates and unions, and the right of laborers to strike is expressly recognized. Strikes are declared to be 'lawful when, by the employment of peaceful means, they shall aim to bring about a balance between the various factors of production and to harmonize the rights of capital and labor.' Strikes are only unlawful when the *majority* of the strikers shall resort to acts of violence against persons or property, or in case of war when the strikers belong to establishments and services dependent on the government. It is provided that workmen in public service must give 10 days' notice in advance to the Board of Conciliation of the date set for the

suspension of work, and these provisions do not apply to employees of military manufacturing establishments. Lockouts are declared to be 'lawful when the excess of production shall render it necessary to shut down in order to maintain prices reasonably above the cost of production, subject to the approval of the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration.' Differences between employers and employees must be settled by arbitration, the board to consist of an equal number of representatives of the workmen and the employers, and one representative of the government. If the employer shall refuse to submit the differences to arbitration, or to accept the award rendered by the board above provided for, the labor contract shall be considered terminated and the employer bound to pay to the workmen three months' wages, in addition to the liability which he may have incurred by reason of the dispute. If the workmen reject it, the contract is simply terminated. If an employee is discharged on account of joining a union, or without proper cause, or because he has taken part in a lawful strike, the employer shall, at the worker's option, be compelled to perform the labor contract or pay the employee three months' wages, and he incurs the same liability if the employee leaves his employment on account of maltreatment, either towards his own person, or his wife, parents, children, or brothers and sisters, or on account of bad faith on the part of the employer. All claims of workmen for salary and wages accrued during the past year, and all indemnity claims, are first liens in case of bankruptcy or execution proceedings. Debts contracted by workmen in favor of their employers or their employers' associates, subordinates or agents, may only be charged against the workmen themselves, and they shall not in any event be paid by the taking of more than the entire wages of the workmen for any one month. By Article 27 certain provisions in labor contracts are held and declared to be null and void. Among these are stipulations providing for an inhuman day's work on account of its notorious excessiveness in view of the nature of the work; stipulations for a rate of wage that, in the opinion of the Board of Conciliation, is not remunerative; stipulations providing for a term of more than one week before the payment of wages; stipulations providing for the assignment to places of amusement, eating places, cages, taverns, saloons or shops, of wages, when employees of such establishments are not involved; stipulations involving a direct or indirect obligation to purchase articles of consumption in specified shops or places; stipulations permitting the retention of wages by way of fines; stipulations constituting a waiver on the part of the workman of the indemnities to which he may become entitled by reason of labor and accidents or occupational diseases; stipulations for non-performance of the contract or for discharge from work; and all other stipulations implying the waiver of some right vested in the workman by labor laws. . . . The most interesting features of Title VII are those covering the subject of religious freedom. . . . Article 130 provides that the federal authorities shall have exclusive power in matters of religious worship and outward ecclesiastical forms. Congress is forbidden to enact any law establishing or forbidding any religion whatsoever. Marriage is declared to be a civil contract. Judicial and other oaths are abolished, and a simple promise to tell the truth is substituted. Corporate existence in religious associations known as churches shall not be recognized. Ministers of religious creeds are especially made the subject of the laws enacted on the subject of professions. State legislatures are

given the power to determine the maximum number of ministers of religious creeds, according to the needs of each locality, and only a Mexican by birth may be a minister of any religious creed in Mexico. No minister shall in public or private meeting, or in acts of worship or religious propaganda, criticise the fundamental laws of the country, the public authorities or the government. They shall not have the right to vote, or to participate in any meeting for political purposes, nor are they eligible to any office. Before a new temple of worship for public use can be dedicated permission must be obtained from the Department of the Interior, and the opinion of the Governor of the state must be learned. Every such place shall have a person charged with its care and maintenance, who shall be legally responsible for the faithful performance of the laws within the said place of worship, and for all the objects used for purposes of worship. The caretaker himself, together with 10 other citizens, must advise the municipal authorities as to who is in charge of the said place of worship. The outgoing minister must give notice of any change, being accompanied in so doing by the incoming minister and 10 other citizens of the place. Municipal authorities, under penalty of \$1000 and of dismissal, shall be responsible for the exact performance of this condition. They shall keep a register of the places of worship, and another of the caretakers, upon the same penalty. The municipal authorities shall give notice to the Department of the Interior, through the intermediary of the state Governor, of any permission to open to the public a new place of worship, as well as of any change in the caretakers. Under no conditions shall the studies carried on in institutions devoted to training ministers of religious creeds receive the ratification of official institution. Any public officer violating this shall be punished criminally and the approval shall be null and void. No periodical publication 'which, either by reason of its program, its title, or merely by its general tendency, is of a religious character shall comment on any political affairs of the nation, nor publish any information regarding the acts of the authorities of the country, or of private individuals in so far as the latter have to do with public affairs.' 'Every kind of political association whose name shall bear any word or any indication relating to any religious belief is hereby strictly forbidden. No assemblies of any political character shall be held within places of public worship.' 'No minister of any religious creed may inherit, either on his own behalf or by means of a trustee or otherwise, any real property occupied by any association of religious propaganda or religious charitable purposes. Ministers of religious creeds are incapable legally of inheriting by will from ministers of the same religious sect or from any private individual to whom they are not related by blood within the fourth degree.' And finally: 'No trial by jury shall ever be granted for the infraction of any of the preceding provisions.' . . . All places of public worship are declared to be the property of the federal government. The property belonging to the churches, whether church buildings, rectories, episcopal residences, seminaries, orphan asylums or collegiate establishments, by the terms of Subdivision II of Article 27 are confiscated by the federal government. It is expressly declared that hereafter all places of public worship shall be the property of the nation, and, as if not satisfied with this, the churches and the ministers of any religious sects, and their dependents, are forbidden to patronize, direct, administer, have charge of or supervise public or private charitable institutions for the sick,

for the needy, for scientific research, or for the diffusion of knowledge."—W. H. Burges, *Hot-house constitution: Mexican constitution of 1917* (pamphlet), pp. 4-13, 10-33, 36-38.

MEXICO CITY, capital of the republic of Mexico, about 7,500 feet above sea level in the southwest of the Valley of Mexico. (See MEXICO: Map.) Water is obtained from the western mountains, and sewage is carried by means of a canal forty-three miles through the mountains to a river which flows into the gulf of Mexico. Originally the city was built on an island in Lake Texcoco, and on its western margin, but the lake, which is constantly receding, is now three miles away. The traditional date of the founding of the city of Tenochtitlán by the Aztecs, who later changed the name to Mexico, is 1325. When the Spaniards arrived in 1519 the city was about twelve miles in circumference, and is said to have had 300,000 inhabitants. (See MEXICO: 1519 [October].) It was almost totally destroyed by Cortés two years later, but he induced the natives to rebuild it on the same site. (See MEXICO: 1521 [May-July].) Chief among its notable buildings are the cathedral, begun in 1573 and completed in 1811, the legislative palace, the national museum, the national picture gallery of San Carlos, the schools of medicine, arts and mines, and the national library. (See LIBRARIES: Modern: Mexico.) The University of Mexico was founded in 1551. According to the latest census, taken in 1910, the population of the city was 989,510, while the estimated population of 1912 was 1,000,903.

1520.—Battle of.—Massacre by Alvarado. See MEXICO: 1519-1520; 1520 (June-July).

1521-1524.—Taken by Spaniards.—Rebuilt by Cortés. See MEXICO: 1521 (August); 1521-1524.

1898.—Canal completed. See MEXICO: 1898.

1901-1902.—Meeting place of the second international American congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS. INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902.

1914.—Entry of Carranza into Mexico City. See U. S. A.: 1914 (April): Occupation of Vera Cruz.

MEY, Cornelis Jacobsen, Dutch navigator. First governor of New Netherland. See NEW YORK: 1610-1614.

MEYER, George von Lengerke (1858-1918), American political leader and diplomat. See U. S. A.: 1905-1909; 1909 (March): Inauguration of President Taft.

MEYER, Julius Lothar (1830-1895), German chemist. See CHEMISTRY: General: Modern: Lavoisier's theories.

MEYERBEER, Giacomo, or Meyer Beer, Jacob (1791-1864), German composer. Studied with Lauska and Volger; produced his most successful operas, "Robert le Diable," 1831, "Les Huguenots," 1836, "Le Prophète," 1849, and "L'Africaine," 1864. See Music: Modern: 1774-1864.

MEYER-WALDECK, Captain, governor of Tsing-Tao. See WORLD WAR: 1914: V. Japan: d, 1.

MEZERAY, François Eudes de (1610-1683), French historian. See HISTORY: 24.

MEZIÈRES, town of northeastern France, fifty-five miles northeast of Rheims. In 1521, under Chevalier Bayard, it held out against the Imperialists. It was besieged and captured by the Germans in 1815 and 1871, and again fell into their hands in 1914 and was held until November, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 29; d, 3; m; w, 1.

MIAMI, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; ILLINOIS and MIAMIS; SACS.

MIANTINOMO, Narragansett sachem. Was on friendly terms with the early American settlers, and

sold lands to Roger Williams. See RHODE ISLAND: 1636-1661; NEW ENGLAND: 1674-1675.

MICAH, minor prophet. Contemporary of Isaiah. See JEWS: Religion and the prophets.

MICELAUS, king of Poland. See MIESZKO.

MICHAEL I (d. 845), Roman emperor (Eastern), 811-813.

Michael II, Roman emperor (Eastern), 820-829.

Michael III (839-867), Roman emperor (Eastern), 842-867.

Michael IV (d. 1041), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1034-1041.

Michael V, Roman emperor (Eastern), 1041-1042.

Michael VI, the Warlike, Roman emperor (Eastern), 1056-1057. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1057-1081.

Michael VII, Ducas, Roman emperor (Eastern), 1071-1078. See TURKEY: 1063-1073.

Michael VIII, Palæologus (1234-1282), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1260-1282. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1261-1453.

Michael IX (d. 1320), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1295-1320.

Michael (1506-1645); tsar of Russia, 1613-1645. Founder of the Romanov dynasty. See RUSSIA: 1533-1682.

Michael, the Brave (1503-1601), ruler of Wallachia. See RUMANIA: 13th-18th centuries.

Michael, Prince Bogdanovich. See BARCLAY DE TOLLY, MICHAEL ANDREAS.

Michael (1878-), grand duke of Russia. See RUSSIA: 1917 (March 8-15); 1917 (March 16-20).

MICHAEL OBRENOVICH III (1823-1868), Prince of Serbia, 1840-1842, 1860-1868. See SERBIA: 1817-1875.

MICHAEL OF EPIRUS, Michael Angelus Comnenus (d. 1216), Greek ruler in Epirus. See EPIRUS: 1204-1350.

MICHAEL RAS, Abyssinian chief. See MIKAEL RAS.

MICHAEL WISNIOWIECKI, king of Poland, 1669-1673. See POLAND: 1668-1696.

MICHAELIS, Georg (1857-), chancellor of Germany, July-November, 1917. See GERMANY: 1917 (July-October); WORLD WAR: 1917: XI. Efforts toward peace: i; k; XII. Political conditions, etc.: e.

MICHAELMAS, in England, name for September 29. See QUARTER DAYS.

MICHELANGELO, or Michelangiolo Buonarroti (1475-1564), Florentine sculptor, painter, architect and poet. Appointed chief architect of St. Peter's, 1547. The most powerful figure of the Renaissance, his influence dominated sculpture and architecture for the next century. See ARCHITECTURE: Renaissance: Italy; PAINTING: Italian: High Renaissance; SCULPTURE: High Renaissance; ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1450-1595.

MICHELET, Jules (1798-1874), French historian. See HISTORY: 29; 30.

MICHELET DU CREST, Jacques Barthelomy (1600-1766), Swiss mathematician. See GENÈVA: 1738.

MICHELOZZO DI BARTOLOMEO (1396-1472), Florentine architect, sculptor and goldsmith. Employed by the Medici in Florence, and in Milan by Francesco Sforza; his most famous work is the Riccardi palace in Florence. See ARCHITECTURE: Renaissance: Italy.

MICHELSON, or Michaelson, Albert Abraham (1851-), American physicist of German birth. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Instruments; ASTRONOMY: Measuring the size of stars; NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1907.

MICHIGAN, known as the "Wolverine" state, is one of the north central states of the United States consisting of two peninsulas and several islands. The international boundary line between the United States and the Dominion of Canada forms the eastern and most of the northern boundaries of the state. Ohio and Indiana lie to the south of the lower peninsula, and Wisconsin south of the western part of the upper peninsula. The lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, St. Clair, Erie and Georgian Bay give the state a total coast line of 1620 miles; it has an area of 57,980 square miles exclusive of the water area, and a population, 1920, of 3,668,412.

ALSO IN: G. N. Fuller, *Economic and social beginnings of Michigan*, pp. 1-2.

Resources.—Michigan is largely an agricultural state and in 1920 had 196,447 farms with a total area of 9,340,204 acres, given over to the cultivation of oats, corn, wheat, hay, beans, potatoes and sugar beets. In 1921 the state had 5,767,000 head of cattle. Michigan, which yields iron ore, copper, silver, coal, clay and clay products, graphite, asbestos, gypsum petroleum, and building stone, ranks first among the states in the production of iron ore and sixth in general mineral production, with an output, 1918, valued at \$199,264,604. The other industries of the state are chiefly concerned with lumber, metal-working, and the manufacture of automobiles. See U.S.A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See HURONS; OJIBWAYS.

1616-1701.—Explored by La Salle.—Early trading posts.—Michilimackinac.—Founding of French post at Detroit.—Médard Chouart, Sieur de Groseilliers, Pierre Radisson, and Robert de la Salle deserve to be ranked among the forerunners of Michigan [fur] traders. The first two are said to have spent the entire winter of 1659-60 at Sault Ste. Marie. . . . La Salle, with Father Louis Hennepin, Henry de Tonty, and twenty-five others, . . . came to Detroit [1659], and from there pushed on to Green Bay, Wisconsin. After loading his boat, the *Griffin*, with furs, he sent her back, while he and a few others struck boldly across to the Michigan shore and went down to the mouth of the St. Joseph River. There he established a fort [1679]. (See also CANADA: 1660-1687.) . . . Sault Ste. Marie was first to assume importance as a trading center. It was the rallying point for most of the savages in this section, for this was the great fish region, much sought by the Indians. Naturally, it became early the center of a wide-spreading fur trade, a position it held until Mackinac rose into prominence. . . . Traders came to this spot as early as 1616. Monsieur de Saint Lussou in May, 1671, took possession of this region in the name of the French. But by 1689, Sault Ste. Marie was practically abandoned as a trading post and from then on formed merely a station on the trade route to the Northwest, and was not re-established until De Repentigny was sent there in 1750 to re-occupy the post. Of all Michigan trading posts, there was none that grew to greater importance in the fur régime than Michilimackinac, and that importance was assumed early. Nicolet passed through the Straits in 1634, and Denonville claims that French traders lived there in 1648. . . . From the beginning of the fur trade régime to its close a bitter warfare was waged for the possession of this 'golden fleece' of the New World; monopolizing companies competed with coureurs de bois, Indian tribe with Indian tribe, French with English, English with American, independent traders with trading companies, and vice versa. It was a competition that lasted until the forest was stripped of its

rich supply of peltries. . . . The British and the Flemings of New York also had their eyes on Michilimackinac trade. . . . In 1686 a small party of these arrived, traded with the savages and were invited by them to come again. This invitation was accepted and soon a second expedition was planned. Two bands, one led by Rooseboom and the other by McGregor, each floating an English flag and armed with an English passport, set out for this upper post. Rooseboom came on ahead. With him were some savages of the nation Lupes and some Iroquois who were to serve as guides and hunt for food. . . . La Durantaye . . . set out to meet them, and he soon settled the matter with Rooseboom by capturing him and his goods. . . . Then he proceeded to Detroit where he was joined by Du Lhut and Tonty with their army of *coureurs de bois* and Indians, and together they started towards Niagara. They encountered the second band on the way and these, too, were captured. . . . As a military encounter it was perhaps of little significance, but it wrought mischief among the Hurons and Ottawas and made them restless under French rule. . . . English effort to snatch from the French the upper commerce was a powerful inducement for the latter to establish a post in the environs of the Detroit River, and so shut the door to this region against these aggressive Britons and their capable Iroquois allies. The first expedition of the English had been made in the early months of 1686. In June of that same year Denonville ordered Du Lhut who was then *commandant* at Michilimackinac, to establish a combined fort and trading post at the Detroit with a garrison of fifty men, choosing an advantageous position, that he might control the strait and protect the savages hunting there, giving them a place of refuge against their enemies. Du Lhut at once repaired thither with fifty *coureurs de bois* and built a stockade on the strait. On June seventh, the following year, La Durantaye took formal possession of the region for France. . . . This was a short-lived fort. France was waging war with the Iroquois, and La Hontan, hearing that Fort Niagara had been deserted and, as he says, that Denonville 'had a mind to clap up a Peace,' concluded that this post would be of no use; so he set fire to the fort and sailed with his crew to Michilimackinac. Thus ended Fort St. Joseph on the Detroit. . . . When the intercolonial wars began in 1689, Michigan trade suffered. . . . Many French posts were abandoned; but Michilimackinac, Michigan's only post during the early years of the war, held her own. . . . When, in 1694, La Motte Cadillac took charge of the post, there were present about two hundred French troops, besides the *coureurs de bois*, traders and artisans, while at certain seasons thousands of Indians assembled. After the abandonment of La Salle's fort at the mouth of the St. Joseph, the history of this river valley, as far as known, remains a silent chapter until the opening of the eighteenth century. . . . When at the opening of the eighteenth century the little trade center Detroit was established, it at once assumed the lead in peltry traffic. Sault Ste. Marie had been abandoned, Michilimackinac had dwindled to insignificance, and the St. Joseph trade had been largely absorbed. Detroit was practically Michigan's only depot of trade during the earlier years of its existence, dominating and controlling her entire forest commerce. . . . The fur trade, the French desire to control it, to continue it, and to keep it from the grasp of the British was, generally, the impelling motive leading the pioneers to seize key points and establish posts there. The English frontier line was fast moving westward, and at the

close of the seventeenth century, British traders were coming dangerously near to territory claimed by France. Rivalry for the fur trade was becoming more intense, and it was necessary to check these advancing Englishmen, so keen for trade. The strategic position of the Detroit was fully appreciated by the French, for already in 1686 they had taken steps to shut out the English, Dutch, and Iroquois from the upper country commerce by ordering Du Lhut to establish a post there. [See DETROIT: 1686-1701.] But this had been abandoned and France had made no effort to re-occupy and to make a permanent post there. The door stood open, by which the enemy could go in and out among the French Indian allies, and get control of the Detroit and the fur trade of the upper countries. . . . The rise of Detroit [1701] proved a death blow to Michilimackinac and her trade, for, accepting the invitation extended by Cadillac to every savage tribe within reach to join the Indian settlement at Detroit, Huron and Ottawa deserted the old post for the new."—I. A. Johnson, *Michigan fur trade*, pp. 11-12, 15-22, 31-32, 52.—See also CANADA: 1660-1687.

1640-1671.—French missionaries.—First settlements.—"So early as 1641 the Jesuit fathers Raymbault and Jogues had visited the Sault Ste. Marie and had established a mission there for the Chippewas but the sickness and death of Raymbault caused its early abandonment. The position was too important to permit of its being permanently given up, and Father Marquette was sent there in the spring of 1668, and renewing the mission, he founded there the first permanent settlement in Michigan. . . . When in 1670 the Hurons fled before their new enemies the Sioux, Father Marquette cast his lot with them in the following year and gathered them about him at the Straits of Michilimackinac. . . . The mission now established by Father Marquette was located on the north side of the Straits and was named by him for Saint Ignatius."—T. M. Cooley, *Michigan*, pp. 10-12.

1763-1774.—Pontiac's War. See PONTIAC'S WAR.
1763-1777.—Governmental beginnings.—Quebec Act of 1774.—First court.—"The King of Great Britain, at the close of the French and Indian war, under the treaty of Paris, in 1763, established four separate governments known as Quebec, East Florida, West Florida and Granada. [See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties; NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1763.] . . . Eleven years passed before the territory of Michigan, under the Quebec Act, came within the pale of civil government, and then in little more than name. In the meantime the people of Michigan knew no government other than that of military absolutism. The *commandants* were the source of authority, which they exercised either in person or through some subordinate. Under some such arrangement one Gabriel La Grand, in 1765, seems to have exercised a part of the functions of a justice of the peace. . . . In 1767, the *commandant*, Captain George Turnbull, commissioned Phillip Dejean a justice of the peace, with powers to make inquiry but not to render judgment except upon the joint request of the parties. In the same year he received a further commission as 'Second Judge,' 'to hold a temporary court of justice twice each month at Detroit to decide of all actions of debt, bonds, hills, contracts, and trespasses above the value of five pounds of New York currency.' . . . The English authorities, like some of their French predecessors, saw but one purpose to be achieved in the lake country, and that was the nurturing of the fur trade. To this end the proclamation of the king forbade the surveying, granting, or patenting of any lands within

... [Michigan's] territorial limits, or the acquiring of title through Indian grants. . . . When the storm of the American revolution came . . . it found the Canadian either passive, or active for the English King. Some of this may have been brought about by the passage by the British Parliament of the Quebec Act of 1774. [See CANADA: 1763-1774.] . . . One of the provisions of this act was to bring Michigan territory under the pale of civil government, as a part of the province of Quebec. On November 9th, 1775, Henry Hamilton arrived at Detroit as Lieutenant Governor to be the first civil officer of the English period. Detroit and Michilimackinac were now upon the frontier of civil government, but so far removed from the seat of judicial authority at Montreal that there was little or no actual operation of government. Lieutenant Governor Hamilton was clothed with, or at least assumed, well nigh unlimited administrative and judicial powers. Under his sway Dejean continued to exercise his powers as a justice of the peace. . . . The lack of courts was very much felt at Detroit, and in 1777, under permission of the lieutenant governor, the merchants of the place established a court of trustees or arbitration. Eighteen of them entered into a bond that three of them should be a weekly court in rotation, and were to defend any appeal that might be taken from their decisions. . . . This volunteer court rendered judgments, issued executions, and imprisoned in the guard house."—L. T. Hemans, *History of Michigan*, pp. 74-77.

1775-1783.—Held by British throughout the Revolutionary War. See U.S.A.: 1778-1779; Clark's conquests.

1775-1796.—Indian unrest.—Peace treaty.—Treaty of Paris, 1783.—"The war [of the American Revolution] . . . caused unrest among the Indians and thus endangered the life of the traders. Numerous rumors reached the posts of men who had been killed by the savages while on their way to the hunting grounds. . . . Whatever the cause, these murders spread alarm, and traders hesitated to penetrate into the wilderness. Major Henry Basset of Detroit in 1773 denied passes for St. Joseph's Valley to English and French alike, and informed the red men that until they behaved better and ceased their depredations, no traders would be sent among them. . . . When the war closed the Indians were in a turmoil. . . . At Michilimackinac they were almost beyond control. John Dease, who had been made deputy superintendent of the Indians in 1786, removed to that place from Niagara. After holding several councils with representatives from the various Indian tribes, he finally concluded a treaty of peace with them in July, 1787, in which they acknowledged the king of England as their father, next to the Great Spirit."—I. A. Johnson, *Michigan fur trade*, pp. 78-80.—By the Treaty of Paris, 1783, the region passed to the United States. England, however, retained possession of Detroit and Mackinac (or Michilimackinac) till 1796, when they were surrendered in accordance with Jay's Treaty of 1794.—See U.S.A.: 1793-1795.

1784.—Included in proposed states of Cherokee and Sylvania. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: ¶784.

1785-1786.—Partially covered by western land claims of Massachusetts and Connecticut, ceded to the United States. See U.S.A.: 1781-1786.

1787.—Ordinance for the government of Northwest Territory.—Perpetual exclusion of slavery. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1787.

1796-1840.—Exploitation of fur-bearing ani-

mals.—Rapid settlement.—Government trading houses.—"The Michigan fur trade passed under three successive régimes—the French [1634-1760], the English [1760-1796], and the American [1796-1840]. . . . This latter period saw not only the 'Golden Age' of Michigan's forest commerce but also its decline and destruction. It was a period of systematic, wholesale exploitation of the furred creatures of her forests by factory, fur-trading company, and independent trader, without thought of reservation or preservation; a period when the dollar took the place of the beaver pelt, salaries the place of the credit system, and the Yankee the place of the Briton; a period when her splendid forests and Indian hunting grounds were transformed into pastures and farms, and her trading rendezvous became the sites of villages and thriving cities; when the trapper and the hunter and savage gave way to the man with the axe and the hoe, the lumberman, the merchants, and the farmer. The factory, fur-trading company, and independent trader were all at work, each contending for the largest share of the spoils. The two latter existed during the British régime; the first named is a new element. The factory system was an attempt made by the United States to control the Indian trade by establishing trading houses under the supervision of government officials. The purpose was two-fold: to keep the savage supplied with merchandise, and to furnish him protection and justice against the greed and avarice of traders. It had its origin in 1795, when Congress, to test the system, appropriated \$50,000 to purchase goods for supplying the Indians in that year. . . . In Michigan all accounts, vouchers, abstracts, and estimates of these Indian agents were sent to the Governor of the territory for examination. The act providing these trading houses remained in force only two years. It was revived again in 1802 and retained until 1822, when trading houses were finally abolished. . . . The history of Michigan's forest commerce during this period is the history of a gradual elimination of English influence by American up to the year 1812, when war called a halt to trade for a few years; after which British traders were barred from seeking peltries in American territory and British influence ceased. After the war this commerce was pushed to the utmost in certain regions and centers of trade until it reached its zenith. Then followed a period of decline, when the Indians through the influence of traders peacefully relinquished their hunting grounds to the incoming settlers."—I. A. Johnson, *Michigan fur trade*, pp. 102-104, 106.

19th century.—Educational developments.—Teacher training and certification. See EDUCATION: Modern; 19th century; United States: Evolution of public school system.

1800-1802.—Michigan as part of the new Indiana Territory.—When the Northwest Territory was divided in 1800, the western part of Michigan was incorporated in the new Indiana Territory, and in 1802 the remainder of what is now Michigan was also added to that territory. See INDIANA: 1800-1818.

1804-1884.—Development of state educational system.—"The early schools in the territory were of course French, and connected with the church. . . . But private schools in which English was taught were in existence from the time of the outbreak of the Revolutionary War. . . . When Father Richard came, he made an endeavor in the direction of better church schools, and with considerable success. In 1804 he established a school for girls, . . . and also a Latin school for young men. Both of these were broken up by the great fire of the next year, but schools of less ambitious

character were established shortly afterwards, and Father Richard in 1808 reports six of such schools, three of which were taught by Indian teachers. . . . [In 1809] an act was adopted which provided for the laying off into school districts of all the settled portions of the territory, and for an enumeration of the children between the ages of four and eighteen in each of the districts. . . . Rev. John Monteith, a well-educated Presbyterian clergyman, had come to Detroit in 1816, where he had collected a congregation composed of various denominations of Protestants, to whom he preached on Sundays. He soon formed the acquaintance of Father Richard, and friendly intercourse between them brought out the fact that both were greatly concerned at the want of means of education for the youth of the territory, and willing and desirous to assist in supplying them. From Governor Cass they found ready and hearty cooperation, and the chief justice also lent assistance. The latter in August, 1817, drew up and secured the adoption of 'An act to establish the Catholepistemiad or University of Michigan,' in which an elaborate plan for a university was marked out. The plan was crude and pedantic, but its author had grasped certain principles which were of the very highest importance, and which from this time became incorporated in the polity of the territory, and subsequently of the State also. [See also UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1804-1837.] . . . The practical development of the common school system was much more rapid. . . . Early in 1826 Congress was induced to grant an additional township of land towards the endowment of the university; and Governor Cass, in calling the attention of the legislative council to this grant in the following November, strongly urged the establishment of schools to be supported by taxation. . . . The territorial council granted charters for academies, but the name in most cases indicated rather an aspiration than an existence. In two or three places good service was being done; notably at Ann Arbor by Mr. O. C. Thompson, a graduate of Princeton, sent out for missionary work by the Presbyterian Church. . . . The constitutional convention of 1835 had recognized the supreme importance of education, and had made the position of superintendent of public instruction a permanent constitutional office. It had required a school to be kept in each school district for at least three months in every year, and had pledged the faith of the State to the preservation of all donations for schools or for the university, as permanent funds for the purposes for which they were given. But as yet the State was not admitted to the Union, and it was not known what form any donation by the federal government would take. General Isaac E. Crary, . . . [who had been a member of the constitutional convention, believed] that education ought to be an independent department of the state government; and . . . that the lands granted by the general government for school purposes ought to be granted directly to the State as trustee. . . . Fortunately for the State, General Crary was its first representative in Congress; and through his prudent and cautious management the grant by the general government was so shaped as to meet his views. . . . The services of General Crary to education were not confined to those performed at Washington. . . . [He] recommended the young missionary [John D. Pierce] as the suitable person for superintendent of public instruction. . . . The result was his appointment to the office [by Governor Mason], and the commitment to his control of the whole subject of state education, with the charge and management of a million acres of land. The

legislature called upon him to prepare and report a system of common school and university education, and the report was made, approved, and adopted the very year the State entered the Union. The system reported has in the main been in existence ever since. . . . The common schools of the State came in time to do admirable work, and in the leading towns they grew into high schools. . . . The constitution of 1850 made it the duty of the legislature, within five years from its adoption, to make provision in every school district for free instruction at least three months in the year. . . . Such in brief has been the progress of instruction in the common schools, which are the foundation of the state system of education, and in the university which crowns and completes the structure. But between the common school and the university are other institutions, each of which has its appropriate place in the system, and is necessary to complete it. Foremost of these are the State Normal School at Ypsilanti, and the State Agricultural College at Lansing. A school for the deaf and dumb at Flint and another for the blind at Lansing are liberally supported by the State, and make ample provision for such education as those unfortunate classes are capable of receiving. In 1874 a state school for dependent children was opened at Coldwater. . . . Such is the educational system of Michigan. Its founders took position in advance of the thought of their day, and those who followed them have endeavored to give effect in full measure to their views."—T. M. Cooley, *Michigan*, pp. 307-310, 314, 317-322, 326-327.

1805.—Detached from Indiana Territory and distinctly named and organized. See INDIANA: 1800-1818.

1805-1842.—Treaties with Indians.—"The Governor [General Hull] reached Detroit on the 1st of July, 1805. [He served until 1813.] . . . For judicial purposes the territory was divided into three districts known as the districts of Eric, Detroit, and Huron. Later a fourth district was created called the district of Mackinaw. . . . Matters of small importance were left to the disposal of justices of the peace. A court of intermediary jurisdiction was created for each district, while the supreme court reserved to itself jurisdiction over all land cases and concurrent jurisdiction over civil cases, involving at first \$200 and later \$500. The courts had the general powers of an appellate court. The district courts survived until 1809. . . . In April, 1806, congress gave the governor and judge authority to lay out a new town of Detroit, and appropriated 10,000 acres of land for its purpose. It was September 13, 1806, before the basis of the town was laid. . . . [In 1807] General Hull negotiated a new treaty with the Ottawas, Chippewas, Wyandottes, and Pottawattamies, whereby the Indian title was extinguished to the southern portion of the territory. . . . Detroit was hardly settled in the new abodes when disquieting rumors as to Indian intrigues and war with England again filled the settlement with alarm. . . . In 1809, Governor Hull heard the rumors, and on the 28th of August he met the Ottawa and Chippewa nations at Michilimackinac, and in an address, sought to win their favor. The following month the famous Wyandotte chief, Walk-in-the-water, and his people, in special council at Brownstown, plainly told Governor Hull of their dissatisfaction at the growing encroachments of the whites upon the Indians' preserve."—L. T. Hemans, *History of Michigan*, pp. 104-105, 107-108.—"If the French and the English had discouraged settlement [in Michigan], the Yankee made no effort in that direction; rather, he put forth every effort to persuade the red men

to give up their hunting grounds. The War of 1812 had brought a change of spirit, because during the struggle men had penetrated into the wilds of this region and had come to realize that the interior was not as bad as had been depicted. . . . But there was one obstacle in the way of transforming this wilderness into cultivated fields, and that was its original owner, the Indian. He claimed as his property the hunting ground which the Yankee trader had almost despoiled of its wild animals. It was here that the influence of the old trader upon the Indian was brought into service, who was largely instrumental in inducing the latter to cede large tracts of land to the Government. In 1807 the region around Detroit was turned over to the United States, with the stipulation that as long as it remained government property the savage should have the privilege of hunting and fishing there. The Saginaw [or Cass] treaty of 1810 gave another portion of eastern Michigan. Then followed the treaty of Sault Ste. Marie in 1820, the two Chicago treaties in 1821 and 1833, and the Washington treaty in 1836, until, finally, by the treaty of La Pointe in 1842, the last strip of Indian land in Michigan passed into the hands of the United States Government."—I. A. Johnson, *Michigan fur trade*, pp. 149-150.

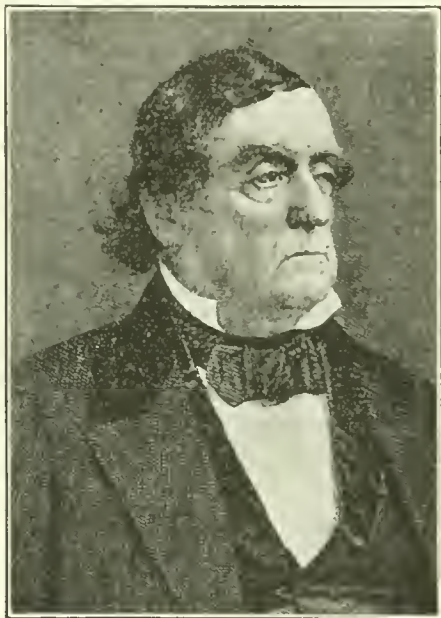
1811.—Tecumseh and his league.—Battle of Tippecanoe. See U.S.A.: 1811.

1812.—Surrender of Detroit and the whole territory to the British arms by General Hull. See U.S.A.: 1812 (June-October).

1813.—Recovery by Americans. See U.S.A.: 1812-1813: Harrison's northwestern campaign.

1813-1834.—Organization under Lewis Cass.—Expedition to head of Mississippi.—Completion of Erie canal.—Immigration to the state.—Changes in judicial system.—Cholera epidemic.—"General Lewis Cass was made governor of the territory in 1813 and his energy and administrative ability were soon felt in its development. Americans came into the territory in increasing numbers, bringing improved methods of farming and of carrying on other business. Changes were also made in the form of government, so that the people gradually began to share in its administration. General Cass remained governor to the territory until 1831. . . . During his long administration many counties were organized, roads were built, settlements were made, farms were cleared and the territory forged rapidly ahead."—C. S. Larzelere, *Government of Michigan*, p. 16.—"Congressional action, in 1819, had given to Michigan the right to elect a territorial delegate. . . . The year 1819 witnessed the organization of the bank of Michigan at Detroit. . . . The same year the *Walk-in-the-water*, the first steamship of the lakes, made a round trip from Buffalo to Mackinaw. It had made the port of Detroit the year previous. From this date, this boat and its successor continued a means of easy transit from Buffalo to Detroit. . . . That the territory and the country might profit by a more acute knowledge of the lake country, Governor Cass, in 1820, projected an expedition to explore the country through the upper lakes to the head of the Mississippi. The expedition consisted of the governor, a corps of scientific men, and a company of thirty soldiers, and left Detroit on the 24th of May. . . . They reached Mackinaw in safety, and providing an extra escort, they pushed on to the Sault, where they arrived June 14th. . . . The year 1825 was a very important one for Michigan. It marked the completion of the Erie Canal, connecting Michigan by continuous means of transit with the tide water at New York."—L. T. Hemans, *History of Michigan*, pp.

129, 131, 134.—"In 1831, Governor Cass . . . was called to be Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Jackson. . . . General John T. Mason on September 24, 1830, had been appointed secretary of the territory, and upon the retirement of Governor Cass the year following, became the acting governor. . . . Failing fortune and business interests required his personal attention, and he was obliged to resign. . . . The Anti-Masonic Party . . . at the previous election had elected several members of the territorial council. When the news reached Detroit, in the early days of 1831, that President Jackson had given the appointment [of Secretary of the Interior] to Stevens T. Mason, the minor son of the retiring secretary, the joint causes produced a protest of more than usual volume. . . . Although opposition was carried to the Senate, the appointment was nevertheless confirmed in July, 1831. . . . The feeling with which the young man's appointment was received was, in some



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measure, intensified by the fact that the office of governor was vacant, and as secretary he was the acting governor. This condition was soon remedied by the appointment of George B. Porter of Lancaster, Pennsylvania. . . . Every month was now adding to the population of Michigan. Steamships had multiplied; some six or seven now plied the lake between Detroit and Buffalo. They were daily bringing the material for the peopling of a state. The pioneers were mostly of hardy New England stock, those from Vermont, New Hampshire, and New York predominating. . . . In the year 1833, the legislative council made a change in the judicial system by creating a circuit court for that portion of Michigan territory east of the lake [Michigan], and outside of the present limits of Wayne county. . . . The Supreme Court of the Territory continued to exist as such, and its functions as a circuit court were likewise retained and exercised under the name of superior circuit court. On the 28th of June, 1834, Congress attached all of the territory west of the Mississippi river, and north and east of the Missouri and White-Earth

rivers to the territory of Michigan. The questions of a state government were now forcing themselves upon the people of the territory, and becoming the topic of public discussion. It was generally conceded that, before the close of the year, active measures would be taken toward that end. While the public mind was so occupied, the people were again disturbed by a second visitation of the cholera. It claimed Governor Porter as one of its victims, and the mortality in a single month was one-seventh of the population. . . . The place of governor was never filled, although Henry D. Gilpin was nominated, but not confirmed for the position. Until a complication with Ohio called for the intervention of the President, Stevens T. Mason continued the acting governor of the territory. The territorial council, at its session in September, 1834, set off the territory that had recently been attached to Michigan into the counties of Dubuque and Des Moines, and placed them in a circuit with the previously formed county of Iowa."—L. T. Hemans, *History of Michigan*, pp. 136-139, 143-144.

1818-1836.—Extension of territorial limits to Mississippi and beyond.—Inclusion of part of Minnesota. See WISCONSIN: 1805-1848; MINNESOTA: 1652-1847.

1824.—Charter granted to Detroit. See DETROIT: 1805-1847.

1830-1846.—Railroad development.—"In 1830, the territorial council had granted incorporation to the Pontiac and Detroit Railway Company. This was only about nine months after George Stephenson had made his trial trip with the 'Rocket,' the first successful locomotive constructed. Although no results seem to have come from this venture, a better fate was in store for the Erie and Kalamazoo Railway Company, which the territorial legislature incorporated, in 1833. Its road was open for traffic from Toledo to Adrian in 1836. . . . The national government had already given to the state five per cent of the net proceeds from the sales of public lands for internal improvements. A more liberal donation for the same purpose was realized, in 1841, by the grant of 500,000 acres of land. Enough had been done in railroad construction to demonstrate its practicability. . . . Governor Mason shared the general enthusiasm. His message of 1837 recommended a most liberal policy in the direction of internal improvements. . . . After much contention, the legislature determined to build the works wholly at the expense of the state treasury, and place their management solely under state control. . . . The first act, as reported from the committee, had made provision for only one road, the Central from Detroit westward. Here the defect of building solely from the state treasury appeared. Every legislator brought forward the claim of his constituents to a share in the blessings that were to flow from the expenditure for which all were to be taxed, and so three roads were undertaken instead of one. . . . In 1846, the Central road was completed as far as Kalamazoo, and the Southern as far as Hillsdale. . . . The conviction had grown that such works could be more economically prosecuted through private or corporate enterprise. Certain Boston capitalists purchased the Central road for \$2,000,000, and chartered the Michigan Central Railroad Company for its operation. The Southern road was sold . . . for . . . \$500,000."—L. T. Hemans, *History of Michigan*, pp. 164-166, 176-177.

1837.—Admission into the Union as a state.—Settlement of boundaries.—Constitution.—A conflict between the terms of the constitution under which the state of Ohio was admitted into the

Union in 1803 and the Act of Congress which, in 1805, erected the territory of Michigan, gave rise to a serious boundary dispute between the two. The Michigan claim rested not only upon the Act of 1805, but primarily upon the great Ordinance of 1787. It involved the possession of a wedge-shaped strip of territory, which "averaged six miles in width, across Ohio, embraced some 468 square miles, and included the lake-port of Toledo and the mouth of the Maumee river." In 1834, Michigan began to urge her claims to statehood. "In December, President Jackson laid the matter before congress in a special message. Congress quietly determined to 'arbitrate' the quarrel by giving to Ohio the disputed tract, and offering Michigan, by way of partial recompense, the whole of what is to-day her upper peninsula; . . . making this settlement of the quarrel one of the conditions precedent to the admission of Michigan into the Union. In September, 1836, a state convention, called for the sole purpose of deciding the question, rejected the proposition; a second convention, however, approved of it on the 15th of December following, and congress at once accepted this decision as final. Thus Michigan came into the sisterhood of states, January 26, 1837, with the territorial limits which she possesses to-day."—R. G. Thwaites, *Boundaries of Wisconsin*, (*Wisconsin Historical Society Collections*, v. 11, pp. 456-460).—When Michigan was admitted, the state was recognized as having existed since November, 1835. "The Constitution adopted was, in many ways, well suited to meet the requirements of a growing community. It embraced a comprehensive bill of rights; simple but ample provisions were made for the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of the state government. This constitution enjoined upon the legislature the organization of the militia, the creation of a system of common schools, and the duty of providing for internal improvements. It safeguarded the funds set apart for the support of the university and primary schools, providing that the interest only should be applicable to such uses. Few limitations were placed upon the power of the legislature. That body was left quite free from such restraining provisions as were later incorporated into the constitution of 1850. . . . The Legislature met in January, 1837. . . . All branches of the government were ambitious to promote the development of the State, and the enactments of the legislature covered a broad and varied field. One of the acts provided for the appointment of a state geologist, and appropriated \$20,000 to be expended in sums ranging from \$3,000, in 1837, to \$12,000, in 1840, for the purposes of a geological survey. . . . The university was given legal existence on March 18, 1837, and two days later a law was passed fixing its location at Ann Arbor. [See above: 1804-1884]."—L. T. Hemans, *History of Michigan*, pp. 155, 161, 163.

ALSO IN: W. Cook, *Michigan, its history and government*.—B. A. Hinsdale, *Old Northwest*, ch. 17.—T. M. Cooley, *Michigan*, pp. 214-222.

1837-1841.—Wild cat banks. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1837-1841.

1840-1848.—Gubernatorial changes.—Lansing becomes state capital.—Mormon colonists.—Colonists from the Netherlands.—"The ascendancy of the Whig Party in Michigan was limited to one administration. The party organization was disrupted by the quarrels that followed the death of President Harrison. In Michigan, the situation was not rendered more harmonious by the selection, in 1841, of Governor Woodbridge to succeed John Norvell in the United States Senate. . . . In the state campaign of 1841, the reaction was

at its height, and John S. Barry, the democratic candidate for governor, with state officers and a legislature of his political faith, were chosen by large majorities. At this time, the financial condition of the state was at its lowest ebb. Both the Morris Canal and Banking Company, and the Bank of the United States at Philadelphia, had now defaulted in their payments upon the five million dollar loan. There was scarcely a banking institution left in the state, and only one in Detroit. . . . Governor Barry was especially fitted to hold the reins of government during these years. He practised and enforced the most rigid economy, without weakening or dwarfing the institutions of the state. . . . With returning national prosperity, Michigan began a career of recuperation and progress. Governor Barry was chosen by an increased majority at the election of 1843. The constitution prohibited a governor from holding more than two consecutive terms, so that his official tenure terminated January 5, 1846. . . . Governor Felch was elected in 1845, and served from January 5, 1846, to March 4, 1847. He was elected United States Senator by the legislature, and the balance of his term was filled by Greenley, lieutenant governor. Ransom became governor, January 3, 1848, and served one term. Governor Ransom was one of the members of the first supreme court, holding the position until his elevation to the governorship. . . . The State Constitution had provided that the seat of government should be at Detroit, or such other place as might be prescribed by law, until the year 1847, when it should be permanently located by the legislature. . . . Many towns made active competition for the prize . . . but finally the township of Lansing, in Ingham county, where there was not even a village, was selected. . . . The first session of the legislature . . . convened at the new capital January 1, 1848. The year 1848 likewise marked the first action of the state looking to state care for its unfortunates. Governor Ransom signed the bill which resulted in the establishment of the state asylum for the insane at Kalamazoo, and the school for the deaf, dumb, and blind at Flint. . . . As if to make Michigan's diversified experiences complete, in 1846, a colony of Mormons took up their abode upon the Beaver Islands, adjacent to the northwestern shore of the lower peninsula. They were an outgrowth of the main body under Joseph Smith at Nauvoo, Illinois; James J. Strang became the leader of the Michigan colony, and was generally known as King Strang. He was a man of considerable force of character and education but, his practices and teachings characteristic of the Mormon church did not harmonize with established religious opinions. Bitter feelings were engendered among his followers and he was assassinated in July, 1856, and his colony soon dispersed. The year, 1847, brought the state . . . colonists from the Netherlands who sought, upon the west shore of Michigan, to secure for themselves and their children a higher degree of material prosperity and religious liberty than was afforded in the Fatherland. They became the founders of the city of Holland."—L. T. Hemans, *History of Michigan*, pp. 185-187, 191-193.

1842-1900.—Opening of copper and iron mines.—Extent of mineral wealth in upper peninsula.—"In point of antiquity copper is widest known of all the varied mineral resources of Michigan. The evidences of the mining of this metal go back to the prehistoric times when a race of intelligent men of whom we have absolutely no knowledge mined copper systematically on Isle Royale and in

the neighborhood of Ontonagon. In the pits which they dug have been found masses of metal, some of them of enormous weight, accompanied by crude implements, and in some cases timber platforms evidently designed for the purpose of lifting the masses to the surface. In some instances the openings of these mines were choked with debris and earth upon which grew the largest of large forest trees, indicating the lapse of centuries since their abandonment. The very first European explorers of Lake Superior found abundant evidences of the existence of copper and reported it in their journals published in Paris in the seventeenth century. The first attempt by white men to mine the metal was made by Alexander Henry in 1770 on behalf of a company which had been organized in London. His efforts were a failure and the money which the company invested brought them no return. Doctor Douglas Houghton, the first state geologist of Michigan was the first to intelligently explore [about 1835] the district and reduce the geologic data which he gathered to such form and system as to afford practical information to the miner. . . . It was Boston capital which first undertook the development of the copper region and Boston capitalists have profited immensely in the aggregate by their enterprise. Actual operations were begun in 1842 in the vicinity of Keweenaw Point where fissure veins were opened which proved moderately profitable workings. In the early days of operations the Cliff, Phoenix and Copper Falls, were opened on the fissure veins and successfully worked for a time but were afterwards abandoned. The Central was profitably worked longer than any other of its class. In 1846 some exploring was done at Portage lake, near the site of the present Quincy mine, but that district did not come into prominence until 1860, when the Quincy took a position long held in the front rank of amygdaloid mines. In 1843 operations were begun near Ontonagon, but it was not until 1847, when the discovery of the Minnesota lode brought the district into prominence, that mining was conducted on a large scale. The discovery of the Calumet and Hecla conglomerate lode in 1866 marked a new era in copper mining, and another epoch was marked in 1885 when the Calumet and Hecla lode was cut at a vertical depth of two thousand two hundred and seventy feet by the Tamarack shaft. This demonstrated the possibility and profit of deep mining. Until the development of copper mining in Arizona, Montana and other Rocky Mountain states in the early eighties the Michigan mines were practically the only source of domestic production of copper, and produced approximately about twenty per cent of the world's supply. . . . No other section of the United States, and no other district in the world has shown such marvelous development or produced so much iron ore as this region, which is embraced in northern Michigan and Wisconsin, and eastern Minnesota. So far as Michigan is concerned there are three distinct districts which lie in the western half of the northern peninsula. These are the Marquette, Menominee, and Gogebic ranges. All these are wholly within the limits of Michigan, except a small portion of the Menominee and Gogebic, which lie in Wisconsin. . . . The initial shipment is credited to the year 1856. From that time the development has continued steadily. . . . In 1880 the amount of iron ore mined in Michigan was one million six hundred and forty thousand eight hundred and fourteen long tons, giving the state second rank, Pennsylvania being first. The output increased in 1890 to five million eight hundred and

sixty-nine long tons, Michigan then ranking first of the states, a position it has continued to hold. In 1900 the production increased to eleven million one hundred and thirty-five thousand two hundred and fifteen, nearly double that of the previous census. . . .

"The earliest mining in the Lake Superior district was on the Marquette range and one of the oldest operations is the Cleveland mine which has been supplying ore constantly for fifty years. None of the records go back beyond 1854, in which year one mine was reported as operating in the Marquette district, the shipments amounting to three thousand tons. In 1900 the shipments of that district were upwards of three million tons."

—H. M. Utley and B. M. Cutcheon, *Michigan as a province, territory and state*, v. 4, pp. 291-295. 1849-1860.—Republican ascendancy.—Constitution of 1850 compared with constitution of 1835.—"Governor Barry was reelected in 1849. . . .

[and was followed in 1851 by Robert McClelland, who was] reelected for two years in 1852, but resigned to become a member of the cabinet of President Pierce. Andrew Parsons, the lieutenant-governor, was left to serve out the unexpired portion of his term. . . . From 1841, the Democratic party had been in power in the State, but in 1854 the newly formed Republican party obtained the ascendancy [see U.S.A.: 1854-1855] and maintained it unbroken for twenty-eight years, electing Kinsley S. Bingham governor in 1854 and 1856, and Moses Wisner in 1858. Austin Blair was elected in 1860 and became the 'war governor' of the State."—T. M. Cooley, *Michigan*, pp. 298, 304-305.—"The constitution of 1835 had well served the purposes of the state, but it embraced some features that were at variance with the growing sentiment of the people. . . . The legislature of 1849 submitted the question of a constitutional convention to the voters at the general election. The people showed their practical unanimity by declaring for a convention by a vote of 33,193 in a total vote of 37,291. The convention, composed of one hundred delegates, assembled at Lansing on the first Monday of June, 1850. Their work was completed and submitted to the people the following November. The constitution was adopted by the decisive vote of 36,169 to 9,433. An amendment providing for 'equal suffrage to colored persons,' submitted at the same time, was defeated by a vote of 32,026 to 12,840. The constitution of 1850 in some respects was a radical departure from the one of 1835. The elective was substituted for the appointive system in the selection of the heads of various departments of government. . . . Provision was made for a judiciary composed of eight circuit judges with supreme court powers. . . . County courts were abolished, and provisions made whereby grand juries might be dispensed with. . . . The rights of married women were now guaranteed by the constitution. . . . Free schools were made a part of the educational system. . . . The credit of the state was not to be given to any person, association, or corporation. A general banking law could not be enacted until it first received the affirmative vote of the people. Except in the instances of repelling invasion, suppressing insurrection, and defending the state in time of war, no debt could be incurred beyond \$50,000. . . . The legislature was to meet every two years instead of yearly, as under the former constitution. . . . The legislature again called the attention of congress to the urgent need of a ship canal around the Falls of the Sault Ste. Marie. In 1852, Congress made a grant to the state of 750,000 acres

of public lands to aid in the project. . . . The state was successful in securing the construction of the work within the appropriation, and in 1855, it was opened for the passage of navigation. . . . By the constitution [of 1850] the creation of an independent supreme court had been postponed for a period of at least six years. Legislation to that end was enacted during the session of 1857, when provisions were made for a supreme court of four members, to be organized January 1, 1858. Except as to the number of members, and that it met alternately at Lansing and Detroit, the court remains essentially as then constituted. By election, George Martin became the first chief justice. . . . The year of the organization of the supreme court, 1858, also witnessed the creation of ten circuits within the state, with a circuit judge presiding over each. In a general way, their powers and jurisdiction have remained unchanged through succeeding years."—L. T. Hemans, *History of Michigan*, pp. 195, 197-198, 201-202, 211-212.

1850-1860.—Railroad conspiracy case.—Strong anti-slavery sentiment in the state.—Passage of the personal liberty law.—"About . . . [1851] the Michigan Central Railroad Company suffered the loss of its depot at Detroit by a mysterious fire. Suspicion was directed towards a large number of citizens, residing near the railroad, between Grass Lake and Jackson. It was charged that they had been the authors of depredations upon the property and business of the company since 1849. It was claimed that their motive was revenge and retaliation for losses occasioned by the killing of stock upon the road, for which the company would pay no compensation. In April, 1851, the grand jury of Wayne county indicted about fifty of the citizens of Leoni and Michigan Center for conspiracy. Many of these were men of standing in the communities. They were tried at Detroit, the trial consuming the greater part of the summer of 1851. Some of the most eminent attorneys of the country, among whom was William H. Seward of New York, participated in the trial. It resulted in the conviction of twelve of the number indicted, who were sentenced to terms of imprisonment varying from five to ten years. Public opinion was far from satisfied with the fairness of the trial or the guilt of the accused, and they were all soon pardoned. The case was the occasion of great public interest at the time and is known to history as the railroad conspiracy case. . . . The question of slavery had been, for years, one of growing perplexity in state. . . . From a combination of causes, anti-slavery sentiment was strong in Michigan. . . . Geographically situated within easy access to Canada, its southeastern portion became one of the best traveled routes of the underground railway. [See SLAVERY: 1840-1860.] The passage of the Fugitive Slave Law [see U.S.A.: 1850 (March); 1850 (April-September)], brought loud murmurs of discontent. It loosened political ties and created discordant elements. . . . A more effective protest was registered against the Fugitive Slave Law by the passage of the stringent Personal Liberty Law, by the terms of which the right of trial by jury, and the benefit of habeas corpus, were insured to every person claimed as a fugitive slave. Their defense was made obligatory upon the prosecuting attorneys of the state. Common jails were closed against their detention, and at least two witnesses were required to make a *prima facie* case against any person claimed to be a slave. With such a law, backed by strong public opinion, the Fugitive Slave Law became but little more than a

source of irritation to keep alive the sentiments of opposition to slavery, as a hateful institution. There was no session from 1854 to 1860 that was unmarked by resolution or enactment indicative of the tense feeling on the great slavery question."—L. T. Hemans, *History of Michigan*, pp. 200-201, 204, 209-210.

1850-1880.—Reclamation of wet lands.—Development of water transportation.—Railroad building.—Financial conditions.—In 1850, Congress granted Michigan, among other states, the wet lands within her limits for reclamation. In this state, as well as Wisconsin and Minnesota, the selection was made not by state agents, as it was customary to provide in some of the other states, but by federal officers—either the Surveyor-General or the Commissioner of the General Land Office. . . . The total amount of land granted by Congress for the construction of canals from 1852 to [1878] . . . was 1,250,000 acres. . . . Water transportation was also promoted by deepening the channel between Lakes St. Clair and Huron. On account of the vast natural resources of the state, the entire district about the lakes demanded improved facilities for transportation by water. . . . The lands granted for the building of wagon roads exceeded 221,000 acres by June 20, 1864, after which date the practice ceased. . . . In 1860 there were less than 800 miles of railroad in operation in the state; ten years later there were over 1,700 miles; and by 1876 there were 3,615 miles. The crisis of 1873 abruptly checked construction and the following year only 61 miles were added. However, there were in 1874 thirty-four corporations operating in the state, with about three-fifths of their mileage lying within its boundaries. For the period from 1865 to 1875 which marked the greatest activity in railroad building, the average annual construction was 330 miles, but the climax was reached in 1872 when 901 miles were added. The greatest mileage in 1876 was operated by the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern with its branches, the Grand Rapids and Indiana ranked next, the Flint and Pere Marquette, the Chicago and Michigan Lake Shore, and the Michigan Central followed in the order named. The railroads . . . were the chief recipients of federal aid. All attempts to secure land grants in their behalf failed until June 3, 1856, but from that date until the close of this period almost 3,356,000 acres were given the state for their benefit. The mileage of exclusively land grant railroads, however, did not exceed 1,005 by June 30, 1880. . . . The bonded indebtedness of the state had reached very nearly \$4,000,000 by the close of 1866 and annual reductions brought the debt down to approximately \$2,385,000 in 1870. The crisis of 1873 caused the proceeds from the sale of lands to fall from over \$230,000 in 1873 to less than \$62,000 the next year. The years of 1874 and 1875 were the most important politically with reference to the management of the state finances. The Constitution provided for a sinking fund to be applied solely to the payment and extinguishment of the principal of the state debt, with certain qualifications. The specific taxes applicable to the purpose not only met the interest on the entire indebtedness, both bonded and trust, but afforded a surplus more than sufficient to pay the maturing principal of the bonded debt. The surplus from this source averaged about \$210,000 per annum during the early years of the decade. It was this constantly increasing surplus that the Democrats strongly objected to, alleging that it was loaned to favored banks, in which state officials were interested, at a lower rate of interest than

was generally current, and with poor security. They urged in 1874 that due to this accumulation of state funds in 1874 the state taxes should not be assessed this year, but their demand was not complied with. This agitation was certainly an influence in bringing about legislation in the session of 1875 authorizing the purchase of unmatured bonds at such rates as the Governor, State Treasurer and Auditor General should see fit. Under this act bonds to the amount of \$125,000 were purchased at a premium of a fraction over three per cent. The Republicans could substantiate their boast that in the face of accumulation of the surplus, taxation had been reduced. From approximately \$500,000 in 1866 it had risen and fallen until in 1870 it was less than \$483,000. In 1872, however, it rose to over \$920,000, and in the year of the crisis the receipts fell short of the disbursements by over \$170,000. The specific taxes for the period from 1866 to 1875 were received mainly from railroads, insurance companies, mines and banks, and the total receipts of this nature were almost three times as great at the close of the decade as at the beginning. The entire appropriations to institutions charitable, reformatory, penal, and educational, increased from almost \$178,000 to \$427,000. It was not strange, then, that the dominant party should point with pride to the financial condition of the state, especially as it appeared before the panic, and that they should claim to have secured a surplus in the treasury notwithstanding the reduction of taxation. The charges brought against the financing of the surplus, and the censure naturally attached by the Democrats in 1873 to the railroad policy of the Republicans both aided to give the combined opposition great gains in the fall election of 1874. The suspicion aroused by the accumulation of over \$1,000,000, with no intention of exempting the state from taxation for one year, obviously helped turn the tide in state politics against the dominant party."—H. M. Dilla, *Politics of Michigan, 1865-1878* (Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University, ed., *Studies in history, economics and public law*, 1912, pp. 244-250).

1861-1865.—Part taken in Civil War.—"The 21st legislature of the State of Michigan met at Lansing on January 1, 1861. . . . On the next day Governor Austin Blair delivered his inaugural. . . . On February 2, 1861, the Governor approved the following resolution of the two houses of the legislature: 'Resolved, That Michigan adheres to the government as ordained by the Constitution, and for sustaining it intact hereby pledges and tenders to the general government *all its military power and material resources*.' . . . On April 24 the Adjutant General issued his order (by direction of the governor) organizing the First Regiment, Michigan Infantry. . . . [It] was one of the first to advance into Virginia, and, on the 24th of May took possession of Alexandria. . . . [The legislature passed] an act to amend the act of March 16, 1861, 'to provide a military force.' This act it elaborated and extended so as to provide for one hundred companies to be recruited from the Volunteer Militia. . . . During the first year of the war . . . the State of Michigan, recruited, organized and put in the field (besides the three months' regiment) sixteen regiments of infantry, three regiments of cavalry (1st, 2nd and 3rd), eight batteries of light artillery, one regiment of engineers and mechanics, two companies U. S. sharpshooters, and two companies of cavalry, which joined a Missouri regiment, known as the 'Merrill Horse,' making a total equivalent of twenty-two full regiments, raised and sent to the front in less

than twelve months, out of a population of about 750,000. . . . During the second year of the war . . . Michigan raised, equipped and sent to the seat of war eleven regiments of infantry (17th to 27th inclusive), eight regiments of cavalry (4th to 11th inclusive), four batteries of field artillery, (Co.'s I, K, and L, and M), one regiment sharpshooters, and one company of cavalry (L, Merrill Horse), an equivalent of twenty-one regiments. Of these the 17th, 20th, 24th, 25th, 26th and 27th infantry regiments were sent to the army of the Potomac, and shared in all its campaigns (except the regiments attached to the Ninth Army Corps), until the end of the war. . . . During the remaining two years of the war, the energies of the state were necessarily given principally to filling up the ranks of the regiments already in the field, some of them reduced to mere companies by the casualties of battle and sickness."—H. M. Utley and B. M. Cutcheon, *Michigan as a province, territory and state*, v. 3, pp. 435-436, 441-443, 450, 452-453.

ALSO IN: T. M. Cooley, *Michigan*.

1865-1881.—Attempted revision of constitution.—Organization of state board of charities and correction.—Forest fires.—"Section 2 of Article XX of the Constitution of 1850 provided that at the general election to be held in the year 1866, and in each sixteenth year thereafter, and also at such other times as the legislature may by law provide, the question of a general revision of the constitution shall be submitted to the electors. . . . In his inaugural message to the legislature of 1865 Governor Henry H. Crapo called attention to this provision and recommended that the necessary steps be taken to carry it into effect. . . . [At the general election held November 6, 1866, a revision was decided upon, and a] constitution was submitted to the electors at the general election on the first Monday of April, 1868. At this election the number of votes cast on the adoption of the constitution was 182,311, of which 71,729 were in favor of its adoption and 110,582 against, a negative majority of 38,853. . . . A post-mortem to discover the cause of this untimely end of the good work of the convention leads to the conclusion that it was largely political."—H. M. Utley and B. M. Cutcheon, *Michigan as a province, territory and state*, v. 4, pp. 29, 39.—January 1, 1860, Henry H. Crapo was succeeded in the governorship by Henry P. Baldwin, who held office for two terms, retiring at the beginning of 1873. During his administration, a commission investigating public institutions "made a report in which it recommended that the state assume control of its dependent children and provide for and educate them. This was the inauguration of the State Public School, soon thereafter established at Coldwater, which was the first institution of its kind in this or any other country. . . . The school was completed and opened in 1874 and was enlarged in 1875 to a capacity of two hundred and fifty children. It was organized upon the congregate and cottage plan combined. . . . The State Board of Charities and Corrections was organized in 1871. . . . One of the most notable events of the period . . . was the great destruction of life and property by the forest fires which swept across the state in the autumn of 1871. . . . [On the] night of October 8, and on the following day and night, the fires crossed the entire state from Lake Michigan to Lake Huron. The city of Holland in Ottawa county was entirely destroyed, and the city of Manistee in the county of that name, was nearly wiped out. . . . Holland and Manistee were lumber towns. . . . Huron and

Sanilac counties, though largely devoted to lumbering, were nevertheless, quite well settled by an agricultural population and abounded in prosperous and well cultivated farms and orchards. Throughout this whole region, a tract at least forty miles square, scarcely a vestige of life was left. . . . There were along the Huron shore or near it the following villages of two hundred to six hundred inhabitants: Glen Haven, White Rock, Forestville, Sand Beach, Port Hope, Elm Creek, Huron City, Forest Bay, Center Harbor, Rock Falls, Verona Mills. These villages were almost wholly obliterated and the people who lived in them were left entirely destitute, without food and with only the clothing which they wore. . . . Governor Baldwin took hold of the matter and appointed relief committees. . . . The committee rebuilt one thousand two hundred and five dwellings; distributed clothing of the estimated value of fifty thousand dollars, and provisions of the estimated value of thirty-five thousand dollars. All this was outside the relief work done by the committees at Saginaw and Port Huron, by the mayor of Detroit and by numerous individuals operating independently. No comprehensive statistics were ever gathered of the losses of life and property in these fires, nor of the money collected and disbursed for the relief of sufferers. On the 5th of September, 1881, almost exactly ten years later, a second visitation of fire swept through four counties, covering a considerable part of the region which suffered so severely before. . . . For three consecutive days the conflagration raged with the violence of that of ten years before, and with even more disastrous results, because at this latter date there was a greatly increased population and more valuable improvements in the way of buildings, orchards, fences, bridges, than formerly. The wind blew with such violence as to uproot large forest trees and lift the roofs from buildings. At the same time, the temperature outside the fire swept district was one hundred and upwards in the shade. Under these conditions, it may well be conceived that the sufferings of those exposed to the disastrous fires were something appalling. . . . Half naked creatures made their way into village streets, often bearing the charred remains of their dead with them. Some took refuge in the waters of the lake, wading out until only their heads were above water, but even here they were suffocated by the intense heat, the smoke and the flying cinders. Animals, wild and tame, were destroyed in vast numbers or herded together by the instinct of self-preservation."—H. M. Utley and B. M. Cutcheon, *Michigan as a province, territory and state*, v. 4, pp. 67-68, 77-78, 80-81, 83-85.—At this second fire the number of buildings destroyed was estimated at 3,437 and the loss at \$2,003,390.

1873-1885.—Creation of a state board of health.—First state fish hatchery.—Development of rail and water transportation.—Other legislation.—"There was much important legislation during the first term of Governor Bagley. Chief of this was probably the act creating a state board of health. . . . One other matter of some moment was brought forward. On account of its extended coast line and vast expanse of interior lakes, fishing had been a very profitable industry. . . . But for years the catch had been decreasing. . . . The legislature of 1873 created a fish commission [to remedy this evil.] . . . The first state hatchery was established at Pokagon, and at the end of the first season it turned out five million fry which were carefully deposited in suitable waters. . . . At the election of 1876 . . . [Charles M. Crosswell

was elected governor and held office until 1881]. At the biennial election in 1880, David H. Jerome of Saginaw, was chosen governor. . . . During his administration of a single term [1881-1883] as governor there were some important events, chief of which was the transfer to the general government of the St. Mary's Falls ship canal. . . . By the extension of one Jackson, Lansing and Saginaw railroad northward to the Straits of Mackinaw, and the opening of the Detroit, Mackinaw and Marquette railway the two peninsulas were for the first time connected by rail. This marked an epoch in the commercial development of the state. . . . Among the important things done by the legislature at this session [1883-1885] was . . . the creation of a bureau of labor statistics, of which the governor appointed John W. McGrath as the first commissioner. . . . Insurance companies came in for some attention. A stringent law was passed to prevent companies combining to fix a rate, and to protect companies which were disposed to act independently. . . . The labor element succeeded in enacting a law forbidding the employment of children under fourteen years of age. Coupled with this a law compelling school attendance for at least six months every year was an advanced step in the interests of education. . . . At the biennial election of 1884 Governor Begole [elected 1882] was a candidate for reelection. He was defeated, however, by Russell A. Alger, republican. . . . One of the events of Governor Alger's administration was the transfer of the Portage Lake and Lake Superior ship canal to the general government. . . . It was sold to the United States for \$350,000, on the condition that it should be maintained for free navigation. . . . An important piece of legislation was the creation of a pardon board of four members."—H. M. Utley and B. M. Cutcheon, *Michigan as a province, territory and state*, v. 4, pp. 106, 108, 131, 141-142, 155-156, 158-159.

1884.—First state Young Women's Christian Association organized. See YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1884.

1885-1895.—New banking law.—Ballot reform.—Special charter of the Michigan Central repealed.—Railroad strike.—Abolition of prison contract labor.—New election law.—Gerrymandering.—"After serving a single term [1885-1887], Governor Alger was succeeded by Cyrus G. Luce, . . . a man intimately acquainted with the State and the management of its institutions. During his administration [1887-1891] a banking law, modeled on the national statute, was submitted to the people and adopted. Under the provisions of this law more than one-half of the commercial banking capital of the State finds investment."—T. M. Cooley, *Michigan*, p. 302.—"For the first time since the republican party was organized in 1854, a period of nearly forty years, the democrats were successful in a state election in 1890. . . . Edwin B. Winans was elected governor by a plurality over James M. Turner, republican, of eleven thousand, five hundred and twenty. . . . The democratic platform in the campaign of 1890 declared for ballot reform. . . . The legislature of 1891 . . . improved the law passed by the preceding legislature. Most of the recommendations of the governor were incorporated in this act, especially those relating to the Australian ballot and the printing and handling of the ballot. . . . This legislature also changed the method of choosing presidential electors by providing for their election by congressional districts, instead of upon a general state ticket. . . . There was one untoward incident in the administration of Governor Winans.

. . . [In] 1891, the secretary of state, Daniel E. Soper, was found to have been guilty of malfeasance and misfeasance in office [and forced to resign]. . . . One of the important acts of the legislature of 1891 was that requiring the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railway to operate under the general railroad law of the state instead of its special charter. . . . A few years later the special charter of the Michigan Central, the last of the special chartered roads, was repealed and the road was brought under the general law. . . . At the election in 1892 Governor Rich was elected. . . . In 1894 he was re-elected by a plurality of more than one-hundred thousand over Spencer O. Fisher, democrat. . . . The state had suffered from labor disturbances which interrupted industrial operations in many ways. The railroads were more or less hampered by striking employes. It was necessary to send troops to Negaunee in 1894 to suppress riots started by striking miners. . . . The legislature of 1895 took steps to abolish the contract system and to utilize the labor of prisoners for the benefit of the state. . . . The legislature passed an act to stop the fusion of political parties, by forbidding the printing of the name of any candidate more than once upon the Australian ballot. Before the April election a case was made up to test this act and the Supreme Court sustained the law."—H. M. Utley and B. M. Cutcheon, *Michigan as a province, territory and state*, v. 4, pp. 170, 182-183, 186-187, 215, 220.—"The state of Michigan suffered a good deal from frequent unscrupulous gerrymandering, as the constitution did not prescribe a definite period of apportionment. The Republicans in 1885, and the Democrats in 1891, in the first case upon a majority of less than 4,000 in a total vote of 400,000, so gerrymandered the senatorial districts as to yield their own party twenty-one senators and their opponents eleven. Under the apportionment of 1891, eight counties with a population of 40,000 were formed into a district having one senator, and nine adjoining counties with 97,000 inhabitants were given the same representation. Both of the acts mentioned were held unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, which decided among other things that it was not a due exercise of legislative discretion under the constitution, to give a county of less population than another greater representation, and that the discretion of the legislature must be honestly exercised so as to preserve the equality of representation as nearly as may be. The judges, in their written opinions, used very strong language in denouncing the practice of gerrymandering. Chief Justice Morse declared that the courts alone could in this matter save the rights of the people and assure them of equality in representation; and another justice said, 'Such laws breed disrespect for all law, for lawmakers become law breakers.' . . . In deciding upon questions of apportionment the courts often face a difficult problem in the fact that by declaring the act under consideration void, the state is left at the mercy of still more intolerable conditions under earlier acts. In the Michigan cases of 1892, the Supreme Court held void not only the apportionment of 1891, but also the act of 1885, under which three elections had been held; and prescribed that election notices should be issued by the secretary of state under the old law of 1881, unless a new and valid apportionment should be made by the legislature."—P. S. Reinsch, *American legislatures and legislative methods*, pp. 208-209, 211.

1896-1900.—Part played in the Spanish-American War.—Governor Pingree's efforts toward taxation of corporations.—"In 1896 Mr. Pingree

received the Republican nomination for governor. . . . In his inaugural message to the legislature of 1897 Governor Pingree sounded the keynote of the policy which he faithfully followed through his entire gubernatorial career—primary election reform and railroad taxation. . . . It happened that the Legislature was in session when the war broke out. It promptly passed an act for a war loan of a half million dollars. Governor Pingree threw himself with all his wonderful energy into the task of raising, equipping and sending into the field at the earliest possible moment the state's quota. . . . The whole number of men mustered was six thousand six hundred and seventy-seven, and the total number of deaths about two hundred and fifty. . . . Beside the infantry regiments furnished to the volunteer service Michigan was represented in the naval arm. . . . Through the whole session of the Legislature of 1897 Governor Pingree and his close friends in the house had strenuously and persistently urged a measure [the Atkinson Bill] for the increase of taxation of corporations. . . . In the regular session of the Legislature of 1899 Governor Pingree devoted the main portion of his very lengthy and elaborate message to this same subject. . . . [The Atkinson Bill] finally passed in March after having been modified in some respects. . . . The Supreme Court in the following April in a telephone case declared the provisions of a similar act with reference to ad valorem taxation of corporations in violation of the constitution. Thereupon Governor Pingree called an extra session of the Legislature in December, 1899, and an amendment to the constitution was proposed to cover the point. . . . At the general election in November, 1900, it carried by the overwhelming popular majority. . . . The Governor . . . urged the re-enactment of a measure along the lines of the Atkinson law, . . . but the Senate refused to pass any measure to which the House would consent, and so the effort for legislation satisfactory to the Governor was fruitless. . . . The corporations were sufficiently powerful through their friends in the Senate to defeat his purpose. . . . One of the notable events attendant upon the Legislature of 1899, was the passage of an act for the municipal ownership of street railways in Detroit. Governor Pingree was greatly incensed when all the street railway corporations in that city practically consolidated, by passing into the hands of a single corporation owned and controlled by New York capitalists. . . . Other measures of importance were an inheritance tax, a board of registration of physicians, and a board of library commissioners to look after the establishment and development of public libraries throughout the state. A board of arbitration in labor disputes opened the way for a better understanding between employers and their workmen. A Northern Normal school was established at Marquette. An unfortunate incident developed during the last term of Governor Pingree which cannot be ignored. This was criminal conduct on the part of some of his appointees in the military department. . . . A scheme was hatched through which the state was defrauded to the extent of some thirty-five thousand dollars and the several parties concerned in it divided the profits. [The guilty were eventually brought to justice and the state was re-imbursed.] . . . At the election of 1900 Aaron T. Bliss of Saginaw, was chosen governor by a plurality of about eighty thousand over William C. Maybury, democrat."—H. M. Utley and B. M. Cutcheon, *Michigan as a province, territory and state*, v. 4, pp. 229-230, 234, 241, 244-250, 252.

1900-1915.—Direct nomination legislation.—Home rule for cities.—"Since 1900 the Michigan legislature has passed more than thirty acts, original and amendatory, having to do with direct nominations. [See also INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States.] From 1901 to 1905 the legislation was entirely local; from 1905 to 1909 it was both local and general but optional with the parties and with the localities; since 1909 it has been general and mandatory. . . . The movement for direct nominations started within the majority party. After the beginning of the movement, strong Democratic endorsements seem to have had slight effect on the course of events. Democratic influence in the legislature was practically nil; and in the legislature of 1905, which passed the first general law, there was not a single Democratic member. In the course of debates and newspaper discussions laws of other States were occasionally cited, and among these the Minnesota law was most frequently mentioned. Michigan's direct primary legislation, as it now stands [written in 1915], is still far from finality. The most thoughtful politicians are not satisfied with it. . . . Opportunism has marked the course of direct primary legislation. Its early defeats in the legislature were partly occasioned by factional antagonisms growing out of the personality and the policies of Governor Pingree. The forty per cent clause in the law of 1905 was probably designed to protect the machine candidate for governor in 1906. The presidential primary bill of 1912, the act for the election of state central committees in 1913, and the revision of the general law in 1915 were all influenced more or less by Republican factional fights. The legislation shows many defects and inconsistencies. . . . For example, in the law of 1909 there was no provision for the filling of vacancies among nominees for the legislature. In 1910, where the county commissioner of schools was elected in the fall, direct primaries applied to his office; where he was elected in the spring they did not apply. . . . The law of 1901 applied only to the city of Grand Rapids; the law of 1903 applied to the whole county; from 1905 to 1909 there were two laws applying to the county. . . . Since the legislature, in the amending act of 1907, absentmindedly omitted to reenact the provision for the direct nomination of city officers, the city of Grand Rapids, which was the first to have direct primaries, had to nominate in 1908 under the old system."—A. C. Millsbaugh, *Party organization and machinery in Michigan since 1890* (*Board of University Studies of the Johns Hopkins University*, pp. 72-76).—In 1905, Fred M. Warner succeeded Aaron T. Bliss as governor and held office until 1911. During his first term (1905) the compulsory education law was passed but was revised in 1911. In 1908 the constitution was revised and went into effect the next year. The constitution of 1900 authorized cities and villages to frame, adopt and amend their charters, and to pass laws and ordinances in regard to their municipal concerns. Under this improved constitution, the Michigan legislature of 1900 adopted the necessary legislation for the formulation of action and for the limitation of taxes and debts. In 1900, a child labor law was passed and was amended in 1911. In 1910, Chase S. Osborne was elected governor; and in the next election, 1912, W. N. Ferris, was elected. At this election an amendment was passed providing that amendments to the constitution could be made by the initiative and referendum without recourse to the legislature; and in 1915 an amendment was passed for the recall of

ected officials. In 1913, a law was passed governing the sale of text books.

1911-1916.—Progressive legislation along economic lines.—Constitutional amendments.—In 1911 the legislature passed a bill designed to subject to taxation the mineral rights as well as the surface valuation of the lands in the state. The same body approved an act which gives to married women a legal right to their property by contract as they desire. Before adjournment the legislature ratified the Sixteenth Amendment to the Federal constitution granting Congress the right to levy an income tax. In 1912 an employers' liability law was passed, which is optional instead of compulsory, but employers lose their rights of defense against suits for damages if they do not conform to it. In 1915 the United States district court at Detroit held a blue sky law, passed in 1913, invalid. An amendment to the constitution was adopted in November, 1916, providing for state-wide prohibition after May 1, 1918.

1913.—Apportionment of representation. See APPORTIONMENT: Gerrymannder.

1917.—Legislation.—"The regular session of the 49th Legislature of Michigan met at Lansing January 3, 1917, and continued in session for seventy-one days. . . . Eight Joint Resolutions and six Constitutional Amendments were passed. . . . The two houses met in joint assembly on the second day of the session, Jan. 4, to receive the benediction of the outgoing Governor [Ferris] and the recommendations of the newly inaugurated Executive [L. Sleeper]. . . . Laws were enacted; providing for conservation and reclamation of the State's agricultural resources through a soil survey, drainage, and educational means; promoting interest in the public health and safety; stimulating road building throughout the State and taking preliminary steps toward the adoption of the budget system at the next regular session of the Legislature. . . . An act was passed authorizing the formation of health districts composed of continuous townships and villages and providing for a health board with power to appoint a health officer. A housing law, accepted by sociologists as the best in the United States, was adopted. An appropriation was made of three-hundred-fifty thousand dollars for the erection, construction, furnishing and equipping of new hospital buildings for the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor. . . . A joint resolution submitted to the voters of the State an amendment to the State constitution relative to the franchise. This amendment, ratified by the people of the State April 2, 1917, provided, 'that no qualified elector in the actual service of the United States or of this State, or any enrolled member of any citizens' military or naval training camp held under the authority of the Government of the United States or the State of Michigan, shall be deprived of his vote by reason of his absence from the township, ward or State in which he resides.'"—C. H. Landrum, *Michigan war legislation, 1917* (*Michigan History Magazine, Oct., 1920, p. 799*).—Among other emergency measures was an act permitting municipalities to seize food and fuel and resell it to the people at reasonable prices.

1918.—Part played in World War.—In the World War Michigan furnished 135,485 men or 3.61 per cent of the whole force. "For the defense and protection of the State there has been organized and equipped a force of 200 men in a State constabulary known as the Permanent Force, Michigan State Troops. . . . The Permanent Force broke an I. W. W. strike which threatened to close the iron mines of the Upper Peninsula [in 1917]."

—R. C. Vandercook, *Michigan in the Great War* (*Michigan History Magazine, Apr., 1918*).

ALSO IN: C. H. Landrum, *Michigan war legislation, 1917* (*Michigan Historical Magazine, Oct., 1920*).

1918.—Woman suffrage granted. See U.S.A.: 1918 (November).

1919.—Legislation.—Administrative reforms.—"On May 2, 1919, the Governor affixed his signature to an Act creating a community council commission. . . . The commission was given power to investigate and consider all problems of reconstruction and matters involving the general public welfare. . . . An Act was passed substituting a State Health Commission for the State Board of Health. . . . The housing law of 1917 was amended to relieve the distressing conditions of housing in the larger cities and to safeguard health. . . . The enactment of legislation looking toward the development of a State park system . . . is one of the important Acts of the Legislative session of 1919 . . . and resulted in the creation of a State Park Commission. . . . The Legislature of 1919 was especially active in labor interests. . . . The Workmen's Compensation Act was extended to provide greater protection to workers. . . . Discrimination between men and women in wages in manufacture or production of any article was made illegal, and the employment of women or boys under 18 years of age was restricted to a 10-hour day, or 54-hour week."—C. Landrum, *Michigan War Legislation 1919* (*Michigan History Magazine, Jan.-Apr., 1921*).—An act was passed for the promotion of deep water connection between the Great Lakes and the Atlantic ocean; and three administrative changes were made: the creation of a state constabulary; the adoption of a budget system; and the creation of a public utilities commission. On January 2, the Eighteenth Federal Amendment (prohibition) was ratified; and on June 10, the Nineteenth (suffrage) was ratified.

1919-1922.—Trial of Senator Truman H. Newberry.—As a result of a close and heated campaign for the senatorship, in 1918, Truman H. Newberry and 135 others were indicted for violation of the law which limits the use of money to be expended in elections. (The amount in this case was said to have been about \$200,000.) The case involved a constitutional point of interest. The investigation first began in the New York Federal Court and objection was made. The United States Supreme Court was appealed to and held that a Federal court may try a case regardless of the section in which it arises. The case was finally called for trial at Grand Rapids in January, 1920. On March 20, the jury gave out its verdict convicting seventeen of the eighty-four defendants whose indictments had not been thrown out during the trial. Senator Newberry was sentenced by the trial judge to serve two years in Leavenworth prison and pay \$10,000 fine. The sixteen others were subjected to sentences of fine or imprisonment or both. The case was appealed to higher Federal courts by the Newberry counsel. The United States Supreme Court set aside the conviction May 2, 1921; on January 12, 1922, the United States Senate decided by vote of forty-six to forty-one that Newberry was entitled to his seat. On November 18, 1922, after the elections, Newberry sent his resignation to Governor Groesbeck. By resigning at this time he saved himself from a renewed attempt to have his seat declared vacant.

1920.—Attempt to abolish parochial schools.—Court decision on proportional representation.—On July 9, 1920, Attorney-general Groesbeck ruled that a proposed amendment to the state

constitution designed to abolish parochial schools should not be placed upon the ballot in November. In his opinion supporting the ruling, the attorney-general held that the proposed amendment was in conflict with the Fourteenth Amendment of the Federal constitution prohibiting the states from abridging the privileges and immunities of citizens. The attorney-general stated that in making it unlawful for any person to instruct children between the ages of five and sixteen in other than public schools, the state was attempting to abridge the "privileges and immunities" of citizens guaranteed in the Federal constitution.

"A circuit court in Michigan has recently [1920] declared unconstitutional the provision of the charter of Kalamazoo establishing the Hare system of proportional representation in the election of city commissioners. The decision was rendered in a *quo warranto* suit brought by a man who had been an unsuccessful candidate for election under the system. The ground for the decision was the opinion of the judge that the section of the state constitution (III. 1) declaring that every person possessing the designated qualifications 'shall be an elector and entitled to vote' implies that each person is entitled to vote for every officer for which he is qualified to vote, whereas under the charter provision in question the ballot of any voter is counted for one candidate only, although seven candidates are to be elected; and another section of the constitution (VIII. 8) provides expressly that 'no city or village shall have power to abridge the right of elective franchise.'"—F. W. Coker, *Municipal affairs* (*American Political Science Review*, Nov., 1920).—In the 1920 elections Attorney-General Groesbeck was elected governor.

1922.—Coal strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1922: Nation-wide coal strike.

See also MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Franchises in the United States.

Also IN: W. Cook, *Michigan, its history and government*.—G. N. Fuller, *Economic and social beginnings of Michigan*.—F. B. Streeter, *Political parties in Michigan, 1887-1860* (*Michigan Historical Commission*, 1918).—L. A. Chase, *Michigan and the early history of transportation* (*Magazine of History*, Apr., 1911, p. 165).—L. T. Hemans, *Life and times of Stevens Thomson Mason, the boy governor of Michigan*.

MICHIGAN, Lake, one of the five Great Lakes separating the north central United States from Canada. It was discovered between 1634-1640. See CANADA: 1634-1673.

MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY. See MICHIGAN: 1804-1884; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1804-1837; EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: United States: Training teachers.

MICHIGANIA, Proposed state of. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1784.

MICHILIMACKINAC. See MACKINAW

MICHMASH, War of.—One of Saul's campaigns against the Philistines received this name from Jonathan's exploit in scaling the height of Michmash and driving the garrison in panic from their stronghold.—Based on I. Samuel, 14.

MICKLEGARTH.—In the early Middle Ages, Constantinople, capital of the Eastern Roman empire, was the wonder of the barbarian world, "the mysterious 'Micklegarth,' the Great City, the Town of towns,' of the northern legends."—R. W. Church, *Beginning of the Middle Ages*, ch. 6.

MICMAC, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Eastern woodlands area.

MICRONESIA, or Mikronesia.—"North of the equator, between New Guinea and the south coast

of Japan, the great ocean is studded with countless little islands, which, running partly parallel with those of Melanesia, form a second and outer zone round the Australian mainland. In consequence of their remarkably small size, they are collectively called Mikronesia, and are conveniently grouped in three archipelagoes. Of these the most easterly is again subdivided into the two clusters of the Gilbert and Marshall Islands [the former belonging to England, the latter under German protection]. Farther west follows the large group of the Carolines [belonging to Spain], including the Pelew Isles, still farther to the west, called also the Western Carolines. North of them are the Ladrões or Mariannes [occupied by the Spaniards since 1565], beyond which, in the same direction, are a number of small groups, the most important of which are the Bonin Isles, on many maps named the Magalhaes, or Anson Archipelago, almost all of which are uninhabited. Most of these groups are inhabited by the fair race scattered over Polynesia, and presenting the most striking contrast to the Papuas of Melanesia."—A. R. Wallace, *Australasia*, ch. 25 (*Stanford's compendium of geography and travel*).—See also PACIFIC OCEAN: People; B. C. 2500-A. D. 1500.

MICROSCOPE. See INVENTIONS: 16th-17th centuries: Instruments; 19th century: Instruments; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th-18th centuries: Introduction of the microscope in medicine.

MICTLAN. See MITLA.

MIDDLE AGES. See EUROPE: Middle Ages; also under such headings as AGRICULTURE: Medieval; COSTUME: 1000-1500; DEMOCRACY: In the Middle Ages; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval; EDUCATION: Medieval; etc.

MIDDLE CLASS. See EUROPE: Modern: Rise of the middle class.

MIDDLE KINGDOM. See CHINA: Names.

MIDDLEBURG, capital of the province of Zeeland, Netherlands. In 1573 it was taken by the Gueux. See NETHERLANDS: 1573-1574.

MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE, Vermont, founded in 1800. See VERMONT: 1791-1914.

MIDDLE-OF-THE-ROAD-POPULISTS, political party in the United States. See U.S.A.: 1896: Party platforms, etc.: Peoples; 1900 (May-November).

MIDDLESEX, county in the south midland part of England. See ENGLAND: 477-527.

Elections. See ENGLAND: 1768-1774.

MIDDLETON, Arthur (1742-1787), American patriot. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of the Declaration of Independence.

MIDDLETON, Conyers (1683-1750), English divine. See DEISM: English.

MIDDLETON, Thomas (c. 1570-1627), English dramatist. See DRAMA: 1592-1648.

MIDHAT PASHA (1822-1884), Turkish statesman. See TURKEY: 1861-1877.

MIDIANITES, Semitic people, distantly related to the Hebrews, and frequently mentioned in the early books of the Old Testament. "The name of Midian, though sometimes given peculiarly to the tribe on the south-east shores of the Gulf of Akaba, was extended to all Arabian tribes on the east of the Jordan."—Dean Stanley, *Lectures on the history of the Jewish church*, v. 1, lect. 15.—See JEWS: Israel under the Judges.

MIDLAND RAILWAY, England. See RAILROADS: 1759-1881.

MIDSUMMER DAY, June 24, a quarter day in England. See QUARTER DAYS.

MIDWAY ISLAND, in the Pacific ocean, midway between Japan and the Hawaiian islands. In

1867 it was annexed to the United States. See U.S.A.: Historical geography.

MIECZISLAUS. See MIESZKO.

MIELNIK PRIVILEGE (1501), granted by the king of Poland, strengthening the power of the nobles. See POLAND: 1333-1572.

MIESZKO I (962-992), king of Poland. See POLAND: Beginnings of national existence.

MIFFLIN, Fort, New Jersey, captured in 1777 by the British. See U.S.A.: 1777 (January-December).

MIGHTY HOST, Knights of the, name for Knights of the Golden Circle. See U.S.A.: 1864 (October): Report on secret disloyal associations.

MIGNET, François August Marie (1796-1884), French historian. See HISTORY: 26.

MIGNONS, name applied to the favorites of Henry III. See FRANCE: 1573-1576.

MIGRATION. See BARBARIAN INVASIONS; COLONIZATION: Defined; EUROPE: Geography; also Introduction to the historic period; Migration; IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Migration; PACIFIC OCEAN: B. C. 2500-A. D. 1500.

MIGRATORY BIRD TREATY ACT (1918). See TREATIES, MAKING AND TERMINATION OF: Treaty-making power.

MIGUEL, Maria Evarist, Don Miguel 1802-1866, pretender to the throne of Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1824-1880.

MIGUELISTAS, political party in Cuba, and in Portugal. See CUBA: 1906-1909; PORTUGAL: 1911-1914.

MIJUSKOVITCH, Lazar, prime minister of Montenegro. See WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: e.

MIKADO.—"Though this is the name by which the whole outer world knows the sovereign of Japan, it is not that now used in Japan itself, except in poetry and on great occasions. The Japanese have got into the habit of calling their sovereign by such alien Chinese titles as Tenshi, 'the Son of Heaven'; Ten-ō, or Tennō, 'the Heavenly Emperor'; Shujō, 'the Supreme Master.' His designation in the official translations of modern public documents into English is 'Emperor.' . . . The etymology of the word Mikado is not quite clear. Some—and theirs is the current opinion—trace it to 'mi,' 'august,' and 'kado,' a 'gate,' reminding one of the 'Sublime Porte' of Turkey. . . . The word Mikado is often employed to denote the monarch's Court as well as the monarch himself."—B. H. Chamberlain, *Things Japanese*, p. 220.—"In official documents, 'Kotēi,' meaning imperial ruler, is employed and 'Hēika' has the force of 'His Majesty.' There are numerous other expressions relating to the Throne and its occupant used in rhetoric or poetry. The appellations by which the Mikados both male and female, in the line, are known in history are all posthumous. Only expert scholars and antiquarians can recall the names by which the rulers of Japan were known during their lifetime. The official action of 1912 which declares that Mutsuhito (the Great) shall lose his personality and be known as the Meiji Tennō may follow national custom, but to the Western mind seems abominable. The Mikado has no family name, but only a personal designation. This in itself is a note of very great antiquity. The fact that the Mikado has no name, like that of the Guelphs, Hapsburgs, Hohenzollerns, or others who have arisen out of the impersonal ooze of barbarism, shows that his predecessors ruled in a day more ancient than that of any Occidental house now reigning or acting as figureheads of social order in Europe. The line of Mikados has ruled from time immemorial, or as the Constitution declares 'from ages eternal.'—

W. E. Griffis, *Mikado*, p. 48.—See also JAPAN: Religions; 1150-1199.

MIKASUKIS, North American Indian tribe. See MUSKHOGEAN, OR MASKOKI, FAMILY.

MILAN, chief city in Lombardy, capital of the Province of Milan, and second largest city in Italy, with an estimated population in 1915 of 663,059. It is the chief financial center of Italy, and the wealthiest manufacturing and commercial town in the country. The city is rich in works of art, and famous for fine churches, the principal one being the world-renowned Gothic cathedral, the Duomo of Milan, which ranks with St. Peter's at Rome.

B. C. 223-222.—Capital of the Insubrian Gauls (Mediolanum).—Taken by the Romans. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 205-191.

A. D. 268.—Aureolus besieged.—During the miserable and calamitous reign of the Roman emperor, Gallienus, the army on the upper Danube invested their leader, Aureolus, with the imperial purple, and crossed the Alps to place him on the throne. Defeated by Gallienus in a battle fought near Milan, Aureolus and his army took refuge in that city and were there besieged. During the progress of the siege a conspiracy against Gallienus was formed in his own camp, and he was assassinated. The crown was then offered to the soldier Claudius—afterwards called Claudius Gothicus—and he accepted it. The siege of Milan was continued by Claudius, the city was forced to surrender and Aureolus was put to death.—Based on E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 11.

286.—Roman imperial court.—"Diocletian and Maximian were the first Roman princes who fixed, in time of peace, their ordinary residence in the provinces. . . . The court of the emperor of the west [Maximian] was, for the most part, established at Milan, whose situation, at the foot of the Alps, appeared far more convenient than that of Rome, for the important purpose of watching the motions of the barbarians of Germany. Milan soon assumed the splendour of an imperial city. The houses are described as numerous and well-built; the manners of the people as polished and liberal."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 13.

312.—Siege and occupation by Constantine. See ROME: Empire: 305-323.

313.—Constantine's Edict of Toleration. See ROME: Empire: 313; CHRISTIANITY: 312-337.

374-397.—Ambrosian church.—The greatness of the Milanese, in later times, "was chiefly originated and promoted by the prerogatives of their Archbishop, amongst which that of crowning, and so in a manner constituting, the King of Italy, raised him in wealth and splendour above every other prelate of the Roman Church, and his city above every other city of Lombardy in power and pride. . . . It is said that the Church of Milan was founded by St. Barnabas; it is certain that it owed its chief aggrandisement, and the splendour which distinguished it from all other churches, to St. Ambrose [Archbishop from 374 to 397], who, having come to Milan in the time of Valentinian as a magistrate, was by the people made Bishop also, and as such was able to exalt it by the ordination of many inferior dignitaries, and by obtaining supremacy for it over all the Bishops of Lombardy. . . . This church received from St. Ambrose a peculiar liturgy, which was always much loved and venerated by the Milanese, and continued longer in use than any of those which anciently prevailed in other churches of the West. To the singing in divine service, which was then artless and rude, St. Ambrose, taking for models the ancient melodies

still current in his time, the last echoes of the civilisation of distant ages, imparted a more regular rhythm [known as 'the Ambrosian Chant']; which, when reduced by St. Gregory to the grave simplicity of tone that best accords with the majesty of worship, obtained the name of 'Canto fermo'; and afterwards becoming richer, more elaborate, and easier to learn through the many ingenious inventions of Guido d'Arezzo, . . . was brought by degrees to the perfection of modern counterpoint. . . . St. Ambrose also composed prayers for his church, and hymns; amongst others, according to popular belief, that most sublime and majestic one, the *Te Deum*, which is now familiar and dear to the whole of Western Christendom. It is said that his clergy were not forbidden to marry. Hence an opinion prevailed that this church, according to the ancient statutes, ought not to be entirely subject to that of Rome."—G. B. Testa, *History of the war of Frederick I against the communes of Lombardy*, pp. 23-24.

404.—Removal of imperial court. See **ROME**: Empire: 404-408.

452.—Capture by the Huns. See **HUNS**: 452.

539.—Destroyed by Goths.—When Belisarius, in his first campaign for the recovery of Italy from the Goths, had secured possession of Rome, 538, he sent a small force northward to Milan, and that city, hating its Gothic rulers, was gladly surrendered to him. It was occupied by a small Roman garrison and unwisely left to the attacks upon it that were inevitable. Very soon the Goths appeared before its walls, and with them 10,000 Burgundians who had crossed the Alps to their assistance. Belisarius despatched an army to the relief of the city, but the generals in command of it were cowardly and did nothing. After stoutly resisting for six months, suffering the last extremes of starvation and misery, Milan fell, and a terrible vengeance was wreaked upon it. "All the men were slain, and these, if the information given to Procopius was correct, amounted to 300,000. The women were made slaves, and handed over by the Goths to their Burgundian allies in payment of their services. The city itself was razed to the ground: not the only time that signal destruction has overtaken the fair capital of Lombardy."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 5, ch. 11.—See also **ROME**: Medieval city: 535-553.—"The Goths, in their last moments, were revenged by the destruction of a city second only to Rome in size and opulence."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 41.

11th century.—Controversy over corruption of clergy. See **PATARENES**.

11th century.—Acquisition of republican independence. See **ITALY**: 1056-1152.

1162.—Total destruction by Frederick Barba-rossa. See **ITALY**: 1154-1162; **GERMANY**: 1138-1197.

1167.—Rebuilding of the city. See **ITALY**: 1166-1167.

1277-1447.—Rise and reign of the Visconti.—Extension of their tyranny over Lombardy.—Downfall of their house.—"The power of the Visconti in Milan was founded upon that of the Della Torre family, who preceded them as Captains General of the people at the end of the 13th century. Otho, Archbishop of Milan, first laid a substantial basis for the dominion of his house by imprisoning Napoleone Della Torre and five of his relatives in three iron cages in 1277, and by causing his nephew Matteo Visconti to be nominated both by the Emperor and by the people of Milan as imperial Vicar. Matteo, who headed the Ghibelline party in Lombardy, was the model of a prudent Italian

despot. From the date 1311, when he finally succeeded in his attempts upon the sovereignty of Milan [see **ITALY**: 1310-1313: Visitation, etc.], to 1322, when he abdicated in favour of his son Galeazzo, he ruled his states by force of character, craft, and insight, more than by violence or cruelty. Excellent as a general, he was still better as a diplomatist, winning more cities by money than by the sword. All through his life, as became a Ghibelline chief at that time, he persisted in fierce enmity against the Church. . . . Galeazzo, his son, was less fortunate than Matteo, surnamed *Il Grande* by the Lombards. The Emperor Louis of Bavaria threw him into prison on the occasion of his visit to Milan in 1327 [see **ITALY**: 1313-1330], and only released him at the intercession of his friend Castruccio Castracane. To such an extent was the growing tyranny of the Visconti still dependent upon their office delegated from the Empire. . . . Azzo [the son of Galeazzo] bought the city, together with the title of Imperial Vicar, from the same Louis who had imprisoned his father. When he was thus seated in the tyranny of his grandfather, he proceeded to fortify it further by the addition of ten Lombard towns, which he reduced beneath the supremacy of Milan. At the same time he consolidated his own power by the murder of his uncle Marco in 1329, who had grown too mighty as a general. . . . Azzo died in 1339, and was succeeded by his uncle Lucchino [who was poisoned by his wife in 1340]. . . . Lucchino was potent as a general and governor. He bought Parma from Obizzo d'Este, and made the town of Pisto dependent upon Milan. . . . Lucchino left sons, but none of proved legitimacy. Consequently he was succeeded by his brother Giovanni, son of old Matteo *il Grande* and Archbishop of Milan. This man, the friend of Petrarch, was one of the most notable characters of the 14th century. Finding himself at the head of 16 cities, he added Bologna to the tyranny of the Visconti, in 1350, and made himself strong enough to defy the Pope. . . . In 1353 Giovanni annexed Genoa to the Milanese principality, and died in 1354, having established the rule of the Visconti over the whole of the north of Italy, with the exception of Piedmont, Verona, Mantua, Ferrara, and Venice. The reign of the Archbishop Giovanni marks a new epoch in the despotism of the Visconti. They are now no longer the successful rivals of the Della Torre family, or dependents on imperial caprice, but self-made sovereigns, with a well-established power in Milan and a wide extent of subject territory. Their dynasty, though based on force and maintained by violence, has come to be acknowledged; and we shall soon see them allying themselves with the royal houses of Europe. After the death of Giovanni, Matteo's sons were extinct. But Stefano, the last of his family, had left three children, who now succeeded to the lands and cities of the house. They were named Matteo, Bernabo, and Galeazzo. Between these three princes a partition of the heritage of Giovanni Visconti was effected. . . . Milan and Genoa were to be ruled by the three in common." Matteo was put out of the way by his two brothers in 1355. Bernabo reigned brutally at Milan, and Galeazzo with great splendor at Pavia. The latter married his daughter to the Duke of Clarence, son of Edward III. of England, and his son to Princess Isabella, of France. "Galeazzo died in 1378, and was succeeded in his own portion of the Visconti domain by his son Gian Galeazzo," who was able, seven years afterwards, by singular refinements of treachery, to put his uncle to death and take possession of his territories. "The reign of Gian Galeazzo, which began with this coup-de-main (1385-1402), forms a very important

chapter in Italian history. . . . At the time of his accession the Visconti had already rooted out the Correggi and Rossi of Parma, the Scotti of Piacenza, the Pelavicini of San Donnino, the Torielli of Novara, the Ponzoni and Cavalcabò of Cremona, the Beccaria and Languschi of Pavia, the Fisiraghi of Lodi, the Brusati of Brescia. . . . But the Carrara family still ruled at Padua, the Gonzaga at Mantua, the Este at Ferrara, while the great house of Scala was in possession of Verona. Gian Galeazzo's schemes were at first directed against the Scala dynasty. Founded, like that of the Visconti, upon the imperial authority, it rose to its greatest height under the Ghibelline general Can Grande and his nephew Mastino in the first half of the 14th century (1312-1351). Mastino had himself cherished the project of an Italian Kingdom; but he died before approaching its accomplishment. The degeneracy of his house began with his three sons. The two younger killed the eldest; of the survivors the stronger slew the weaker and then died in 1374, leaving his domains to two of his bastards. One of these, named Antonio, killed the other in 1381, and afterwards fell a prey to the Visconti in 1387. In his subjugation of Verona Gian Galeazzo contrived to make use of the Carrara family, although these princes were allied by marriage to the Scaligers, and had everything to lose by their downfall. He next proceeded to attack Padua, and gained the co-operation of Venice. In 1388 Francesco da Carrara had to cede his territory to Visconti's generals, who in the same year possessed themselves for him of the Trevisan Marches. It was then that the Venetians saw too late the error they had committed in suffering Verona and Padua to be annexed by the Visconti. . . . Having now made himself master of the north of Italy with the exception of Mantua, Ferrara, and Bologna, Gian Galeazzo turned his attention to these cities." By intrigues of devilish subtlety and malignity, he drew the Marquis of Ferrara and the Marquis of Mantua into crimes which were their ruin, and made his conquest of those cities easy. "The whole of Lombardy was now prostrate before the Milanese viper. His next move was to set foot in Tuscany. For this purpose Pisa had to be acquired; and here again he resorted to his devilish policy of inciting other men to crimes by which he alone would profit in the long run. Pisa was ruled at that time by the Gambacorta family, with an old Merchant named Pietro at their head." Gian Galeazzo caused Pietro to be assassinated, and then bought the city from the assassins (1390). "In 1399 the Duke laid hands on Siena; and in the next two years the plague came to his assistance by enfeebling the ruling families of Lucca and Bologna, the Guinizzi and the Bentivogli, so that he was now able to take possession of those cities. There remained no power in Italy, except the Republic of Florence and the exiled but invincible Francesco da Carrara, to withstand his further progress. Florence [see FLORENCE: 1390-1402] delayed his conquests in Tuscany. Francesco managed to return to Padua. Still the peril which threatened the whole of Italy was imminent. . . . At last, when all other hope of independence for Italy had failed, the plague broke out with fury in Lombardy," and Gian Galeazzo died of it in 1402, aged 55. "At his death his two sons were still mere boys. . . . The generals refused to act with them, and each seized upon such portions of the Visconti inheritance as he could most easily acquire. The vast tyranny of the first Duke of Milan fell to pieces in a day." The dominion which his elder son lost (see ITALY: 1402-1406) and which his younger son regained (see ITALY: 1412-1447) slipped from the family on the

death of the last of them, in 1447.—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: The age of the despots*, ch. 2.—"At the end of the fourteenth century their [the Visconti's] informal lordship passed by a royal grant [from the Emperor Wenceslaus to Gian Galeazzo, 1395] into an acknowledged duchy of the Empire. The dominion which they had gradually gained, and which was thus in a manner legalized, took in all the great cities of Lombardy, those especially which had formed the Lombard League against the Swabian Emperors. Pavia indeed, the ancient rival of Milan, kept a kind of separate being, and was formed into a distinct county. But the duchy granted by Wenceslaus to Gian Galeazzo stretched far on both sides of the lake of Garda."—E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography of Europe*, ch. 8, sect. 3.

ALSO IN: J. C. L. de Sismondi, *History of the Italian republics*, ch. 4.—G. Procter (G. Perceval, pseud.), *History of Italy*, v. 1, ch. 4-5.—T. A.



GIAN GALEAZZO VISCONTI

Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 4-6.

1360-1391.—Wars with Florence and with the pope.—Dealings with Free Companies. See ITALY: 1343-1393.

1422.—Sovereignty of Genoa surrendered to the duke of Milan. See GENOA: 1381-1422.

1447-1454.—Competitors for the ducal succession to the Visconti.—Prize carried off by Francesco Sforza.—War of Milan and Florence with Venice, Naples, Savoy, and other states.—John Galeazzo Visconti had married (as stated above) a daughter of King John of France. "Valentine Visconti, one of the children of this marriage, married her cousin, Louis, duke of Orleans, the only brother of Charles VI. In their marriage contract, which the pope confirmed, it was stipulated that, upon failure of heirs male in the family of Visconti, the duchy of Milan should descend to the posterity of Valentine and the duke of Orleans. That event took place. In the year 1447, Philip Maria, the last prince of the ducal family of Visconti, died. Various competitors claimed the succession. Charles, duke of Orleans, pleaded his right to it, founded on the marriage contract of his mother, Valentine Vis-

conti. Alfonso, king of Naples, claimed it in consequence of a will made by Philip Maria in his favor. The emperor contended that, upon the extinction of male issue in the family of Visconti, the fief returned to the superior lord, and ought to be re-annexed to the empire. The people of Milan, smitten with the love of liberty which in that age prevailed among the Italian states, declared against the dominion of any master, and established a republican form of government. But during the struggle among so many competitors, the prize for which they contended was seized by one from whom none of them apprehended any danger. Francis Sforza, the natural son of Jacomuzzo Sforza, whom his courage and abilities had elevated from the rank of a peasant to be one of the most eminent and powerful of the Italian condottieri, having succeeded his father in the command of the adventurers who followed his standard, had married a natural daughter of the last duke of Milan. [See ITALY: 1412-1447.] Upon this shadow of a title Francis founded his pretensions to the duchy, which



LODOVICO SFORZA

he supported with such talents and valor as placed him at last on the ducal throne."—W. Robertson, *History of Charles the Fifth: View of the progress of society*, sect. 3.—"Francesco Sforza possessed himself of the supreme power by treachery and force of arms, but he saved for half a century the independence of a State which, after 170 years of tyranny, was no longer capable of life as a commonwealth, and furthered its prosperity, while he powerfully contributed to the formation of a political system which, however great its weakness, was the most reasonable under existing circumstances. Without the aid of Florence and Cosimo de' Medici, he would not have attained his ends. Cosimo had recognised his ability in the war with Visconti, and made a close alliance with him. . . . It was necessary to choose between Sforza and Venice, for there was only one alternative; either the condottiere would make himself Duke of Milan, or the Republic of San Marco would extend its rule over all Lombardy. In Florence several voices declared in favour of the old ally on the Adriatic. . . . Cosimo de' Medici gave the casting-vote in Sforza's favour. . . . Without Florentine money,

Sforza would never have been able to maintain the double contest—on the one side against Milan, which he blockaded and starved out; and on the other against the Venetians, who sought to relieve it, and whom he repulsed. And when, on March 25, 1450, he made his entry into the city which proclaimed him ruler, he was obliged to maintain himself with Florentine money till he had established his position and re-organised the State. . . . Common animosity to Florence and Sforza drew Venice and the king [Alfonso, of Naples] nearer to one another, and at the end of 1451 an alliance, offensive and defensive, was concluded against them, which Siena, Savoy, and Montferrat joined. . . . On May 16, 1452, the Republic, and, four weeks later, King Alfonso, declared war, which the Emperor Frederick III, then in Italy, and Pope Nicholas V., successor to Eugenius IV. since 1447, in vain endeavoured to prevent." The next year "a foreign event contributed more than all to terminate this miserable war. . . . On May 29, 1453, Mohammed II. stormed Constantinople. The West was threatened, more especially Venice, which had such great and wealthy possessions in the Levant, and Naples. This time the excellent Pope Nicholas V. did not exert himself in vain. On April 9, 1454, Venice concluded a tolerably favourable peace with Francesco Sforza at Lodi, in which King Alfonso, Florence, Savoy, Montferrat, Mantua, and Siena, were to be included. The king, who had made considerable preparations for war, did not ratify the compact till January 26 of the following year. The States of Northern and Central Italy then joined in an alliance, and a succession of peaceful years followed."—A. von Reumont, *Lorenzo de' Medici*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 7.

ALSO IN: W. P. Urquhart, *Life and times of Francesco Sforza*.—A. M. F. Robinson, *End of the Middle Ages: Valentine Visconti*.

1464.—Renewed surrender of Genoa to the duke of Milan. See GENOA: 1458-1464.

1492-1496.—Usurpation of Ludovico, the Moor.—His invitation to Charles VIII. of France.—French invasion of Italy. See ITALY: 1492-1494; 1494-1496.

1499-1500.—Conquest by Louis XII. of France.—His claim by right of Valentine Visconti. See ITALY: 1490-1500.

1501.—Treaty for investiture of Louis XII as duke, by Emperor Maximilian. See ITALY: 1501-1504.

1512.—Expulsion of the French and restoration of the Sforzas.—Notwithstanding the success of the French at Ravenna, in their struggle with the Holy League formed against them by Pope Julius II (see ITALY: 1510-1513), they could not hold their ground in Italy. "Cremona shook off the yoke of France, and city after city followed her example. Nor did it seem possible longer to hold Milan in subjection. That versatile state, after twice bending the neck to Louis, a second time grew weary of his government; and greedily listened to the proposal of the Pope to set upon the throne Massimiliano Sforza, son of their late Duke Ludovico. Full of this project the people of Milan rose simultaneously to avenge the cruelties of the French; the soldiers and merchants remaining in the city were plundered, and about 1,500 put to the sword. The retreating army was harassed by the Lombards, and severely galled by the Swiss; and after encountering the greatest difficulties, the French crossed the Alps, having preserved none of their conquests in Lombardy except the citadel of Milan, and a few other fortresses. . . . At the close of the year, Massimiliano Sforza made his triumphal entry into Milan, with the most extrava-

gant ebullitions of delight on the part of the people."—R. Comyn, *History of the Western empire*, v. 2, ch. 37.—See also FLORENCE: 1502-1560.

1515.—French reconquest by Francis I.—Final overthrow of the Sforzas. See FRANCE: 1515; 1515-1518.

1517.—Abortive attempt of Emperor Maximilian against the French. See FRANCE: 1516-1517.

1521-1522.—French again expelled. See FRANCE: 1520-1523.

1524-1525.—Recaptured and lost again by Francis I of France. See FRANCE: 1523-1525.

1527-1529.—Renewed attack of French king.—Its disastrous end.—Renunciation of French claim. See ITALY: 1527-1529.

1544.—Repeated renunciation of claims of Francis I.—Duchy becomes a dependency of the Spanish crown. See FRANCE: 1532-1547; ITALY: 1530-1600.

1556.—Extent of territory. See EUROPE: Map of central Europe: 1556.

1635-1638.—Invasion of duchy by French and Italian armies. See ITALY: 1635-1650.

1713.—Cession of duchy to Austria. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

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

1745.—Occupied by Spaniards and French. See ITALY: 1745.

1746.—Recovered by Austrians. See ITALY: 1746-1747.

1749-1792.—Under Austrian rule after Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. See ITALY: 1749-1792.

1796.—Occupation by the French.—Bonaparte's pillage of art-galleries and churches. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October).

1799.—Evacuation by the French. See FRANCE: 1799 (April-September).

1800.—Recovery by the French. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (May-February).

1805.—Coronation of Napoleon as king of Italy. See FRANCE: 1804-1805.

1814-1815.—Restored to Austria. See FRANCE: 1814 (April-June); ITALY: 1814-1815.

1848-1849.—Insurrection.—Expulsion of Austrians.—Failure of struggle. See ITALY: 1848-1849; WORLD WAR: CAUSES: Indirect: b, 2.

1859.—Liberation from Austrians. See ITALY: 1856-1859.

1898.—Revolutionary outbreak. See ITALY: 1870-1901; 1898.

1918-1920.—Confederation of Labor congress.—Socialist center. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1918-1919; SOCIALISM: 1860-1920.

MILAN CATHEDRAL. See CATHEDRALS: Continental.

MILAN DECREE (1807). See FRANCE: 1806-1810; U. S. A.: 1804-1809; 1810-1812.

MILAN OBRENOVICH IV (1854-1901), king of Serbia, 1868-1889. See SERBIA: 1885-1903; Later 10th century.

MILANESE, or Milanese, district or duchy of Milan.

MILBANK, Joseph (1848-1914), American philanthropist. See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

MILES, Nelson Appleton (1830-), American general. Served in the Civil War; conducted campaigns against the Indians (see INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1888-1890); commander-in-chief of American army during the Spanish-American War. See U. S. A.: 1898 (June-July); 1898 (July-August: Porto Rico); U. S. A.: 1898-1899.

MILESIANS, Irish.—In Irish legendary history, the followers of Miled, who came from the north of Spain and were the last of the four races which

colonized Ireland.—Based on T. Wright, *History of Ireland*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 2. See IRELAND: Primitive inhabitants.

MILETUS, in ancient times, the greatest city of Ionia in Asia Minor. It lies on the southern shore of the Latmian gulf. (See GREECE: Map of ancient Greece.) Its woollen manufactures made it famous, also its extensive trade with Phrygia, as well as with the north and south. Dr. Wiegand has excavated pottery which proves that the city had come in contact with the Aegean civilization in the latest Minoan period. Miletus "with her four harbours, had been the earliest anchorage on the entire coast. Phœnicians, Cretans, and Carians, had inaugurated her world-wide importance, and Attic families, endowed with eminent energy, had founded the city anew. [See ASIA MINOR: B. C. 1000.] True, Miletus also had a rich territory of her own in her rear, viz., the broad valley of the Mæander, where among other rural pursuits particularly the breeding of sheep flourished. Miletus became the principal market for the finer sorts of wool; and the manufacture of this article into variegated tapestry and coloured stuffs for clothing employed a large multitude of human beings. But this industry also continued in an increasing measure to demand importation from without of all kinds of materials of art, articles of food, and slaves. [See ASIA MINOR: B. C. 724-539.] In no city was agriculture made a consideration so secondary to industry and trade as here. At Miletus, the maritime trade even came to form a particular party among the citizens, the so-called 'Acinautæ,' the 'men never off the water.'"—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 3.—Especially does the city stand out in the history of Greek literature as having been the birthplace of the philosophers Thales, Anaximander, and Anaximenes, of the historians Cadmus and Hecataeus and of the poet Timæus, likewise of Aspasia, the wife of Pericles. Miletus took an early leading part in the great Ionian enterprises of colonization and trade, particularly in the Pontus, or Black sea, where the Milesians succeeded the Phœnicians, establishing important commercial settlements at Sinope, Cyzicus and elsewhere. (See also SYBARIS.) They were among the last of the Asiatic Ionians to succumb to the Lydian monarchy, and they were the first to revolt against the Persian domination, when that had taken the place of the Lydian. The great revolt failed and Miletus was practically destroyed. (See PERSIA: B. C. 521-493.) In 479 B. C., Persians were driven from the coast, and Miletus became a member of the Delian League. In 412 B. C., the city revolted from Sparta, (see GREECE: B. C. 413-412) and passed again into the hands of the Carians. Once more the city arose under Rome. It was visited by Saint Paul on his last journey to Jerusalem before he was imprisoned at Rome, and Trajan gave Miletus especial attention. It became the seat of a Christian bishopric, during the Byzantine period, and was fortified by a castle. But nothing could avert its decay, inasmuch as the centers of the world's life had shifted elsewhere. Its site has been for some centuries a marsh. Since the beginning of the twentieth century it has been the scene of extensive excavations.

MILITANT MONKS. See MONASTICISM: 11th-13th centuries.

MILITANT SUFFRAGE MOVEMENT. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: England: 1906-1914.

MILITARY AIRPLANES. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IV. Aviation: a.

MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION.

MILITARY EQUIPMENT. See articles under special heads, as: CHEMISTRY: Practical appli-

cation: Explosives: Gunpowder; GREEK FIRE; LIQUID FIRE; POISON GAS; ORDNANCE; RIFLES AND REVOLVERS; SUBMARINES: 1900-1918, to 1918; TANKS; TRENCH WARFARE; WORLD WAR; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VI. Military and naval equipment.

MILITARY LAW.—"This term applies to and includes such rules of action and conduct as are imposed by a state upon persons in its military service, with a view to the establishment and maintenance of military discipline. It is largely, but not exclusively, statutory in character, and prescribes the rights of, and imposes duties and obligations upon, the several classes of persons composing its military establishment; it creates military tribunals, endows them with appropriate jurisdiction and regulates their procedure; it also defines military offenses and, by the imposition of adequate penalties, endeavors to prevent their occurrence."—G. B. Davis, *Treatise on the military law of the United States*, p. 1.

Sources of military jurisdiction.—"The sources of, and the authority for, the military jurisdiction of the Government of the United States are three: Reason, history, and the Constitution of the United States. The Constitution (art. 1, sect. 8), provides that Congress shall have the power to declare war; to make rules concerning captures on land and water; to raise and support armies; to provide and maintain a navy; to make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces; to provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions; to provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the states respectively the appointment of officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress; and finally to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers and all other powers vested by the Constitution in the Government of the United States. The Fifth Amendment to the Constitution provides that no person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger."—A. W. Scott, *Handbook of military law*, p. 3.

Kinds of military jurisdiction.—"Military jurisdiction is of four kinds: (a) **MILITARY GOVERNMENT.**—(The law of hostile occupation); that is, military power exercised by a belligerent by virtue of his occupation of an enemy's territory and its inhabitants. This belongs to the law of war and therefore to the law of nations. When a conquered territory is ceded to the conqueror, military government continues until civil government is established by a new sovereign. (b) **MARTIAL LAW AT HOME.**—This is the military power exercised in time of war, insurrection, or rebellion in parts of the country retaining their allegiance, and over persons and things not ordinarily subjected to it. (c) **MARTIAL LAW APPLIED TO THE ARMY.**—This is the military power over persons in the military service, in time of war, exercised over obligations arising out of emergencies not falling within the domain of military law, nor otherwise regulated by law. (d) **MILITARY LAW.**—This is the legal system that regulates the government of the military establishment. It is a branch of the municipal law, and in the United States derives its existence from special constitutional grants of power. It is both written and unwritten. The sources of written military law are the 'Articles of War' enacted by Congress

August 20, 1916; other statutory enactments relating to military service; the Army Regulations; and general and special orders and decisions promulgated by the War Department and by the department, post and other commanders. The unwritten military law is the 'custom of War,' consisting of customs of service, both in peace, and war."—*Manual for courts-martial*, pp. 1, 2.

Origin and history.—"As the system of military law which has received constitutional recognition in the United States is in great part derived from the rules of discipline which prevailed in the British Army at the outbreak of the American revolution, its origin and development can best be understood by a brief reference to the history of the military institutions of the country from which our own disciplinary system is a direct inheritance. During the period intervening between the Norman conquest and the establishment of representative institutions in England, the sovereign was regarded not only as the fountain of justice, but as the ultimate source of legal authority, and his edicts and ordinances had the obligatory force now assigned to the formal enactments of Parliament. During this period the king, by suitable decrees, or proclamations, established such rules for the government of the military forces as seemed to him proper or necessary, and these rules were enforced by tribunals called constable's and marshall's courts and the Court of Chivalry. The Court of Chivalry in the course of time began to intrude upon the jurisdiction of the common-law courts, and acts were passed from time to time restricting its authority until, during the reign of Henry VIII, it finally ceased to exist, its functions in respect to questions of honor and pedigree having become practically obsolete, and its jurisdiction over military offenses having been transferred to the council of war, the predecessor of the modern court-martial. Although the control of the military establishment gave rise to occasional differences of opinion between the Crown and Parliament during the reigns of the Tudor sovereigns, the questions in controversy were adjusted without serious difficulty, usually by the enactment of statutes calculated to apply an appropriate remedy to the particular wrong complained of; and it was not until the accession of the Stuart sovereigns that the controversy attained the importance of a constitutional question of serious national concern."—G. B. Davis, *Treatise on the military law of the United States*, pp. 1-2.

Mutiny Act.—"In conformity of the agreement with which William and Mary ascended the throne in 1688, which, as embodied in the Bill of Rights, has since been regarded as an important part of the British Constitution, the right of command and the power to enforce and discipline were vested in the sovereign, as the constitutional commander-in-chief; but these powers were to be regulated in their exercise by the terms of an important statute called the Mutiny Act. This act recognized mutiny and desertion as two of the most serious military offenses and authorized their trial and punishment by court-martial. All matters affecting discipline, however, which were not expressly provided for in the Mutiny Act were left to be regulated by the Royal prerogative, and in conformity to such disciplinary rules as the sovereign might see fit to impose. Indeed, such a body of rules already existed in a code of regulations, known as the Articles of War, which had been issued by James II in 1686. These Articles, though frequently added to and amended, or modified, by the issue of subsequent articles, continued in force, side by side with the Mutiny Act, and in subordination to that instrument, until 1879, when the Mutiny Act and Articles of War were

merged in an enactment known as the Army Discipline Act, which as re-enacted in the Army Act of 1881, is still in force throughout the British Empire. In strictness, the Army Act of 1881 has of itself no force, but requires to be brought into operation annually by another act of Parliament, thus securing the constitutional principle of the control of Parliament over the discipline requisite for the government of the Army."—G. B. Davis, *Treatise on the military law of the United States*, pp. 2-3.

Articles of War.—"It will be seen that from 1680 until 1881, military discipline was regulated in England by two authoritative instruments: (1) The Mutiny Act, of 1680, which was statutory in character and contained the more important disciplinary provisions, together with the power to appoint the several military tribunals; and (2) the Articles of War, of 1686, issued by the sovereign, and so non-statutory in character, containing the great body of rules for the government and discipline of the military forces of the crown. The Articles of War were added to and amended from time to time, as occasion demanded, and were in force throughout the realm at the outbreak of the American revolution in 1775. As a consequence, the Mutiny Act and Articles of War were well known to the colonists in America, and when the royal troops served in conjunction with the colonial forces during the wars with the French and Indians, prior to the revolution, both species of military force were governed by their provisions. At the outbreak of hostilities in 1775, the Revolutionary Congress found itself confronted with the necessity of raising and disciplining armies and turned to the British Military code as a body of disciplinary rules with a scope and operation of which the troops of the several colonies were already familiar. With some modifications the Mutiny Act and the Articles of War then in force in the British army were adopted by the Congress for the government of the armies of the United States."—G. B. Davis, *Treatise on the military law of the United States*, pp. 3-4.

Courts-martial.—Military tribunals.—History.—"Military law is enforced by means of certain tribunals, created for the purpose, called courts-martial. Their sentences have in themselves no legal validity, being in the nature of recommendations merely, until they have received the approval of a military commander, designated by law for this purpose, called the reviewing authority. With such approval or confirmation their sentences become operative and acquire the same sanction as the sentences of civil courts having criminal jurisdiction, and are entitled to the same legal consideration. Courts-martial are no part of the judiciary of the United States, but simply instrumentalities of the executive power. They are the creatures of orders; the power to convene them, as well as the power to act upon their proceedings, being an attribute of command. Though transient and summary, their judgments, when rendered upon subjects within their limited jurisdiction, are as legal and valid as those of any other tribunals, nor are the same subject to be appealed from, set aside, or reversed by the courts of the United States or of any State. . . . [The military tribunals] are as follows:

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| Court-martial with power to try and sentence | } | 1. The general court-martial with complete jurisdiction. |
| | | 2. The special court-martial. |
| | | 3. The Summary court-martial with restricted jurisdiction. |

The Court of Inquiry { 1. Court of Inquiry with power to investigate only.

. . . The court-martial, as a military tribunal, antedates the standing army in English history. As an agency for the maintenance of discipline in armies, its history can be traced back to a period considerably earlier than the Christian era; especially among the Romans from whose system of jurisprudence it was borrowed by the Teutonic leaders of the Middle Ages and adapted to the peculiar conditions of the feudal system. It had become fully established on the continent of Europe at the time of the Norman Conquest, and was introduced into England, as an incident of that system, by William the Conqueror and his immediate successors in the latter part of the eleventh century."—G. B. Davis, *Treatise on the military law of the United States*, pp. 13-16.

1921.—New court-martial law.—"The army of the United States is now governed by a new manual of court-martial, adopted as a result of the abuses under the old system during the World War. The changes in military law brought about by the new manual are far-sweeping. Under its terms equal justice is assured to all members of the military establishment. The rights of even the humblest private in the ranks before a military court are equal to those of the highest General. Any person accused of a violation of military law under this new manual is given a greater opportunity to defend his rights than is given by civil courts. Under the old court-martial manual, based on the Articles of War of 1916, the rights of enlisted men were decidedly inferior to those of officers. Any officer might charge an enlisted man with an offense, but no matter how great the provocation, no matter how gross the outrage, no enlisted man could bring a charge against an officer. Only officers could bring charges. It was not necessary that an officer investigate or have personal knowledge of the offense charged. He might bring any charge either as of his own knowledge or based on his belief. A custom of the service, however, protected the accused in that officers were generally supposed to investigate before bringing charges and, to their credit, usually did. But the new court-martial manual takes away this power and imposes an iron mandate to protect all accused persons from any vagaries of custom in these words: 'Charges and specifications must be signed by a person subject to military law, and under oath either that he has personal knowledge of or has investigated the matters set forth herein, and that the same are true in fact, to the best of his knowledge and belief. No charges will be referred for trial until after a thorough and impartial investigation thereof shall have been made. This investigation will include inquiries as to the truth of the matter set forth in said charges, form of charges, and what disposition of the case should be made in the interests of justice and discipline.'

"Article 70 of the new manual states:

"At an investigation full opportunity shall be given to the accused to cross-examine witnesses against him if they are available and to present anything he may desire in his own behalf either in defense or mitigation, and the investigating officer shall examine available witnesses requested by the accused. If the charges are forwarded after such investigation they shall be accompanied by a statement of the substance of the testimony taken on both sides.' Under the old manual no enlisted man might bring a charge against any one. Even if struck across the face by an officer, his only re-

course lay in an appeal to another officer to bring charges in his behalf. The old manual gave such great power to the officer and so little to the enlisted man that it speaks well for the high standard of decency of the regular army officer that seldom was this vast power abused. It was an honored custom of the service to protect the enlisted man from abuse because of his very helplessness. The new manual specifically remedies this by stating, in Article 2, that the following shall be considered as persons subject to military law: 'Officers, members of the army nurse corps, warrant officers, army field clerks, field clerks, quartermaster corps, soldiers of the regular army, volunteers, cadets, officers and soldiers of the marine corps serving with the army, all retainers and persons accompanying armies of the United States in the field.' Article 2 defines all these persons as subject to military law. And Article 70 provides that any person subject to military law may bring charges. This opens the way of redress not only to the enlisted man but to all others in the service, including the trained nurse, who is now an officer herself. Article 70, while opening the way to bring charges, also provides that all charges sufficiently grave to demand a general court-martial shall be given legal scrutiny by a lawyer—a staff Judge Advocate. In this connection Article 70 provides:

"Before directing the trial of any charge by general court-martial the appointing authority will refer it to his staff Judge Advocate for consideration and advice.' Under the old manual, a court-martial met, considered the evidence and returned a verdict or decision which every member of the court was bound by oath to guard sacredly until the finding should be made public. The new manual provides that findings and sentence shall

be announced immediately in open court, unless there is a good reason to keep such findings and sentences secret, such reason to be made part of the record. Announcement of acquittal is mandatory. Before the convening authority who appointed the court takes action of any nature, the entire proceedings must be reviewed by the staff Judge Advocate, a lawyer. This staff Judge Advocate must advise as to proper action and he must have had no part in the trial. Before a plea of guilty is accepted by a court-martial operating under the new manual a great and vast protection is given the accused. The accused is warned by the law member that his plea admits his guilt, warns him as to the punishment for such an offense and informs him he may change his plea. If the accused still persists in pleading guilty then the court will hold its trial as though he had not pleaded guilty until every bit of evidence against the accused is in the record. So, throughout, the new manual of court-martial protects the accused in his rights, provides for his defense, and provides for the protection of all members of the military service on an equal basis."—*New York Times*, Apr. 3, 1921.

See also **POSTLIMINIUM**; **PRUSSIA**, CONSTITUTION OF; **U.S.A.**: 1862 (March): Amendment of military code; **WORLD WAR**: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VI. Military and naval equipment: c, 7; c, 8.

ALSO IN: R. O'Sullivan, ed., *Military law and the supremacy of the civil courts*.—E. Colby, *Court-martial and the laws of war* (*American Journal of International Law*, Jan., 1923).

MILITARY LEAGUE. See **GREECE**: 1909.

MILITARY MEDALS. See **WORLD WAR**: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VIII. War medals: a.

MILITARY ORGANIZATION

1. **Introduction.**—**Combative spirit in man.**—**Origin of armies.**—**Development of arms, fortifications, and strategy.**—"So long as man has existed on the earth he has been a fighting animal. After settling his quarrels with the weapons of nature, he resorted to clubs and stones, that is, weapons for use hand to hand and at a distance; and no doubt at an early day built himself huts and surrounded them with stakes, stones and earth, so as to keep away aggressive neighbors. Herein we have the origin of weapons and of fortification. As men joined themselves into communities, the arts of attack and defense, and their uses as applied to numbers, grew. The citizen was always a soldier. But often only a portion of the citizens required to be sent away from home to fight, and this originated standing armies, which became a well-settled institution when conquerors made themselves kings. As man invented useful arts, these were first applied to the demands of war. Bows and arrows, lances, slings, swords, breastplates and shields came into use, and horses were tamed and employed for war, first as beasts of burden, and then in chariots and for cavalry. Chariots and horses for cavalry were first adopted because they afforded the fighters a higher position from which to cast their weapons, as well as rendered their aspect more dreadful. Elephants and camels came into warfare for a similar reason. No doubt chariots antedated cavalry. Troops began by fighting in masses, without settled order, and the victory was won by those who had the bravest, strongest, or most numerous array. With better weapons came greater order. The best-armed warriors were placed together. The slingers could not do good work side by side

with the pikemen, nor the charioteer or mounted man with the foot-soldier. Thus certain tactical formations arose, and as the more intelligent soldiers were put in charge of the less so, rank and command appeared. It was soon found that the light-armed, bowmen and slingers, could best use their weapons and most rapidly move in open, skirmishing order; that the heavy-armed, pikemen and swordsmen could best give decisive blows when ployed in masses. The growth of army organization came about in a perfectly natural sequence, and grew side by side with all other pursuits. Fortification originated in a similar manner. Tribes built their villages in inaccessible places,—on rocks or hills,—and surrounded them with ditches, stockades or loosely-piled walls. Such simple habitations gradually grew into fortified cities, and the walls and ditches increased in size and difficulty of approach. Inner citadels were built; and towers crowned the walls, to enable these to be swept by missiles if reached by the besiegers. The art of sieges was of much later and more formal growth. For many generations fortified cities were deemed inexpugnable, and artifice or hunger were resorted to for their capture. But gradually it was found that walls could be undermined or weakened or breached, or that they could be mounted by various means, and the art of besieging cities began to take on form. As tribes grew into nations war assumed larger dimensions. As a rule, it was brute weight alone which accomplished results, but sometimes the weaker party would resort to stratagems to defend itself,—such as declining battle, and making instead thereof night or partial attacks, defending river fords or mountain passes, and falling

on the enemy from ambush or from cities. Out of such small beginnings of moral opposition to physical preponderance has come into existence, by slow degrees and through many centuries, what we now know as the science of war."—T. A. Dodge, *Alexander*, pp. 9-11.

2. Ancient Egypt and Persia.—Army of Ramesis II.—Privileges of soldiers.—Equipment and armament.—Battle formation and tactics.—Armies of Cyrus and Cambyses.—The earliest military organization in ancient Egypt appears to have existed at Thebes and Memphis. The chief power of the land lay in the hands of the priestly caste; the warrior caste came a strong second. About the time Ramesis II (Sesostris) was born, his father ordered all the boys born in Egypt on the same day to be enrolled into a military school. From this institution he recruited his confidential body-guard, as well as several of his generals. To the military caste was assigned "one of the three portions into which the land of Egypt was divided by an edict of Sesostris (Ramesis II, 14th century B. C.), in order, says Diodorus, 'that those who exposed themselves to danger in the field might be more ready to undergo the hazards of war, from the interest they felt in the country as occupiers of the soil; for it would be absurd to commit the safety of the community to those who possessed nothing which they were interested in preserving.' Each soldier, whether on duty or no, was allowed twelve arura of land . . . [about eight acres], free from all charge; and another important privilege was, that no soldier could be cast into prison for debt; Bochoris, the framer of this law, considering that it would be dangerous to allow the civil power the right of arresting those who were the chief defence of the state. They were instructed from their youth in the duties and requirements of soldiers, and trained in all the exercises that fitted them for an active career; and a sort of military school appears to have been established for the purpose. Each man was obliged to provide himself with the necessary arms, offensive and defensive, and everything requisite for a campaign; and he was expected to hold himself in readiness for taking the field when required, or for garrison duty. The principal garrisons were posted in the fortified towns of Pelusium, Marea, Eileithyia, Heracleopolis, Syene, Elepbantia, and other intermediate places; and a large portion of the army was frequently called upon, by the warlike monarchs, to invade a foreign country, or to suppress those rebellions which occasionally broke out in the conquered provinces. The whole military force, consisting of 410,000 was divided into two corps, the Calasiries and Hermotybies. They furnished a body of men to do the duty of royal guards, 1000 of each being annually selected for that purpose; and each soldier had an additional allowance of 'five *mina* of bread, with two of beef, and four *arusters* of wine,' as daily rations, during the period of his service. The Calasiries (*Klashr*) were the most numerous, and amounted to 250,000 men, at the time that Egypt was most populous. They inhabited the nomes [provinces] of Thebes, Bubastis, Apthhis, Tanis, Mendes, Sebennytus, Athribis, Pharbæthus Thmuis, Onuphis, Anysis, and the Isle of Mycephoris, which was opposite Bubastis; and the Hermotybies, who lived in those of Busiris, Saïs, Chemmis, Papremis, the Isle of Prosopitis, and the half of Natho, made up the remaining 160,000. It was here that they abode while retired from military service and in these nomes their farms or portions of land were situated, which tended to encourage habits of industry, and keep up a taste for active employment. Besides the native corps they had mercenary troops,

who were enrolled either from the nations in alliance with the Egyptians, or from those who had been conquered by them. They were divided into regiments, sometimes disciplined in the same manner as the Egyptians, though allowed to retain their arms and costume; but they were not on the same footing as the native troops; they had no land, and merely received pay, like other hired soldiers. Strabo speaks of them as mercenaries; and the million of men he mentions must have included these foreign auxiliaries. When formally enrolled in the army, they were considered a part of it, and accompanied the victorious legions on their return from foreign conquest; and they sometimes assisted in performing garrison duty in Egypt, in the place of those Egyptian troops which were left to guard the conquered provinces. The strength of the army consisted in archers, whose skill contributed mainly to the success of the Egyptians, as of our own ancestors; and their importance is shown by the Egyptian 'soldier' being represented as an archer kneeling, often preceded by the word *Klashr*, converted by Herodotus into *Calasiries*. They fought either on foot or in chariots, and may therefore be classed under the separate heads of a mounted and unmounted corps; and they constituted a great part of both wings. Several bodies of heavy infantry, divided into regiments, each distinguished by its peculiar arms, formed the centre; and the cavalry [in later periods] covered and supported the foot.

"The offensive weapons of the Egyptians, were the bow, spear, two species of javelin, sling, a short and straight sword, dagger, knife, falchion or *ensis falcatus* axe or hatchet, battle-axe, pole-axe, mace or club, and the *lisan*—a curved stick similar to that still in use among the modern Ethiopians. Their defensive arms consisted of a helmet of metal or a quilted head-piece; a cuirass, or coat of armour, made of metal plates, or quilted with metal bands, and an ample shield. The soldier's chief defence was his shield, which, in length, was equal to about half his height, and generally double its own breadth. It was most commonly covered with bull's hide having the hair outward, sometimes strengthened by one or more rims of metal, and studded with nails or metal pins, the inner part being a wooden frame. The Egyptian bow was a round piece of wood, from five to five and a half feet in length, tapering to a point at both ends. Their arrows varied from twenty-two to thirty-four inches in length; some were of wood, others of reed; frequently tipped with a metal head; and winged with three feathers, glued longitudinally, and at equal distances, upon the other end of the shaft. . . . The spear, or pike, was of wood, between five and six feet in length with a metal head into which the shaft was inserted and fixed with nails. The head was of bronze or iron, often very large, and with a double edge. The javelin, lighter and shorter than the spear, was also of wood, and similarly armed with a strong two-edged metal head, of an elongated diamond, or leaf shape, either flat or increasing in thickness at the centre, and sometimes tapering to a very long point. The sling was a thong of leather, or string plaited; broad in the middle, and having a loop at one end, by which it was fixed upon and firmly held with the hand; the other extremity terminating in a lash, which escaped from the finger as the stone was thrown. The Egyptian sword was straight and short, from two and a half to three feet in length, having generally a double edge, and tapering to a sharp point. It was used for cut and thrust. They had also a dagger. The axe, or hatchet, was small and simple, seldom exceeding two or two and a

half feet in length; it had a single blade, and no instance is met with of a double axe resembling the *bipennis* of the Romans. The blade of the battle-axe was, in form, not unlike the Parthian shield; a segment of a circle, divided at the back into two smaller segments, whose three points were fastened to the handle with metal pins. It was of bronze, and sometimes . . . of steel; and the length of the handle was equal to, or more than double that of, the blade. The pole-axe was about three feet in length, but apparently more difficult to wield than the . . . [other], owing to the great weight of a metal ball to which the blade was fixed; and required, like the mace, a powerful as well as a skilful arm. The mace was very similar to the pole-axe, without a blade. It was of wood, bound with bronze, about two feet and a half in length, and furnished with an angular piece of metal, projecting from the handle, which may have been intended as a guard, though in many instances they represent the hand placed above it, while the blow was given. In ancient times, when the fate of a battle was frequently decided by personal valour, the dexterous management of such arms was of great importance; and a band of resolute veterans, headed by a gallant chief, spread dismay among the ranks of an enemy. The curved stick, or club (called *lisan*, 'tongue'), was used by heavy and light-armed troops as well as by archers. . . . The helmet was usually quilted; and though bronze helmets are said to have been worn by the Egyptians, they generally adopted the former, which being thick, and well padded, served as an excellent protection to the head, without the inconvenience of metal in so hot a climate. Some of them descended to the shoulder, others only a short distance below the level of the ear, and the summit, terminating in an obtuse point, was ornamented with two tassels. They were of a green, red, or black colour; and a longer one, which fitted less closely to the back of the head, was fringed at the lower edge with a broad border, and in some instances consisted of two parts, or an upper and under fold. Another, worn by the spearmen, and many corps of infantry and charioteers, was also quilted, and descended to the shoulder with a fringe; but it had no tassels, and, fitting close to the top of the head, it widened towards the base, the front, which covered the forehead, being made of a separate piece attached to the other part. . . . The outer surface of the corselet of mail, or coat of scale-armour, consisted of about eleven horizontal rows of metal plates, well secured by bronze pins; and at the hollow of the throat a narrower range of plates was introduced, above which were two more, completing the collar or covering of the neck. The breadth of each plate or scale was little more than an inch, eleven or twelve of them sufficing to cover the front of the body; and the sleeves, which were sometimes so short as to extend less than halfway to the elbow, consisted of two rows of similar plates. . . . Heavy-armed troops were furnished with a shield and spear; some with a shield and mace; and others, though rarely, with a battle-axe, or a pole-axe, and shield. They also carried a sword, falchion, curved stick or *lisan*, simple mace, or hatchet; which may be looked upon as their sidearms. The light troops had nearly the same weapons, but their defensive armour was lighter; and the slingers and some others fought, like the archers, without shields.

"The chariot corps constituted a very large and effective portion of the Egyptian army. Each car contained two persons, like the *diphros* . . . of the Greeks. On some occasions it carried three, the charioteer or driver and two chiefs; but this was

rarely the case, except in triumphal processions, when two of the princes accompanied the king in their chariot, bearing the regal sceptre, or the *flabella*, and required a third person to manage the reins. In the field each had his own car, with a charioteer; and the insignia of his office being attached behind him by a broad belt, his hands were free for the use of the bow and other arms. The driver generally stood on the off-side, in order to have the whip-hand free; and this interfered less with the use of the bow than the Greek custom of driving on the near-side; which last was adopted in Greece as being more convenient for throwing the spear. . . . In the battle scenes of the Egyptian temples, the king is represented alone in his car, unattended by any charioteer; with the reins fastened around his body, while engaged in bending his bow against the enemy; though it is possible that the driver was omitted, in order not to interfere with the principal figure. The king had always a 'second chariot,' in order to provide against accidents; as Josiah is stated to have had when defeated by Neku; and the same was in attendance on state occasions. The cars of the whole chariot corps contained each two warriors, comrades of equal rank; and the charioteer who accompanied a chief was a person of confidence, as we see from the familiar manner in which one of them is represented conversing with a son of the great Rameses. . . . When an expedition was resolved upon against a foreign nation, each province furnished its quatum of men. The troops were generally commanded by the king in person; but in some instances a general was appointed to that post, and entrusted with the sole conduct of the war. A place of rendezvous was fixed, in early times generally at Thebes, Memphis, or Pelusium; and the troops having assembled in the vicinity, remained encamped there, awaiting the leader of the expedition. As soon as he arrived, the necessary preparations were made; a sacrifice was performed to the gods whose assistance was invoked in the approaching conflict; and orders having been issued for their march, a signal was given by sound of trumpet; the troops fell in, and with a profound bow each soldier in the ranks saluted the royal general, and prepared to follow him to the field. The march then commenced, as Clemens and the sculptures inform us, to the sound of the drum; the chariots led the van; and the king, mounted in his [war chariot] and attended by his chief officers carrying *flabella*, took his post in the centre, preceded and followed by bodies of infantry armed with bows, spears, or other weapons, according to their respective corps. On commencing the attack in the open field, a signal was again made by sound of trumpet. The archers drawn up in line first discharged a shower of arrows on the enemy's front, and a considerable mass of chariots advanced to the charge; the heavy infantry, armed with spears or clubs, and covered with their shields, moved forward at the same time in close array, flanked by chariots and cavalry, and pressed upon the center and wings of the enemy, the archers still galling the hostile columns with their arrows, and endeavouring to create disorder in their ranks. Their mode of warfare was not like that of nations in their infancy, or in a state of barbarism; and it is evident, from the number of prisoners they took, that they spared the prostrate who asked for quarter; and the representations of persons slaughtered by the Egyptians, who have overtaken them, are intended to allude to what happened in the heat of action, and not to any wanton cruelty on the part of the victors. . . . The arms, horses, chariots, and booty, taken in the field or in camp,

were also collected, and the same officers wrote an account of them, and presented it to the monarch. The booty was sometimes collected in an open space, surrounded by a temporary wall, indicated in the sculptures by the representation of shields placed erect, with a wicker gate, on the inner and outer face of which a strong guard was posted, the sentries walking to and fro with drawn swords. It was forbidden to the Spartan soldier, when on guard, to have his shield, in order that, being deprived of this defense, he might be more cautious not to fall asleep; and the same appears to have been a custom of the Egyptians, as the watch here on duty at the camp-gates are only armed with swords and maces, though belonging to the heavy-armed corps, who, on other occasions, were in the habit of carrying a shield.

"A system of regular fortifications was adopted in the earliest times. The form of the fortresses was quadrangular; the walls of crude brick fifteen feet thick, and often fifty feet high, with square towers at intervals along each face. But though some were kept up after the accession of the XVIIIth Dynasty, the practice of fortifying towns seems to have been discontinued, and fortresses or walled towns were not then used, except on the edge of the desert, and on the frontiers where large garrisons were required. To supply their place, the temples were provided with lofty pyramidal stone towers, which, projecting beyond the walls, enable the besieged to command and rake them, while the parapet-wall over the gateway shielded the soldiers who defended the entrance; and the whole plan of an outer wall of circumvallation was carried out by the large crude brick enclosure of the *temenos*, within which the temple stood. Each temple was thus a detached fort, and was thought as sufficient a protection for itself and for the town as a continuous wall, which required a large garrison to defend it; and neither Thebes nor Memphis, the two capitals, were walled cities. The field encampment was either a square, or a parallelogram, with a principal entrance in one of the faces; and near the center were the general's tent, and those of the principal officers. The general's tent was sometimes surrounded by a double rampart or fosse, enclosing two distinct areas, the outer one containing three tents, probably of the next in command, or of the officers on the staff; and the guards slept or watched in the open air. Other tents were pitched outside these enclosures; and near the external circuit, a space was set apart for feeding horses and beasts of burden, and another for ranging the chariots and baggage. It was near the general's tent, and within the same area, that the altars of the gods, or whatever related to religious matters, the standards, and the military chest, were kept; and the sacred emblems were deposited beneath a canopy, with an enclosure similar to that of the general's tent. In attacking a fortified town, they advanced under cover of the arrows of the bowmen; and either instantly applied the scaling-ladder to the ramparts, or undertook the routine of a regular siege; in which case, having advanced to the walls, they posted themselves under cover of testudos, and shook and dislodged the stones of the parapet with a species of battering-ram, directed and impelled by a body of men expressly chosen for this service; but when the place held out against these attacks, and neither a *coup de main*, the ladder, nor the ram, was found to succeed, they used the testudo for concealing and protecting the sappers, while they mined the place; and certainly, of all people, the Egyptians were the most likely to have recourse to this stratagem of war, from the great practice they had in under-

ground excavations and in directing shafts through the solid rock."—E. Meyer, *Geschichte des Altertums*.—See also EGYPT: State organization, etc.

"Under Cyrus [king of Persia] the warrior caste was not only the uppermost, but was hereditary, and at all times thoroughly prepared for war. Assuming the *Cyropædia* to be exact, Cyrus undertook his great conquests with but thirty thousand men, which later increased to seventy thousand, and still more by accessions from the conquered provinces. In all these provinces a kernel of Persian troops was stationed, but the local government was uniformly preserved. . . . The *Cyropædia* is, however, a sort of military romance, . . . full of exaggerated hero-worship. While its main features are correct, its details are unquestionably dressed up. . . . The Persians fought mainly on foot. There were few horses in Persia proper. But Cyrus found cavalry necessary against the Asiatics, who had much which was excellent. He collected ten thousand horsemen from various sources, and at Thymbra used the body to good advantage. This was the origin of the superb Persian cavalry of later days. The foot had bows, slings, darts and small shields, to begin with, but gradually bettered these weapons as they hewed their way into Asia, and thereafter used battle-axes and swords, and wore helmet and mail. Thus, from what was at first but a species of light infantry grew up a later body of heavy foot, in addition to much that remained light. . . . Cambyses, son of Cyrus, divided the male population of his kingdom into children, youths, men, old men. Each class had twelve chiefs, chosen from among the last two classes. Every lad of ten began his career by entering the first. Here he stayed till twenty; among the youths till thirty; among the men till forty; and until fifty-five he was in the last class. After this he was free from military duty."—T. A. Dodge, *Alexander*, pp. 21, 23, 25-26.

3. Ancient Greek military systems.—Siege of Troy.—Sparta and Athens.—"The early kings of Greece held both the civil and military power. Every freeman was a soldier, and was trained as such from his youth up. Bronze weapons were already familiar to the Greeks at the time of the Trojan war. The nobles and chiefs used thrusting pike, casting lance and sword, and left missile-weapons—bows and slings—to the less brave or expert. The Trojan chiefs did not disdain bows. Helmets, breastplates and large shields were likewise made of bronze. Fighting on foot and in chariots—the latter was the prerogative of the great—were the usual methods. There was no cavalry, for the hilly character of Greece (except Thessaly and Bœotia) was unsuited to its evolutions, and neither, as a rule, were the horses good nor the men of Greece used to riding. The constant employment of chariots is all the more curious. . . . In the tradition of the Seven against Thebes, to assert Polynices' claims as king, there are some traces of organization suggested. . . . At the siege of Troy (1103-1184 B. C.) [also stated as 1335 and 1160 B. C.] we find clear evidences of organization. Agamemnon evidently had the legal power to compel the reluctant Greek monarchs to join him in an expedition based on a mere personal quarrel. Achilles had twenty-five hundred men, divided into five regiments of five hundred men each. . . . From the time of the Trojan war till the sixth century B. C. the Grecian states made gradual advances in military organization. The warrior's was the highest duty in the state, as well as the precious privilege of the freeman. Religion, education and public games combined to train the youth to war. . . . The right and duty of war

existed from the eighteenth to the sixtieth year, varying somewhat in different states. When war occurred, a draft of the requisite number was made by lot, or rote, or age. A given number of years' honorable service yielded a citizen many privileges, and opened to him every civil office. Warriors crippled in battle were cared for by the state and highly honored. About the sixth century B. C. the Greeks fought almost exclusively on foot. The hoplites or phalangites were the heavy, the psiloi the light, infantry. The former came from the best classes, and were armed with pikes up to ten feet long, short swords and large shields, and wore both helmet and breastplate, and sometimes greaves. The breastplate was often of leather, and everything being provided by each hoplite for himself made the arms and equipments as various as the tastes of the individuals. The psiloi had no defensive armor, and carried only bows and slings. Recruited from the poorer classes, they were of far less value in action than the hoplites, but some psiloi, like the Cretan bowmen, were celebrated for their accurate aim and the penetration of their arrows. . . . To the government, whatever it might be, was intrusted the care of all things pertaining to the military establishment. . . . The weak feature of the Greek military organization was the lack of unity of command. The armies were as a rule commanded alternately, for a given period,—often but a day,—by one of several leaders, elected by the people, who jointly made a council of war, and who were apt to be under the control of other non-military officials sent by the government to watch them. This system very naturally arose from the history and tendencies towards liberty of the various states, but was coupled with very difficult problems, and often resulted in disaster. The Greek served his country without pay. To receive money for a duty was in early days considered an indignity. Plunder, however, made up for this lack of remuneration. After a victory, the booty was collected; part was vowed to the gods and placed in their temples, and the rest was divided according to rank and merit,—the leaders being usually entitled to the lion's share. . . . Among all the Greek states, Sparta in the ninth century B. C., and Athens in the sixth, were distinguished for the perfection of their military organization. . . . Heavy infantry was the main reliance of Sparta. [See also HIPPEIS.] The soldier wore full armor; he held it a duty to the state to preserve intact his body for the state, but he did not seek safety by the method of Hudibras. He deemed it dishonor to lose, or to fight without, his shield. Not to have it with him implied that in his haste to run away he had cast it aside, so as to run the faster. He bore a heavy pike, generally a lighter lance, and a short double-edged sword. There was little light infantry, and the cavalry was mediocre. It was formed in eight ranks, and generally got beaten. . . . From the abolition of the kings down to the days of Solon (1068-594 B. C.), owing to the internal discords and external conflicts of Athens, the war-establishment was uncertain. . . . Every citizen was bound to service. Though Athens was a democracy, the citizens were often in a small minority. There were at one time but ninety thousand of them to forty-five thousand foreigners and three hundred and sixty thousand slaves. . . . Every Athenian freeman was held to pursue a certain gymnastic and military training in the public schools. At eighteen years of age he took a solemn oath of fealty to the state, and entered upon his military duties. From twenty to forty he was bound to serve, whenever drawn, within or beyond the Attic territory. After twenty years' service the citizen was dis-

charged, and entered upon civil pursuits. But up to his sixtieth year he must be ready at all times to fall into the ranks to resist invasion. . . . The heavy infantry was the strong arm of Athens, as of Sparta. The hoplite still bore the Homeric arms, consisting of large shield, long lance and short sword. The Homeric armor remained substantially the same among the Greeks ever after. . . . The organization of the troops at this time is not accurately known. It appears to have been much the same as the Spartan,—the names merely differing."—T. A. Dodge, *Alexander*, pp. 28-29, 31-36, 39-42.—See also ATHENS: B. C. 650-594.

See also GREEK FIRE.

4. Ancient Oriental armies.—Biblical times.—Moses, Saul, David and Solomon.—Assyrians, Babylonians and Medes.—According to Diodorus, the Greek historian who lived in the first century B. C., Queen Semiramis and her husband Ninus, said to have been the founder of Nineveh, had armies of nearly two million fighting men. So far as can be gathered from ancient records, the first guards and regular troops as a standing army were formed by Saul, 1093 B. C. (1 Samuel, 13:2). The army of Xerxes invading Greece in 480 B. C. is said to have been composed of 1,700,000 foot and 80,000 horse. One of the earliest standing armies of which we have any account is that of Philip of Macedon. The army with which Darius opposed Alexander the Great in 332 B. C. is stated to have numbered close to a million. "Among the ancient Oriental nations, military service was generally confined to a caste. . . . There was plenty of courage in the Eastern armies, but small discipline and *ensemble*. There was no strategic manœuvring; armies simply met and fought. Battle was opened by the light troops; the chariots then charged, and were followed up by an advance of the heavy foot, while the cavalry sought to surround the flanks of the enemy. The parallel order was universal, and open plains were chosen as battlefields. The Jews had, even under Moses, a fine organization. There was a sort of landwehr of two hundred and eighty-eight thousand men, of which a twelfth was always on duty. While using other arms, the sling remained a favorite weapon. The Jews learned much of war from the Philistines. The Egyptians were excellent soldiers in early times; but their chariots and cavalry were gradually driven out by the extension of the canal system, which prevented their manœuvring; and mercenaries crept into use to the detriment of the service. The Egyptian formation was generally in huge squares of one hundred files one hundred deep."—T. A. Dodge, *Alexander*, p. 14.—"The army organization of the Assyrians, Babylonians and Medes had a similar origin and much common likeness in form. Military service was the sole right of a certain caste, and among the Medes was looked on as the highest of pursuits. The standing armies consisted of the king's body-guard, often very large; particular corps under command of nobles of high degree, which helped to sustain the centralized government; and provincial troops. The population was divided into bodies of ten, one hundred, one thousand, ten thousand, each of which furnished its quota of men; and the army was itself organized on a decimal basis. A vast horde of nomads, mostly horse, and excellent of its kind, was wont to accompany the regular army, either for pay or in hope of plunder. [Infantry constituted the bulk, cavalry the flower, of the Oriental armies.] For many generations after the Greek infantry had shown to the world its superiority over any other, the Oriental cavalry was still far ahead of that of Greece. . . . The armament of the light troops consisted of bows and slings;

they wore no defensive armor. The nobles and well-to-do, who served as heavy troops, were superbly armed and equipped. They bore a sword, battle-axe, javelins, pike and dagger, or some of these. . . . Among the Jews, every man over twenty years of age, with certain stated exceptions, was a warrior. The twelve tribes each furnished a corps, which, at the time of the flight from Egypt, was, on the average, fifty thousand strong. From this corps, in times of war, the needed number of recruits was selected by lot or rote. It was a draft pure and simple. Saul first established a body-guard. In David's time (1025 B. C.) the number of Jews fit for war was one million three hundred thousand, and each tribe furnished twenty-four thousand men for active duty. One of these bodies served each month, under a captain who reviewed it, and was held responsible for its effectiveness. . . . Solomon largely increased the number of cav-

that his army was divided into three corps. There was clearly an established rank and command. Under Moses, the Jews fortified their daily camp in form of a square. But permanent fortification of cities they only learned after conquering Palestine. Jerusalem was strongly fortified by David, on the method then usual among the Orientals."—T. A. Dodge, *Alexander*, pp. 14-16, 18-21.

5. Persian army under Darius.—Greek, Spartan and Athenian armies.—Peloponnesian War.—Theban Sacred Band.—Athens after Marathon.—“The Persian kingdom founded by Cyrus first received a regular military organization from Darius, son of Hystaspes (B. C. 521-485). This monarch divided his territory into twenty satrapies, confided to each satrap only the civil power, while he himself appointed and controlled the commander of the military forces. These troops were fed from the taxes collected in each satrapy. There were



CHARGE OF PERSIAN SCYTHIE CHARIOTS

(After drawing by A. Castaigne)

alry and chariots, and perfected their organization and discipline. . . . At a later day the Jews acquired and used short, wide, curved swords and lances. But the sling always remained a favorite weapon, and in its use they were curiously expert. In the *corps d'élite* of the time of the Judges, which consisted of twenty-six thousand men who drew the sword, was a body of seven hundred left-handed slingers, who could cut a hair hung up as a target. So early as the time of Moses, even, the drill and discipline of the Jewish army was considerable. . . . Solomon kept on foot fourteen hundred chariots and twelve thousand cavalry. He had stalls for forty thousand chariot-horses, which probably included the equipages for the royal household and the army trains. These figures, compared with the numbers of chariots at Thymbra and Arbela, seem exaggerated; but they serve to show that the main reliance for the day was on chariots rather than on cavalry. A careful military organization no doubt existed. We read in Holy Writ that David appointed Joab captain-general over his army, with twenty-seven lieutenants under him, and

active and garrison troops. The former were divided into bodies of one thousand men each, and did duty on the borders and along the great highways which traversed the kingdom. They were rigidly inspected, and a grand review of them held each year. The whole kingdom was divided into military districts, with central assembly points in each. The garrison troops were kept under separate control for the protection of the city fortresses, and were not obliged to assemble for the annual inspection. Their organization was quite apart from the active army, though resembling it in minor detail. Several corps, each ten thousand strong, served at court. The most noble and brave of the Persians served in a *corps d'élite*, which was kept always at ten thousand men, and was known as the Immortals. These held the first place of honor in the army. The second belonged to a somewhat similar corps of Medes. The satraps and great officials each had his own body-guard, which he regulated himself. The whole population, like the Jews, was divided into tens, hundreds, thousands and ten thousands, and in case of war fresh

corps or reinforcements could be raised quickly and effectively. These levies, when made, were apt to be commanded by the large land-owners of the districts where raised, thus preserving the national character of the force. Sometimes, as in Darius' expedition against the Scythians, or Xerxes' against Greece, a general draft of the entire people was made, and the king determined how much each province should furnish in men, material, horses, ships and so forth. . . . The troops were not paid. During active service they were fed by simply seizing and gathering in supplies wherever found. Provinces through which a Persian army passed were eaten up as by a plague of grasshoppers. . . . Though the Persians became a luxurious people and lost much of their warlike quality, they were in early days simple, soldierly and brave. They received an excellent training for war. It was only cohesion which the Persian army lacked. But after the days of Xerxes I. (465 B. C.) they began to fall backwards. . . . Mercenary troops were gradually introduced, and to the best of these the safety of the kingdom was confided. This labor-saving system grew fast when it was found easy to raise mercenaries. Asiatics and Greeks were both enlisted. The former made the bulk, the latter the kernel of the Persian armies. The Greek phalangites received pay at the rate of one daricus (a ducat) per head per month, between four and five dollars, in addition to which sum, it is probable, they received an equal amount for rations. . . . The most effective part of the Asiatic armies was cavalry. In this the Orientals have always excelled. The horse was in the East then, as now, the constant companion of man, and cavalry was the natural arm. The best heavy cavalry was the Persian; then followed the Median, that of Asia Minor, the Parthian. The nomad tribes furnished an excellent light cavalry, much like the Cossacks of to-day. The foot was more numerous but less good. The light troops, slingers, darters and archers, were abundant, but had little discipline. The Greek mercenaries furnished the stanchest of the heavy troops. There were as high as fifty thousand in the Persian service at one time. Bodies of native troops were organized in like fashion. Some of the Persians were accoutred in the most splendid manner; wore scaled armor and carried weapons of the finest description. Chariots, plain and scythed, were in vogue, and camels bearing archers and darters were not uncommon. . . . Organization and discipline in the field were wretched. On the march there was no order. The army camped near water and pasturage, and surrounded the camps with wagons, stockades and earthworks,—sometimes using their shields as a capping to the latter. The higher generals had tents; the commonalty slept in huts in permanent camps, or without shelter in daily camps. . . .

"Down to the battle of Plataea (479 B. C.) there was small change in the organization of the Greeks. From that time on, many alterations came gradually about. A number of slaves appeared in the ranks. The first instance of a standing army was the occasion when the Greek cities, during the Persian wars, mutually agreed to keep under arms ten thousand foot, one thousand horse, and one hundred warships. Wars beyond the borders of Greece called for larger forces than had been necessary, and in addition to the citizen-soldier . . . large forces of freedmen, slaves, and particularly mercenary troops, were created. In the Peloponnesian war, and during the period of her greatest splendor (465-429 B. C.), Athens made use extensively of mercenary troops, and other Greek states soon followed suit. Down to the

Peloponnesian war the Athenians had retained their civil and military virtues in full force. But this internecine struggle ruined the population, devastated Greece, and familiarized the Greeks with serving for gold. Pericles found it necessary to pay the troops. The hoplites had nothing left to subsist upon. They had already served for pay in Asia, on a limited scale; but after the Peloponnesian war, the Oriental princes or satraps, Carthage, or indeed any other people or prince who needed them, had no difficulty in collecting large bodies of Greek mercenaries. From this paid foreign service it was but a step to the point where the Greeks were willing to serve in preference him who paid the most. The pay varied from five to twenty cents a day. The best of the Greek population embraced arms as a profession, engaged mostly abroad, and left the poorer material at home. Greek cities themselves had to hire soldiers. The better citizens would no longer serve. They procured substitutes, and the armies, often kept standing, were filled with wretched stuff. But in most of the Greek cities there remained a better nucleus, a *corps d'élite*, in which alone the highest citizens had a place. Though this was small, it was a leaven. Such was the Theban Sacred Band, or Band of Lovers, which was bound together by ties of affection and oaths of fidelity, and, but three hundred strong, so often saved the day for Thebes. This gallant body was finally cut to pieces at Chæronea. It would not yield a foot. Every man fell where he stood, sword in hand. . . . The hoplites continued to be the favorite troops. Only they were looked on as warriors. Their armament remained the same, except that their shields grew smaller,—from four to two and a half feet in height, while the pike grew longer,—from ten to as much as twenty-one feet, or, as some state, twenty-four feet, which was the sarissa of Macedon. . . . It was reserved for Iphicrates of Athens to better their discipline and condition, and prove their utility in service. After the Peloponnesian war he created a new body, armed with well-poisoned spears for casting, light but good linen armor, and a small, round shield (*pelte*), from which they were called *pelastai*. . . . This new arm proved useful, and was shortly imitated by the other Greek cities. Scarlet or crimson were the favorite colors of the warrior. The Greek cavalry was either heavy,—*cataphracti*, bearing long double-ended lances, sword and axe, small shield, and fully armored, as was also the horse; or light,—*acrobolisti*, far-shooters,—who were merely light-armed riders and like nomads in their methods. . . . But the Greek cavalry was essentially poor, though certain leaders, like Epaminondas, managed to get good work out of it. The Greeks were not a nation of horsemen. . . . Until Plataea the Greek troops served without remuneration. The Athenians first began to pay the troops. The amount varied. It averaged ten drachmas (two dollars) per month for a foot soldier. The cavalry received two, three, and four times as much, according to its grading. The officers were paid twice to five times as much as the men. . . . Discipline varied much at different times and with different nations, being naturally a reflection of the character of the people, or of the leaders. Down to the Peloponnesian war, discipline and the feeling of honor among the troops was markedly good in almost all Greek states. . . .

"Sparta's system remained substantially the same from the time of Lycurgus down to the Peloponnesian war. But rivalry with Athens and the necessity of possessing a fleet, if Sparta would arrest her competitor's preponderance in Greece, changed the habits of centuries. Money became essential

to conduct war against wealthy Athens, and money brought into Sparta those things which soon drove out the ancient national simplicity. And this all the more speedily from its novelty. The armies now no longer contained citizens alone, though these were still the kernel; but the Laconians, freedmen, helots and mercenary troops composed a large part of it. The free population was divided into five classes, from which the ephors called into service in war as many as were needed, according to age. Cleombrotus, at Leuctra, had in the ranks the citizens from twenty to thirty-five; after Leuctra, those up to forty were called in. The number of freedmen who gradually crept into service was large. Agesilaus had three thousand in Asia. The helots were called in only in cases of grave danger, as before Mantinæa. The kings still held the command, but came more and more under the control of the ephors. The latter held the real power, and went on occasion so far as to displace the kings from command. The troops were not yet on a paid basis, excepting the helots and mercenaries; but the kings and their staff or suite were victualled. . . . After the Peloponnesian war, discipline declined and the state was often forced to resort to largesses to encourage the troops to those exertions they had been in the habit of yielding as of course. . . . Athens, after Marathon, which redounded to her greatest honor, rose rapidly in power, and the tendency towards democracy brought about many changes. Citizens from twenty to forty were still subject to military duty, but were permitted to procure substitutes. The list of citizens freed from military duty grew large. Aliens, freedmen and even slaves gradually crept into the ranks, the latter mostly in the fleet. Auxiliary troops from allied or tributary nations and mercenaries increased in proportion to the citizen-soldiers. The forces of Athens were large, especially at sea; and during the height of her power the conduct of her leading citizens and of the troops was uniformly patriotic and brilliant. Ten strategoi commanded the forces, —one for each tribe (phylê),—and were selected by lot or vote. At the expiration of a year they laid down their command, and rendered an account of their doings to the people. They were often re-elected. . . . Under the ten strategoi were ten taxiarchs, who were a sort of aide-de-camp, but with specific duties and command. The taxiarchs looked after victual, camps, the order of march, weapons, and so forth. Each strategos also had one or more heralds. . . . The richest and best fitted citizens served in the cavalry. Rigid examinations of physical strength and financial ability to support the cost of cavalry service were required. But this arm none the less remained very mediocre. The Athenians were seamen, not horsemen.”—T. A. Dodge, *Alexander*, pp. 57-64; 70-71, 78-82.—See also ATHENS: B. C. 650-594; GREECE: B. C. 479; Persian Wars: Mycale.

6. Macedonia.—Armies of Philip and Alexander.—Military reforms of Alexander.—“It was Philip who first gave shape to the army, transforming what was a mere manhood duty of service, or obligatory militia system, into a standing army, which rose under him to number forty thousand men. This was the first instance in which a free people subordinated itself to a military autocracy whose head was the king. It was this which made Macedonia the superior of Greece, which had lost its old habits of personal service, and now depended largely upon mercenary soldiers, or upon volunteer service and substitutes. Personal service, unless coupled with the discipline and methods of a standing force, makes an army of volunteers rather than of regulars. In former days the Greeks

had had what came very close to the best discipline attained by a standing army. But the phalanx had gradually lost its cohesion. . . . No doubt the Greek habit of relying on voluntary service made for true freedom, as our own [American] organization rather than that of the Prussians yields the greatest good to the greatest number; but as a military machine Macedonia with its standing forces was far ahead of the rest of Greece. When Philip was elected to the throne (B. C. 359) to succeed his brother, Perdiccas III., the Macedonian infantry was composed of raw and ragged material, mostly hide-clad shepherds, armed with wicker shields and ill-assorted weapons. It was a rabble rather than an army. The cavalry was better, in fact the best in Greece, where horse had not been much in vogue, and had been drilled to charge in compact order, and with a short thrusting pike as weapon. Still it could not be pronounced satisfactory. Philip saw that cavalry would not suffice; he must have infantry to meet the solid ranks of the Theban, Athenian and Spartan phalanx. The foot-soldier, with whom he had by his Theban education become familiar, was the one who, under Epaminondas' skillful tactics, had broken the theretofore invincible array of the Lacedæmonians. Philip must build up an infantry which could break the Theban formation. . . . [He] invented the sarissa or long two-handed pike, which protruded so far beyond the front rank that the Greek hoplite could not reach his enemy so as to use his shorter weapons; and by this device he overcame the Grecian phalanx. . . . The army for war was raised: first, from the Macedonian people, as a kernel; second, from tributary tribes,—Thessalians, Thracians, Phæonians, Triballians, Odrysians, Illyrians and others; third from allied nations, such as the Greeks; fourth, from mercenary troops, Greeks and others. The Thessalians were really allies; but they were under a Macedonian chief, as were also the Greek allies. . . . To Philip is due the credit of organizing the whole Macedonian military establishment; Alexander in no material manner changed what he inherited, but only expanded the system, so as to make room for the introduction of new elements in the East, and to create *cadres* of sufficient size to treble the strength of the army. He was wise enough to recognize that he could not better the results of his father's wonderful capacity for organization. . . . The Spartan and the Athenian phalanxes . . . were superb of their kind; but the Macedonian phalanx will always remain in history as the ideal of shock tactics.”—T. A. Dodge, *Alexander*, pp. 135-137.—See also GREECE: B. C. 350-358.—“Alexander was a soldier and a general in the first place. His greatness in this respect is admitted even by his detractors. If the ability of a general consists of swift discovery and vigorous execution of what is required for victory and of unswerving pursuit of his aim by the best means available, then Alexander was one of the greatest generals that have ever lived. His method was energetic action directed to a single point, and that point the main one; and this is no doubt the best method. In the control of his soldiers he has been rivalled by few generals, and he also knew how to yield to them at the right moment. Only one reproach can be made against him as a soldier, viz., that he risked his life too often. True, he achieved many a success by it more quickly than he otherwise would have done, and we know that even aged generals have occasionally exposed themselves to danger more than was proper. Alexander exhibited prudence when it was necessary, and daring when it led him to the goal. But Alexander was also a first-rate military organizer.

. . . The heavy infantry were called Pezetairi, the Macedonian cavalry Hetairi. The expression friends' denotes the Macedonian soldiers who served the king for friendship's sake, the retainers of the king, who besides called out as many men in his own country as he liked. But there were also light infantry called Hypaspistæ in the Macedonian army. The concentration and authority of the chief command were greater in the Macedonian than in any Greek army, not excepting the Spartan, where . . . the superior officers were often wanting in discipline. A select body of all classes of troops formed the king's guard, and was called Agema. Distinct from these are the body-guard (Somatophylakes), a small number of men, selected from among the ablest officers in the army; they have rightly been compared to the adjutant-generals of our modern armies. The commands over the various divisions of the army were distributed each time as occasion required. There were also Greeks in the army, but they were mostly professional soldiers. Alexander appears to have taken very few contingents from the various states, with the exception of Thessaly, which he regarded as his own territory. . . . The troops received on an average ten staters (20 drachmæ) a month, and their food as well. They could not save much with this, and booty could not be made everywhere. They did not therefore get rich as a matter of course. If the army stayed anywhere for a time, as in Bactria and Sogdiana, the rank and file naturally had a pleasant life. Rewards consisted chiefly of assignments of lands in the neighbourhood of the cities founded by the king. Many soldiers too who had seen long service or were wounded were sent home with gifts from the king."—A. Holm, *History of Greece*, pp. 376-377.—"Alexander employed more cavalry than any one up to his day, and handled it better. No one has ever surpassed his cavalry tactics. Epaminondas had but one tenth of his force mounted. Alexander had one sixth to one quarter. This he found essential in order to cope with the great and admirable force of cavalry in the Persian army. For cavalry was the choice arm of the Asiatics, and it was very skillful. The cavalry, as a rule, was composed of Macedonians and Thessalians, who were heavy horse, and Thracians and Ætolians, who were light horse. . . . The changes in the cavalry made by Alexander in the East were also on a different basis. The army here described is Philip's army. This Alexander modified without changing substantially that in it which made it so efficient. It was a disciplined army, and discipline cannot be described in words; it is only shown in deeds. . . . No Asiatic cavalry could ever stand their shock, no infantry resist their onset. Alexander's battles were uniformly decided by them. The marches they could execute were well exemplified in the pursuit of Darius, when they made three thousand three hundred stades—three hundred and sixty-six miles—in eleven days, under a burning sun, and part way across a desert country without water. . . . Later Alexander made a special body of *sais-sophori* or lancers. Just wherein they differed from other pike-carrying horsemen, unless that the lance was longer, is not known. Third were the *dimachias* (two-fashioned fighters), light dragoons, who could engage either on foot or mounted. They had light defensive armor and shields, swords and a lance which they could use for thrusting or casting. They opened the combat and pursued the broken enemy. These were a sort of mounted peltast, midway between heavy and irregular cavalry. . . . The light cavalry was especially recruited among the allies. Alexander used to mix archers and sometimes targeteers, *i.e.*, peltasts, or sometimes even

shield-bearing guards with his horse. These footmen proved useful in checking disorder, and the archers were so active as to be able to keep up with the horse in all their marches and evolutions. . . . Finally, there were in Asia numerous bodies of irregular light troops, both foot and horse, slingers, archers and javelin-throwers. These were used much as the Austrians used Pandours in the Seven Years' War, or as the German Uhlans or the Russian Cossacks are to-day. Of the light foot the Agrianians, who were javelin-throwers from the Mount Hæmus region, under command of Attalus, were the most important and numerous; and the Thracian javelin-throwers, Sitalces commanding, were equally useful and steady on all occasions. These were the flankers of the army. Famous archers came from Crete. Clearchus was their commander at the outset; but the chiefs mentioned were often subject to change on account of death or wounds. . . . We know nothing about the baggage or wagon train, but it must have been much what it is to-day, except that pack-animals were more common than wagons. Horses had to have forage and soldiers rations then as now, and we do not hear that Alexander's men carried twenty days' victual, like Cæsar's legionaries, on their persons. They had basket-work haversacks, and their rations consisted of salt meat, cheese, olives, onions and corn. At one time there was, according to Philip's orders, a porter for every ten phalangites, and the hetairai or cavalry Companions always had servants. Philip is said to have first taken from the infantry their baggage-wagons and cut down the horseman's servants to one, and he often marched his men with full complement of equipment, baggage and provision, even in summer heat, thirty miles a day as a mere matter of training. Headquarters must necessarily have had certain facilities for doing business. That there were provost-marshals we know, and there are one or two references which sound as if there was a regular field-hospital service. All this demanded transportation. The quartermaster's and commissary's as well as engineer departments we read little about. But there is evidence of their wonderful efficiency in everything which Alexander did. The system was the creation of Philip. . . . The corps of 'pages' was perhaps the first institution which may be said to have been an embryo military school,—a by no means incomplete West Point. From these pages came eventually all the higher officers. . . . Philip had introduced the graduated system of rank and command, and of advancement strictly according to merit. . . . The word of the king was supreme law. But it was common to summon councils of war from time to time to decide matters of great moment. . . . In such councils the officers of given rank, whether of Macedonians or Greeks, auxiliary or mercenary, Thracians or Agrianians, Odrussians, or Pæonians, were all present and had equal right to be heard and considered. But it is probable that the Macedonians had higher rank and more influence in such councils. . . . But Alexander invariably, excepting at the Hyphasis, carried his point. His persuasiveness was always equal to the respect and affection of his subordinates."—T. A. Dodge, *Alexander*, pp. 150-155, 158, 163, 168, 170.

7. Carthage.—Military system and weapons.—Development under Hamilcar, Barca, and Hannibal.—"Carthage preferred mercenary troops to a system of personal military service. Her citizens being mostly traders or rich planters, whose time was too valuable to the state, or whose social position was too high, to allow them to spend their years in the ranks, it was natural that a standing army should

grow up by permitting substitution. Moreover the hiring, for such an army, of soldiers and sailors among the numerous semi-civilized tribes with which Carthage traded, kept up her pleasant relations with these tribes and enabled her gradually to extend her influence over their neighbors. Commerce with the barbarians was highly remunerative. The same rule applied to the navy, which was in like fashion manned by bought and hired crews. held two hundred thousand complete suits of armor, an immense number of darts and javelins and two thousand catapults, and Strabo repeats the fact, making the number of engines three thousand. Trained artificers in these arsenals were able to turn out each day one hundred to one hundred and twenty shields or bucklers, three hundred swords, one thousand catapult-missiles, five hundred lances and a number of engines. The Carthaginian citizen was found only to a limited numerical extent in the army. But in the cavalry, where wealth was required and honor sought, and especially in a *corps d'élite* called the Sacred Band,—the body-guard of the commander-in-chief and a sort of training-school for officers like the Macedonian Pages,—and in the higher official berths, he was fairly well represented. The Sacred Band, which consisted of fifteen hundred infantry, was sumptuously clad and equipped, and was noted for its courage and discipline. The cavalry, one thousand strong, came next in order of importance, and appears to have formed an appendage to the Sacred Band. Thus but twenty-five hundred of those who were fortunate enough to hold Carthaginian citizenship served in an army then numbering seventy thousand men. Though not commonly in the ranks, the citizen was in times of public danger held to service, and the city alone could put on foot an army of forty thousand hoplites and one thousand horse. The next grade of land troops came from the Liby-Phœnicians, peoples lying near by and tributary to Carthage, and the outcome of an admixture of the colonial and native blood. These tribes furnished a much higher number than Carthage herself. The foreign mercenaries were the bulk of the army. These last troops were recruited among all nations in Africa and Europe with which Carthage had commercial relations, with the idea, says Polybius, of avoiding conspiracies and mutiny by having no common political aspirations among the several divisions of the army. Indeed, the different bodies did not generally understand each other's language. They were apt to be devoted only to their immediate chief. These troops were got in bodies of hundreds and thousands by bargain and sale from the governments of their respective countries. As a rule, some senator was sent as ambassador to such nations as it was desired to reach, and a given number of troops arranged for on given terms of payment. The best of these mercenary troops were the Iberians from the Spanish peninsula. Among the most recklessly brave were the half-naked Gauls, who at a very early period served for pay in the Carthaginian ranks. The most numerous were the nomad soldiers collected from every part of the African coast, from Egypt to the Pillars of Hercules. The general plan of recruitment was not dissimilar to the Persian. The Great King assembled under his banners all the peoples of the East; Carthage all the nations of the West. The numbers under arms have probably been vastly over-estimated by the ancient Greek and Roman historians. . . . In seasons of peace, the nucleus of the army was kept intact, with plenty of weapons in the arsenals, and horses and beasts of burden. The citadel was not only the centre of

military defense, but the headquarters of the army as well. Here were the barracks for the troops; and here the commander of the citadel and of the troops in garrison was in sole authority. . . . The generals were chosen from the citizens by the people. . . . At the side of the general in command stood a deputy of the senate, who not only watched his proceedings, but to a certain extent might direct them. In the fifth century there had been an attempt by an army-commander named Malchus to seize the reins of government, and there was at once constituted the above-named *gerousia* or Elders' War Council of one hundred and four senators, who thereafter were the supreme commanders, and who directed and controlled all military operations, however distant, drew up the plans of campaign, required strict compliance with their demands, and rewarded or punished the successful or unsuccessful captains as they chose. Even a reasonable or necessary variation from their plan was sometimes mercilessly chastised. The War Council's plan could rarely accord with the existing facts; generals dared assume no responsibility; their conduct was apt to be indecisive or weak; and if a campaign was successful, it was in spite of the system. Over half-civilized or quite barbarous nations victory could be easily won. But when the Carthaginians met even smaller armies of well-disciplined troops under good generals whose hands were free, they were apt to fail. The defeats they suffered at the hands of Gelon, the elder Dionysius and Timoleon abundantly prove this fact. The Carthaginian foot and horse were each divided into heavy and light, regular and irregular. The weapons, equipment and manner of fighting were almost as various as the nationalities. Each petty detachment came to swell the host of irregulars with its own peculiar arms and habits. The Sacred Band was a body of heavy-armed infantry, composed, says Diodorus, only of leading Carthaginian citizens. Plainer citizens served in the phalanx when on duty. The infantry of the Sacred Band carried a large circular shield over three feet in diameter, a short sword and probably also a pike or lance; were clad in a red tunic and wore sandals. Though not mentioned in the authorities, they no doubt wore armor. Others among the richer of the Carthaginians who entered service were appointed to the heavy cavalry, a position which entailed great expense to maintain at a proper level. These cavalrymen were distinguished by wearing golden rings, one for each campaign served by them, and their weapons were a buckler, a longer and a shorter lance and a wide, short sword. They were clad in mail and wore a helmet and greaves. That there were so few of these leading Carthaginian citizens in a large army shows the system up in its weakest aspect. The Liby-Phœnicians fought mainly as heavy foot and horse. All these infantry troops carried a heavy and long spear as their chief weapon, much like the Greek hoplite, on whom indeed they were at this time patterned so far as race peculiarities permitted.

"The Spanish infantry and horse were also classed as heavy, but their chief weapon was a powerful cut-and-thrust sword for close quarters, in the use of which they were wonderfully expert. They wore white woolen tunics, with red edges, and carried a huckler made of bull's hide. The Spaniards were then, and have always been, under good generals, the making of excellent soldiers. The Gauls were of light complexion, and were fond of dyeing their hair red. They wore it long, hanging over the shoulders or tied in a knot at the top of the head. The men wore full beards, the officers

only a mustache. Up to the time of the Gauls with Rome, the Gauls fought on foot, almost naked, with a sword good only for cutting, of no use except at swinging distance and apt to be dulled or bent by the first blow upon a good helmet or shield. The Roman soldier, who with gladius and scutum closed sharply with his man, had the Gaul at an utter disadvantage. The Gauls were noted for genial qualities and courage, but equally for inconstancy, wildness and brutality. When not in battle, they were clad in a shirt, loose tunic and cloak. Their helmets, not always worn, were decked with horns or feathers, and were made of considerable height to give to the soldier a taller look and thus increase the terror of his aspect. They wore many bracelets, necklaces, and rings. For additional arms they had slings, a lance with fire-sharpened point, a pike or halberd with curved blade and a club. They were most dangerous as swordsmen and Hannibal replaced all their other weapons with their one peculiar arm, manufacturing these in Cartagena, so as to give them the advantage of the best of material. They later adopted armor and a shield, which in early days they had despised. The next most valuable arm was the corps of two thousand Balacrean slingers, then peculiar to Carthage. They carried two slings, one for long, one for short distance firing. The distance and accuracy of their aim with pebble-stones and leaden bullets are so well vouched for that we are fain to believe the feats narrated of them, and can fully understand their military value. We know that the Jewish left-handed slingers could sling stones at a hair's breadth; and on the Retreat of the Ten Thousand, Xenophon was not satisfied with his light troops until he had organized a band of slingers, for these seemed best able to keep the enemy at a distance when protecting the column. Their fire was more severe than that of the best archers of the day. The ordinary light footman had lance and javelins and a small round shield of hide-covered wood. He was a fine marcher, and some of the men could keep pace with a galloping horse. They and the Gauls were wont to indulge in fearful outcries in battle. They were very clever in casting darts, and were not apt to miss their aim at any fair distance. The Africans were straight-featured, strong and hardy. They shaved their heads and left but a small fringe of beard. They tattooed extensively. They wore a red hood, a white woolen shirt hanging to the knees and belted at the waist. A bournous, or cloak, or the skin of a goat or some wild beast, covered their shoulders. Their legs were bare. A long lance, bow and arrows, a buckler of elephant's or bull's hide, sometimes a long sword, were their weapons. Some had special arms, such as flails, and harpoons held by a cord. Later, Hannibal armed these men with the Roman weapons picked up on the battle-fields of the Trebia and Transimene and Cannae. The Africans were peculiarly tough, faithful and uncomplaining. They were hideously cruel to their prisoners, and hard to restrain from massacre; but they were the best of material from which to make a devoted army. . . . The Carthaginian army was quickly moved because not loaded down with baggage, nor consisting of much heavy material. It could march long distances, and its light troops preserved it from surprises. But these light troops at the same time devastated the country, making subsistence difficult and retreat impossible; and were often hard to control. There was little organization, and under the every-day general little discipline. Owing to the vast numbers of cavalry-horses, and

generally the presence of elephants, it could not be readily transported across sea; and, like all armies full of unintelligent material, it was subject to severe epidemics of sickness. It must not be understood that such was the complexion of the army of Hamilcar or Hannibal. These partook peculiarly of the genius of their leaders, as armies always do. The above description applies to the Carthaginian army as a whole, and in most points not to those bodies which did such wonderful work in Spain and Italy. . . . So far as minor tactics, arms, organization, and marches and battles are concerned, we do not know as much about those of the Carthaginians as about those of other nations. It is generally understood that, during the First Punic and down to the beginning of the Second Punic War, the heavy and regular foot and horse approximated largely to the Macedonian type. Xanthippus, during the First Punic War, joined the Carthaginian army with a body of Greek mercenaries. These of course retained the phalangial habit, and as they were the best troops in the army, and Xanthippus was placed in command of all the Carthaginian forces, the Greeks no doubt gave a phalangial training to the Carthaginians, whose foot was already set up somewhat after this fashion; for intercourse with Greece as well as the traditions of Tyre would no doubt accomplish so much; and the knowledge of Alexander's wonderful successes would lead the Carthaginians to imitate his method, so far as they could learn it. The light and mercenary troops retained their own methods of combat, regulated by such masters as Hamilcar and Hannibal to suit the occasions which might arise. We shall see the latter introducing a number of Roman methods. . . . The cavalry, if organized on a Greek basis, was light and heavy, the former being mostly used in outpost duty. The heavy fought in a unit of sixteen ranks, four men deep, called an ilē. How the Numidian and other light cavalry was organized is not known, but the Carthaginian army decidedly lacked homogeneity. . . . Of light cavalry there was an indefinite number. Several of these phalanxes acting together in one line were known as a grand phalanx. That the Carthaginian army adopted exactly this formation is not known, but its organization was unquestionably phalangial. From the time of the First Punic War, the military power of Carthage was markedly on the wane. It was only the wonderful military capacity of Hamilcar Barca and his family which made the light to brighten—as it did indeed in a manner seen but a few times in the world's history—before it finally flickered and went out. . . . But it must be noted, though the military power of Carthage was about to expire, that, owing to the extraordinary military talent of the Barcas, Carthage never possessed an army so hardened by campaigns, so inured to discipline and so devoted to its chief as the one which Hannibal commanded when he left Spain on his way to Italy. This was in spite of the decadence of Carthage, and purely the individual work of this remarkable family. Military capacity is infrequently transmitted to posterity. The few exceptions to this rule shine with all the more radiance from their rarity. It is a curious fact that out of the six greatest captains of history, three, Alexander, Hannibal and Frederick, owe their armies to their fathers' skill as organizers, and the two former came honestly by their military genius."—T. A. Dodge, *Hannibal*, pp. 11-12, 14-19, 23, 25-30.

8. Rome.—Marius, founder of professional army.—Changes in service and administration.—Abolition of distinctions.—"It was Marius

[c. 155-86 B.C.], the first professional general, who formed the first professional army. . . . Greece, even before the end of the fifth century, had already begun to use paid and trained soldiers, partly owing to the unwillingness of her comfortable or busy citizens to engage in annual campaigns, but still more because it was found that the more highly trained and better disciplined mercenaries were far more efficient at their business. So for many centuries Rome had now been the only power in the Mediterranean world to rely upon a citizen militia. [See *COMITIA CENTURIATA*.] That citizen militia had indeed conquered the world; but certainly in dealing with the trained troops of Pyrrhus and Hannibal, the Roman forces had already begun with disaster and slowly been schooled to their trade by defeat. So it was now in the Jugurthan [111-107 B.C.] and Cimbric [113-105 B.C.] wars: the generals had to train their armies in the face of the enemy, and while that is no doubt the best training ground it is terribly dangerous and expensive. It implies, too, an almost inexhaustible stock of recruits to fall back upon. With the decline of Italian agriculture and the growth of city life the stock of recruits was no longer inexhaustible. Moreover the art of war was becoming more intricate. Rome found it necessary to appoint a genuine soldier for her general against Jugurtha in view of the disastrous failures of aristocratic amateurs. In the same way Marius found it necessary to overhaul the Roman fighting machine, and by the end of his five years of successive consulship he had organised a professional army on much the same system as our own [British]. Rome . . . required a highly trained expeditionary force and behind it a large reserve. The principal change instituted by Marius seemed at first a small one and required no legislative sanction. Hitherto the army had consisted only of the propertied classes, the infantry of those who could afford a suit of arms, and the cavalry of the richest citizens who could maintain one of the state horses. The minimum property for a Roman soldier is said to have been £115. The poorest had originally formed a light-armed support, the three middle classes were the line, and the richest the cavalry. But the three classes of the line had by now come to be drawn up not according to property but according to length of service. . . . But social changes were changing the army. As wealth increased and the gulf between rich and poor grew wider the comfortable burgesses were no longer obedient or willing soldiers. Bad discipline—a monstrous violation of the old Roman spirit—had begun to appear in the ranks as early as the Macedonian wars. In the Jugurthan wars it was deplorably rife. The equestrian class as the richest was also the most mutinous: as early as the third century the knights had refused to work in the trenches alongside of the legionaries. By 140 B.C. they had ceased to act as a military force and become merely a grade of honour, or rather of income, in the state, though the younger knights continued to form a corps of noble guards to the general. As for the army as a whole, the theory down to the time of Marius was still that of the annual spring campaign; each consul levied his own army for a specific purpose. This levy had become more and more difficult. The simple innovation which Marius introduced was that in the process of holding his levy he began by asking for volunteers and enrolling those first. There was generally a distinct promise of rewards on discharge. Thus instead of the moneyed classes Marius filled his ranks with the poorest and hardest inhabitants of

Rome and Italy. Of course the obligation to serve still remained part of the condition of certain subject peoples. The auxiliary ranks were now supplied by foreign experts—cavalry from the Numidian deserts or the Ligurian hills, slingers from the Balearic Islands, and presently archers from Crete. Having thus professionalised his army Marius proceeded to abolish all distinctions in the ranks. All the men of the line now had a uniform equipment supplied by the state, and instead of a bewildering variety of insignia all the legionaries now fought under that emblem destined to be carried in victory to the four corners of Europe—the silver eagle. The eagle was the standard of the legion and it was regarded as sacred. In camp it rested in a special shrine and terrible was the disgrace attaching to its loss in battle. Hitherto legions had been gathered for each campaign and disbanded at its close. Now a legion had a permanent existence, a fixed number, a tradition and an *esprit de corps* of its own. It was now a larger unit of 6000 men; for while the maniples or company of 120 men still remained, the maniples were grouped into cohorts or battalions, which now became the regular tactical unit, and ten cohorts formed the legion.”—J. C. Stobart, *Grandeur that was Rome*, pp. 96-98.—See also *ROME: Republic: B.C. 118-90, to B.C. 88-78*.

9. Roman army under Cæsar.—Battle formation.—Military service a privilege.—Organization of legions.—Induction of mercenaries.—Consequent degeneration.—Branches and armament.—“The legion with which the Romans vanquished the Grecian phalanx, and which gallantly took the fearful punishment inflicted on it by Hannibal, again and again facing destruction with unflinching courage, until the Carthaginians, exhausted by attrition, were forced to abandon Italy, was a very different body of men from the enthusiastic legion which Cæsar led victorious to the four quarters of the then known world. [See *LEGION, ROMAN*.] . . . Cæsar’s array in line of battle did not differ as greatly from Hannibal’s phalanx in the later battles of this [Second Punic] war, as it did from the legion of Marcellus or Nero. At Asculum, Herdonio and Zama, Hannibal’s army was set up in two or three lines of legionary phalanxes, so to speak. Adopting the quincunx or checkerwise formation by maniples as the typical idea of the legion of the Second Punic War, Cæsar’s army, during all his campaigns, was set up more like Hannibal’s phalanx, and at times very nearly approached it. . . . The old numerical force of the legion, say four thousand to six thousand heavy infantry and three hundred heavy cavalry as the normal strength, was retained; but the light troops, now all raised from the conquered provinces, were largely increased, both foot and horse, and were no longer an integral part of the legion. The horse grew in importance and effectiveness, for the Roman horseman had imitated the better models of light cavalry which his many wars in every land, from Iberia to the distant Orient, had afforded him. This improvement was traceable in the heavy cavalry in a lesser degree. From about one-tenth of the numerical force of the foot, the horse grew to the proportion of one-seventh or at times more. [See also *EQUESTRIAN ORDER*.] The number of legions in a consular army was no longer four, but ran up to any given number, even to ten, not counting the auxiliaries, horse or foot. Elephants and ballistic machines came into common use. A legion in the field had thirty small catapults and ballistas, each served by ten men. . . . The Gallic cavalry was superior to the foot, as it

contained the nobles. This arm was their delight. They took pride in their horses and sought noble breeds. Tilting was a frequent sport, and at banquets duels to the death were not unknown. . . . It is rather strange that Cæsar, throughout his campaigns in Gaul, relied all but exclusively on native horse; and stranger still, that he left the command of this horse to native leaders. His reasons for the last were probably mainly political; but the plan was not always followed by good results, and was constantly attended by danger. The Gallic horse, however, proved for his purposes much better than the Roman. They were an exceptional body of men."—T. A. Dodge, *Cæsar*, pp. 1-8, 57, 67.—See also *ROME: Republic: B. C. 69-63, to B. C. 45-44; GAUL: B. C. 58-51.*

10. Cæsar's strategy.—Numerical strength of formations.—Army equipment and administration.—Distribution of authority.—Soldiers' pay.—March and transport service.—Battle tactics.—Weakness in cavalry.—"Cæsar as a rule was numerically weaker than the enemy, but he was not so vastly overmatched as was Alexander, nor can the opposition to him be in any sense compared to what Hannibal encountered during his entire military life. Cæsar was far stronger than his enemies in everything but numbers, especially in self-confidence and power of work. His legionaries would bear anything and could do anything. They were very Yankees for ingenuity. Cæsar did not willingly mix the allies with his legions; he employed the native foot mostly as bowmen and slingers. He worked his army habitually well concentrated. If he divided his forces it was but for a short time, soon again to concentrate. This is an almost uniform test of military capacity. But Cæsar sought to attack the enemy before the latter had concentrated, and generally made good use of such a chance. Nimbleness of movement stood in the stead of numbers. He understood how, as Napoleon phrases it, '*se multiplier par la vitesse*' [to multiply himself by speed]. . . . The Roman soldier as to arms, equipment and minor tactics, was to all intents and purposes the same as he had been in the time of Hannibal. . . . But in character, quality and discipline, he was no longer the splendid citizen-soldier of that day. He was a professional if a Roman; a mercenary if a foreigner; and as such he was exactly what his commander made him. A similar change had obtained in the officers. The six tribunes of a legion were no longer appointed for their military qualifications or long service, but claimed their rank on the score of political or social standing, or of friendship for the chief. . . . It seems odd, with all that has been written about Roman tactics and organization from Polybius to Vegetius and Onosander, that the exact structure of Cæsar's legion, cohort, maniple and century cannot be given. . . . The allied legions of old times had all disappeared. A legion no longer meant one Roman and one allied legion, or ten thousand men. It meant simply a body of ten cohorts. In place of the allied legions there was a larger force than theretofore of light troops armed like legionaries, but less heavily, and considerably more bowmen and slingers. The light troops had a leather jerkin but no armor, and carried the round shield (*parma*) instead of the cylindrical *scutum*. The bowmen and slingers wore no armor at all. The six tribunes were divided into sets of two. Each set commanded the legion for two months, the two tribunes alternating daily, after the odd Roman fashion, which only among them could work without destroying all idea of discipline. The four

tribunes off duty acted much as quartermasters, commissaries or aides-de-camp do in modern times. All of them served mounted. To be sure that each legion should not suffer from the divided command, a legate was put in supreme supervisory control. Later Cæsar put him in actual command, and under him the two tribunes on duty probably acted as chief of staff and adjutant general of a modern brigade. The general staff of Cæsar's army comprised:—Legates, assigned by the Senate to the consul, and deriving their authority from him. They were the general officers. Cæsar had one for each of his legions. This was the first time their duty had been made definite. Quæstors, who superintended the business of a province or of an army. The quæstor was a sort of quartermaster-general. *Contubernales* and *comites pratorii*, who were volunteer aides, or if numerous a sort of gentleman bodyguard. The *Cohors pratoria*, consisting of lictors, secretaries, marshals, spies, servants and orderlies. *Speculatores* (scouts), who acted as vanguard and flankers on the march,—each legion had ten,—and who were generally sent out to reconnoitre. We must conclude that these had placed under them such details as the immediate circumstances called for. The *Body-guard*, sometimes a small cavalry detachment, but principally *evocati*,—veterans past duty years who remained voluntarily in service. Though footmen, they had horses and servants, were highly honored, served near the general, and were put into places of trust. *Fabri*, or engineers, under a *præfectus fabrorum*, of whom mention has already been made. They were used to repair weapons, construct bridges, siege-mounds and towers, and generally do the engineering work of the army. Cæsar had some very able engineers, *antesignani*, thought by some historians to have been a select body of a few men from each cohort, for service in delicate cases requiring skill and experience. They carried no baggage, and from them were often selected the centurions. But it is not improbable that the *antesignani* were actually what their name designates; that in each maniple they formed the first two ranks, to protect the ensign, which was carried in the second rank; and that they were thus a quarter or a fifth of the entire body. Some events, as at Ilerda, lead up to this belief. The pay of Cæsar's legionaries was two hundred and twenty-five *denarii* (forty dollars) a year. This was about the pay of a day-laborer. His rations and clothing were deducted from his pay, but booty and largesses greatly increased it. . . .

"The day's march (*iter*) was reckoned from camp to camp. A day of rest was customary after every three or four marches. Each night, or whenever a stop was made, the camp was fortified. . . . The legions usually fought with their camp in their rear. If they came across the enemy on the march, they stopped, half the men fortified a camp, while the others protected them, placed the baggage in it and then fought,—provided, indeed, they could so long fend off the enemy. The ordinary day's march was from fifteen to eighteen miles, theoretically supposed to be done in five summer hours, nearly seven of ours, generally from early morning to noon, there being thus enough time left for camping. . . . The average Roman march was no greater than that of modern days. . . . A vanguard (*primum agmen*) was usual, and consisted of the bulk of the cavalry and light troops, scouts, staff-officers and camp men supported by some cohorts without baggage. The main body followed. A guard brought up the rear. The duty of the van was to attack

and hold the enemy, if met, so as to enable the main body to form; to reconnoitre the front and advance flanks; to select and stake out a camp. The cavalry Cæsar sometimes kept with the main body when he did not deem it reliable, or when one of the flanks had to be protected from danger of attack. Light troops alone were used as vanguard when the cavalry was on other duty. The rearguard (*agmen extremum*) in marches towards the enemy had no duties except to keep order at the tail of the column and pick up stragglers. . . . Out of presence of the enemy, the train of each legion accompanied it for greater convenience; in his presence, the train was kept together in one body. When moving on the enemy, the bulk—say three quarters—of the main army was in front, then the train, then the remainder as baggage and rearguard. In battle order the legions were not intended to march any distance. This order was used only in the immediate vicinity of the enemy. . . . On the march the legionary had his helmet hanging on his chest, his shield in a case, and his plumes, and other insignia of rank or corps, wrapped up. If suddenly attacked the men must lay down their baggage, prepare and put on their badges and get ready their weapons. . . . The marches in retreat were conducted on reverse principles, with similar precautions. The baggage went with the vanguard, followed by the bulk of the army; then came a strong rearguard. The marches in squares were made through an enemy's territory, or in times of insurrection, or when the enemy was on every side. Sometimes the square was composed of the whole army; sometimes each legion marched in square. On every front of such a square, cavalry, bowmen and slingers were thrown out as skirmishers. The baggage was in the centre of the one large square, or that of the legion in the centre of each legionary square. Flank marches were made in battle order, with baggage on the side opposite the enemy, or between the lines if there were more than one. Such marches were not usually made for any great distance. In the open field the legions so marching were protected by flankers. In a valley a stream might serve to protect the column. . . . Bridges were as quickly built as today. The absence of pontoon-trains was no apparent hindrance. They were built of boats picked up along the river, as often as on piles; whichever was at the moment handier. . . . Bridge-heads usually protected both ends of a bridge. . . . The soldiery was brave and well disciplined, but the Roman army was not independent of terrain. The work of the skirmishers, slingers and bowmen, of the auxiliaries, and of the veteran *antesignani* did not always chime in with that of the legions. The two kinds of infantry would sometimes clash, owing to their different formation. The cavalry was often inefficient, and had to be strengthened by bodies of light infantry placed in the intervals of the *turmæ*. This infantry, when the shock with the enemy's horse came, could inflict serious damage on it. It helped to steady the movements of the *turmæ*, while protected at the same time from being run down by the enemy's cavalry. This mixing cavalry and foot is one of the most ancient of devices. In a modified form it has survived to our day. The Roman cavalry was serviceable, but at its very best it was not cavalry, such as were Alexander's Companions or the squadrons of Seidlitz [under Frederick the Great]. The real battle was fought out by the legions. In fact, the legions could be independent of any other troops. Cavalry could attack cavalry; it could cut up broken in-

fantry; but unbroken cohorts could not be successfully attacked by cavalry except in flank. By a front attack, steady infantry could drive cavalry in every instance. During battle, cavalry was useful only against the enemy's squadrons. The cavalry and skirmishers were chiefly of use in outpost and reconnoitring duties and in pursuit. In actual battle, the cavalry was not much employed. Since Alexander's day, it will be seen, cavalry had degenerated. The cohorts were all-sufficient. When cavalry and light troops were not on hand, the legions found no difficulty in doing all the work themselves. Still they relied on the cavalry and light troops, if present, to protect their flanks while fighting. In case there was grave danger of a flank attack, especially on the right, a fourth line was more than once made by Cæsar, the duty of which it was to stand near and defend the threatened quarter. . . . [Cæsar] was his army. The whole body was instinct with his purpose. From low to high all worked on his own method. He controlled its every mood and act. He was the mainspring and balance-wheel alike. . . . The Romans were never able in the use of mounted men. Pompey's cavalry at Pharsalus was massed in one heavy body on one wing and should have gained the victory; but it was badly organized and commanded. Cæsar's small corps was employed to better advantage. Cæsar's Gallic and German horse—of which at times he had large bodies—was, in its way, efficient. Occasionally as many as four thousand men rode in one column. There had been an improvement in the Roman cavalry since the Punic Wars, principally due to the employment for that arm of the natives of countries which made a speciality of cavalry. But on the whole, Cæsar's cavalry was defective. It did not act the legitimate part of cavalry. It was often mixed with foot. Nothing in Cæsar's battles even faintly approaches the magnificent use of cavalry by Alexander or Hannibal." —T. A. Dodge, *Cæsar*, pp. 345, 352, 357-360, 370-374, 376-377, 552, 617, 749.

11. Roman army reforms under Augustus.—Restriction of privileges.—Changes in weapons.—Artillery and transport.—Increase of pay.—Decline of discipline and morale.—“From the history of the army of Julius Cæsar we have seen that it was the genius of the captain and not the personal qualities of the rank and file which won his splendid victories. When Cæsar Augustus became sole ruler of Rome, military matters were not long in being put on a new footing. The ancient army of the republic had been a burgesmilitia, and it is only necessary to recall the events of the Second Punic War to show that, rather than the ability of any one leader, it was the steadfastness of the Senate and army—for the army was the people—that saved Rome from annihilation by Hannibal. During the civil broils of Rome, professional soldiers and mercenaries had gradually crept in until they formed the bulk of the rank and file; and these had prepared the way for the standing army which was now to form a part of the equipment of the empire, in peace and war alike. Augustus went to work in a systematic way. From the forty-five legions and fifteen thousand cavalry remaining over from the civil wars, the slaves, freedmen and all of that ilk were discharged. Some one hundred and twenty thousand volunteers and veterans were settled in twenty-eight colonies on the lands in Italy donated to them. The remainder, mostly Roman citizens, were consolidated into twenty-five legions and a number of bodies of auxiliaries. These new legions and the cavalry attached to

them were quartered in permanent camps, principally on the Rhine, Danube and Euphrates, to hold head against the inroads of foreign hordes. These troops were thus removed from the temptations of too great proximity of the capital or larger cities. Auxiliaries were raised in large numbers for service in their respective provinces. For the protection of Italy there were raised ten prætorian cohorts, of one thousand men each. This was the famous body-guard of the emperor. Three of these cohorts formed the garrison of Rome; the seven others those of the principal near-by cities. The sum total of all this standing force has been estimated at three hundred thousand men. The soldier's oath had in early days been to the republic; from the time of Marius down it had been taken individually to the general who was raising legions to hold his province or to make war upon the neighboring nations; now that the emperor was the state, it ran: 'In the name of the Emperor I swear unconditionally to obey him, never to leave the ensign, nor spare my life for Emperor and State.' The term of service varied from twelve to twenty years, and every third year a careful levy was held to fill the service gaps. The excessive privileges which the soldiers had enjoyed during the civil wars and gradually claimed as a condition of military life, were restricted, and a special fund, under the emperor's sole control, was created from which to pay, clothe and ration the troops. Thus was the power of the Roman emperor as firmly grounded on the army as the power of the republic had been grounded on the burgess-soldier; and while the exceptional personal qualities of Augustus made this reorganization a benefit to Rome, the army, under later and less worthy rulers, became a curse. The ten prætorian cohorts were all drawn in to Rome by his successor, and from thence on remained there, and by their corruption and tyranny grew to be the terror of the land. . . . Though their abuses were somewhat reformed by Septimius Severus, the gulf between people and army had grown apace. The army was largely German,—the Roman Republic was fast drifting to its fall. The ancient arms and equipment of the legionary were not changed until the second century, though the use of the sword was steadily decreasing in favor of the spear. As the material of the arms-bearing class decreased, the latter weapon grew lighter. As the discipline and character of the rank and file waned, whatever intervals between cohorts were still left decreased, and in the third century, under Caracalla and Alexander Severus, an organization like the Grecian phalanx was adopted, though but temporarily. The general tendency was to make all weapons lighter, for the man himself had ceased to be the well-trained, strong and able citizen of old. The legions were no longer expected to close with the foe, and the men carried additional jactile weapons, rather than those of hand-to-hand conflict. Cavalry was still, as of old, heavy, with man and horse in armor; or light, using only darts for weapons. Artillery began to accompany the legions. This it will be remembered was no new thing. Alexander in the prime of his power had employed field artillery; in their decline the Greeks had employed it in line of battle to protect their foot. The same thing now occurred with the Romans. At first this purported to be only for use on the walls of the permanent camps. But later, in the third century, the onager or smaller ballista was transported on a two-ox cart, and the hand-ballista on a one-horse wagon. Each was served by eleven men. They could cast stones and darts three to four hundred paces. They

were placed in line of battle, between the legions, to save these from too sudden or close contact with the enemy. Elephants again appeared, and trained wild beasts and dogs were occasionally used against the enemy. These artificial aids exhibit the declining value of the legions. The strength of the legions grew to be somewhat greater, at the normal from six to seven thousand men. Armies rarely numbered more than eight or ten legions. Flags replaced other ensigns, sometimes cut into dragon-shape; and the bust or likeness of the emperor took the place of the eagle. To the old military horns was added a peculiar flute. A number of changes, owing largely to the new enemies encountered as well as the less good material of the legions, gradually took place. . . . Trajan introduced still another system. The ten cohorts of the legion were placed in one line. The first had nine hundred and sixty chosen men in ten centuries and two hundred and forty cavalry. The others had four hundred and eighty men in six centuries. Arrian says the men stood in eight, Vegetius in six ranks. The front ranks were of the heavier and older legionaries; the rear ranks of the younger and lighter. Each man occupied three feet in width, and the ranks were six feet apart from back to breast. Light troops stood behind the legionaries. The cohorts stood in order from one to ten with very small, next to no, intervals, and these were filled by horizontal-fire engines. Behind the line were engines of high trajectory which could fire above the line. Behind the flanks were special troops, such as the prætorians, and cavalry and bowmen were on the flanks. This formation had its advantages against barbarian nations, such as the Dacians, Parthians and Germans. It suited either the offensive or defensive, any kind of ground, and could be used against cavalry or infantry. It had certain features of the old class ordering of the legion. . . . Josephus narrates how Vespasian and Titus disposed their armies. In the former's march from Syria to Galilee in 67 A. D., the column was as follows: the light troops (bowmen and slingers) sustained by a small body of heavy foot and some horsemen, in the van; following them the mechanics (*fabri*) like our pioneers, to repair bridges and roads; then the officers' baggage with cavalry, the emperor and staff, the military engines; then the bulk of the army,—the legions in a column of sixes; next the army-train. Last came the mercenaries, mixed with legionaries and cavalry to steady them. Up to the third century the Roman armies marched rapidly; the speed and distances then decreased markedly, owing in part to the less good material, in part to the greater amount of baggage and enginery. . . . The farther the Roman army grew away from its old self-reliance the more it was sought to supplement this by enginery and defensive tactics of various useless sorts. The assault with naked weapon was now rarely seen. Distance weapons were preferred. Instead of the Roman soldier being more than a match for the barbarian so soon as he closed with his man, the reverse was now the case. The bulky German could laugh in earnest at the Roman legionary. Under able emperors this was not so apparent; but before the end of the third century the old-fashioned Roman organization, bravery and reliability had vanished, as had happened in Greece five hundred years before. In the same measure as the evidences of the ancient Roman gallantry in war, there disappeared from the legions the sense of discipline, order and good conduct. Cæsar Augustus had somewhat reëstablished the old Roman military virtues; but it was only for a time. The pay of the troops arose as their value

decreased, and largesses became enormous. Under Domitian the foot soldier is said to have received four gold pieces (about twelve dollars) a month, the centurion eight, the mounted man or praetorian twelve; and the deductions for arms, equipment and rations were given up. . . . Occasionally a vigorous emperor or an energetic general improved these conditions, but only during his period of control. The tendency was downward. Augustus had brought back military gymnastics and drill; and under Vespasian, Titus and Antoninus these were encouraged; but in the third century they again disappeared. The drill-marches which Augustus compelled the legions to make three times a month, with baggage—sometimes doubled—and over all kinds of country, were forgotten; the army manœuvres which were then conducted on as large a scale as to-day [1892] in Germany or France became onerous and were dropped; and the splendid public works, especially military roads, were no longer built. The troops mutinied against such labors. So far as military science and study were concerned, they were less practical and more pedantic. Though the empire produced numberless writers on military matters, there were none to approach Polybius or Cæsar. They admirably wrote up details, but they failed to give the soul of the matter.”—T. A. Dodge, *Cæsar*, pp. 768-775. —“Augustus from the very beginning of his power did his best to reduce the military element in the state. During the civil wars, and indeed for fifty years before they began, the troops had made and unmade consuls, there had been constant mutinies and blackmail in the army. Cæsar’s own first consulship had been obtained in this way. A centurion had marched into the senate-house and cried, ‘If you will not make him consul, *this*’—and he tapped the hilt of his sword—‘*this shall*.’ But now the older discipline was revived. Agrippa in particular was a stern disciplinarian of the old school. The soldiers were flattered no longer. No more legionary coins were issued. For an honour a legion was allowed to call itself *Augusta*, for a punishment the title was revoked. The highest military distinction, the triumph, was gradually reserved for the princeps and the members of his house alone. Even when the title of *Imperator* was earned by a victorious general it was transferred to him. But it was his aim to see that no private citizen should have the opportunity of securing the high military honours. Agrippa might have been dangerous and accordingly he was brought into the family by marriage with Cæsar’s daughter. But for the rest the conduct of important operations was almost always confided to one of the young princes—to Tiberius, or Drusus, or Germanicus. And they were always victorious. When Quintilius Varus, a general of humbler birth, was allowed to lead a great army he conveniently pointed the moral by a signal failure. No senatorial governor might now levy troops or declare war on his own account. The only hand that the senate still had in military affairs was that a ‘*senatus consultum*’ was generally asked for a new levy of troops. This was probably because it concerned the state treasury, but partly also because it served to shift an unpleasant responsibility off the shoulders of the princeps. It is not likely that Augustus had forgone the right to levy. It still remained the legal duty of every Roman citizen to serve in the army. But since the days of Marius that duty had become obsolete, no one wanted the city riff-raff in the legions. Soldiering had become a profession, and there was never now any general levy of the kind involved in modern conscription. There must have been some com-

pulsion upon the upper classes to serve as officers, for Suetonius tells of a Roman knight who was sold into slavery because he had chopped off his son’s thumbs in order to evade military service. There had been a ‘*City Legion*’ fighting at Actium, but the army was now mainly recruited from Italy and the imperial provinces. Allied princes like Herod the Great had their own militias, but were also liable to be asked for contributions of trained auxiliaries to the imperial army. From the provinces troops were demanded in proportion to their warlike activity. The Dutch horsemen were famous, and the Batavians supplied large contributions of cavalry. The only people in the East who were enrolled in the legions were the Galatians, who were, of course, Gauls by ancestry. Augustus himself had a bodyguard of German slaves. As a rule only freemen were enrolled in the legions, but at the crisis of the great Pannonian and German revolts, the duty was laid upon rich citizens of equipping and maintaining for six months a certain number of freedmen and slaves who were promised their liberty and citizenship at the end of six months. These would probably consist very largely of gladiators. This fact is evidence of serious military weakness in the Roman Empire. Although there were over four million full Roman citizens, there were only about 140,000 men in the ranks of the legions, and as there was a very long period of service, twenty-five years and more, it follows that only a small number of recruits would be wanted every year. It seems a dangerously small army to hold such vast frontiers. Augustus was successful in reducing the enormous rate of pay which had prevailed during the civil wars. After the death of Augustus the troops mutinied and demanded an increase of their pay to a denarius (less than a franc) a day. Augustus established a special military chest to provide pensions for his veterans in place of the farms which they were still accustomed to expect. How greatly—how dangerously—Augustus had reduced the size of the army may be seen from the fact that there were at least fifty legions during the civil wars, and only twenty-five at the death of Augustus. These troops were for the most part stationed along the northern and eastern frontiers. . . . To these must be added the 9000 men of the praetorian guard, who enjoyed shorter service (sixteen years) and double pay. The praetorians had to be genuine Italians, and when inside the walls of Rome wore civilian dress. There were also three ‘*urban cohorts*’ as police—a new and most salutary invention—and a ‘*cohort of watchmen*’ for the prevention of fire. Obviously with a service of twenty-five years there could be no reserve. But some of the veterans of the praetorian guard were used as paymasters or engineers. There were also colonies of time-expired soldiers planted as garrisons in dangerous country. The legions themselves were stationed in great fortified camps along the frontiers of their various provinces. There were thus huge spaces of country totally without military forces. For warfare on the shores of the Black Sea troops had to be summoned from Syria. There was no such thing as a readily mobilised striking force in Italy. This was an inconvenience and a danger, but Augustus did not mean to organise a military monarchy. Professor Gardhausen has a clever comparison of the problems before the Roman army with those that face the British Empire. The problems were remarkably similar, for greater speed of transport counteracts the greater distances. Both peoples made great use of the system of drilling native troops and expecting provinces to guard themselves. But the

Romans would have been saved much trouble if they had been able to adopt our [British] system of a compact and highly trained expeditionary force backed by a citizen army for home defence. To be sure, the Romans now lived in a state of peace far more profound than any that the world has enjoyed before or since. Their wars were of their own making. Within the circle of the armed frontiers Pax Romana reigned supreme. The Roman citizens hung up their swords for ever."—J. C. Stobart, *Grandeur that was Rome*, pp 183-186.—See also PALATINI; *ROME: Empire*: 363-379.

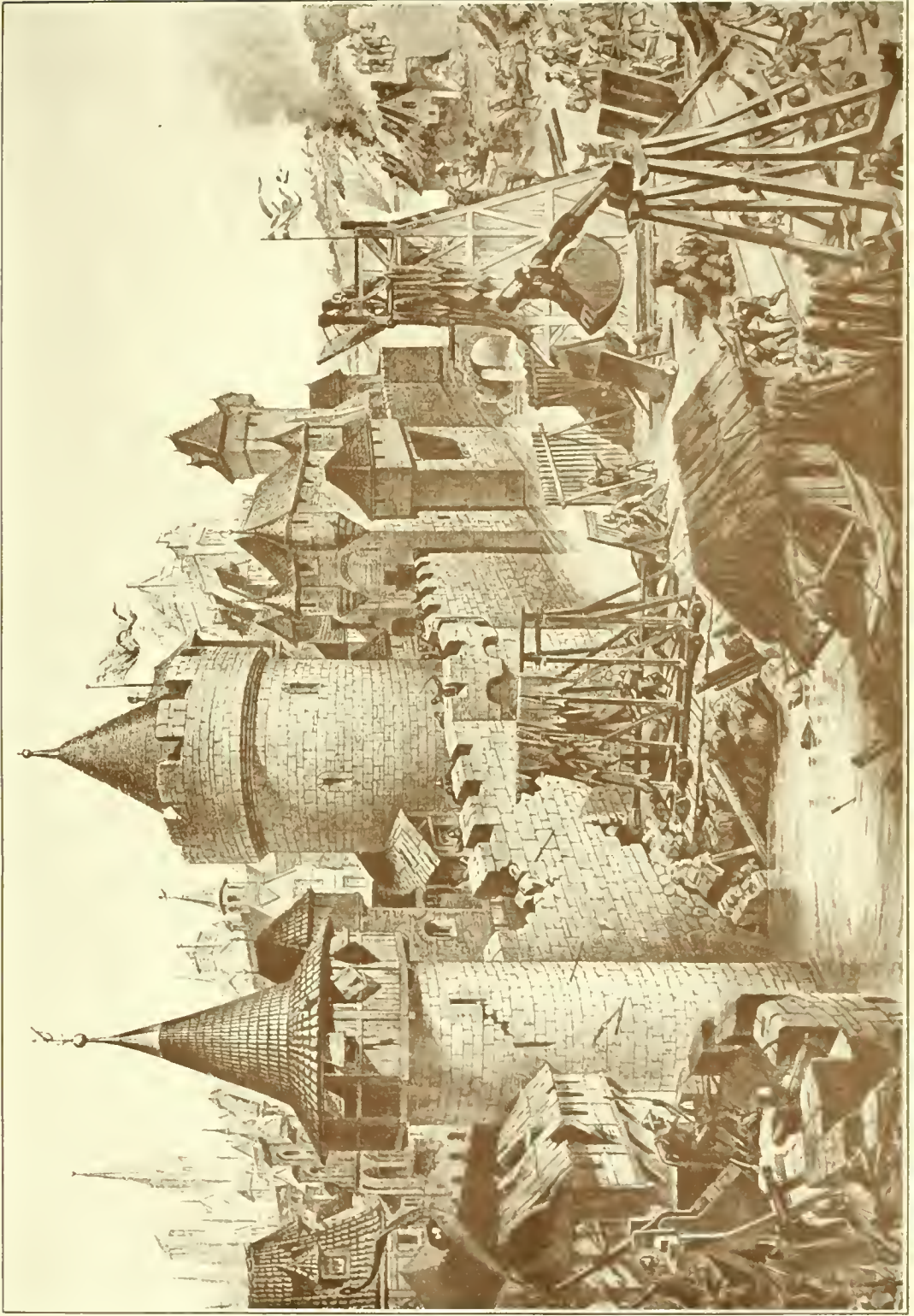
12. Introduction.—Origin of modern armies.—Conflicting theories.—The history of modern armies and navies has its roots in the most distant past, but a continuous development of the military institutions of the present cannot be traced back beyond the latter part of the Middle Ages. Naturally, the military history of all peoples is not equally interesting even to the most careful student and it seems best to focus the attention of the non-technical and non-military reader upon the evolution of the modern military establishments in the leading nations, such as France, Germany, Great Britain and the United States, with some slight description of the Belgian, Chinese, Italian, Japanese, Russian, Swiss, Turkish and sundry other military organizations. The armies of the smaller states are nearly all more or less modeled upon those of the larger nations, with certain modifications. It is not easily possible to fix the precise date of the appearance of the first modern army. Some would unhesitatingly begin with the wars of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic era. According to some authorities, the first standing army of modern times was that maintained by Charles VII of France in 1445. Long before that, however, between 872 and 901 A.D. King Alfred of England formed a militia raised by conscription, while a 'commission of array' authorized the raising of a militia under Henry I in 1122 and again under Henry II in 1176, also in England. Others would prefer to begin with Frederick the Great in the middle of the eighteenth century. Still other historians have referred to the army of Louis XIV, as organized by the great war minister Louvois, as the first modern standing army; while to the Swedish army of Gustavus Adolphus in the Thirty Years' War has been assigned this same honor. In the account which follows no attempt is made to settle this question which is still debated by the expert military historians, but rather to indicate the leading steps in military development as they apply to army organization and equipment from the Middle Ages to the World War.

Historical material relating to Ordnance, Trench Warfare, Grenades, Liquid Fire, Poison Gas, Rifles and Revolvers, Tanks, Machine Guns, Aviation, Warships, Submarines, Torpedoes, Feudalism, Long-bow, etc., will be found under their respective heads; while military history proper must be looked for under the countries principally involved. The Napoleonic campaigns, for example, will be treated for the most part under France; the Peninsular War, however, will appear under Spain, and the Russian campaign of 1812 under Russia. The World War for obvious reasons is dealt with separately and under its own title.

13. Transition from Roman to medieval institutions.—Evolution of military efficiency.—Teutonic barbarians.—Hundred Years' War.—Swiss mercenaries.—Bravery of knights.—"When we leave the discussion of the military art of the later Romans, and pass on to investigate that of the Teutonic kingdoms which were built upon the ruins of the Western Empire, we are

stepping from a region of comparative light into one of doubt and obscurity. . . . We can for some centuries do little more than give the history of military institutions, arms, and armour, with an occasional side-light on tactics. Often the contemporary chronicles will be of less use to us than stray notices in national codes or songs, the quaint drawings of illuminated manuscripts, or the mouldering fragments found in the warrior's barrow. It is fortunate that the general characteristics of the period render its military history very simple. By the sixth century the last survivals of Roman military skill had disappeared in the West. No traces remained of it but the clumsily-patched walls of the great cities. Of strategy there could be little in an age when men strove to win their ends by hard fighting rather than by skilful operations or the utilising of extraneous advantages. Tactics were stereotyped by the national organisations of the various peoples. The true interest of the centuries of the early Middle Ages lies in the gradual evolution of new forms of military efficiency, which end in the establishment of a military caste as the chief power in war, and in the decay among most races of the old system which made the tribe arrayed in arms the normal fighting force. Intimately connected with this change was an alteration in arms and equipment, which transformed the outward appearance of war in a manner not less complete. The period of transition may be considered to end in the eleventh century, when the feudal knight had established his superiority over all descriptions of troops pitted against him, from the Magyar horse-bowmen of the East to the Danish axemen of the North. The fight of Hastings [1066], the last notable attempt of unaided infantry to withstand cavalry in Western Europe for two hundred years, serves to mark the termination of the epoch.

"The Teutonic kingdoms which were founded in the fifth century within the limits of the Western Empire were some of them established by races accustomed to fight on horseback, some by races accustomed to fight on foot. All the tribes which had their original habitat in the plains beyond the Danube and north of the Euxine seem to have learned horsemanship; such were the Goths, both Eastern and Western, the Lombards, Gepidae, and Heruli. The races, on the other hand, which had started from the marshes of the Lower Rhine or the moors of North Germany and Scandinavia were essentially foot-soldiers; the Franks, Saxons, Angles, and Northmen were none of them accustomed to fight on horseback. The sharp division between these two groups of peoples is all the more curious because many tribes in each group had been in close contact with the Romans for several centuries, and it might have been expected that all would have learned a similar lesson from the empire. Such, however, was not the case: the Franks of the fifth century, though their ancestors the Chamavi and Chatti had been for four hundred years serving the Romans as auxiliaries when they were not fighting them as enemies, seem singularly uninfluenced by their mighty neighbours; while the Goths under similar conditions had profoundly modified their armament and customs. In the days of the breaking-up of the Western Empire the Franks seem no more advanced than races like the Saxons and Angles, whose relations with Rome had begun late and continued comparatively slight. To a certain extent this must have come from the fact that the emperors had been wont to encourage each band of auxiliaries to keep to its own national arms and equipment. In the fourth and fifth centuries, as Mommsen observes, each Teutonic corps of mer-



MEDIEVAL SIEGE OPERATIONS

(From an old lithograph)

cenaries seems to have been valued more, in proportion as it had assimilated itself less to the Roman model. In spite of this, it is astonishing to find the Franks of Chlodovech still destitute of all body armour and wholly unaccustomed to fight on horseback. . . . Evidently the Roman teaching had taken no hold on the bulk of the race, and its methods of fighting had remained unaltered."—C. Oman, *History of the art of war*, pp. 41-42.—See also *COMITATUS*; *FRANKS*: 500-708.—"The king, like all the other princes, for the purpose of making war took into his service companies of adventurers; he gave them money (*solde*), and from that they were called soldiers. Each captain recruited and commanded his band, but the king sent into the garrisons commissioners charged with making the companies show themselves, and who had orders to pay the captain only after the review. With these bands, and the knights who had come as volunteers, the kings carried on the Hundred Years' War. Into these bands, at first composed solely of gendarmes, that is, men fully accoutred (with lance and iron armor), were gradually introduced men wearing a jacket of cloth and armed with bow, cross-bow, or knife. Towards the end of the Hundred Years' War it was the custom that each man armed as a knight should take with him three or four of these lightly armed horsemen; the gendarme and his companions were called 'une lance garnie.' Charles VII. forbade any one except the king to have these armed men in his pay; he alone was to have soldiers. Then from among the bands, at that time filling all France, he took 1,500 lances, which were organized into fifteen companies of 100 lances each, and he sent them to garrison the towns which he designated. All the other adventurers were to disperse; those who continued to make war on their own account were to be hung as brigands. From that time only the king had the right to keep soldiers. His army was chiefly composed of cavalry: the artillery and the foot-soldiers were united under the grand master of the cross-bowmen. When the king had need of infantry he took into his pay companies of Swiss armed with long pikes, Genoese cross-bowmen, Gascons, and later bands of lansquenets (German foot-soldiers). For a century there were hardly any Frenchmen except in the cavalry; almost all the foot soldiers were foreigners. The attempts to form a corps of French francs-archers (tax-free archers) did not succeed; those francs-archers were not soldiers by profession and did not know how to drill. But the king was not afraid to employ foreigners; the army paid by him obeyed him only."—C. Seignobos, *History of mediæval and of modern civilization*, pp. 183-184.—"During the crusades the Christians had made the acquaintance of the cross-bow; this was a bow mounted on a stock and stretched by means of a spring or small crank. It threw a short arrow with sufficient force to pierce through a man at two hundred paces. The cross-bow was used in the châteaux and castles for defence against attack, and there were formed, especially in Italy, bands of cross-bowmen by profession who put themselves in the service of the princes. The most renowned were the Genoese cross-bowmen. The bow, which has never entirely ceased to be used, was not, for a long time, considered very formidable. But in the fourteenth century there appeared in the army of the King of England regular troops of archers with large bows of yew, two metres high, which could shoot six times a minute and kill a man at two hundred metres' distance; the most famous archers were from Wales. Cross-bowmen and archers fought on foot and without iron armour. None of them were

noble, the larger number were adventurers, mercenaries (like the Genoese); the English archers were peasants, farmers or small land-owners. The king had ordered them to practice archery and summoned them to fight. The peasants in the mountains around Lake Lucerne, especially those of the Canton Schwitz, were in the last years of the thirteenth century, well known for their agility and vigor. They became celebrated in the fourteenth century when they had several times surprised and massacred the Austrian knights who had come to subjugate them; the name of Swiss was then given to all their allies. At the end of the fourteenth century the Swiss confederates carried a pike much longer than the lance of the knights; they fought on foot, in closed column, rushing upon the enemy with their lances six metres in length without breaking their ranks. After their victories over the Duke of Burgundy they passed for the best troops in Europe, and all the princes wanted to have them in their pay. About the same time the lansquenets (*landsknecht*, a country knave) began to be spoken of in Germany. They too carried the long pike which defended them better than an armor. They were united in bands, chose a captain and swore obedience to him. Each band took along with it women, children and carts to transport the baggage and booty; it had its own flag, and formed a small society. When the lansquenet committed a crime it was the band which sat in judgment; and if he was condemned it executed him by making him pass between the rows of pikes. When the lansquenet wanted to be married he led his wife into the 'circle of his companions.' It was the band assembled around the flag which decided what prince they should serve. For the adventurers, Swiss or lansquenets, war was a profession; they would not fight except for money; 'No money, no Swiss.' But they fought well, and earned their wages faithfully. Often the prince made them wait some years for their pay and did not even support them. At such times the band lived by pillaging the country. During the early centuries of the Middle Ages there were no soldiers but the knights. Then the cities sent their armed citizens to war. They fought on foot and were called sergeants. These artisans, badly drilled and disciplined, equipped each in his own fashion, were nothing but a militia. The soldiers by profession were always knights, and it was not admitted that a man-at-arms could fight in any other way but on horseback. The cavalry alone really formed the army. However, from the fourteenth century, every time that these knights came in collision with the foot-soldiers, who were regularly organized, it was the knights who were beaten; beaten by the English archers (even by inferior numbers) at Crécy, at Poitiers and at Agincourt; beaten by the Swiss at Morgarten, Sempach, Granson, Moret; beaten by the janizaries at Nicopolis and Varna; beaten by the bourgeois at Ghent and Bruges. We are ready to believe that the knights gave way only before bullets and balls. But two centuries before artillery had become formidable the English with the bow, the janizaries with the yataghan, and the Swiss with the pike, were quite sufficient to conquer the knights. The men of that time could not comprehend how the foot-soldiers could be triumphant over that brilliant corps of knights formed of the most noble, the most courageous and the most experienced men. However, nothing is more easy of explanation. The knights taken separately were very brave soldiers, but they made a detestable army. In covering themselves with an armor that was strong enough to save them from the risk of

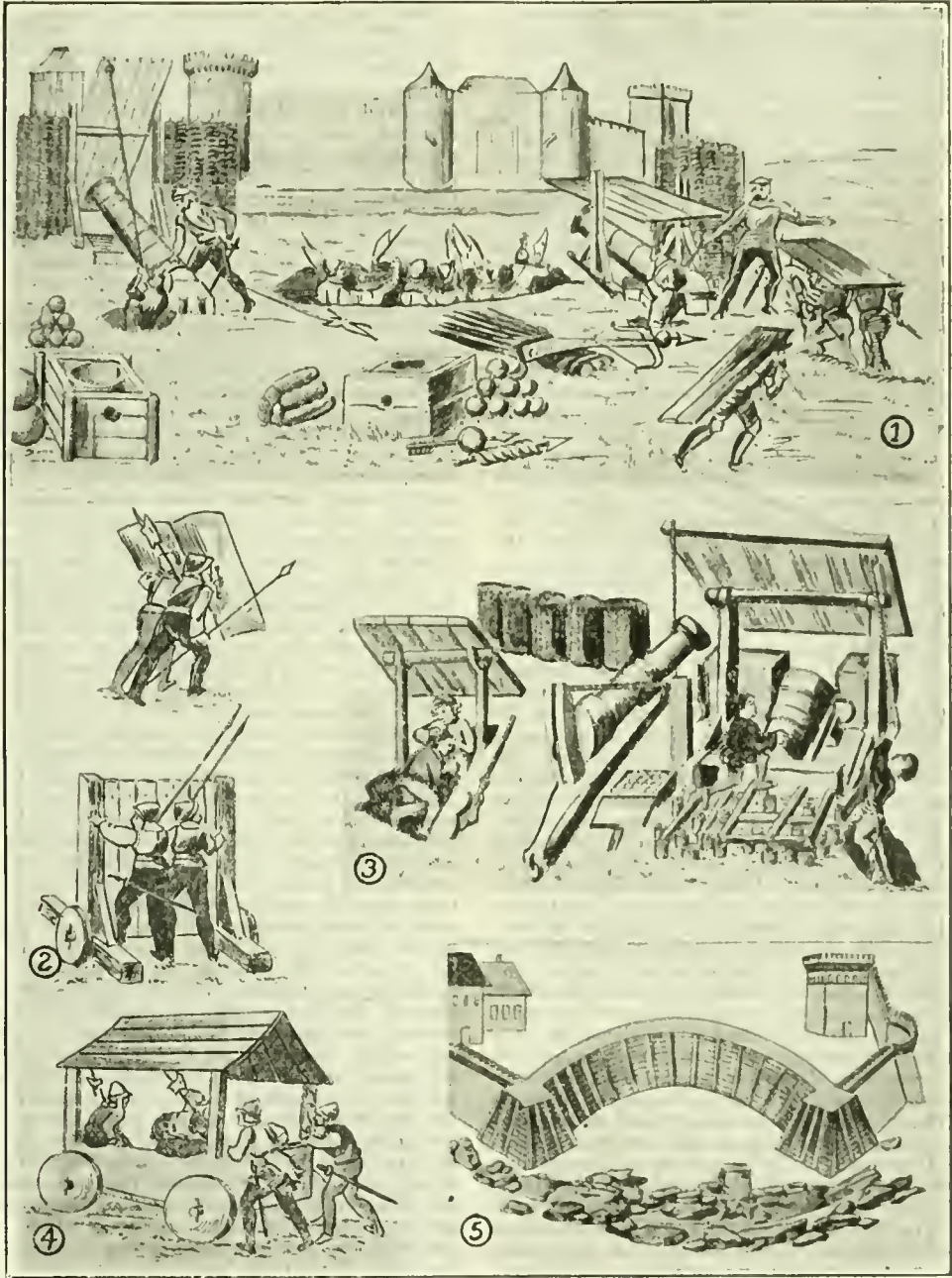
being killed, each one had thought only of protecting himself. The armor did indeed prevent them from being killed, but it did not prevent them from being dismounted, and in a battle a man on the ground under his horse was little better than a dead man. The knights were equipped as if they were to fight alone; that is precisely the reason why they manoeuvred so poorly when all together. Each was in the way of his neighbor. These heavy masses required a level and firm ground for their manoeuvres to take a start; a ditch, a hill, a marsh stopped them, and the moment they were crowded together they could neither advance nor retreat. In order to operate in common, discipline also failed them. Accustomed to fight in small bands, they did not know how to organize themselves into an army. Every seignior coming with his knights intended to fight according to his fancy. The general could not command obedience. At Crécy the archers in the service of the King of France were at the head of the army, the knights eager for the fray rushed upon and massacred them, 'Now come, kill those ribald fellows who bar our way.' Already so weak through their unmanageable equipment and lack of discipline, the knights staked their honor in operating in a most disadvantageous fashion. Having played at war in their tournaments they had become accustomed to the rules of the game, and continued to observe them in war. A battle was an opportunity for giving some fine blows with the lance, and they insisted on giving them according to the rules in fighting, as if in the closed field against an enemy, who had been warned and was at least equal in numbers. In 1346 the King of England, finding himself at Poissy, deprived of supplies and on the point of being taken, Philip IV. drew himself out of this embarrassing situation by sending in a cartel in due form, proposing that he should choose the day and a place for the battle; Edward profited by this opportunity and decamped. The Knights of the Star had sworn never to retreat more than four arpents (this was the space needed for room to move). Gui de Nesle, surprised with his hundred knights, allowed his whole troop to be massacred rather than to retreat. Thus the bravery of the knights was turned against them. They had forgotten that war is a business, not a game, and that bravery is only a factor, for the purpose is to conquer."—*Ibid.*, pp. 190-204.—See also below: 15; CHIVALRY; CRUSADES: Military aspect; FEUDALISM.

14. Saracen armies.—Military science.—Conquest and plunder.—"To deal with the Saracen, the most formidable enemy of the empire, the greatest care and skill were required. 'Of all barbarous nations,' says Leo [Emperor of the East, 717-740], 'they are the best advised and most prudent in their military operations.' The commander who has to meet with them will need all his tactical and strategical ability, the troops must be well disciplined and courageous, if the 'barbarous and blaspheming Saracen' is to be driven back in rout through the 'clissuras' of Taurus. The Arabs whom Khaled and Amru had led in the seventh century to the conquest of Syria and Egypt had owed their victory neither to the superiority of their arms nor to the excellence of their organisation. The fanatical courage of the fatalist had enabled them to face better-armed and better-disciplined troops, as it nerved the Soudanese ten years ago to face the breachloaders of our own [British] infantry. We . . . cannot wonder that the troops of Heraclius, armed only with pike and sword, were swept away before the wild hordes of the early Caliphs. It is greatly to the credit of the East-Roman troops and the house of Heraclius that Asia Minor

did not suffer the same fate as Persia and Spain. But when the first flush of fanaticism had passed by, and the Saracens had settled down in their new homes, they did not disdain to learn a lesson from the nations they had defeated. Accordingly, the Byzantine army served as a model for the forces of the Caliphs. 'They have copied the Romans,' says Leo, 'in most of their military practices, both in arms and in strategy.' Like the Imperial generals, they placed their confidence in their mailed lancers: they were no longer the naked hordes of the sixth century, but wore helms, shirts of chain-mail, and greaves. But the Saracen and his charger were alike at a disadvantage in the onset: horse for horse and man for man the Byzantines were heavier, and could ride the Orientals down when the final shock came. By the tenth century the Saracens had an art of war of their own. Some of their military works have survived, though none, it appears, date back to the times contemporary with Leo. They had advanced very considerably in poliorcetics [besieging] and fortification; they had learned how to lay out and entrench their camps, and how to place pickets and vedettes. But they never raised a large standing army, or fully learned the merits of drill and organisation. The royal bodyguards were their only regular troops; the rest of the army consisted of the war-bands of chiefs, miscellaneous bands of mercenary adventurers, or the general levies of tribes and districts. Two things rendered the Saracens of the tenth century dangerous foes,—their numbers and their extraordinary powers of locomotion. When an inroad into Asia Minor was on foot, the powers of fanaticism and greed united to draw together every unquiet spirit from Egypt to Khorassan. The wild horsemen of the East poured out in myriads from the gates of Tarsus and Adana to harry the rich uplands of the Anatolic, Armeniac, and Cappadocian themes [Byzantine administrative districts]. 'They are no regular host, but a mixed multitude of volunteers; the rich man serves from pride of race, the poor man from hope of plunder. They say that God, "who scattereth the armies of those that delight in war," is pleased by their expeditions, and has promised victory to them. Those who stay at home, both men and women, aid in arming their poorer neighbours, and think that they are performing a good work thereby. So mere untrained plunderers and experienced warriors ride side by side in their hosts.' Once clear of the passes of Taurus, the great horde of Saracen horsemen cut itself loose from its communications, and rode far and wide through Cappadocia and Phrygia, burning the open towns, harrying the countryside, and lading their beasts of burden with the plunder of a region which was in those days one of the richest in the world. It was only exceptionally that the invaders were aiming at serious conquests and halted to besiege a fortified town. The memory of the awful failures of the two great hosts that perished before Constantinople in 673 and 718 seems to have been deeply impressed in the minds of the Mohammedan rulers and generals. The two last attempts at getting a footing beyond the Taurus were those of Haroun-al-Raschid in 806, and of Al-Motassem in 838. Each, after taking one considerable town, found such a long and difficult task before him that he gave up his project and retired. The armies of their successors, even when counted by scores of thousands, were aiming at nothing more than vast plundering raids. When the Saracens had passed the defiles of Taurus, they pushed on for some days at an almost incredible speed, for their baggage was all laid on camels or sumpter beasts, and their foot-soldiery were either provided with horses of some

sort or taken up on the cruppers of the cavalry. They made for the district that they had marked out for plunder, and trusted to arrive in such haste that the natives would not have had time to gather in their property and take shelter within

for business or pleasure; the heyday of chivalry was the period during which cavalry was in the ascendant [see CHIVALRY], and its decline was chiefly due to that development of the art of war which gave the issue of battles to infantry and



MILITARY EQUIPMENT OF THE 15TH CENTURY

1, Besieging a town. 2, Swiss soldiers with storm shields. 3, Types of artillery. 4, Storm wagon, to allow troops to approach the walls of a besieged town in safety. 5, Detail of Italian fortress wall.

walled towns."—C. W. Oman, *History of the art of war in the Middle Ages*, pp. 206-208.

15. Chivalry.—Cavalry versus infantry.—Knights in armor.—Crusaders.—Condottieri.—Seutage.—Feudalism.—Mercenaries.—“Warfare was the principal occupation of the knight, whether

artillery rather than cavalry, and made the conduct of campaigns and sieges a matter of calculation rather than of personal prowess. It is therefore necessary to give a short sketch of military history during the chivalric period, *i.e.* from the 10th to the 15th or 16th century. The cavalry period,

however, dates from a time far anterior to chivalry. . . . At Adrianople [A.D. 378] the imperial infantry, no longer able, by the use of superior armour, discipline, and individual skill and courage, to keep the Gothic cavalry at a distance, but driven in upon itself and huddled together in a helpless mass, was destroyed by the Gothic cavalry breaking in upon its flank. Where cavalry can be brought into the field in sufficient numbers, and the opposing infantry are not well provided with archers, slingers or javelin men, they can ride infantry down, unless, as in the Macedonian or the Swiss phalanx, the front of pikes is too deep to be broken through. But cavalry is useful for attack, not for defence. 'The horse,' it has been said, 'is the weapon;' the impact of a mass of men and horses at full speed is what tells. Wounded horses encumber and endanger a defensive position. The main use of cavalry, then, is not to hold but to gain a position; and when infantry have to resist cavalry, it must be done by the employment of archery (or musketry) to weaken the attack whilst it is being delivered, and before it can be driven home. A modern instance of the weakness of cavalry for defence is that of the Russian horse at Balaklava [Crimean War, 1854], which broke up under the charge of the English heavy brigade. The lesson of mediæval warfare, learnt and forgotten on innumerable fields, was the right use of archers and infantry against cavalry, but the feudal pride of the man-at-arms was proof against conviction until horse and foot bowed before the power of artillery. [See FEUDALISM: Organization.] The Franks who overran the Gaulish provinces fought on foot, armed with spear, sword, and battle axe, the formidable *francisca* or tomahawk, more effective when thrown than at close quarters. By degrees the Franks adopted the use of the horse and of body-armour. The shirt of mail (*brunia*, the A.S. *byrnie*) was worn by all cavalry from the 6th century onward, and the Franks became more and more a nation of horsemen. [See also FRANKS: 500-768.] But at Poitiers (732) the old tactics prevailed, and the Moslem light horse were met and routed, not by counter charges of cavalry, but by a solid phalanx of infantry and dismounted cavalry, built up 'like a wall, or as if frozen together into a belt of ice;' dismounted cavalry standing by the side of the infantry. The Danish raiders, arriving suddenly and departing as suddenly, taught the menaced nation how little trust was to be placed in national levies, ill armed, undisciplined, slow to muster, and soon dispersed. [See also SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-9th centuries.] Before the English Ealdorman could get the men of the shire together, or the Frankish lord collect his dependants, the Dane had come up the river, beached his keels, seized all the horses in the neighbourhood, burnt villages, manors and abbeys, and was gone again with his plunder and his captives. The Danes, when they had advanced from raiding to the maintenance of dyked and stockaded forts, and from forts to settlements in tracts of land, being the best soldiers of their time, and having an unusual aptitude for the adoption of new ideas, beat the Franks at their own weapons. To meet the Frankish cavalry, the Scandinavian settlers in Gaul learnt to fight on horseback; and by the beginning of the 11th century the Norman cavalry was the best in Europe. [See FEUDALISM: Continental growth.] The English made little use of cavalry before the Conquest. The 'hard hand-play' of Ashdown (871) Ethandun (878) and Brunanburh (937) was a combat of axes and short swords (*seaxe*) hewing down the shield-wall, behind which stood the chiefs, dismounted. The

same simple tactics were followed at Stamford Bridge and Hastings (1066), where Harold and Gurth fought on foot. Whilst the shield-wall formation, whether in line, ring, or triangle, remained unbroken, the cavalry were at a disadvantage; for the horse will not easily face a double or triple hedge of pikes; the squares at Waterloo [1815] are a modern instance. If the cavalry could force an entrance, as at Stamford Bridge and at Hastings, the infantry were at their mercy. The varieties of battles are infinite; in some the infantry largely outnumber the cavalry, in some the proportion is reversed; some are combats of cavalry alone, in others archers and slingers decide the day. Horse prevailed over foot in the cavalry period, because that arm was highly organised, and generals gave little attention to the handling of infantry; the importance of infantry was increased with the development of archery. [See LONGBOW.] . . . Mediæval warfare thus organized itself as cavalry; and battles were mainly decided by charges of knights in mail slaughtering hosts of infantry; or were contests of cavalry alone, whether in the field or in the streets of a town. The battle of Bouvines [1214], was 'a huge scramble and scuffle of men and horses'; 'a vast tourney,' diversified like a Homeric fight by 'an infinite number of single combats.' The battle of Val ès Dunes (1047) was 'little more than a fierce combat of horse surging backwards and forwards over the slopes of the upland on which it was fought.' In fact, the description of a mediæval battle is the description of feats of arms done by the captains. A battle was a tournament on a grander and more dangerous scale, in which, besides the chance of death and wounds, the knight ran the risk of being butchered by the 'ribauds' [low retainers] who despatched the wounded after the mailed cavalry had swept by, or thrown into a dungeon where rats and mice (as Du Guesclin said) were more plentiful than song-birds. . . . We pause for a moment to consider what a magnificent military engine, within its limits, the mounted knight or man-at-arms must have been. None but the heaviest horses could carry riders weighted from head to foot with chain armour, and bearing shield, lance, sword, and sometimes axe and mace. Such a horse and man weighed many hundreds of pounds, and the shock of a body of them charging together was irresistible. When arrived at close quarters, the knight was a skilled fighter, trained all his life in horsemanship and the use of arms. He was one of an exclusive class, raised above all others; he was animated, within his own class, by a spirit of the keenest personal rivalry; love and war combined to exalt his courage; and he was often the servant of God fighting the battle of the Cross against the infidel, and confident of salvation if he fell. Although throughout the Middle Ages there was no school of military science, contact with the East was not without its effect upon the art of war. In military organization, as in all the arts of life, the Byzantines of the 11th century were far ahead of the Western nations. [See TURKEY: 1063-1073.] They had preserved the Roman tradition of castrametation; they had siege trains, and even ambulances and surgeons; they arranged their forces in battle so as to support and assist each other; and the whole art of building, attacking and defending castles was brought back from the East into Europe, where as yet it hardly existed. The Crusades provided a new school of war. The soldiers of the Cross had everything to learn. Effective discipline was almost unknown among them; combination of forces in subordination to a general in chief, and support of one arm by another, if dreamed of by a few cap-

tains, were liable to be disconcerted by any obstinate or hot-headed lord of a few hundred men-at-arms. Mediæval nobles were as jealous of each other, and as unwilling to obey a common leader, as the Grecian chiefs who fought against Xerxes. They were as quarrelsome as dogs, as impracticable as field-deputies, as punctilious as ambassadors. The Templars would fight nowhere but on the right wing, and in like manner the Knights of Saint John claimed the left. A count disdained to serve under a baron, a duke under a count, a German under a Frenchman or Englishman. The Flemish knights at Bouvines refused to charge a body of infantry because they were not gentlemen, and so lost the battle. The memoirs of Villehardouin and Joinville, as well as those of Froissart and Monstrelet, are full of the records of the pride and ill-temper which endangered the greatest objects of the campaigns they describe. The want of discipline, as well as the short term of feudal service in the field, led to the gradual substitution of paid troops for cavalry in all the armies of Europe. When to this indiscipline we add a total ignorance of geographical knowledge, (the sole cause of the double failure of Lewis IX), defective commissariat and means of transport, ignorant contempt of strategy and inexperience in siege operations, we wonder that the Crusaders should have prevailed at all. The lesson to be learnt from the Crusades was that to win battles it was necessary to combine infantry and cavalry in the line of battle, and to support both, by a strong force of archers, on foot or on horseback. [See also CRUSADES: Military aspect.] But lessons of victory and defeat alike seem to have been lost on the mediæval generals. They came back from the Holy Land for the most part as ignorant as they went. Only two, Richard I and Edward I, both men of great military ability, seem to have profited by their experience as Crusaders; and each of them showed his ability by applying his experience to new conditions. . . . With the end of the French wars of Edward III we come upon an unexpected obstacle in the way of the English conquests. Just as the French were improving body-armour so as to be able to repel the English arrows, the supply of English archery began to run short. Such a supply could only be found in perfection in a national levy; and the place of the levy was beginning to be taken by mercenary troops, either 'free companies,' or troops furnished by 'indenture,' *i. e.*, contract: a form of military taxation more convenient to the king and less burdensome to the subject than the personal levy. The battles of the Wars of the Roses were fought by infantry; some of whom were raised by royal commission or parliamentary vote, some hired, some came as retainers of the great lords; and 'villainous saltpetre' at last put an end to the superiority of the 'gentle' class. The short and uncertain service of feudal barons suited neither the immediate convenience of a king of France or England, nor the establishment of his power. The great wars of the fourteenth century created a class of soldiers ready to sell their services to any cause. But before this, sovereigns in all countries had been aware of the convenience and advantage of mercenaries. Henry II struck a blow at feudalism by accepting scutage [tax or levy] in lieu of service. Philip the Fair had a considerable standing army in his pay. Whilst declaring the universal obligation of military service, he accepted money and substitutes in lieu of personal attendance. The king's *ost*, furnished in part by feudal vassals subject to the *ban*, was also made up by paid bodies of infantry, crossbowmen and men-at-arms, or *gendarmes*, the latter denoting, not the

chivalry of France, but light and heavy cavalry armed in the same manner as the knights, and serving for fixed pay. (Note.—Each *gendarme* was attended by two archers and two horsemen. This complement of five men—later seven—was known as a *lance* or a *man-at-arms*, and this nomenclature was applied to the chivalry also.) Charles VII had a force of 1500 *gendarmes*, each of whom served with six horses. Louis XI employed mercenaries from all countries, and from his time the place of the seigniorial levies is taken by a royal army. *Compagnies d'ordonnance*, Free Companies, *Landsknechts*, are so many names for armies to be bought in the market. The contractor, commonly known in Italy by the name of *condottiere* (q. v.) made war his trade and managed it on business principles. His men were well clothed, armed, and fed, and received regular pay. They were trained in all the latest developments of war, and could meet the old-fashioned chivalry on their own ground and bewilder them with new inventions in archery, artillery, and infantry. No warlike sovereign could dispense with the Free Companies. They took the place held by the Templars and Hospitaliers in the Holy Wars, and like them were preferred to the feudal levies as being better troops and more obedient to orders. But what a downfall in sentiment! At the siege of Padua (1509) Bayard refused to let the gentlemen of France fight side by side with Landsknechts, who had no distinction of birth, no rule of honour, no patriotism, no principle except to fulfil the terms of a bargain, no idea of pleasure except the excitement of a fight and the license of free quarters, or the sack of a town. Hallam instances one of these mercenaries who marched about Italy without a master to pay him or a cause to defend, levying black-mail wherever he went. Werner, a German Landsknecht, had engraved on his cuirass 'Enemy of God, pity and mercy.' The 'Great Company' of 1353 consisted of 20,000 men, horse and foot, whose only business was to plunder; and the city of Florence, which refused to submit to their exactions, could only meet them with hired troops like themselves. Sir John Hawkwood (d. 1393) whose monument adorns the Cathedral of Florence, was one of the most eminent as well as the most respectable of these soldiers of fortune, whose dreary track of bloodshed and devastation seared the face of Europe, till they came to their worst notoriety under Mansfeld, Wallenstein, and Tilly in the Thirty Years' War. The actual profession of *condottiere* was too unnatural to be permanent; but the ill example of buying trained soldiers, instead of bearing arms, fell in with the convenience of princes and subjects, systematised, and at the same time dishonoured war, and put an end to chivalry as a factor in military affairs. In chivalry, any knight might serve under what captain he chose and do what deeds he chose—now he must take his chance, as we should say, with his regiment, and 'not run risks'—a *bourgeois* conception of war. . . . The knight of the Middle Ages spent a good part of his time in fighting the battles of his lord, whether in the larger operations of war, or in the petty disputes between castle and castle. The more perfectly the feudal system was developed, or (in other words) the greater the number of independent or nearly independent princes, the more licence was there of private war. Thus there was more private war in Germany than in France, in France than in Italy. As a general rule, castles were more abundant in mountainous districts than in the plain. The reason is twofold. It was more easy, in the first place, to set up impregnable fastnesses in the hills than in the plain, where they

could be surrounded and starved out—the only method, except treachery, of taking a castle with walls twenty feet thick and towers fifty feet high; a fact always to be borne in mind in mediæval warfare—and in the second place, civic life is opposed to war: the interests of a town are peaceful in the main, and the feuds of Montagues and Capulets, Orsinis and Colonnas, so common in Italian cities, belong to a date when the civic spirit had decayed, and given place to the spirit of family pride and chivalry, which is incompatible with it. In England, before the Conquest, the habits of the nation were opposed to war. Both Danes and Normans found the English an easy conquest, because they wanted, not courage and arms, but organisation. The English had no disciplined militia or armed nobility. They built few castles, and such as they had were of timber; and when the Norman kings built castles of stone, they kept the custody of them in their own hands. Stephen and John, the first from weakness, the second because he was the enemy of his subjects, lost the control of the royal castles, and permitted the erection of others: and the spirit of chivalry broke out at once in private war. The beginning of Henry III's reign was occupied by the reduction of castles into the hands of Hubert de Burgh, the king's minister. When Henry's misrule made the Baronage his enemies, the Barons' War was a struggle for the possession of castles: and it was so understood by both parties. The King's party, having once regained the castles, was able to rule temperately, and without resistance. The strong government of Edward I put an end for ever to private war and knight-errantry. Scutage, invented by Henry I and organized by Henry II, *i. e.* the substitution of money payment for feudal service in person, and the later engaging of a mercenary army by 'indenture' or agreement with a feudal lord for the services of his dependants, worked the same way, and tended both to increase the royal power, and to keep the English a peaceful nation. The home force, the native militia or *fyrð*, (*q. v.*) was principally employed in border warfare, and the armies which fought in France and in the Holy Land were chiefly composed of paid soldiers, though they contained also bodies of feudal cavalry, supplied by the chivalry of England. It follows from this that the lords and knights of England had not that constant practice in war which made the feudal cavalry of Europe so formidable; and as practice in war was that which gave its reality to chivalry, the perfection, or extravagance, of chivalry is to be found in France rather than in this country [England].—F. W. Cornish, *Chivalry*, pp. 68-72, 74-76, 80-85.

See also HOUSECARLS.

16. **Thirty Years' War.—Recruitment.—Armament.—Fortifications.—Methods of warfare.—Rights of belligerents and non-combatants.—German and French armies.—Louvois, war minister.**—"The [European] princes preserved, until the seventeenth century, the custom of taking bands of mercenaries into their pay; they dealt directly with the colonel or the captain, who had taken it upon himself to muster into service these men, and to support them for a certain amount of money. It was with these bands of mercenaries that the Thirty Years' War was carried on. The soldiers were for the most part not the subjects of the prince whom they served, and without any scruples they went over to the service of another, even to the enemy. The army was a set of adventurers from every country, Germans, Croats, Irish, Walloons, held in service through their pay only. The army had no uniform; each soldier

dressed as he pleased; to be able to recognize each other in a battle it was necessary to adopt a common sign: at the battle of Breitenfeld the imperial army had a white ribbon on the arm and on the hat, the Swedes had a green branch. It was difficult to make these bands manœuvre together, even to make them obey. In 1647 the Weymarians in the pay of the King of France (for so were called the bands that had formerly served under Bernard of Saxe-Weimar) refused to start on the campaign; Turenne ordered the French cavalry to charge on them. Often after a defeat the generals could not find their army; the soldiers had disbanded. The governments felt the need of having more trustworthy armies, and adopted the custom of maintaining on a war footing, even in times of peace, the troops which they would need in case of war. In place of the bands which they used to hire only during a time of war, each state supported a permanent army, formed of regiments which kept their organization in time of peace. This army was the property of the prince; he not only appointed the colonel, but all the other officers; the soldiers were enlisted especially for his service, and wore his uniform. (In France the uniform was introduced by Louvois.) There was a regular organization, each regiment was divided into a fixed number of companies, and each company had to have a fixed number of men. The army was composed of soldiers, who enlisted voluntarily, but as the armies increased in size and number recruiting became more difficult. Each government had special officers, the recruiting-sergeants, who went about looking for vigorous young men, persuading them to enlist. These sergeants were sent into the towns of the country, and even to foreign countries, to the petty states where there were no standing armies. In order to procure the men the recruiting officers often employed trickery; they staid at a tavern, invited the young men to come and drink with them, boasted of the advantages of a soldier's profession, made them drunk, and forced them to accept a small sum of money, which was the earnest money of the bargain; from the moment that a man had accepted the king's money he was enrolled and could not withdraw. The soldiers led a miserable life; they were badly lodged, badly fed and badly treated. The officers always carried a cane in order to be able to strike a soldier during the drill; a good, sound beating was the usual punishment. The soldier did not receive sufficient pay to support himself and his family; it was necessary for him to have some supplementary business in the town, such as laborer, street porter or messenger. There was, besides, no hope of advancement, for the officers were nobles or wealthy bourgeois; the only prospect for an old or an infirm soldier was to beg for his daily bread; the government gave no retiring pension. The construction of the Invalides was regarded as an act of generosity on the part of Louis XIV. With such a system many soldiers were tempted to desert. In Prussia, surveillance and severe punishment were necessary in order to keep them. As soon as a desertion was noted a cannon was fired, and guards met to go in pursuit. If the deserter was taken he was made to pass between two lines of soldiers, each one armed with a stick, with which they gave him a blow as he passed; the blood flowed in streams and the skin fell in strips; at the third offence the deserter was hung. This profession was in little demand; the army found its recruits chiefly among vagabonds; it was a disgrace to be a soldier; sometimes a gentleman was condemned to serve as a soldier, in punishment for a crime. Soon the governments

could not find enough men to recruit the armies. From the end of the seventeenth century they tried to procure them, as they procured their money, by compulsory levies. The King of Sweden, Gustavus Adolphus, had already imposed upon his subjects the obligation to serve in his army. Several states organized a compulsory service in the eighteenth century. Louis XIV., near the end of his reign, created a militia service, which was continued down to the Revolution; every year, in each parish, they drew lots as to who should go into the army, but it was only the poor people who drew; the bourgeois, their domestics and the rich peasants were exempt. At the time of the Thirty Years' War [1618-1648] there still remained in the armies bodies of mounted men clothed in iron armor and carrying lances, just as in the Middle Ages; these men at arms had fought at Rocroy. But the cavalry was composed of an entirely new body; the cuirassiers, who still wore the cuirass; the carbiniers; the dragoons, who were only foot soldiers mounted on horseback; the hussars, dressed in Turkish fashion and mounted on swift horses. Their arms were a sword and firearms, especially the long pistol, which has retained the name of cavalry pistol. After the Thirty Years' War the corps clothed in full armor were abandoned. Neither did the old infantry survive this war. The corps of foot soldiers was composed of two kinds of men, the pikemen, armed like the former lansquenets, with a long pike; the musketeers, armed with a sword and a musket. The very heavy musket was lighted with tinder; a forked rest was necessary to support it while one took aim, and a fuse had to be lighted in order to make it go off. After the musketeer had fired he was disarmed, and had to seek shelter behind the pikemen. During the Thirty Years' War they did away with the forked rest, and replaced the tinder with flint. Then was invented the bayonet, which fastened into the gun-barrel and served as a pike. The soldier armed with the gun and bayonet could fight at long range or in close quarters without being disarmed. The pikemen became useless, and were abandoned; all foot soldiers were armed in the same way. Picked soldiers carried grenades, which they threw, with the fuse lighted, into the ranks of the enemy; these grenadiers marched with the infantry. The bayonet fastened inside of the gun-barrel had still the defect of taking too much time, and of preventing the bearer from shooting. At the battle of Killcrankie (1688), the English soldiers, after they had fired, were adjusting their bayonets when the Scotch Highlanders rushed upon them, and put them to rout before they had finished the operation. At the close of the seventeenth century this defect was remedied by the invention of a bayonet with a socket, which is fixed around the barrel of the gun. The cavalry, which had been more rapidly perfected, had the advantage during the whole of the seventeenth century; it was the cavalry which decided almost all the battles of the Thirty Years' War; again in 1602 at Steinkirk, it was the cavalry of the king's own which put the enemy to flight. It was then admitted that in the open country a corps of infantry could not withstand a body of cavalry. The artillery was changed also. In place of long, irregular pieces, they had cannon of a regular calibre, which threw iron balls. Toward the close of the seventeenth century howitzers and mortars for throwing bombs were invented. They began to support a special personnel of artillery to man these weapons; in France this was the Royal Artillery regiment. In order to be able to resist the artillery the whole system of fortifications had to be

changed. The high stone walls served as a target for the artillery, which demolished them piece by piece, and the higher they were the more easily was this done. The dominant fortifications were given up in the seventeenth century, and an entirely opposite system was adopted. Instead of raising a rampart they tried to conceal it in such a manner that it would be difficult for the cannon balls to reach it. A low and thick rampart was built, and this was covered by a ridge of earth, on top of which was a layer of thick turf, the 'scarp' or 'escarp,' into which the balls plunged without destroying anything. The rampart was surrounded by a moat, but this moat is no longer beneath at the foot of the wall, as in the ancient fortified châteaux; it is on the same level, formed by one side of the rampart itself, and the bank or talus of the same height which forms the other side is called the 'counterscarp,' and slopes away so gently to the surrounding country that it conceals the rampart. The enemy perceived only the line of the counterscarp, and behind it the bank of earth which is the scarp, while they were themselves exposed to the shots from the cannon in the place sheltered by the talus. The towers at the corners of the town were also replaced by bastions, which were also concealed by earthworks. Such was the system of razed fortifications which Vauban applied to all the fortified places in France. Against this new method of defence a new mode of attack was contrived. The besiegers dug long and deep ditches, the trenches, and made their advance under cover until near enough to make an assault on the rampart. During this time they threw bombs into the town, setting on fire the houses, arsenals and barracks, obliging the garrison to take refuge in the casemates, which were under the rampart.

"The operations in the Thirty Years' War were all carried on with small armies; Tilly said that an army should not exceed 40,000 men. But a corps of 40,000 men represented more than 100,000 persons. As there were neither supply stores nor ambulances, the soldiers carried along with them women, children, servants and carts for their utensils and their booty. As soon as the governments took it upon themselves to provide for the needs of soldiers on a campaign, the army train was reduced, but it has been impossible to suppress it entirely. The army did not go on a campaign until the spring months; it was necessary to have green grain, and meadows with sufficient growth to feed the horses. The object of the campaign was usually to seize the fortified places; the army went off to camp before a place, and opened trenches there. Almost all the wars of the reign of Louis XIV. were sieges; they did not give battle save for the relief of a besieged place, or to repulse the army sent to aid in its defence. Grand invasions were rare; almost always war was confined to frontier provinces. Therefore it was rarely decisive. Operations ceased at the end of autumn, the campaign ended, the soldiers constructed barracks, where they passed the winter; this was called going into winter quarters. A war rarely ended with one campaign; it usually lasted several years, until one of the powers ran short of money. The armies fought for the sake of the profession and without national hatred. The officers of one camp were treated by those of the others with the respect that gentlemen owe to each other; often they were acquainted and visited each other. In times of peace the soldiers looked upon each other as brothers in arms, who were doing their duty in the service of different masters. The prisoners were honorably treated and were often released on parole. During the Thirty Years' War the old custom of demanding a ransom

for prisoners was still observed. In the eighteenth century the government took upon itself the burden of redeeming the prisoners or of exchanging them. But the usages of war were still severe for the people of the countries which were invaded. The right to defend their own village was not recognized, neither dare they commit any hostile act, for which the punishment was death. When Louis XIV. entered Holland he issued this proclamation: 'Those who do not wish to submit, and who may attempt resistance to His Majesty's forces by cutting their dikes, will be punished with the utmost severity.' At Créquy, Louvois wrote: 'His Majesty, having considered that the places belonging to M. de Lorraine are inadequately provisioned, that they cannot hope for any succor and that, therefore, it is a temerity in those who are defending them which merits exemplary punishment, His Majesty has resolved that all the knights, soldiers, militia and people of Lorraine who shall have contributed to the defence of the place, shall be sent to the galleys, unless they redeem themselves at 100 écus each.' In 1744 the Austrian generals who invaded Alsace declared that if the inhabitants resisted they would be hung, 'after being forced to cut off their own noses and ears.' It was admitted that when a place was taken by assault it belonged to the soldiers, and they were free to pillage and massacre at will. It was admitted that the enemy had the right to live at the expense of the country invaded. The government did not furnish food nor forage for its troops; they went foraging themselves, and made requisitions for their supplies. Often they levied contributions on the bourgeois; this was a resource upon which they counted, and they called it the 'necessaries of war.' If the inhabitants did not deliver what was exacted from them their homes were burned over their heads. Marshal de Luxembourg wrote in 1672: 'Never have attacks of fever been as regular as our custom of burning out every two days those who are fools enough to oblige us to do it.' That was almost a recognized law. When Turenne began to burn the villages of the Palatinate, this prince wrote to him: 'It seems to me that in a strict sense we are only burning the places which refused to make the contributions demanded.' Louvois went still farther; he ordered the devastation of all the states of the Elector Palatine, although Louis XIV. was not at war with him, so that the enemy could not find anything there to live upon. An order was given to the inhabitants to evacuate their houses; 500,000 persons found themselves without resources; all the towns and villages were burned, the country was ravaged and the castle of Heidelberg was mined and blown up. In view of the principles avowed by the governments it is easy to imagine what the soldiers were accustomed to do. The undisciplined armies were full of marauders who scattered through the country for the purpose of pillage. Sometimes an example was made of them, a band was captured and they were hung on trees (it was a soldier's privilege to be hung only on a tree, or on a military gibbet). But rarely did the inhabitant succeed in obtaining justice; the chiefs did not like to take the part of a stranger against one of their own soldiers. The most popular generals, Wallenstein, Turenne (the father of his soldiers), were very hard on the people. The soldiers knew that they could indulge in every liberty. Not content with pillaging they often tortured simply for their own amusement. . . . By the end of the war the greater number of the peasants were dead, from massacre or from suffering in the woods; all the villages had been

burned; four-fifths of the population of Germany had perished. There were in 1618, before the war, as many inhabitants and as many head of cattle as there were in 1848; it took more than two centuries to repair the disasters of that war in Germany.

"The French army had become disorganized during the long wars, and through the Fronde. Letailier and his son Louvois, who succeeded each other as Secretaries of War, tried to restore the military strength. They made no great general reform. Their work consisted in a great number of rules in detail, made for the most part in the years 1668, 1675, 1680. In France, as in the other European countries, there was no really permanent army; a few regiments only remained under arms in time of peace. When war began, the government dealt with colonels or captains, who took it upon themselves to enroll, arm, equip, and support a regiment or a company. The State paid them the money which they were to give to their men. To raise a regiment was an operation similar to a labor contract. These army contracts were interested in spending as little as possible; they let the soldier live at the expense of the country where they were carrying on the war, and furnished him none of the things that he needed. In order to lessen the expense they sought to have as few soldiers as possible under arms. To prevent the inspectors from discovering the fraud, the officers, on the days of review, were accustomed to fill up the regiments with people dressed as soldiers (and called *Passevolants*). They profited by the first combat in which the regiment was engaged, to count as dead all the soldiers that were lacking on the roster. Louvois wished to put the army under the direction of the government. He could not suppress the custom of giving, and even of selling brevets; nor could he take away from the officers the right themselves to form companies. But he exacted that every officer should do regular duty, and that every regiment should be complete. He also put war commissioners in surveillance of the army. He wished that the troops should always be in condition to take the field, and he organized a perfect system to supply them with provisions. 'The administration,' said he, 'cannot be improvised like a victory.' He established military stores in the frontier provinces, organized the forage routes through which the soldiers had to pass. At each stop they were lodged in the house of some inhabitant, who was to furnish them with fire, light, and a sum of five pounds a day for each company. This was called indemnity. He established hospitals and ambulances. He persuaded the king to build the *Hôtel des Invalides* for wounded and infirm soldiers. Louvois was before all things else an administrator. He was the creator of the commissary department. This regular system permitted a large army to be kept permanently on a war footing. Under the reign of Louis XIV. armies ready for action became much more numerous, and when peace was signed the regiments preserved their organizations. The 1st of January, 1678, the military force numbered 210,000 foot, 47,000 cavalry, and 9,500 dragoons."—C. Seignobos, *History of medieval and modern civilization*, pp. 375-385, 417-418.

17. Evolution of battle formation.—From Marlborough to Frederick the Great.—From pike to bayonet.—Development of artillery mobility.—Reforms of de Gribeauval.—General du Teil and his pupil Bonaparte.—Strategy and tactics at Marengo.—"War as an art reaches its apogee, in modern times, with the eighteenth cen-

tury. Marlborough marks the beginning, Frederick the middle, Bonaparte the close of the epoch. Nowadays, in western Europe at all events, war is no longer an art; it is rather an economic function. The nation is armed and crowded to the frontier while an economic adjustment of vast proportions supplies its thousand needs, and attempts to maintain some sort of equilibrium behind. A hundred years ago, things were very different. The eighteenth-century army, as an instrument in the hands of its general, may be compared to the eighteenth-century orchestra. Starting on a basis of string instruments, the woods were gradually developed from the time of Montaverde to Mozart, while with Beethoven, at the close of the century, the brass comes into its own, and the three great parts of the orchestra, amply developed, give the composer ample means for deploying the resources of his art. A somewhat similar evolution took place with the three great arms of the modern army: infantry, cavalry, artillery. Infantry, before the eighteenth century, was normally made up in varying proportions of pikemen and musketeers. The pikemen held off the cavalry, or charged an enemy in position. The musketeers held the opposing cavalry at distance or occupied woods, ditches and flank positions, and tended to develop a direct attack by fire. At the turn of the century a shortened pike shaft was stuck into the muzzle of a musket and then developed into a socket bayonet, so that the pikeman and musketeer were amalgamated. A unit of say 300 pikemen and 300 musketeers was converted by this invention into a unit of 600 pikemen and 600 musketeers. In other words, the value of infantry was numerically doubled. In Marlborough's campaigns during the Wars of the Spanish Succession [1701-1714], cavalry and infantry were of about equal value in the shock of battle, and the use of cavalry in the front line is distinctive of this great master of the art of war and of his epoch. But infantry was rapidly acquiring the predominance it has since retained on the battlefield. Material improvements in the musket made the arm more effective. And the increasing rigor of drill and precision in manœuvring, especially in Prussia, soon relegated cavalry to a secondary, though still highly important part. The artillery arm was as yet of little account for field operations. Frederick the Great brought the infantry arm to a point it has not since surpassed. It could maintain tactical cohesion under a terrific fire, on the widest front, and in complicated formations. No infantry ever equaled it in its power of forcing a decision of the combat by manœuvring against a given point and under the most violent conditions. To understand this better it may be as well to clear away a misunderstanding widespread among popular lecturers as to the relation between improved armaments and destruction of life in battle. As a general proposition it may be laid down that the less destructive the weapon the greater will be the loss of life; and the history of war gives ample confirmation to the theory. Arm two groups of six men with knives, and tell them to get a decision: the loss of life will inevitably be heavy, and the decision rapid. Arm the same groups each with a quick firing gun: the loss of life will in nine cases out of ten be smaller, and the decision may be long postponed. With weak arms the decision must be sought at short range and a system of discipline and tactics must be evolved that will meet this necessity. With powerful weapons the emphasis changes; it becomes increasingly necessary to protect human life

instead of risking it; tactics are modified, distances are increased, and loss decreases correspondingly. The illusion is widespread, nevertheless, that modern weapons cause greater loss of life than those used in earlier days. This illusion proceeds from various causes. The incident of a local surprise where the modern weapon does its destructive work, is extended to represent the norm of the whole shock between two armies, which it does not. The illusion also proceeds from ignoring the relation of tactics to armaments and from the magnifying effect of the modern press. The fact remains that a blunderbuss, in the evolution of war, is a more effective weapon than a high-power, small-bore rifle, because the former was used at ten feet, where the latter is used at a thousand yards. The musket in Frederick's day was already capable of discharging several shots a minute, but it lacked power and accuracy. Although it might range a good deal beyond 200 yards, yet that distance was generally regarded as the practical limit of the field of fire within which the decision could be reached. Every twenty yards advance within that distance was a distinct gain in fire power. The ultimate aim of the commander was to obtain so close a position and to deliver so smashing a discharge as to break the opposing line at one blow. Such was the 'perfect volley' on the plains of Abraham in 1759. If volleys could be delivered either by units or by the whole line, as at Leuthen [1757], from an enfilading position, so much the better. . . . Frederick generally strove for a pitched battle, or quick results. The size of his army, the nature of his manœuvres, and the character of the ground in the country he fought over, all helped to make central control of the army and direct supervision by the general possible. Infantry though broken up into battalions, and even on occasion into larger groups, was handled as a whole. The subordinate generals and officers were more concerned with maintaining alignments and relative positions and directions than with utilizing broken ground, which was avoided, or exercising any initiative. The preoccupation of the military art was tactical in the strictest sense. Soon after the close of the Seven Years' War [1756-1763] came important modifications in the artillery arm, which hitherto had lagged far behind the others. These reforms took place in France, and the officer whose name is most closely associated with them was [General J. B. V.] de Gribeauval [1715-1780]. He succeeded in reducing the weight of the gun, thereby increasing its mobility and rendering it capable of following infantry over broken ground. He gave it greater muzzle velocity, while reducing the charge; in fact, almost made a new weapon of it. At the same time he and others were experimenting with grape, which became more destructive. These changes brought the artillery arm up to the level of the other two, and by disarranging the balance then existing brought about a change in theoretical tactics; in fact, in the whole theory of war. General du Teil was teaching these theories at the artillery school at Auxonne at the time when the French Revolution broke out, and young Bonaparte, as sub-lieutenant of artillery, was quartered there and became one of his favorite students. The new theory ran along the following lines: Guns can now follow the infantry fight and shift position rapidly. They can also deliver a greater volume of fire at increased ranges. That being so, if operations are being conducted in country broken by natural obstacles, numerous positions can be found where a few guns supported by detachments of the other arms, can hold at bay

large numbers of deployed infantry. Again, if one could concentrate, by good use of ground, the fire of a number of guns on a given point of the enemy's line, then a breach might be made, much as in the attack of a fortress, and a victory won. Napoleon acted on this theory in the great grape shot attacks of his later campaigns; and even before Napoleon, Carnot [1753-1823] adopted the theory of the new school by breaking up his armies into divisions of the three arms, self-sustaining because of the increased value and radius of fire. Every increase of the power of the defensive has presented the recurring problem: how, then, is a decision to be got? Napoleon found an answer. If the shock was to be less easy to force, less decisive, spread over more ground and more time, then could not tactics be supplemented by strategy? Could not an army be so handled as to obtain an advantage which might prove decisive even before the tactical shock occurred? 'Marengo illustrates admirably the strategic conception that overcomes tactical disability. Between the two armies that met on that field there was no comparison in point of discipline and of maneuvering power in terms of minor tactics. The French army was wretchedly inadequate to the business in hand. A large proportion of the infantry was green. Some of the men had not even received muskets, while many had had muskets dealt out to them on the march through Switzerland and were only just beginning to get correct notions as to which end should be pointed at the enemy. As soon as Austrians and French were fairly deployed face to face the result, tactically, was not in doubt for an instant. And it was only because the Austrians, superior also in numbers, carelessly blundered after apparently winning an easy victory, only because Desaix and Kellermann struck an unexpected, clever, and lucky blow, that [Baron M. von] Melas did not camp on the battlefield. But the remarkable thing was that all this mattered very little, because Bonaparte had got a decisive strategic result before he even attempted to get a tactical one.'—R. M. Johnston, *What could Napoleon accomplish to-day?* (Nineteenth Century, Dec., 1914.) "We thus have a development of armaments, and a new theory of war to mark the close of the century. But this was not all, for the same epoch witnessed a large increase in the size of armies together with a lowering of the efficiency of the infantry arm. . . . We may say that under the new conditions Bonaparte showed a genius for war that raised him at the close of his first campaign to the select company of the great captains. War still remained an art. From his saddle the commander could still follow the evolutions of his army on the field, could control all its divisions, could ring the changes on all the combinations of horse, foot, and guns. If the infantry was less steady, it was quicker in its movements; if the cavalry was less regular, it had more initiative; while the guns were constantly gaining in importance. 'There is no natural order of battle,' declared Napoleon. But out of the newborn confusion and scurry the Corsican's logical mind could always evoke the massed blow or circling swoop that presaged the flight of the enemy."—R. M. Johnston, *Arms and the race*, pp. 22-28, 30-35, 37-38.

18. Transition period.—Nationalization of armies.—Army finance.—Necker's *Compte Rendu*.—French Revolution.—Hired professional armies.—Commission purchase.—European and American theories.—Sea and land power.—"At the epoch, not so very remote, of the

Declaration of American Independence, armies were viewed differently from to-day. With some reservations as to the British army, every armed force was regarded as an essential prerogative and instrument of a monarch. It belonged to him in a personal and exclusive sense, as an unquestioned privilege. It was therefore, in the last analysis, the foundation of the established order of things in Europe; incidentally, it was an instrument for territorial acquisition. But, as the public saw things, the constant factor was tacitly accepted, while its incident appeared the chief matter. Autocratic monarchy was reckoned a divine ordinance and hardly worth discussing, while interest centered in military activities provoked by far less important matters, ranging all the way from the point of honor of the sovereign to the economic advantage of the nation as a whole. Take the Bourbons in 1781, the year of Yorktown and of Necker's *Compte Rendu*. Up to that time it had never occurred to any one in France that the Bourbon accounts or the Bourbon army concerned any one hut the monarch. His tax-raised revenue was his own and beyond the range of investigation in the same sense as the income of any private individual. And from this revenue he maintained, at what was thought of as his personal expense, just what number of soldiers he saw fit. Even though financial chaos and bankruptcy threatened, even though the American war was costing enormous sums, no criticism was offered until in that year, 1781. Necker, on being dismissed from office, issued his epoch-making *Compte Rendu*. It was a halting, incomplete, inaccurate attempt to state the financial situation of the kingdom. The question was now raised: Is finance royal or national? The Estates General replied eight years later by a decree that pledged the national credit for the national debt. No finances, no army. The nationalization of the one inevitably resulted in the nationalization of the other. The French army, long unpaid and in the hands of a kindly and unenergetic monarch, failed to maintain the old order in July, 1789, and a year later found itself under a new allegiance: to the Nation, the Law, and the King. This was perhaps the decisive act of the French Revolution. But the public missed its full significance, still accustomed to the superficial view that an army was for the most part concerned with external war, whether of ambition or of economic interest. The army of the Bourbons was fairly representative of the European armies of that time. The King of Prussia, the Emperor, the King of Sardinia, the Republic of Venice, the King of Spain, the Russian Tsar, all maintained armies of the same general type. And as these armies were thought of in their personal relations to a sovereign, it followed that a soldier's qualification was almost wholly disconnected with the place of his birth. A soldier was a professional man who served wherever he found good pay and conditions; and a Swiss infantryman might hesitate as to whether to enlist with the King of France, the King of Naples, or the Pope, very much as a German chemist might hesitate to-day as to whether to seek a job in Lancashire, in Massachusetts, or in Normandy. Switzerland bred as good soldiers as were to be found in Europe; they could command high pay in any capital. Hesse was turned into the most productive of soldier farms by her thrifty electors, who took to the lucrative business of battalion contractors. As the army of Louis XVI marched on Paris in July, 1789, its heads of columns were not French: they were formed by such regiments as Nassau, Royal-Etranger, Esterhazy, Diesbach, Royal-Allemand,

Reinach, Royal-Cravate; while the general in command was a Swiss. The Duke of Brunswick's columns in 1792 were not appreciably foreign, and were viewed by the people of Paris much as their monarch's army had been viewed three years earlier. It must not be supposed, however, that eighteenth-century armies in Continental Europe were purely professional and non-national. It is merely a matter of emphasis. For if one were considering the question in close detail, it would be necessary to dwell on the militia organizations that were called on to play a part occasionally, as in France and Prussia. Again, levies of an even more primitive description, such as those of the Hungarian horse, tended to give war at times a more national character. But these were not the outstanding facts. Speaking broadly, an army belonged to its monarch, and the soldier was a professional expert, and often, non-national. Just as the army belonged to the monarch, so did the regiment belong to its colonel, and the company to its captain. But here we come to a matter in which variation was great among the different armies. Improvements were being made in this system which was, on the whole, a pernicious survival from the seventeenth century. It will be stated, therefore, in a purely formal sense, and more to give an impression of the views of the epoch than to cover conditions existing at any one place and time. A regiment or a company was a benefice in very much the same sense as a bishopric or deanery. The king paid the colonel so much for his regiment; the colonel paid the captain so much for his company. At each of these steps profit was made; in fact, the whole business of war and army management was full of petty fees and profits, so that the term professional soldier was, even in that sense, entirely justified. The emoluments, like in most professions, went to those nearest the top of the ladder; so that it paid to buy a position higher up, and a complicated system of purchase of commissions crept in, which in the English army survived to within half a century of our own time. Under these conditions a commission as an officer was naturally enough a privilege reserved to men of rank. As the king owned the army, so did the aristocracy monopolize the commissions. In France, four quarterings of nobility were necessary for holding officers' rank; and an able soldier but a plebian like Jourdan might distinguish himself pre-eminently, as he did in the trenches at Yorktown, and yet remain a sergeant. Under the Republic, the same man might rise to command a great national army and win one of the decisive victories of European history; as Jourdan did at Fleurus in 1794. At the time of the War of the Spanish Succession the Hohenzollerns were not above contracting out their army, under the command of Crown Prince Frederick William, to the Allies. The Elector of Hesse, on a smaller scale, went into the same sort of business. As late as 1855 we find England attempting to hire the Sardinian army. On a smaller scale, colonels are military contractors. They supply the king with a regiment. It is made up of professional soldiers; and is recruited by other professional soldiers who drift in, or by new recruits who soon learn to conform with the high standard they see all about them. War decimates these regiments; but it also ravages the country and turns peasants to soldiering, who come in as recruits. The expansion of armies for war emergencies was a slow process and not at all comparable with the modern system founded by Scharnhorst. Larger sums were made available with which to

enter into more contracts with suppliers of troops. Old and new hands were attracted by the prospect of fighting, and especially of the incidents of fighting. . . .

"Turning to England we note differences. The army was broken in the monarch's hand as early as the middle of the seventeenth century. And the struggle of the Commonwealth against the Crown was maintained by the same iron stock which in that epoch succeeded in colonizing New England. When the Stuarts were driven out, the question of the army took on a new aspect. The sovereigns that followed were far more disposed to follow constitutional courses. England had become involved in continental wars with Holland, with Spain, with France. She struggled for commercial advantages, and the control of the sea; she resisted the planting of a strong power among the inlets and havens that faced the Thames from Antwerp to Dunkirk. Such a policy required an army, and therefore England reluctantly, suspiciously, entrusted William III and his successors with the forces that appeared to be called for by the passing circumstances. Although the British monarchs of the eighteenth century maintained an army similar in many ways to those of the Continental States, there were at bottom important differences. Financial control reposed in the House of Commons from the year 1689. The King's power had already in large measure passed to the Cabinet. Yet the army was viewed with jealousy, and the militia, successor of the older train-bands that had fought for the Commonwealth, was viewed as the national as opposed to the royal force. The Tory country gentlemen, none too zealous on behalf of the Hanoverian dynasty, officered the militia. It was not an efficient force even after some training as at the time of the Seven Years' War and at the time of Napoleon; but it long continued immensely popular as the hypothetical bulwark of the British constitution against a hypothetical tyrant. These ideas evoked a natural echo from America. When the colonists revolted from the mother country nothing proved more distasteful for them than to carry their decision to its logical conclusion, the formation of an army. The armed farmers of Lexington were well enough, but when it became necessary to supplement their well-meant but untutored and sporadic efforts by the formation of regular Continental troops, enthusiasm waned fast. . . . At the close of the war and during the period that followed, American sentiment towards the army reflected pretty closely the conditions that surrounded armies in Europe. It was natural, in fact inevitable, that a standing army should be thought of as an engine of tyranny, and more or less useless for any other purpose. Had not the English sovereigns from Charles I to George III, for a century and a half, employed armed force to assert their will against their subjects? Was not an army by the nature of military command an aristocratic institution? As a result of these wholly justified prejudices the United States proved on the whole ungrateful in the treatment awarded to the brave men who gave their blood for independence. Although Washington plainly declared and frequently repeated that the militia had actually done more harm than good to the cause, the second clause of the Constitution was drawn as follows: 'A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.' It is needless to point out that this maintained the English distinction between the constitutional and the royal force. . . . The land

army, then, was viewed as an instrument of tyranny; the sea army was a different case. And the sea army was perhaps the more potent factor in the intercourse of nations. 'Admiral Mahan has laid down in terms that are perhaps too sweeping an argument for the supremacy of sea power over land power. It is true to say that the factor represented by sea power had been much neglected by historians before he so brilliantly called attention to it. But it is also true to say that the decisiveness of sea power has not been quite so constant as he claims, and that it must vary in every conflict with the general situation of the combatants. . . . Now from the beginning of the seventeenth century to the present day England has maintained a sea militarism of an extreme character. For it has during most of this time rejected equality with its opponents and attempted, with general success, to maintain superiority and supremacy. Yet this sea power, that for a century and a half dominated all the world and created the greatest empire yet seen, never provoked the fears and jealousy that were felt for the eighteenth-century army. For a fleet arises from commerce. Its home is the ocean. It neither helps the despot nor threatens the citizen. And in the attitude of the American citizen of the present day towards fleets and armies, these old eighteenth-century ideas and prejudices are still [1915] quite apparent.'—R. M. Johnston, *Arms and the race*, pp. 3-19, 21.

19. **General staff.**—Creation by Napoleon.—Improvements by Scharnhorst and the Prussians.—Modern staffs: France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Russia, United States.—Perhaps the most interesting single development of modern military organization is the general staff. In the small, compact armies of the days of Cromwell and Marlborough the commander needed about him little more than orderlies and aides-de-camp, though the offices of major-general and quartermaster-general had already appeared. The duty of the former was to draw up the army on the field of battle according to orders, while the latter was charged with reconnoitring and selecting sites for camps. As late as Frederick the Great, 1740-1786, the quartermaster-general's staff, which was principally busied with military engineering, was the nearest approach to a modern staff. However, by the time of Napoleon, when large, mobile armies had appeared, the complexity of administration of the field forces became too great for one mind. In response to this need arose the general staff, with Marshal Berthier at its head bearing the title of major-general and chef d'état-major—"despatching the orders of the emperor." This system persisted in France till the re-organization of the French army after the Franco-German War but a different though parallel development was taking place in Prussia during the same period. Soon after Jena, 1806, the Prussian staff came under the direction of Scharnhorst and it took on new functions which foreshadowed the great work of Moltke a generation later. The functions of a general staff are now generally agreed upon in all armies though nations differ somewhat in the distribution of powers between the war department and the staff. Also, there are in some countries special bodies which have duties analogous to the German general staff. The following sections treat of the general staffs of the principal military powers at the time of the World War.

FRANCE.—"The general staff of the French Army is [1915] one of the seven main divisions of the war department. Military matters, unless they concern more than one department of the National Govern-

ment, are directed by the superior military council, which consists of the minister of war, the chief of staff, and 10 major-generals. The superior military council exercises control over the general staff. One of the major-generals of the superior military council is assistant chief of staff; others are assigned in time of peace to command armies in time of war, and have with them the three general-staff officers to be on their staffs in the field. These prospective army commanders have, in time of peace, supervision of the troops that would be under their command in war. They prepare and direct the maneuvers and staff rides for the training of these troops and generally see to their preparation for war. They are army inspectors. The chief of staff is the head of the war department general staff, and deals with the larger questions. Other general-staff matters are under the assistant chief of staff. The work of the war department general staff is performed by three groups, each under a general officer.

"First group: 1. The bureau of military operations and general training of the army. 2. The bureau charged with the study of the organization and tactics of foreign armies. 3. The bureau of railways and lines of communication. Second group: 1. Bureau of organization and mobilization of the army. 2. The African section. 3. The historical section. Third group: 1. The section of the personnel of the general staff. 2. Routine service section of the general staff. 3. The administrative section: The chief of staff, assistant chief of staff, and the chief of the first group are major-generals. The chiefs of the second and third groups are brigadier-generals. In addition the following general staff officers were authorized by law before the present war: Thirty colonels, 40 lieutenant-colonels, 170 majors, and 400 captains; total 640. General staff officers were assigned as follows: War Department general staff, 132; staff with troops, 480; additional staff officers with the war department general staff, 47; with troops, 216. The general staff is larger now."—*General staffs of certain belligerent powers* (Army College, Washington, Nov., 1915, War Department Document no. 514, pp. 6-7.)

GERMANY.—"The general staff of Germany consists [1915] of the war department general staff (called the great general staff) and the general staff officers on duty with the troops. The officers of the war department general staff performed, in peace, the following duties: One general, chief of staff, directly under the Emperor, and has charge of the war academy and the land survey; 1 lieutenant-general, assistant chief of staff, chief of division; 4 major-generals, heads of four divisions; 11 colonels, chiefs of sections; 6 lieutenant-colonels, four of them are chiefs of sections; 37 majors, duty with sections and committees; 52 captains and 1 lieutenant performing various general staff duties; total, 113. This part of the general staff is organized into 9 sections and the historical and geographical departments. It has complete charge of the mapping of the country and of the maps of Germany and other countries. The general staff officers on duty with the troops are under the orders of their commanders, but special work may be assigned to them by the chief of staff. Before the . . . [World] war the general staff of Germany consisted of 1 general, 2 lieutenant-generals, 6 major-generals, 23 colonels, 21 lieutenant-colonels, 116 majors, 130 captains, and 1 lieutenant, total 300. Additional officers performing general staff duties were: Three colonels, 13 lieutenant-colonels, 44 majors, 36 captains, and 132 lieutenants; total attached officers, 228, total

number of officers performing general staff duties, 537."—*Ibid.*, p. 8.

GREAT BRITAIN.—"The general staff at the War Office has the following duties: To advise on the strategical distribution of the army; to supervise the education of the officers and the training and preparation of the army for war; to study military plans for offense and defense; to collect military information, and to direct the general policy in army matters. The general staff with troops has the following duties: To assist the officers on whose staffs they serve in promoting military efficiency, and to aid them in carrying out the general policy in army matters. The general staff at the war office, known as department of chief of general staff at army headquarters, was divided into three branches: Military operations, staff duties, and military training. A major-general was in charge of each. General staff officers in this department: Three major-generals, 6 colonels, 21 lieutenant-colonels and majors, and 27 captains. Total, 57. The general staff officers with troops were: One major-general, 6 brigadier-generals, 16 colonels, 54 lieutenant-colonels and majors, 12 captains, and 25 brigade majors. Total, 114. Besides the 171 general staff officers other officers were attached to the general staff to perform general-staff duties. Great Britain was short of officers, and the general staff was somewhat depleted at the beginning of the . . . [World] war. The British press . . . attributed grave errors of the war to this lack of an adequate general staff."—*Ibid.*, pp. 8-9.

ITALY.—"The latest information found at the War College shows the chief of the general staff of Italy was intrusted with the preparation, in time of peace, and execution, in time of war, of all military operations, but under the minister of war; and that the general staff consisted of 260 officers. The war department general staff, called the great general staff, consisted of three sections: The central section, the section for military operations, and the section for railways and communications. The central section supervised the work of the others. The section for military operations was divided into five subsections, and the section for railways and communications was divided into three subsections. The general staff officers on duty with troops performed duties that are performed in the United States by general staff officers and by adjutants general."—*Ibid.*, p. 9.

JAPAN.—"The general staff has charge of the national defense and the employment of the military forces of the Empire. The chief of staff is directly under the Emperor and assists in the business of the imperial personal staff. All things relating to national defense and strategy are in his province. Furthermore, he has under his supervision all staff officers of the army and their training. Directly under his jurisdiction are: (1) General staff headquarters; (2) the land survey department; (3) the army staff college; and (4) the military attachés at embassies and legations. A vice chief of staff assists the chief and supervises the business of general staff headquarters. The subjects dealt with by the general staff are: 1. Defense of the Empire and plans of mobilization. 2. Statistics of foreign armies. 3. Communications and transportation of troops. 4. Geodesy and topography. 5. Historical work. The work of the war department general staff, designated the great general staff, is performed in 5 divisions divided into 10 sections. One of the divisions is designated 'general affairs'; the others are numbered 1, 2, 3, and 4. The chief of staff is a general; the vice chief of staff, a lieutenant general; the chief of each division is a major general, and the chief of each section is a colonel. The general staff

office at Tokyo consists of 1 general, 1 lieutenant-general, 5 major-generals, 10 colonels, 8 lieutenant-colonels, 21 majors, and 33 captains. Total, 79. In connection with these are 72 other officers, making a total of 151 officers performing war department general staff duties May 1, 1915. They were assisted by 44 warrant and noncommissioned officers and 5 civilians. Under the chief of staff, the land survey department consists of 35 officers, 161 warrant and noncommissioned officers, and 135 civilians; the army staff college consists of 58 officers, 15 warrant and noncommissioned officers, and 14 civilians. The exact number of general staff officers serving with troops in the Japanese Army is not stated in the reports received at the War College. It is understood that the strength, organization, and duties of the Japanese general staff are about the same as in other good, modern armies. The organization of the Japanese general staff is not fixed by law. It depends on the orders of the Emperor and usually changes slightly from year to year."—*Ibid.*, pp. 9-10.

RUSSIA.—"The latest figures on this organization, found at the War College, show the general staff of Russia consisted of 734 officers. The general staff of that country was organized on modern lines in 1906. The chief of the general staff was part of the war ministry. In 1914 the headquarters directorate of the general staff consisted of the following six branches: The quartermaster general's branch, consisting of seven sections; organization and administrative branch, seven sections and two subsections; mobilization branch, four sections; military communications branch, eight sections; topographical branch, three sections; aviation branch, two sections. The Russian Army, like other modern armies, has general staff officers serving with troops."—*Ibid.*, p. 10.

UNITED STATES.—"The important military event of the year [1903] affecting the regular army has been the reorganization of the system of military control under the General Staff Act approved February 14, 1903. This Act abolished the separate office of General Commanding the Army, provided for a military Chief of Staff to the President, who, acting under the directions of the President, or of the Secretary of War representing him, should have supervision not only of all troops of the line but of the special staff and supply departments which had theretofore reported directly to the Secretary of War; and it created for the assistance of the Chief of Staff a corps of forty-four officers, who were relieved from all other duties. The function of this new corps is described by the statute in the following words: 'Sec. 2. That the duties of the General Staff Corps shall be to prepare plans for the national defence and for the mobilization of the military forces in time of war; to investigate and report upon all questions affecting the efficiency of the army and its state of preparation for military operations; to render professional aid and assistance to the Secretary of War and to general officers and other superior commanders, and to act as their agents in informing and coördinating the action of all the different officers who are subject, under the terms of this Act, to the supervision of the Chief of Staff; and to perform such other military duties not otherwise assigned by law as may be from time to time prescribed by the President.' . . . It was obvious that this radical change in the administration of military affairs, and the adjustment of the new machinery to the old machinery which had been in operation for many years, would require a vast number of details to be worked out experimentally and upon full consideration by all the officers whose duties were affected. A board

was accordingly convened in March to recommend selections for the new corps. It consisted of Generals Young, Chaffee, John C. Bates, Carter, Bliss, and Randolph, and Major Henry A. Greene, as recorder. The board was required under oath to recommend forty-two officers for detail upon their merits as exhibited by their military records. The order which convened the board also provided that vacancies occurring in the General Staff Corps, after its organization, should be filled upon the recommendation of a permanent board consisting of the Chief of Staff and the three senior officers of the General Staff Corps on duty at the War Department, operating in a similar manner. . . . Upon the report of this board its recommendations were approved without change, and the officers selected were ordered to Washington to report to General Young, who was to be the first Chief of Staff. They were then organized as an experimental or provisional General Staff, and directed to work out a permanent organization and distribution of duties for the General Staff Corps, a draft of new regulations, and a revision of the old regulations made necessary by the new departure. This work was done upon full consultation with the chiefs of bureaus and taking the opinions of general officers commanding departments, and was accompanied by reference to the provisional staff organization of many tasks and problems to be worked out which were appropriate for General Staff action, in order that they might become familiar with their work, and test by experiment the best methods of accomplishing it. In this way when the act took effect on the fifteenth of August the General Staff was ready to enter upon the discharge of its duties with a fully considered organization, distribution of duties and regulations, and a considerable familiarity with the new duties which its members were to perform. The regulations which govern the operation of the new corps were adopted on the third of August. They divide the corps into the War Department General Staff and the General Staff serving with troops (that is to say, in time of peace with the generals commanding geographical departments), and they prescribe the duties and relations of each of the two classes. The tenth article of the regulations relating to the Chief of Staff states explicitly the new theory of control inaugurated by the General Staff Act. It will be remembered that our old plan of army administration was that there should be a General Commanding the Army in peace as well as in war, responsible for the efficiency, discipline, and conduct of the troops, but having no control over finances or the departments of supply and transportation; and that there should be a Secretary of War controlling the finances and the money-spending bureaus, but not commanding the army or responsible for the conduct of purely military affairs; and it will be remembered that the result of attempting to work upon that theory of dual and separate responsibility was almost constant discord and a consequent reduction of efficiency. The new theory is stated by the regulation. . . . 'It will be perceived that we are here providing for civilian control over the military arm, but for civilian control to be exercised through a single military expert of high rank, who is provided with an adequate corps of professional assistants to aid him in the performance of his duties, and who is bound to use all his professional skill and knowledge in giving effect to the purposes and general directions of his civilian superior, or make way for another expert who will do so.' . . . The general plan contemplates that every subject requiring investigation and study shall be worked out first by the officers assigned to

the appropriate division and section of the staff, and, when of sufficient importance, shall then be considered by a general staff council composed of the three general officers of the corps and the heads of the three divisions, and shall then be acted upon by the Chief of Staff, or laid before the Secretary of War by him with his recommendation. . . . Much of the work upon which the General Staff has been employed is of a confidential nature, not to be exhibited in a report which is to become a public document. Most of the work involves questions which require investigation and the collection of data; or involves several supply and construction departments, and therefore could not properly be determined by any one such department; or calls for expert opinion upon military policy or needs. . . .

"Following the same line of policy which led to the organization of the General Staff, the Secretaries of War and the Navy entered into an arrangement, with the approval of the President, which was published to the army in General Orders No. 107. [It included a statement to the effect that] 'The Department of War and the Department of the Navy have agreed upon the formation of a joint board to be composed of four officers of the Army and four officers of the Navy, to hold stated sessions and such extraordinary sessions as shall appear advisable for the purpose of conferring upon, discussing, and reaching common conclusions regarding all matters calling for the cooperation of the two services. Any matters which seem to either Department to call for such consideration may be referred by that Department to the board thus formed. All reports of the board shall be made in duplicate, one to each Department. All reports and proceedings of the board shall be confidential. The senior member of the board present will preside at its meetings and the junior member of the board present will act as its recorder. . . . [Signed] Elihu Root, *Secretary of War*, William H. Moody, *Secretary of the Navy*.' [Extract from the Report of the Secretary of War for 1903.] 'The common understanding and mutual assistance between the two services, which it is within the power of this board to bring about, may be made to cover a wide range of subjects of great public importance, including the parts to be taken by the military and naval forces, respectively, in case of military operations on the seaboard and on navigable lakes and rivers; artillery defense of naval stations and naval defensive aid to seacoast fortifications; the exchange of information obtained by one branch of the service and useful for both; the manufacture or purchase of cannon, projectiles, explosives, small arms, ammunition, and munitions of war generally available for both services; the purchase and transportation of supplies; the transportation of men upon changes of station; the study and discussion of joint military and naval problems. In all these, and in many other respects, much greater efficiency, at much less cost, can be obtained by cooperation and mutual understanding than by separate services working in entire independence of each other.'—E. Root, *Military and colonial policy of the United States*, pp. 426-432.

"In regard to the United States General Staff, the act of Congress . . . creating it established its status and duties on lines entirely in accord with the approved practice in European armies, and, so far as known, the experiences of the . . . [World] war have proved the soundness of this action: Actual experience, however, has shown conclusively that the personnel originally provided for our General Staff was too limited for the compre-

hensive duties required of it, even for our small Army. A further bar to progress was imposed by the act of Congress approved August 24, 1912, whereby the already meager personnel was reduced by one general officer and eight captains. Under the present law it consists of 2 general officers, one of whom is Chief of Staff, 4 colonels, 6 lieutenant colonels, 12 majors, and 12 captains (or first-lieutenants); total, 36. In addition, the Chief of Coast Artillery and the Chief of the Division of Militia Affairs are also members of the General Staff, *ex officio*. The permanent station of these latter officers is in Washington, but the specific duties for which their offices were created to perform occupy their full attention and, properly speaking, are not duties pertaining to the General Staff any more than are those of the Chief of Engineers, Chief Signal Officer, or other bureau chiefs. As a matter of fact, they only do General Staff work when temporarily acting for the Chief of Staff and his senior assistant during the absence of those officers, and this duty is in addition to their normal functions. At the present time [November, 1915] the War Department General Staff consists of 2 general officers, 2 colonels, 5 lieutenant colonels, 9 majors, and 11 captains, total 29, leaving for service with troops 2 colonels, 1 lieutenant colonel, 3 majors, and 1 captain, total 7. Because of this insufficient personnel the General Staff has been unable to undertake some of its most important functions. For example, no historical section can be established, and until this is done the scientific military history of our various wars can not be written. Our lack of a definite military policy was largely due to the fact that we are without such histories and have consequently not learned the lessons to be derived from our own experience in war. We can not utilize to its full extent the important information gathered abroad, because we can not assign officers to the exclusive duty of reading and digesting these reports, due to the requirements of the daily routine General Staff work pertaining to the Army, which must be first attended to. For the same reasons we can not properly attend to the work of preparing monographs and maps pertaining to foreign countries, matters which should be always kept up to date. One thing which prevents even our meager General Staff from rendering such efficient service as it might is the continual change of status of General Staff officers before the full detail of four years has expired. This is partly due to the fact that the present law does not provide for the retention of officers who are promoted. This defect could be remedied by providing that an officer promoted should serve out the balance of his detail in the next higher grade, the vacancy in the grade from which he was promoted not being filled until the completion of his term. This would not change the total number of officers on the General Staff detail and would greatly benefit the service by permitting continuity of work by men thoroughly trained to it."—*General staffs of certain belligerent powers (Army College, Washington, War Department Document no. 514, pp. 11-12)*.—"General Orders, No. 31 . . . [Feb. 16, 1918] created five sections of the General Staff, assigned to each its functions, and so directed that subordinate commands should conform in principle to Staff organization . . . There was a Chief of Staff and a deputy chief of staff. The duties of the former corresponded to those usually exercised by that office. The deputy chief of staff was at first the channel through which papers passed intended for the Chief of Staff, and final action of the commanding general, Services of Supply, but as these papers

increased in volume this system was changed and the deputy chief of staff was engaged chiefly in questions of classification and assignment of personnel with special reference to reclassified personnel from Blois [France]."—*Organization of the services of supply (American Expeditionary Forces, Monograph no. 7)*.

20. Mobilization.—Nature of operation.—British system.—Continental system.—Prussia in War of 1866.—Germany in 1914.—Concentration.—In the preceding pages frequent allusion has been made to mobilization or the making available for actual fighting of the armed forces of a belligerent. Strictly speaking there are two separate processes in what is popularly known as mobilization. There is mobilization proper which means the assembling of the men and materials of war in their prearranged places within the country, and then there is concentration whereby they are delivered to the frontier or fighting front as organized armies ready for battle. The account given here by General O'Ryan describes the scheme of mobilization as employed by the great military nations on the outbreak of the World War, with reference also to the peculiar methods used by Great Britain and the United States. "The wars of the last half century have shown that a nation cannot depend upon her standing army alone for defense. It can serve only as a first line to delay operations until the manhood of the nation can be organized into armies and moved to the threatened points. This involves two operations; first the companies must be enlisted to full strength and assembled into regiments, and, second, the regiments must be transported to the place assigned them at the front. This places them as part of a definite division, corps, and army. The mobilization is greatly facilitated if skeleton organizations have been provided in time of peace and if trained men are available to fill up the companies. All that they then need to fit them for war is a short period of training to enable them to gain team work. This is the object of the great reserve systems of all the leading countries of the world except the United States. When war is imminent an order is issued for mobilization on a war footing. The first efforts are directed to raising the active army to full strength and dispatching it to the front, and only when its mobilization is well started, is that of the first line of reserves commenced. The successive lines of reserves are in turn taken up; as one perfect unit is worth much more than two unformed ones, each line is fully provided for before the next is called. The protection afforded Great Britain by her navy has relieved her of the necessity of such vast development of reserve military strength as is found on the continent. Her regular army and reserves include only a small percentage of her young men of fighting age. Her territorials might be considered as corresponding to the landwehr, or second reserve, of the continental systems. For the bulk of her fighters in a great war she has to depend upon newly organized volunteers. As these would be worse than useless unless trained in the elementary principles of field service, her war policy must provide for a delay of six months or more before her full military strength can be brought to bear. [In the British system] on the proclamation of the king commanding the mobilization of the British army, all of the reserves are at once summoned to the colors to fill up the fighting arms to war strength. The supply service is manned by the special reserves. The reserve (third) battalion of each regiment takes the stations from which the two active battalions are moved and forms the depot battalion.

They make good the losses of the two battalions at the front and train the newly enlisted recruits. The extra reserve battalions form fourth battalions for the regiments and are at once available for field service. The mobilization proclamation calls the Territorials into active service, and provides a force of 315,000. These men have learned the rudiments of military training in their armory drills and in the two weeks of annual camp, but time and training are needed to fit them for the arduous duties of campaign. The British system provides for a six months' training period for this purpose. This system makes about four fifths of the regular army at home stations available for early service at the front. As the home army totals 180,000 and the army reserve 150,000, Great Britain's 'quick striking' force is about 260,000 men. The value of the Territorials is also realized in advance of the six months' training period in two ways. Members of the Territorials who have had experience in the regular army or in a campaign are permitted to transfer to the regulars or volunteers. Still more important, the Territorials may be sent to garrison outlying stations of the Empire, releasing the garrisons of regulars for service at the front. Since all of the above sources provide only about 800,000 men, Great Britain is forced to have recourse to newly recruited volunteer organizations in order to form the armies needed for a great war. These are entirely recruits, except for a sprinkling of officers of some experience. A long training period is needed to work them into shape. The Territorials, special reserves, and volunteers are assembled in great camps, as at Aldershot, where every effort is made to hasten their training. At the same time the administrative and supply reserves are organized and gradually gotten into smooth running order for discharging the immense task of controlling and supplying such numbers of men. The essential feature in which the British or the American mobilization differs from that of a continental nation is that the greater part of the organization has to be carried out after the war has already started. Time is necessary to properly coordinate the many departments of work and excessive haste means only waste and weakness. The full development of military strength by this system demands as a prerequisite the delay by some means of the enemy's invasion for a six months' period. For the nations on the continent of Europe the onset of an enemy's army must be met with little delay; indeed quick striking power is more important than military resources in gaining victories. This is well shown in the Seven Weeks' War of Prussia and Mecklenburg against Austria, Bavaria, Hanover, and Saxony in 1866. The underlying cause was the desire of Prussia to oust Austria from the German Confederation and to inherit her hegemony. Prussia's population was in round numbers 19,000,000 while that of Austria was 35,000,000; including the allies on both sides the populations were 23,000,000 against 49,000,000. But against the superior resources of the Allies, Prussia had her wonderful rapidity of mobilization and concentration due to the careful planning of her Minister of War, von Moltke. War was declared by Austria on June 17 and her armies moved north in the effort to take advantage of the salient of Bohemia and Moravia for an advance on Berlin. The Prussians concentrated in three armies near Gorlitz and Glatz in Silesia and Torgau just north of the Saxon border. So carefully had von Moltke followed the Austrian movements that he was able to hasten the final Prussian concentration by keeping the armies separated until the very day of the great battle. On July 3 the three Prus-

sian armies, united on the battlefield of Königgrätz [Sadowa], and so decisively defeated the Austrian regular army that the defense of Vienna against the Prussian advance was hopeless. On July 26 hostilities were suspended and the preliminaries of peace were signed. In less than seven weeks Prussia by the 'quick striking power' of her military system had overthrown Austria and her allies in spite of their apparent superiority in military strength and resources. The Prussian system has since been copied by all of the Continental Powers, and may be taken as a sample of all. The basic principle is that every man must have a definite assignment for war, that his equipment must be stored waiting for him, that he must report at a definite place to join his company and to be outfitted, and above all that every plan be checked up every year and revised so as to be always up-to-date. The . . . German system may be taken as typical. . . . [The following describes the German mobilization scheme up to the World War.] At the district headquarters are kept complete lists of every man in the district of military age, 17 to 45, including his age, reserve assignment, occupation, residence, and every item of military value. The men who are to be called to fill up the active army to war strength are on one roll, those for each reserve company on another, those for each landwehr company on yet another, and similarly for the Ersatz reserves and the Landsturm. Notices are made out for every man; the method of notification whether by wire or messenger is selected; even the route by which the man is to proceed to the designated assembly point is exactly laid down. Nothing is left to chance. Every detail is covered. To provide for natural changes the whole system is revised annually. The district headquarters is largely a record and administrative bureau that starts the mobilization going. The work is then taken up and carried on by the reserve officers called into service. . . . Each officer has his assignment, has to learn by heart his duties for each of the eight days assigned to mobilization, and is tested at definite intervals on his ability to do his part. The reservists are collected in groups near their homes and under a sergeant proceed to their company station. Here they are issued the equipments held in store for them and are put through drills to get them back into training. Wagons and company equipage are drawn from the store-rooms, draft animals are commandeered, and the organization stands ready to move to the front; that is, has completed its mobilization. In order to obtain the enormous amount of transportation required for an army in the field the landwehr district officer keeps a record of every animal and vehicle in his district. A special bounty is given to owners of horses and automobiles that answer military requirements. A yearly assessment of value is made and part of the mobilization includes summoning the owners to deliver their animals and vehicles at designated points. It is readily seen that the resources of the district are strained to the limit to secure the rapid despatch of the active army to the front. The reserve divisions follow close behind. At the same time the youths and the Ersatz reserves are called into the depots to be ready to maintain the fighting strength of the fighting armies. The successive classes of reserves are notified to be ready and are called out, each as the mobilization of the preceding class is effected. The reason for the successive calls spread over many days, is apparent. . . . When the troops are trained and fully equipped with arms, ammunition and a smooth working supply service, they are ready to take care of themselves in the field. They can be moved

about as needed; that is, they are mobilized. The next step is to bring together the scattered regiments into divisions and corps, and the concentration of these in armies at the front. Where the troops are trained and the working of the division organization has been tested in frequent maneuvers, the two steps above outlined can be combined and the regiments can be moved direct to their places at the front, the divisions, corps and armies being assembled all at the same time. The concentration is necessarily a period of vulnerability. To protect their armies while the commanding general is making sure of having them well in hand, the leading continental powers have constructed extensive border fortifications. Where the corps are not sufficiently organized and trained for field service the concentration is carried only as far as division or corps camps where the newly organized regiments are broken in and the men are taught to shoot, march and take care of themselves in campaign. Such were the great camps of the Army of the Potomac organized under McClellan in the winter of 1861-1862 and the camps of the various corps in 1898. . . . The concentration of the armies on the border is planned by the General Staff of the country. The problem is so enormous that it cannot be realized until one begins to take count of the details. The first need is rail or water transportation. One hundred and fifty separate trains are required to transport the men, animals, guns, wagons and necessary baggage of an army corps. A single track railroad can handle only about fifty trains a day in one direction, so more than three days single track service is required for every corps transported. And after arrival, a steady supply of food, ammunition and recruits must be forwarded to maintain the fighting strength of the army. This great rail problem is the simplest part of the transportation and supply, for it is definite and can be planned ahead of time. The difficult part comes after leaving boat or train, when the armies have to spread out over broken country and the enormous supplies have to be forwarded by wagons and automobiles. So much is the strategic planning of concentration dependent upon rail lines that both France and Germany have in the last generation spent large sums in building connecting links so that the commercial rail lines would serve the military demands. . . . The units must be kept together in the concentration; the trains required for an infantry regiment must follow closely behind each other. Time schedules are made out for every move: from barracks to the station; entraining; start of train; meal stops; arrival at destination; detraining; march to camp or cantonment. Train schedules are prearranged, providing for rapid forwarding of trains in the ruling direction, and for the prompt return of empties. An enormous amount of detailed work is necessary in order to provide for the maximum use of all rolling stock and the minimum delay in movement of troops. On the outbreak of war all the railroads of the continental nations are put under military control. Until the active armies have been moved to the front, the entire service is devoted to this end. Thereafter the supply trains have right of way, but it is possible also to carry some commercial traffic. When the reserve armies have completed this mobilization, the railroads are again, during this movement to the front, monopolized by the military service. There are then successive periods of entire stoppage of ordinary traffic followed by periods of limited commercial service. In the concentration of corps to form armies there is a limit to the number of men that can be controlled by one commanding general. He must carry in his head the

location and duties of each superior unit of his command, through the constantly changing conditions of the campaign."—J. F. O'Ryan and W. D. Alexander, *Modern army in action*, pp. 70-84.

21. *Army administration.—Professional versus civilian control.—German and British systems at outbreak of World War.*—"An army or a battleship is an integral part of a nation, composed of human beings, subjected to the same necessities and animated by the same desires as the human beings in the nation itself. Now, an army or a battleship in order to carry out its purposes, must be divided into various branches; each of these branches must be divided into divisions, and each of these divisions must be divided into sub-divisions; and every branch, division, and sub-division must be placed under a responsible head or chief. Furthermore, all the branches and divisions and sub-divisions must be so coordinated that they can be combined together and made to form one coherent organization, under one man at its head. With these ideas in mind, it is easy to see how the analytical German mind analyzed the multitudinous problems into their component parts, and then synthesized or constructed the means whereby the problem would be solved. And we can see also that, being permeated, as the Germans hereditarily were, with the military instinct, it was not hard for them to make what might almost be called an army out of the whole German nation. It may seem that the explanations just attempted are somewhat labored and far-fetched. Possibly they are; but we cannot deny that the whole structure of the German government, and the whole structure of the German nation, show the evidence of careful analysis and able synthesis, and that the structure of the German nation is essentially military. Possibly the most obvious sign of its military character is the training through which everyone is put for whatever vocation he is to fill, and the insistence that every man at the head of every organization, large or small, must be fitted by training to perform its duties well, and must have given evidence of his ability by previous work of the same character. Possibly it may seem foolish to suggest that Germany is alone in having experts at the head of the departments of the government; and yet, the naked fact stands out, clear and plain, that Germany is the only great country that has ever accomplished or very seriously attempted it. Possibly ancient Rome and modern Japan have come the nearest to Germany in this particular. In the other great countries of the world, the army and the navy are the only organizations in which it is seriously attempted to restrict the leadership of the various branches and divisions of the government to men skilled in their duties; and in many countries political influences prevent this in even the army and navy. . . . War was declared on the 1st of August, and Germany was ready; not only in 'the last button of the gaiters,' but in everything; especially in the things most difficult to be ready in—that is, strategic plans, both general and detailed. But the world was unprepared, except one organization—the British navy. Why the world was unprepared may be explained on the same grounds as can be explained the unpreparedness of many nations that in the past were forced to rush into war unprepared. The explanation is simply that the nations had not had the strategic insight necessary to discern the danger, and therefore lacked the wisdom to prepare. . . . Of all the departments of the British government, the only department ready was the navy. The army was not ready; and no one in England who had paid any attention to national matters expected

that she would be ready, in case the thing happened that did happen. That the army did well after the emergency had arisen, the applause of the whole world testifies. But the glory it achieved was at the cost of sacrifices that should not have been necessary, and that have made England endure unutterable remorse. The navy was wonderfully ready, though not so ready as the German. . . . The unreadiness of the British navy, as compared with the German, seems to have no other explanation than the fact that, somewhat less than a hundred years before the war, the politicians had become so strong in Great Britain, and had been able to impress the people so thoroughly with the idea that 'the military should be subordinate to the civil authority,' that they adopted the practice of putting untrained civilians at the head of the army and the navy. They made the people believe (and possibly made themselves believe) that it was not necessary to have men at the head of the army and the navy who were thoroughly acquainted with the army and the navy; giving out the idea that untrained ministers could direct the army and navy successfully, provided they were men of superior intelligence; and that whatever professional knowledge they might lack they could easily get from professional advisers. They neglected to point out that the 'professional advisers' could be ignored, that a minister untrained in technical matters would not be competent to make the best selection of professional advisers, and that the scheme actually promoted irresponsibility. For the minister could always shift the blame for any miscarriage to his professional advisers; and these professional advisers would be perfectly safe, because they were responsible only to the minister himself! They also failed to point out that ministers, untrained in the profession of arms, might appoint assistants whose qualifications were the tact and suavity of the courtier, rather than the force and austerity of the warrior. No evidence that would be accepted in a court of law has ever been given which would establish the reasonableness of the proposition that untrained men can manage great professional organizations with real success. Certain it is that managing an army or a navy is a business, in the same sense as that in which managing a factory can be said to be a business, or keeping a shop or conducting a hotel, or administering a railroad; and virtually all of these businesses are conducted by men who know them intimately. . . . It is a principle fundamental to the efficient handling of every organization that the man at its head should have been specially trained for his task."—B. A. Fiske, *Art of fighting*, pp. 293-295, 303-306.

22. Modern organization on the battlefield.—One commander-in-chief essential.—Delegation of duties.—Limited vision in first line.—"Although armies in the field have now increased to a size that would have staggered the imagination of any of the great military leaders of past ages, and although the scientific side of war has brought into use many weapons of a type hitherto regarded as outside the pale of humanity, there are many of the old principles of warfare that have remained unchanged. The ability to manœuvre is of as much importance as ever, and the necessity of maintaining the mobility of the forward troops remains the same. As in the past, the aim of the Commander is, to out-manœuvre his enemy, to place him at a disadvantage as regards position and by his dispositions compel him to abandon his own plans to counter those of his adversary. The masses which are employed for this purpose must be under efficient control, otherwise they would be of little value; and, what is of greater importance, they

must be employed upon definite plans. One of the most important, if not the most important, of the old principles of war which have remained unchanged is that which declares that an army to be successful must operate under the direction of one controlling master mind. This is a maxim which has never been broken, with results which make discussion of the matter possible. On the contrary, history gives us several excellent examples of a divided policy being employed in operations in the field, and all have met with disaster, except where the error was recognized in time to prevent mishap. At first glance, it would seem impossible for any one man to control the millions which now represent our field forces; and when one considers the diversity of conditions—take the distance over which the troops will be extended, and the huge mass of material which must be provided—it would seem to be a superhuman task. We are fortunate in being able to say in this case that the impossible has been achieved. . . . Every unit, and every portion of each unit, was stated to be under the control of a Headquarters. Now this fact was especially emphasized because of the close relationship which these Headquarters have with the policy which we have just named, that every part of the force must be under efficient control. The latter part of our previous statement—namely, that there must be but one controlling mind—needs a little more explanation. The problems of warfare which confront the Commander-in-Chief are different from those which confront the smaller units. The farther back one goes, the broader will be the perspective view of the fight, and the Commander of the whole force will see a number of enemy masses operating like huge pieces on a gigantic chessboard. He does not see the small details, but he does see, from the information which he gathers in many ways, the concentration or distribution of the large bodies of enemy troops. His attention being directed towards them, he devises ways of countering the effect of those movements, and so he manipulates his own masses in accordance with his own plans, seeking to force his enemy to depart from his original purpose to offset threats here and attacks elsewhere. His view is a broad one, and the pieces with which he plays are large in proportion. To study the problems which present themselves, it is necessary to devote much time and effort to the elucidation of the fragments of information which are constantly arriving, whilst at the same time each development in the situation will have some effect upon his own plans. Under these circumstances, the Commander-in-Chief cannot be harassed by numerous visitors, no matter what their military position may be. To eliminate any danger of this, he deals only with his own staff and the Commanders of the huge masses to which we have already referred—in our forces, the armies. The armies are the pieces with which the Commander-in-Chief deals, and as they are limited, so the persons approaching him are limited in number. Now when the Commander-in-Chief has made up his mind upon a certain course, he communicates his instructions to the Army Commanders, telling them as much as he thinks necessary of his plans. To each army would be allotted a special duty, the task being defined from the broad point of view of the Commander-in-Chief. Whether each would be told of the operations of the other would depend upon whether it was advisable or necessary to disclose so much. Where they are to work in unison, each must understand the operations of the other, and must be told accordingly. In this way the Commander-in-Chief is enabled to keep his plans secret, or at least the number of persons who will be acquainted with his

purpose will be limited. An advantage gained is, that any explanations which may be necessary may be communicated direct to those who must undertake the duty of putting the plans into effect. Each Army Commander in turn views the task allotted to him as a whole, and considers the enemy force in mass confronting him from a little closer view. He probably sees several masses of smaller size than those viewed by the Commander-in-Chief, which have a distribution varying according to the purpose for which they are being used; but having received his own orders, he must put them into actual being, and in doing so he will consider the enemy forces which immediately affect him. He in turn deals with the Corps Commanders, and the same system of communicating instructions is followed as in his own case. The operations are divided amongst the corps, each having its own duties to perform, and each receiving the necessary information to enable them to do so. The corps divide their duties among the divisions under their command, still passing on the task designed by the Chief Command, and so this process is transmitted down until the small units who perform the task receive their orders. Such a system would appear to offer disastrous delay, unless one realizes that it is impossible to employ the huge masses of men which make up the armies unless they are deployed over a broad front, supporting arms brought into position behind the Infantry, and by a gradual development the battle brought into one organized effort. Each unit in the chain knows its particular duty, the work of the smaller formations and units being supervised by the man on the spot, who has all the advantages of a knowledge of the ground, situation, and developments. The whole machine is put into action, and each cogwheel fulfils its duty in relation to all the other parts; whilst the hand that sets the engines going is that of the Chief Commander in the Field. From the review we have made of the system, therefore, we see that one grand plan is first prepared, the operations are split up amongst the forces, each receives its own task, every link in the chain being overseered by one who is responsible for the particular part, so that the one impulse which actuates the whole force is that which originated in the mind of the Commander-in-Chief. From this conclusion we see that the organization which we have previously discussed has a definite purpose in regard to the command of the forces, and the series of groups which we have termed 'formations' provide successive Commanders with pieces with which they play the game of war. From what has been said anent the broader views of the higher commands, it must not be supposed that they do not consider the smaller commands at all. On the contrary, they show a deep interest in them, and have an undisputed right to pass opinion upon anything that may concern them; but in operations of war small features of ground, local weather conditions, unexpected resistance from enemy forces, or failure on the part of some one unit or on the part of an enemy unit, may change the whole situation within a few moments. Opportunities may present themselves, or difficulties may occur, which offer advantages or present obstacles which only the man on the spot can be conversant with, and it is therefore better to leave each of the lower commands free to carry out their particular tasks in their own way, making their dispositions according to the local conditions. It must be remembered that in warfare the soldier in the line only sees what is going on on his own very limited front. When things appear to be bad for him, they may be quite satisfactory in the broader view, because the plan is going forward as intended. If there happened

to be no higher command to weigh up the cold facts, a decimated battalion might withdraw, and quite honourably at that, at a moment when their pressure, although weak, may be the means of pinning a superior force to a position, and offering other more lucky units elsewhere an opening which will turn the tide of battle in our favour. It is inevitable that some units must suffer, and the hardship of the campaign often seems greater because the soldier does not understand where his action has helped the victory forward."—G. R. N. Collins, *Military organization and administration*, pp. 30-35.

23. Austria-Hungary.—Army of diverse races in former empire.—"The armed forces of Austria-Hungary were organized mainly on the German system, with certain exceptions due to the nature of the Dual Monarchy. There was an Imperial army; two Landwehrs, one for Austria and one for Hungary; and a general Landsturm, or levy-in-mass. There were fifteen army corps, on a territorial basis, each corps containing two infantry divisions of two brigades each, one cavalry brigade, one artillery brigade, and various corps troops. In war a Landwehr division was added to each of the regular corps. On a peace footing the strength of the army was about 350,000 officers and men, and on a war basis it would reach some figure in the neighbourhood of 2,000,000, exclusive of the Landsturm, for which no figures were given. In a defensive war *à outrance* the country could probably count on putting some 4,000,000 men, trained and untrained, into the field. The Austrian army was not a military machine which approached the calibre of the German. Austria had had no Bismarck or Moltke, not even a Gneisenau, in her recent history. Since the Archduke Charles she had had no commander of the first rank, and her campaigns from Austerlitz onward had been mainly records of defeat. Solferino and Sadowa were not encouragements to recruiting like Gravelotte and Sedan. The result was that, while her military caste was dominant and assured and many of her constituent peoples of excellent fighting quality, there was no strong popular enthusiasm for her army and no great brain-power in its direction. [In 1914] Austria was faced with a special difficulty. Under her rule were many races who had affinities beyond her borders. It would have been impossible to send her Galician troops against Russian Poland, or her Croats and Serbs against the armies of the Southern Slavs. In a war such as the present [World War] she was, therefore, bound to distribute her army corps not on purely military but on political grounds. Her Tirolese must go north of the Carpathians; her Galicians to the Italian frontier. It is obvious that such a necessity must grievously complicate her whole problem of mobilization at the outset, and of transport and reinforcements in the later stages."—J. Buchan, *Nelson's history of the war*, v. 1, pp. 54-55.

24. Belgium.—National defense problems.—Controversies during reign of Leopold II.—Conscription opposed.—Reconstruction of fortifications.—"One son per family" enlistment.—Abolition of substitutes.—Unpreparedness at outbreak of World War.—"The organization of national defence had been the subject of very special consideration as early as the first years of the reign of Leopold II (1865-1909). It continued to be for him a matter of the first importance, and he never ceased to press it upon the attention of parliament. The development at the gates of Belgium of the formidable German Empire inspired him with a lively apprehension, which he

showed by the insistence with which he urged the defence of the line of the Meuse. He succeeded in obtaining this from the chambers in 1887, at a time when relations between France and Germany were strained as a result of the Boulangist agitation, but he failed to secure the increase of the standing army necessitated by such an extension of the defensive system. At all times, and particularly on the occasion of any patriotic manifestation, he made such an increase the subject of pressing recommendations, one of the most sensational occasions being the speech which he delivered at Bruges in 1887, at the time of the unveiling of the monument to Breydel and de Coninc, the heroes of 1302. 'The Lion of Flanders,' he said, 'ought not to sleep. The noble heritage of which you are justly proud will exist and will grow unceasingly by the constant cultivation of virile sentiments and by keeping the sacred fire of patriotism alive. All liberty is born and dies with independence. That is the lesson written on every page of our history.' The anti-militarists, numerous in the ranks of the Catholic party, appealed to the guarantee of Belgian neutrality by the powers. Wiser heads pointed out that this guarantee was essentially precarious, and rested in effect upon an understanding between the powers; once the equilibrium was disturbed, Belgian neutrality would be seriously menaced. Leopold II did not cease to recommend with unflagging zeal the military question to the care of parliament. He gave indirect support to the campaign against substitution which General Brassine undertook in 1897 during his short term of office. But the majority of the Right was unflinchingly hostile to any increase in military expenditure. The *Jeune Droite* alone showed itself inclined to join the majority of the Left in strengthening the national defences. The propaganda undertaken by Brialmont in favour of universal service, and encouraged by the king, failed owing to the inertia of the ministry, which was anxious to maintain the union of the various groups of the Right. The government was at the mercy of Woeste, the leader of the old Right, and attempted to increase the effectiveness of the army by offering various advantages to volunteers. It passed a law to this effect; in two years the volunteers tripled in number, but then their numbers declined rapidly. Despite the failure of the voluntary system, ministers who succeeded to office did not dare to attempt military reform. In the course of the celebration of the seventy-fifth anniversary of national independence (1905), the king did not hesitate to insist on the urgent need for the reconstruction of the fortifications of Antwerp, the basis of the defensive system. This reconstruction involved an expenditure of more than a hundred millions. It was voted in the following year and completed soon afterwards by a reform of the artillery. From that time army reform became absolutely necessary; it was essential to raise the effectives to a number which should be in accord with the importance of the fortresses which were to be defended. At this time, under the voluntary system, the number of men with the colours had fallen from 42,000 in 1901 to 36,000 in 1907. The chamber appointed a commission which recognized the failure of voluntary service, but showed great difference of opinion as to the system which should be introduced. Finally Schollaert, Prime Minister in 1909, evolved a mixed system, that of one son per family, which was a step towards universal service. His scheme was adopted, thanks to the union in this matter of

the *Jeune Droite* with the parties of the Left, and thanks in part also to the influence of the king. Leopold II, on his death-bed, secured by his personal intervention a favourable vote in the Senate after that in the chamber. Always the foremost of patriots, he had the supreme satisfaction of leaving Belgium strongly armed and capable of arming herself still better in face of external peril. The reform of 1909 definitely abolished substitution, and was thus of considerable social importance. All citizens who were in the position determined by the law were in future on the same footing as far as concerned their duty to their fatherland. In 1913 the chambers increased the contingent [see WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909-1913], with the result that the army would have amounted in 1918 to 350,000 men, half of whom would have composed the field army. Before this measure came into effect, Belgium was called upon to face the most formidable military power in the world. For purely strategic reasons, Prussia without hesitation violated that neutrality which she had been the first officially to propose in 1831. But little Belgium was able to show that she was not ripe for slavery, and to justify the words used by Leopold II in his inaugural speech, 'I have always regarded the future of Belgium with the confidence which is inspired by a nation free, honourable, and brave, which wills its independence, which has known how to conquer it and to show itself worthy of it, and will know how to guard it.'—H. Vander Linden, *Belgium*, pp. 338-341.—'Belgium had twice the population of Switzerland, almost one-eighth of the population of Germany, and a commerce that ranked higher than that of great powers like Italy, Austria, or Russia. She had other advantages in the compactness of her population, her developed railroad system, her supplies of coal and iron, her open sea frontier. She possessed, in addition, a narrow front of some military value facing Germany, the line of the Meuse between Liège and Givet. In other words, her situation as compared with Switzerland was immensely more favorable for organizing a national defense. . . . The Belgian army, costing rather more than half again as much as the Swiss, roughly thirteen millions of dollars to eight, was much less efficient. It stood on paper at about 48,000 men, though this number was not actually reached, and the efficiency of its infantry was ranked low. A few show regiments of the royal guard, and the scientific attainments of the technical corps were good; the rest almost negligible. There was a reserve of about the same numbers, and a *garde civique* of no military value. Had Belgium been equipped with a system half as effective as the Swiss, she could have matched man for man with Germany on the Liège-Givet line, and quicker, up to half a million of men or more. As it was her small forces proved useless—notwithstanding the exaggerated views so widely disseminated as to what took place at Liège and afterwards.'—R. M. Johnston, *Arms and the race*, pp. 85, 89-90.—'Belgium's problem was purely defensive, and one answer to it was her fortifications. . . . The old Belgian army was organized on the basis of conscription with paid substitution, which virtually produced a force of professional volunteers. By the reforms of 1909 and 1913 the principle of a 'nation in arms' was introduced; the term of service was put at thirteen years, and the strength on mobilization was fixed at 150,000 for the field army, 130,000 for the fortress garrisons, and a reserve of 60,000—a total of 340,000 men. Unfortunately, these reforms

were not completed by 1914, and the total available was only 203,000, which, on the assumption that the fortress garrisons could not be reduced, left only 133,000 for the field. To bring the field force up to the required standard, it was found necessary to call upon the Civic Guard, one of the last survivors of the old National Guards of Europe. Belgium was, therefore, able to put in the field six divisions of infantry and one of cavalry. A division was formed of three 'mixed brigades,' each consisting of six battalions and three batteries. The artillery was good, but the equipment, especially of the infantry, left something to be desired, and no field uniform had been adopted. The Belgian soldier went into battle in the same garb that he wore in peace time on parade."—J. Buchan, *Nelson's history of the war*, v. 1, pp. 65-66.

25. China.—A peaceful, non-military nation.—Change of sentiment towards soldiers.—Defective organization of pre-Republican army.—Venality of commanders.—Chinese bravery.—Lack of medical aid.—Reasons for unpreparedness.—Chino-Japanese War.—New Republican army.—"The Empire of China, in many of its features, is the most remarkable country of the globe, and one of the most extensive, comprising nearly one and one-half millions of square miles, peopled by more than 400,000,000 of the human race, all speaking the same language, and governed by the same laws. 'The homogeneous character of the nation has no parallel in the history of the world.' The empire has existed longer than any other, authentic history going back at least to 3000 B. C., according to the Shou-king, one of their sacred books, and begins with the reign of Yao. While the contemporary empires of antiquity, Chaldaea, Assyria, the Hittite, and others, have been all swept away, that of China remains, a powerful state to-day. It sprang into being, as far as authentic records prove, highly civilized, with its peculiar language, its literature, philosophy, and industrial arts. . . . The native Chinese were never a conquering race, and most of their wars were defensive or civil, though there have been some successful military leaders, whose deeds have been recorded on the page of history. A long series of dynasties of different lengths has ruled the country during its unparalleled longevity, affording a succession of emperors who, for number, surpass those of any other country."—S. M. Burnham, *Struggles of the nations*, v. 1, p. 147.

"A double change occurred in China at some period of her history not definitely marked; the 'gentleman,' ceasing to be identified as a soldier, became a literatus, and the trader, ceasing to be regarded as a kind of general enemy, whose business was to extort undue gains from his fellow-beings, became a respectable, though not perhaps a highly respected, member of society. It would be most interesting to trace the beginnings and the progress of this revolution of ideas, and to discover how and when it came to pass that education inspired contempt for a military career; that military posts were abandoned to men lacking moral endowment for study, and that the dregs of society alone constituted a proper recruiting ground for professional fighters. History, however, offers little clue to these questions. In Japan no such change occurred. There the soldier retained his pride of place; scholarship ranked merely as a polite accomplishment; contempt for pecuniary gain in any shape headed the list of gentlemanlike characteristics, and the tradesman,

himself producing nothing and living solely by raising prices for others, remained always a despised individual, nor ever developed a commercial conscience."—F. Brinkley, *China*, v. 10, pp. 133-134.—"The Board of War [Ping-po] has a narrower range of duties than might be supposed, for it exercises no authority over the Twenty-four Banners (to be presently spoken of) and very little over the provincial troops. These two sections, together with bodies of 'braves' or irregulars, raised from time to time as occasion requires and disbanded when the need for them ceases, constitute the army of China, about which it will be convenient to speak here in some detail. The twenty-four Banners are divided into two groups of eight and sixteen respectively, the former consisting of pure Manchus, the latter of Mongols and Chinese descended from the men that aided the Manchu dynasty to conquer China. They are supposed to number about a quarter of a million men, and they furnish guards for the Palace as well as garrisons for important cities and fortresses. Their nominal pay is four taels (about twelve shillings) per month. The Tartar garrisons in great cities, like Canton, Fouchou, Hangchow, etc., are under a general of their own nationality and form a special caste, said to be in many cases little better than honourable prisoners confined within the limits of the city walls. They are supported out of the local revenues, but a special contribution is exacted from all the provinces for the maintenance of Banner-men in Peking. The Tartar general in a city nominally outranks even the viceroy within whose jurisdiction his command lies. The provincial troops, or Green Banners, as they are called, are an uncertain quantity. Chinese returns put them at 650,000 in round numbers, but by some authorities they are supposed not to exceed 400,000. The discrepancy is mainly due to the fact that official figures cannot be trusted in such matters. A commanding officer may draw pay and allowances for a thousand men, but not more than five or six hundred may be actually enrolled. A soldier of the provincial forces gets nominally three taels (nine shillings) per month, out of which he must buy his own rations. It is generally believed that the men do not receive nearly so much, a large percentage being appropriated by the officers, but beyond the established fact that the private's pay is often in arrears, nothing can be said with assurance on this subject. The men's uniform is very sensible,—a loose tunic falling over loose trousers drawn close round the ankles, and cloth boots with thick paper soles. The garments are of cotton; the tunic blue, brown, or yellow with facings of a different colour; the trousers generally blue, and on the breast or back a large circle enclosing ideographs that show the corps to which the wearer belongs. This uniform costs four taels (twelve shillings), and twenty taels are allowed for the purchase of a cavalry horse. Altogether the annual appropriations for the army now aggregate some forty million taels (seven millions sterling approximately), though less than a moiety of that amount used to suffice before contact with Occidental civilisation imposed upon China the duty of squandering her resources upon machines for slaughtering human beings. . . . It is frequently asserted as a historical fact that they ceased to be soldiers after a brief period of national existence—brief in comparison with the long life of the Empire. The lust of battle is declared to be unknown to them, and never to have been known to them. On the other hand, the most hostile critic cannot deny that their physique is ex-

cellent, and that civilian members of the population have frequently shown themselves possessed of courage and coolness in a marked degree. Mr. E. H. Parker, one of the most eminent sinologists of the era, who passed twenty-five years in China, says: 'I have found my Chinese followers in all provinces invariably true and stanch to me in times of danger, and I should not hesitate to lead a Chinese force, properly armed and brought into shape under my own supervision, against any European troops in existence. The Chinese have not the fighting instinct—that is to say, they do not relish coming to blows "just for the fun of the thing"—but they are not afraid of death, and they have no little honest pride, gratitude for kindness, and sympathy with brave and disinterested leaders such as Gordon. For all these reasons I do not hesitate to "stick up" for the poor Chinaman and to assert that he has in him the makings of a soldier.' . . . Assuredly it is not accurate to describe the whole Chinese army as 'simply a rabble, provided with bags of rice, gay flags, umbrellas, fans and (quite a secondary matter) rusty guns, jingalls, spears, heavy swords, and (very occasionally) fairly good rifles and cartridges of a date always behind the time.' Such a description may have wide applicability, but it must be qualified to the extent of admitting that there are sections of the army to-day [1900] which leave little if anything to be desired in the matter of equipment. . . . Here it is apposite to quote some of the statements made by British officers with reference to their experiences during China's first foreign war in 1830-1842:—'The Chinese showed more courage than skill. The English sailors pronounced both their guns and their powder to be excellent.' (Engagement of November 3, 1839, off Chuen-pi.) The English officers described the Chinese defence of the Bogue Forts on January 7, 1841, as 'obstinate and honourable.' 'The batteries [at Amoy, 1841] were admirably constructed and, manned by Europeans, no force could have stood before them. They were never completely silenced by the ships' guns and, it is believed, they never would have been. Let the Chinese be trained, and well found with European implements and munitions, and depend upon it they will prove themselves no contemptible foe.' 'Many of the Chinese, seeing our new advance into the battery, quickly turned and a very smart affair followed. They assembled in great numbers close to some brass guns and then fought like Turks. . . . Their conduct, in fact, was noble. Nothing could have surpassed it.' (Tinghai, 1841.) 'The main body of the Chinese was routed without much difficulty, but 300 desperate men shut themselves up in a walled enclosure and made an obstinate resistance. They held out until three-quarters of them were slain, when the survivors, fifty wounded men, accepted the quarter offered them from the first.' (Chefoo, 1841.) 'The Chinese were the worst equipped and the most innocent of military knowledge in the long list of Asiatic foes with whom the British had come into contact. Often they were no better than a badly armed moh, and even the Manchus had no more formidable weapons than their bows and spears. Yet not once did these badly armed and ignorant men evince cowardice. The English commanders always testified to their gallantry, even when hopeless, and to their devotion to duty when most other people would have thought only of their personal safety. Their defeat under all the circumstances was inevitable, but they knew how to save their reputation for courage and to prove beyond the shadow of a doubt that men who

would fight so manfully when victory was practically impossible could never be permanently conquered, and only needed the proper arms and knowledge to hold their own against Europeans.' . . . [Among the factors of demoralization cited] one is that a Chinese army does not include any medical staff or hospital corps. Where a man falls, there he lies, condemned, as he supposes, to die a lingering death of agony, and hopeless of succour unless he can crawl off and find charitable shelter in some remote hamlet. Brave men going into action seldom pause to think how things will fare with them should they fall wounded, but the bravest man can scarcely escape demoralisation when he sees his comrades left to perish like dogs, and when he expects that such must be his own fate unless he escapes unscathed. That he should learn to dread wounds and to shrink from them seems inevitable under such circumstances. The second factor of demoralisation, evidently the more powerful factor of the two, is said to be the want of good officers. It is scarcely too much to affirm that the Chinese army is altogether without officers. A Chinese officer does not lead his men into battle; he follows them; and the example he sets them is, not to face danger, but to fly from it. Therein lies the cardinal difference between China and Japan from a military point of view. The whole heart of the Japanese officer is in his profession. In time of peace he devotes himself with unflagging zeal to the instruction and organisation of his men. He has no purpose in life except to perfect himself in his own duties and to train his men for the efficient discharge of theirs. In war he shares their hardships; sets them an example of heroic bravery and is always at their head in moments of peril. The Chinese officer, on the contrary, seems to have no pride of 'cloth.' He regards his post mainly as a source of plunder, and himself as the possessor of an opportunity to get rich. Intelligent enough to know that defeat is inevitable for troops such as he commands, he prepares for the contingency by holding himself always in readiness to run away. Such, at least, is the modern appreciation of his *morale* and his methods, and if it be a correct appreciation, the conclusion is plain that no army could fight stoutly under such leadership. But, on the other hand, it will be at once objected that these defects also—absence of medical organisation and want of good officers—are not of modern development: they existed always in doubtless much the same degree as they exist now, yet they did not formerly prevent displays of conspicuous bravery. Altered methods of warfare resulting from the use of arms of precision and long range—the loose formation, the necessity for highly intelligent recourse to cover, the futility of direct frontal attack and need of flanking movements—are all calculated to accentuate the consequences of bad training and defective leadership. But all these analyses expose nothing that is radical, nothing that is irremediable, and though it would appear that, other things being equal, the Chinaman, being deficient in the fighting instinct, is never likely to make as fine a soldier as the Turk, the Japanese, the Teuton, or the Anglo-Saxon, there is certainly no visible reason why with good training, good equipment, good leadership, and a good cause, he should not be able to hold his own for defensive purposes. But it is hard to carry imagination to the extent of picturing him as a successor of the Huns and the Goths, or of seeing his units combine to form that wave of yellow peril which, according to some eminent publicists, may yet sweep over Asia and Europe from the

East."—F. Brinkley, *China*, v. 10, pp. 57-63, 70-75.

"The more easily intelligible truth seems to be that China has not reconciled herself to making a permanent effort altogether disproportionate to the emergencies of her ordinary situation. . . . Her idea of land forces and sea forces is that they need only to be sufficient for the everyday purposes of administration. Anything more would be wasteful. To be perpetually prepared for a great crisis, though great crises do not occur once in a century, is, in her opinion, foolish squandering of energy and resources. It is probably from that point of view that the civilisation of the Occident presents to her its most deterrent aspect. The States of the West exhaust themselves to maintain great armaments which may never justify their existence. They subject themselves to a perpetually painful strain for the sake of minimising the danger of an occasional hurt. There ought to be some way of avoiding such an irrational rule of life; and China appears to be still searching for that way in the face of a series of most convincing proofs that her national existence depends on abandoning the search, and frankly following the unlovely, uncivilised and illogical example of the Occident. It must be remembered, too, that a heavy burden would have to be imposed on the people in order to equip the country with powerful armaments. They are the most lightly taxed people in the world, yet no people rebel so fiercely against any increase of imposts. That appears to be the one thing against which their patience is not proof."—F. Brinkley, *China*, v. 12, pp. 100-110.—"Before the war with China I had closely examined the military organization of that country, and had discovered that there were some 50,000 men under Li-Hung Chang who were reported to be very well equipped and trained by German officers. Besides this organized army there were supposed to be between 900,000 and 1,000,000 troops in China. Of these, however, only those in the northern provinces were available for action against our armies, about 300,000 men. I therefore ever contemplated that, in case of any emergency leading to war with China, it should be so arranged that 50,000 men of the Japanese army should be devoted to meet the army of Li-Hung Chang, while the other 150,000 could deal with the 300,000 untrained troops available in Pe-Chili and the other northern provinces. I discovered also a great weakness in the army of Li-Hung Chang, and one which I could appreciate from its resemblance to a weakness which had been encountered at the time of the restoration in the Imperial army of Japan, which consisted of the feudal retainers under different feudal lords. This weakness was that Li-Hung Chang, besides drawing a considerable portion of his soldiers from his own native place, also obtained his officers there. Thus, when anything happened to an officer in his army, he could not be replaced from amongst the troops under the command of the other generals. Thus it was necessary to send to Li-Hung Chang's native province for all new officers. I also learnt of another Chinese custom which was universal throughout the whole army, and which made a great difference between the reported strength and the actual strength in the field. The Chinese army was divided into yeas, or battalions, which were supposed to consist of 500 men. In reality, however, they rarely ever consisted of more than 300 or 350 men. The commander of the yeas, or camp, was in this way enabled to pocket the pay of 200 or 150 of his soldiers from the Government grants. Even as late as the Boxer disturbances [1900],

when the Allied Forces were in North China, this state of corruption in the Chinese army did not seem to be known clearly to the world, although it was vital as creating an important difference between the paper and actual strength of the Chinese forces. It was owing to the accurate knowledge which I had obtained as to the condition of affairs in North China that it was possible so to lay the plans of the campaign as to surely and safely bring about the complete victory of our forces."—Field-Marshal Prince A. Yamagata, *Growth of the army* (A. Stead, ed., *Japan by the Japanese*, pp. 107-108).—The modern army of the Chinese republic was created by an imperial decree in January, 1905, and in October, 1907. By the latter instrument it was ordained that a force of thirty-six divisions should be raised in the provinces by 1912 on a principle of modified conscription. Each division was to number about 10,000 effectives, comprising two brigades of infantry, one regiment of cavalry, one regiment of artillery and nine batteries, one transport battalion and a sapper battalion, besides medical and other units. This new army is called the *Lu Chun*; it was intended to supersede the former provincial militia, out of which a force of civil police was organized. During 1920 the army was estimated to number about 1,500,000.

26. France.—Musketeers.—Royal army destroyed by the Revolution.—Reforms in Napoleonic era.—Creation of new army after Franco-German War.—Condition at outbreak of World War.—German military critic's review.—Comparison with German army.—The famous body of musketeers, immortalized in the romances of Dumas, originally belonged to the spearmen or pikemen. During the second half of the 16th century there was on an average one musketeer to every three pikemen, and to these the name of *mousquetaires* was first applied. From about 1560 there were musketeers in all European armies; their weapons were so heavy that each musketeer required a valet to carry it on the march. These valets were abolished by Charles IX. In 1600 Henry IV created a company of gentlemen armed with carbines for his guard; they were called the *carabins du roi*. In 1622, Louis XIII, having armed this company with muskets, restored the name of musketeers. The company was abolished in 1646, but reestablished in 1657 by Louis XIV, who fixed the regulation that none but "gentlemen" (*gens de condition*) should be accepted in its ranks. In 1660 Mazarin presented his personal guard—also composed of musketeers—to the king (Louis XIV), who in 1664 formed them into a company organized on the model of the first company. From that period there existed two companies of musketeers, distinguished according to the color of their horses—the grey or white, and the black, musketeers. Each was composed of 250 men. The musketeer paid for his own equipment, the king contributing only the sleeveless coat (*soubreveste*) or cassock, and a musket for the city (Paris) and a lighter weapon for use in the field. The color of the *soubreveste* was a kind of Dalmatian blue, embroidered with gold or silver, according to the particular company, and adorned in front and on the back with a black velvet cross *fleury*. When the king accompanied his army, the two musketeer companies were in close attendance. The flag of the first company emblazoned a bomb falling upon a town and bearing the legend *Quo ruit, et lethum*; that of the second depicted a sheaf of twelve feathered darts, pointed downwards, with the device, *Alterius Jovis altera tela*. Under Louis XIV the two companies also served

the purpose of a military school for the young nobility. Shortly after his appointment as minister for war in 1775, the Comte de Saint-Germain, for reasons of economy, suppressed the musketeer companies; they were revived in 1789, but disbanded again in 1792. They reappeared in 1814, but were finally abolished in 1815. The French army of today took its rise from the old royal army of Louis XIV created by Louvois (1641-1691), the first modern war minister. This royal army had a brilliant career in the second half of the seventeenth century and was in its day as much a model military organization of Europe as that of Prussia and Germany were to be at a later time. The French Revolution destroyed this army along with the other institutions of the *ancien régime*, and in its place arose the armies of the republic [see FRANCE: 1789 (June)] under their



LAZARE CARNOT

master builder, Lazare Carnot (1753-1823), who became the Louvois of the new creations. The *levée en masse* of 1793 produced the requisite number of men while a long period of war permitted the development and perfection of the military machine. Warlike enthusiasm had failed in the early days of the revolution to maintain a steady flow of recruits and the methods of the Terror could not be a permanent substitute. In 1798 conscription was established by law and so permitted a systematic utilization of the manpower of the country. It was upon these foundations that Napoleon built and the *grande armée* was the result. Among the notable innovations effected during the revolutionary and Napoleonic era were the development of mass tactics for all arms, infantry, cavalry and artillery; the creation and perfecting of the army corps (*corps d'armée*) as a complete army in itself; the improvement in communicating military intelligence through new signaling devices such as the heliograph; and especially the creation of the general staff (*état-*

major). This period, which is so brilliant in many ways in the achievement of generalship and war organization, was not signalized, as one might expect, by improvements in the mechanical instruments of warfare. In rejecting Fulton's steamboat, Napoleon neglected a first-class opportunity of utilizing a great invention and in general the progress in armament and equipment was surprisingly slow. However, in its main outlines, the French army under the First Empire became essentially modern [see also FRANCE: 1805 (March-December); 1812-1813 (December-March); 1814; GERMANY: 1813 (August-October)], though the later developments are to be studied best in the system evolved by Prussia and Germany. During the Restoration, 1815-1830, the French army decayed, but under the Second Empire, 1852-1870, there was an enthusiastic cult of Napoleonic traditions. Nevertheless, the Franco-German War of 1870-1871 so enhanced the military prestige of Germany that the army of the Third Republic was built up along the lines of Gneisenau and Scharnhorst quite as much as those of Napoleon. The following account, written by a descendant of one of Napoleon's greatest marshals, describes this development in detail:

"Immediately after the proclamation of the Republic our armies were prisoners or besieged and the enemy a short distance only from the capital. . . . When the war was over and peace had been signed the National Assembly comprehended the necessity to remold completely our military organization or rather to place it on the footing of an army capable of accomplishing its task. The ideas of revenge that developed rapidly made it possible to find in public opinion the solid foundation necessary for the accomplishment of such a difficult matter; and if the very first thoughts of Thiers and Gambetta, who were the leaders of the National Assembly, were to protect the country against a repetition of the disasters of invasion, the hope of regaining Alsace and Lorraine from the enemy made them accept unhesitatingly the necessary sacrifices. We lacked everything in 1870—troops, divisional organization, artillery, fortifications and general staff. From the moment when the peace treaty was signed the work was begun. But though the country was willing to make every effort demanded to assure the national defense, the government felt the danger of too great publicity to its plans, from the point of view of foreign policy, in the presence of an enemy who openly declared his determination to crush us for many years. . . . The recruiting law of 1872 was a compromise between the system of the nation under arms and the professional army. This was true in greater or less degree of the three subsequent recruiting laws. Although the law imposed the principle of universal obligatory service, established the categories of the active army, the reserve army, and the territorial force and fixed the duration of active service at five years, still a portion, determined by lot, served only six months; another portion was permitted to volunteer for a year; and finally, the sons of widows, ecclesiastics and members of the teaching profession were relieved from all service. [See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1872.] This system made it possible for us to have the large number of troops that were so sorely lacking in 1870. This law was supplemented the following year, 1873, by the law on the organization of the army from which was to result the establishment of regional army corps. In this manner the territorial organization in time of peace fitted in with the organization of the army to be mobilized in case of war. This mobilization was thereby as-



NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

From Snuffbox Portrait by Delaroche

sured and the disorder that marked the mobilization in 1870 was provided against. In 1875 the army law fixed the status of officers. A great source of weakness for the inadequate and badly organized army of 1870 was the insufficiency of staff officers. . . . The valor of the soldiers was remarkable, their training perfect and their steadiness and morale incomparable. But they were almost invariably sent into badly-planned battles where the officers had been surprised by the enemy and lacked the precise information necessary to defeat the enemy. And moreover, many actions begun under most unfavorable conditions could have been carried through to victory if the staff officers had been well enough versed in their profession to manoeuvre their troops and had not allowed some units to remain inactive while others were uselessly destroyed. In order to prevent a like danger there was founded in 1876 the War College, to provide us with the staff officers indispensable to a modern army. . . . In 1874 the infantry was supplied with a new rifle well designed and particularly durable. In 1914, forty years later, we were very fortunate to have a large reserve supply of these rifles. In 1877 the artillery was equipped with 'de Bange' guns which provided a series of calibers systematically worked out to meet all the needs of the field of battle. The special qualities of these guns were so notable that it was possible to employ them without too great disadvantage against the powerful German artillery at the end of 1914 and during the long months following. As for the employment of this army in time of war it is plain that under the influence of recent defeat it was planned to be principally defensive. Séré de Rivièrè undertook to assure the protection of the national territory and of the capital, seriously threatened because of its geographical situation. For this purpose he planned his very complete system of first and second lines of defence along our north and northeast borders, with intentional open spaces to permit manoeuvring through these lines, and to the rear up to the central fortification composed of the entrenched camp of Paris. The execution of this plan, based on truly prophetic vision, was undertaken immediately after our disasters and resolutely carried through. Furthermore, the security of the country did not rest only on the stones of our fortresses but also on the army of campaign and manoeuvre. The concentration of our troops was carefully prepared for as well as the arrangements for strategic transportation. A high railroad commission was newly established whose studies and records were always kept up to the minute and in 1914 made it possible to mobilize and concentrate our troops without any difficulty or serious accident. Finally, the creation of the geographic service completed the equipment of our armies. . . . But the progress of science did not allow the country to relax its efforts. Twelve years after the adoption of the '74' rifle the appearance of repeating rifles obliged us to transform the weapons of our infantry. The troops received the Lebel rifle, model '86.' At the same time the discovery of a new explosive, melinite, was calculated to bring about for the artillery somewhat later, after considerable developments, the transformation of our fortifications by the necessary adoption of the concealed cupola. Shortly after, by the active initiative of M. Freycinet, a series of regulations of the highest importance for our military staff was adopted. There was first the decree of 1888 which created the general staff of the army; the substitution of this body for the general staff of the ministry assured a greater stability and a greater continuity of

views. At the same time the High War Council was created with the duty to give its advice in all great questions of interest to the national defense. Its vice-president was the commanding general of the French armies. The later decrees (notably those issued by M. Messimy) merely developed the principles then established. On the other hand the internal organization of the army, as far as its officers were concerned, was assured by the decree creating classification commissions. In the year following (1889) it became necessary to revise the law of 1872 on the recruiting of the army. In spite of the political situation still troubled by incessant strife in parliament, the government succeeded in having a new law passed constituting the three years service but incorporating the entire contingent. . . . While the principle of obligatory service was confirmed by the suppression of exemptions and substitutions, it is true that too many dispensations were granted to such classes as those who supported families or who had certain educational qualifications, limiting their service to a single year; this was one of the principal defects of the law. But interest in the complete assurance of the national defense remained keen. After 1891 considerable development was given to manoeuvres on a large scale, in which as many as four army corps participated, and to manoeuvres by squadrons. Some years later in 1897, the artillery in its turn was modernized following the adoption of the cannon of 75 millimeters. This was a serious burden for the country but every one knows how well it paid. . . . In 1899 the French army was increased in power by the law providing for the colonial army. . . . That law permitted the organization of native colonial troops who played such an important rôle in the world war. Moroccans, negroes, Annamites were able to stand beside the children of the attacked metropolis and the very indignation of the Germans against the use of these troops in Europe demonstrates to us what an invaluable reinforcement they were and again may be for us. At the same time the colonial army is an admirable training school for officers of all ranks. Unfortunately the adoption of the last-mentioned law coincided almost exactly with a relaxation of our effort that almost resulted fatally for us. From about 1900 the party in power ceased to believe in the possibility of a war and in the need of having a strong army. . . . Finally a . . . serious blow was dealt to our military organization by the passage of a new recruiting law in 1905. . . . That law established the two years' service without exception or dispensation. No provision was made to compensate by judicious organization for the weakening of the army by the loss of a third of its numbers. It was simply a question of relaxation of military duty. The length of the periods of training for men in the reserve was shortened at the same time as that of the men in active service. . . . Without doubt serious lacks were revealed at the beginning of the war. We had no heavy artillery, very few machine guns and our high command was surprised by the German strategy. But in spite of all these imperfections, the French Army, in the first weeks of the war, almost alone saved the country and the whole world from German domination. Then the army learned to adapt itself to war conditions."—A. Lannes de Montebello, *Third Republic and the national defense* (*Journal des Débats*, Nov. 10, 1920).—The French army, as is usual with a nation whose last great campaign ended in defeat, had been the subject of many experiments in the past forty years. The law which governed it in its present [1914] form was

only one year old; which meant that the service was not yet properly standardized, and many of those with the colours were the products of superseded statutes, just as in Britain the term of enlistment laid down in 1902 only ceased to work in 1914. The [French] law of 1913, like its predecessor of 1905, was framed to reduce the disparity of France as against the rapidly increasing manpower of Germany. [See FRANCE: 1913-1914; WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1913.] Unlike Germany, she called practically her whole able-bodied male population to arms. A Frenchman found fit for service joined the colours at the age of twenty, spent three years in the Regular Army, eleven in the Regular Reserve, seven in the Territorial Army, and did not leave the service till he had attained the age of forty-eight. On mobilization the Regular Army, which had a peace strength of 673,000 men, was practically doubled by the incorporation of men from the Regular Reserve. The remaining reservists were organized in reserve units similar to the regular, and out of the Territorial Army special units were formed corresponding to the regulars, and the remainder kept as a last reserve at the *dépôts*. Roughly speaking, the system gave France a month or so after the beginning of war 4,000,000 trained men, of whom we might allot 700,000 to the Regular Army, 700,000 to that portion of the Regular Reserve required to put that army on a war footing, 700,000 to the balance of the Regular Reserve, 700,000 to the embodied Territorial Army, 700,000 to the Territorial *dépôt* reserve, and 700,000 to the Territorial surplus. This gave a first line army of about 1,500,000, a second line of about 500,000, and a reserve of some 2,000,000. The internal organization of the French force corresponded closely to that of Germany. There were twenty army corps on a territorial basis, nineteen located in France and one in Algeria. An army corps had two divisions, a division two brigades, a brigade two regiments, a regiment three battalions each of 1,000 men. In addition, there was in each corps a battalion of chasseurs, a cavalry brigade, and a special force of corps artillery, not allocated to the divisions, and numbering twelve batteries. Apart from the corps there were eight independent cavalry divisions, each division comprising six regiments, divided into two or three brigades. There was also a special class of African troops. . . . The white African infantry consisted of four regiments of Zouaves, each of five battalions, the white cavalry of six regiments of Chasseurs d'Afrique, the force whose famous charge all but redeemed the calamity of Sedan. The native African infantry were the six regiments of Algerian Rifles or Turcos, the heroes of Solferino; the native cavalry the four regiments of Spahis; and there was in addition a division of Tirailleurs Senegalais, negro troops from the Niger region. . . . The army of France, though inferior in man-power to the German, ranked easily second among the forces of the world. Her North African possessions gave her a magnificent training-ground, and many of her troops had had actual experience of war. If Germany's inspiration was Moltke and 1870, France's was the Wars of the Revolution; and in many points, like the heavy loads carried by the infantry and the belief in rapid and cumulative attack, her views were those of the Grande Armée. The French infantry retained all their historic dash and *élan*, and were probably the best marchers in Europe. The French General Staff, too, had not been behind Germany in that 'fundamental brain work' which was rightly regarded as the basis of success. Some of the best military literature of modern times had been produced by French officers,

and France had of late years shown a remarkable aptitude for military inventions. In one respect she differed greatly from her neighbour. She had no militant caste to draw upon for her officers. The highest posts in her service were open to any one who could pass the requisite examinations and show the requisite talent. A democracy has its drawbacks in war, and a republic cannot give, perhaps, that freedom from political interference and that continuity of policy which are desirable in a military machine. But the lack of this mechanical perfection had its compensations. If the discipline appeared less rigorous, there was a far greater *camaraderie* between men and officers, as any one who has marched with a French regiment will bear witness. In a defensive war for national existence this spirit of fraternity might be more potent in battle than any barrack-yard precision."—J. Buchan, *Nelson's history of the war*, v. 1, pp. 55-56, 58-59.—"France had already in time of peace drawn upon her national strength to the utmost limits, and had considerably lowered her standard of military fitness. Hence it resulted that the total war-strength of the country, which comprised only thirty-nine and a half million inhabitants, was not only equal to that of the German Empire, with its close upon sixty-seven million inhabitants, but, at the beginning of the war, even exceeded it. Stegemann considers that the estimate of the strength of the French Army in August, 1914, at one and a half million is, if anything, below the mark. The total fighting strength gradually accumulated by the French, he estimates at five and a half millions, in connection with which it has to be considered that France called up a considerable black army, numbering in all 700,000 men. The war-preparedness of the French Army had been continually increased, with a view always to the *revanche*. In 1913 France reverted to the three years' term of service, and called up the classes of two years simultaneously. By this means, the peace-strengths of the corps were notably increased, an advantage at the beginning of the war which should not be underestimated. According to Stegemann, however, the same degree of preparedness for war did not extend throughout the whole army. In this respect, the territorial divisions left something to be desired, and 'defects of organization were already revealed at the calling up of the reserves.' As regards the efficiency of the army, the same writer pronounces the following judgment: 'The French Army, which was intended for an offensive movement on a large scale, had, to be sure, after its augmentation in the course of the last few years, accepted the offensive theory in principle, but was, in fact, by its very nature, unprepared for far-reaching movements and encounters in unknown territory. It was much more adapted for the *offensive defensive*. [See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: f, 2, i.] The latter affords the French opportunity for displaying their ingenuity in the erection of strong points of support, for winning small territorial gains by the independent action of the subordinate command, and for constantly renewing the morale and courage of the troops by dint of minor successes. Their lack of mobile heavy howitzers, such as we possessed from the outset, was partially made up for in the case of the French, by their extremely skilful use of their field-artillery. If they were not equal to the Germans in a war of movement, they showed themselves from the outset masters in the art of rearguard tactics. As a result of the heightened self-confidence which was infused into their ranks after the Battle of the Marne, they became more and more worthy of respect as opponents, though they were more skilful in the technique than in the

actual tactics of fighting. The close proximity of their sources of supplies, due to the fact that they were fighting in their own country, was very much in their favour, and enabled them to make full use of their abundant technical resources, in particular of their long-range heavy artillery. Since they had free access to the sea, they had at their disposal an almost unlimited supply of munitions.' Individually, the French infantry were not equal to the German. [The French] General Cherfils commented regretfully on this fact when he wrote: 'The German is a true soldier. Discipline has become part of his flesh and blood. That is his greatest source of strength.' The General extols that uniformity of training which penetrated into the lowest ranks of the German Army. 'The opponents of a long term of active military service and of thorough preparation in time of peace should consider the following facts: A militia army with an abridged term of training may perform heroic deeds, the regiments may exhibit a high standard of cohesion, but such an army will lose all its strength if circumstances compel it to break up its principal units and to blend these together.' Although the whole French nation had passed through the school of arms, the steadiness and cohesion in the formations was, in contrast with ours [the German], not so firm but that it was seriously impaired as a result of the numerous new formations and the continual bringing up of new levies." —Baron von Freytag-Loringhoven, *Nation trained in arms*, pp. 15-19.

See also NATIONAL GUARD.

27. Germany.—Creation of army by Great Elector of Brandenburg.—Beginnings of Prussian military system.—Wars of the seventeenth century.—Frederick the Great.—"No factor has been more fateful, both for good and evil, in the history of modern Germany, than the Prussian army. Its development runs parallel, step by step, with the development of the Prussian state, of which it is both a cause and a result. In its history there are two decisive epochs. The first is the establishment and maintenance by the Great Elector of a *miles perpetuus*, or 'standing army.' This was a permanent, active field army kept on foot in time of peace as well as war, and was composed of well-disciplined and well-trained professional, paid soldiers in the direct service and control of the sovereign. Being an army of paid professionals, as distinct from a civilian militia, it was necessarily limited in numbers by the revenues available for its support, and was in fact relatively small in comparison with the total population—a great contrast to modern armies based on the principle of universal military service. It may be compared in many respects with the English army of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries or with the regular army of the United States. It was the outgrowth of the danger threatening Prussia from the aggressive plans of Charles Gustavus of Sweden during the first Northern War. The second decisive epoch was the great liberalizing and nationalizing reform movement of Stein and Scharnhorst at the opening of the nineteenth century, which resulted in the establishment of a national Prussian army based on the principle of universal military service. It was the outgrowth of Napoleon's conquest of Prussia and of his boomerang-like decree which attempted to limit the Prussian army to 42,000 men. . . . The military situation in the Electorate of Brandenburg was one of the first questions with which the Great Elector had to deal. Shortly before his accession his father's minister, Schwarzenberg, had made a desperate effort to recruit 25,000 mercenaries in the name of the Emperor and

the Elector, with which to drive out the Swedes. But the force which Schwarzenberg actually got together numbered scarcely 5000, and represented the worst scum of the earth. They were recruited under the old regimental mercenary system, in which the colonel received a lump sum for raising and equipping a regiment, which he regarded as his own private property. . . . Moreover, this pitiful little army of Schwarzenberg's was too small to expel the Swedes and too defiant and too disorderly to be of any real benefit to the Elector. . . . The population of Brandenburg complained bitterly that the soldier within the gates was far more terrible than the Swede without. They begged the Elector to disband the unruly *soldateska*. And the Elector himself summed up the situation in April, 1641, by writing: 'We find that our military forces have cost the country a great deal and done much wanton damage. The enemy could not have done worse. We do not see that we have had, or are likely to have, the least benefit from their services. Therefore we have resolved to keep only what is necessary as a garrison for our fortresses.' He therefore speedily made a truce with the Swedes, and thereupon began the disbandment of this old, disorderly army of regimental mercenaries which he had inherited. By a reduction of the infantry from thirty-nine to sixteen companies it was possible to dismiss a great many officers, who were the most insolent, the most hated, and the most expensive part of the army. From the men in the ranks were dropped the undesirable and the unfit. . . . Those who were retained in service numbered scarcely enough to man the garrisons, but they formed a tiny nucleus for a new and relatively well-disciplined army. It was composed so far as possible of the Great Elector's own subjects, so that it might have a little feeling that it was fighting for the defense of home and country. It was sufficiently well paid so that it did not have to resort to the plunder and oppression of the people whom it was supposed to defend. Though it had to protect the scattered fortresses in all the Elector's lands it numbered less than 3000 men for several years, because none of the Estates would consent to raise money for the support of any larger force, and the Elector had as yet almost no other revenues of his own available for military purposes. In the last years of the Thirty Years' War, to be sure, he managed to increase his army to nearly 8000 men. . . . This little force of 8000 men, which was the outgrowth of the last years of the Thirty Years' War, has been spoken of by nearly all writers on Prussian history as the beginning of the standing army. But a closer examination of the situation after the peace of Westphalia does not support this view. After the provisions of the great peace had been carried out in 1650, and after the failure of the Great Elector's ill-starred attack on the Duke of Neuburg in 1651, commonly known as the 'cow war at Düsseldorf,' he was again forced to follow the example of all his predecessors and most of his contemporaries in disbanding his army as soon as the war was over. He was forced to do so both by the insistence of his Estates and more especially by his lack of any resources of his own with which to support any considerable body of troops. . . . All that he could afford to retain, aside from his modest military escort of 63 horse guards and 202 life guards, were the troops absolutely necessary to garrison the fortresses. . . . Altogether the total garrison forces amounted to a Lilliputian army of just 3007 men. . . . It was in no true sense a standing army, *i. e.*, a permanent active field army, with an assured means of support, kept on foot in times of peace as well as of war. The true

beginnings of the Prussian standing army are to be found, not in the Thirty Years' War, but half a dozen years later in connection with the Northern War, 1655-1660. There is another mistake, also, which is common to most Prussian writers, who wish to attribute to the Great Elector a greater vision of the future than he actually enjoyed. It is the mistake of saying that he deliberately planned to create a standing army in the interests of centralization of power and absolutism. He did not do so. His first measures, when the Northern War became imminent, show that he did not intend to recruit a permanent army, but only the customary temporary force to be kept on foot during the continuance of danger. . . . Through [the] unavoidable necessities [of the Northern War] he created in time of war a standing army which he and his successors never wholly disbanded in time of peace. . . . At the critical moment of an impending war between his two Swedish and Polish neighbors, the Great Elector had for the defense of his neutrality and his lands nothing but the handful of garrison troops scattered . . . among his isolated fortresses. How should he form an army to meet the threatened danger? . . . In his need for troops, as the Northern War grew more threatening, he finally decided to turn to a committee of the Brandenburg Estates and ask for a grant of money sufficient to recruit, equip, and maintain 3000 new troops. To strengthen his request he called attention to a recent decree of the Imperial Diet, which allowed any prince to proceed by military execution against subjects who refused to contribute to the defense of the Empire. Though his language was conciliatory, it was firm, and left no doubt that he intended to act on the principle, 'that the military force of a country must be organized in accordance with the danger and necessity.' In other words, necessity knows no law, *Not kennt kein Gebot*, and he himself of course was to be the judge of the necessity. The Estates shrewdly pointed out, what appears to be the fact, that the Imperial Decree cited did not technically apply in this case, for it was East Prussia, not Brandenburg, which was in danger from the Northern War, and East Prussia, strictly speaking, was not a part of the Empire. Moreover, the Brandenburg Estates took the attitude that they were under no obligation to defend East Prussia. Let East Prussia look after its own safety. However, after delay and haggling, they consented to provide small sums for raising a part of the foot-soldiers that the Elector requested. In July the advancing tide of war and 'necessity' compelled him to request urgently equipment of 3000 additional men. . . . But this time the Estates refused, characteristically preferring 'to trust in God and wait patiently upon events.' The Elector therefore proceeded to the extreme step of collecting a land tax of 180,000 Thaler by military execution. . . . It was with these means that the Great Elector was in part able to raise the army with which he won a year later his first great field victory, the three-days' battle of Warsaw (July 28-30, 1656). In this battle, for the first time, troops from Brandenburg, Prussia, and Cleves-Mark fought side by side under a single flag and a single leader for a single, common purpose—the strengthening of the dynastic power of the Hohenzollern family. This new army of nearly 10,000, which strikingly embodied the new Brandenburg-Prussian estate, had borne gloriously its first baptism of fire. During the remaining years of the Northern War, Brandenburg was forced to contribute on an average nearly 500,000 *Th.* [Thaler] a year for the support of the new army. In East Prussia, Cleves, and his other provinces the Great

Elector exerted an equally heavy financial pressure in ways which cannot here be described, but which called forth loud and bitter protests from the Estates. With the revenues which he thus raised he was able to recruit and equip in the course of the Northern War an efficient field army of over 27,000 men, not including the 4000 men serving in the garrisons. With this army he not only successfully repelled invasion in the latter part of the war, but was able at last, with the aid of duplicity, to shake off the hated Polish overlordship in East Prussia and to secure the recognition of his own sovereignty there. The Great Elector's excuse for imposing such taxes and creating such an army had been the 'unavoidable necessity' caused by a war not of his own making. When the war was over and the peace of Oliva had been signed, the Estates in each of his lands expected that he would follow the example of his predecessors in disbanding his forces until they were reduced again to the scanty garrison and body-guard troops customary before the Northern War. But the Great Elector now had no such intentions. 'I have become convinced,' he wrote, 'that I owe the preservation of my position and my territory to God, and next to God, to my army.' . . . He had realized in the Northern War how dangerous 'unpreparedness' is when one's neighbors are full of military activities. He saw that his subjects had become somewhat accustomed to the payment of military taxes. He saw that the time had come for maintaining by policy in time of peace, as a *standing army*, a part of the force which he had raised by necessity in time of war, as an active fighting army. Therefore, while disbanding more than half his forces, he still retained after the Northern War about 12,000 men, 5200 of whom were assigned to make more generous provision of defense of the garrisons, and the rest of whom were distinctly retained as a permanent field army. This is the true origin of the Prussian standing army. In reducing his standing army to a peace footing after the Northern War the Great Elector still had to observe the utmost economy, for his lands were poor and he had not yet developed a large source of revenue for military purposes. Thus, the artillery, which on account of its large equipment in horses was one of the most expensive, though smallest, parts of the army, was wholly given up. The guns and gunners were redistributed again among the fortresses. This continued to be the practice throughout the Great Elector's reign. Only in time of war were the guns brought out again from the fortresses and mounted to form a temporary artillery division. The Great Elector also reduced the number of officers, but not proportionally with the rest of the army. A large number of officers, instead of being dismissed altogether, were kept in his service by paying them 'waiting money' (*Wartegeld*). They had no soldiers under them and no duties in time of peace. They were, in a sense, on temporary leave of absence. But if war broke out, they were bound by the terms of their 'waiting money' to be ready to recruit new regiments or to take command of old troops, according as the Elector should direct. Thus the Great Elector assured for himself an adequate number of good, experienced, and trusted officers without the burden of actually supporting a correspondingly large number of common soldiers. In time of peace also the Great Elector, with characteristic thrift, found means of turning his standing army to profitable uses. Soldiers were employed in digging the famous Frederick William canal connecting the Elbe with the Oder. In 1663 soldiers were conveniently used in transforming the Tiergarten into a pleasant park and suburb for

Berlin. In the same year, when the Turks again became dangerous and the Emperor begged for help, the Great Elector was able to lend him 2000 troops—on condition that the Emperor should pay all the costs of their support. The Estates, however, were by no means reconciled to his retention of even a small standing army, and they did not believe that the rumors of war at all justified his continued forced collection of military taxes which had not been constitutionally granted. They protested loudly, but in vain. . . . His triumph over the Estates in East Prussia, in the course of which the leaders of the opposition, Roth and Kallckstein, were kidnapped and imprisoned, is well known. In Brandenburg, when a deputation of the Estates presented a list of grievances in 1666 he expressed

lands over a very wide front from the Rhine to the Memel, Frederick William steadily increased his standing army until it reached in 1678 the maximum number of over 45,000 men, including all branches of the service. This number was beyond his own means of support. It was only through the fortunate circumstances that he was able to secure considerable subsidies from his neighbors—303,800 *Th.* [Thaler] from Spain, 770,622 from the Dutch, and nearly a million from the Holy Roman Empire—that he was able to keep on foot a standing army of this size. After the French-Swedish War had been brought to an end by peace in 1679, Frederick William again reduced his forces by somewhat more than one-half, just as he had done after the close of the Northern War, but he still retained a very



FREDERICK THE GREAT
(After painting by Carl Seiler)

himself sharply. . . . At the same time the Elector began to devise, and eventually put into operation, a number of new military taxes which he hoped would afford him a steady revenue for the standing army, and yet which would not bear with such a direct and irritating pressure on the people as the old land-tax (*Kontribution*). The new taxes would also have the great advantage that their collection and administration would be mainly in the hands of the Elector's own personal officials, could be centralized at Berlin, and could be made in time more or less uniform for all his territories. . . . In order to secure means for building up a navy, the Elector levied after 1686 a tax (*Chargensteuer*) which somewhat resembled in principle the 'first fruits' of the medieval church; every official on receiving a new office had to pay over to the government half the first year's salary. . . .

"During the wars with Louis XIV. and the Swedes (1672-1679), when he had to defend his

respectable standing army of about 18,000 men. This remained the average size of the army until the outbreak of the war which followed Louis XIV.'s invasion of the Palatinate, when it was increased again to 30,000. It made Brandenburg-Prussia, next to Austria, the strongest power in Germany and a highly prized ally in the War of the Spanish Succession. The indirect effects of the standing army were perhaps even more important than the direct. As the army was one of the first institutions which embodied the unity and efficiency of the whole Brandenburg-Prussian state, in contrast with the weakness and corner-grocery attitude of the separate provinces, so the organs of financial administration which were developed for the army's support . . . soon came to form a centralized and efficient administrative service. This rapidly supplanted the various lax and decentralized agencies which had been managed by the Estates. The absolutistic officials of the Elector gradually took the place

of the particularistic agents of the Estates. In many cases the Elector shrewdly adopted and transformed their agents into officials of his own. And the curious thing is that within a generation many of the families which had been loudest in their protests against the Great Elector's attacks on their so-called liberties were the very ones who made the most loyal and efficient members of the new Prussian bureaucracy."—S. B. Fay, *Beginnings of the Prussian army (American Historical Review, July, 1917, pp. 703, 766-777)*.—See also GERMANY: 1701-1740.—Frederick the Great also was particularly concerned "to increase and improve the army with which the very existence of the Prussian kingdom was so closely bound up. To increase it was his first object, and by 1756 it mustered 155,000 men. Garrison duty absorbed 27,000 of these; for the repairing and strengthening of many fortresses, especially in the newly-acquired Silesia, had made a considerable increase in the garrison-battalions necessary. The rest, 126 battalions and 210 squadrons, formed a highly efficient field army, which an iron discipline, a careful training on the parade-ground and in the manœuvres and camps of exercises which were held every year had made a force even more formidable than that which Frederick William had bequeathed to his son. In staff work, in organization, in preparations for mobilisation, great improvements had been made. No efforts had been spared to collect vast reserves of clothing, weapons, provisions and military stores of every kind. But it may be doubted whether it was not even more to the King and commander than to the soldiers that these years were so useful. There was not the same room for improvement in the Prussian army as there was in its commander. Frederick had learnt a good deal about the art of war on the battlefields of Bohemia and Silesia, and he devoted the peace to a careful study of the profession of arms. It was now that he devised and worked out the system of attacking in oblique order, which was to win so conspicuous a triumph at Leuthen. Many of the greatest qualities of a general he already possessed, resolution, decision, a readiness to take risks, promptitude, tenacity, unbounded self-confidence; but it was in handling large masses of men in the manœuvres that he learnt to really understand his weapon, on the drill-ground that he was able to test and improve his system of tactics, in peace that he prepared for war."—C. T. Atkinson, *History of Germany, 1715-1815, pp. 104-105*.

28. Germany.—Army reconstruction after Jena.—Scharnhorst, Gneisenau and Clausewitz.—Work of von Roon and Moltke.—Wars of 1866 and 1870.—Subsequent reorganization.—"On October 14th, 1806, Napoleon defeated the Prussian army at Jena. Murat's relentless pursuit to the shores of the Baltic captured or scattered all who had escaped the rout. Nothing was left of the army, which had lived for fifty years on the fame of Frederick the Great, except the garrisons of a few fortresses. In the following winter the defeat of Prussia's ally, the Czar, at Friedland, completed the humiliation of the House of Hohenzollern. By the Treaty of Tilsit Prussia became a tributary of the French Empire. And with a view to making this subjection permanent an article of the treaty provided that the Prussian standing army should be reduced to 42,000 men. Thanks, however, to the clear-sighted action of a group of patriotic men this disaster became the starting point of a new epoch of national progress for Prussia. To the reorganisation of the country after Jena must be traced the making of the German army of to-day, and indeed the origin of the military systems of all

the great powers of Continental Europe. The military reorganisation of the kingdom was the work of Scharnhorst and Gneisenau. . . . Scharnhorst was the author of the plan of reorganisation adopted in 1807. Its central idea was to make the little army of 42,000 men, which Prussia was allowed to keep with the colours, not a standing army in the old sense, but a training school through which a large number of men could be passed, who would then form a reserve that could be called up for service when the day came for a national uprising against the French domination in Germany. Short service was therefore introduced. The plan worked so successfully that in 1813, when Prussia joined the coalition against Napoleon, which ended in his downfall, the army of 42,000 men was at once expanded to over 120,000 by calling up to the colours old soldiers and a large reserve of trained men formed since 1807. . . . After the downfall of Napoleon, it was Gneisenau who carried on and perpetuated Scharnhorst's work of reorganisation. A third great soldier, Clausewitz, who had fought in the Prussian and Russian armies in most of the campaigns of the Revolution and the Empire from Valmy to Waterloo, gave the Prussian army, in his writings, a practical theory of war on which it has acted ever since. Clausewitz was one of the first professors of the school of war founded by Scharnhorst in 1810 for the higher training of selected officers, and he was its director from 1818 to 1830. This school, now known as the *Kriegs Akademie* (War Academy) is the German Staff College. Its teaching staff is made up not only of soldiers, but also of civilian experts. Thus, for instance, Karl Ritter, one of the founders of modern scientific geography, was a professor of the War Academy for thirty-nine years, and during this time organised the remarkably efficient map department of the General Staff. The basis of the new army organisation was universal obligation to military service. This does not mean that every man served in the army, but that on reaching the age of twenty every man had to present himself at the recruiting centre of his district, and the army authorities enlisted as many men as were required to make up the annual contingent. The recruits thus enrolled served for three or four years. They were then passed into the reserve, and were liable to be called up on a declaration of war to bring up the first line of the army to war strength. After completing his reserve service, the Prussian soldier belonged for some years more to a second line army, known as the *Landwehr* (the 'guards of the land'). The *Landwehr*, though primarily intended for home defence, could be employed for active service beyond the frontier, and were counted upon to form the garrisons and guard the line of communication of the active army. After being dismissed from the *Landwehr*, the Prussian soldier passed into the *Landsturm* (the 'rising of the country,' the '*levée en masse*'). This force was the third line. They could be called to arms for the defence of Prussia in a great emergency, and it was laid down that in this case they would not wear uniforms, but only badges. For some sixty years, the Prussian army was the only one in Europe organised on the system of short service and large reserves. Every other army was formed of long-service soldiers, and it was the fashion to talk of the Prussian army as a kind of militia, largely composed of half-trained men who could not stand up against professional soldiers. A second cardinal principle of the new Prussian system was the localisation of the army, and its permanent organisation in territorial army corps. Napoleon had organised the Grand Army in a number of corps, each usually com-

manded by one of his marshals. But these corps were formed by from time to time assigning a certain number of regiments to one or other of these commands, and the composition of the corps varied in each new war. The Prussian army corps was a little army complete in infantry, cavalry and artillery, recruited and permanently stationed in one or other of the provinces of the kingdom. The localisation was carried even further. Each regiment was raised in, and permanently connected with, a town or a group of villages. The result was that in every battalion and company, in every squadron and battery, the men were neighbours and kinsfolk. It was a kind of adaptation of the old tribal system to modern war, and it had the great advantage that it rendered mobilisation a fairly simple business. The men who were to fight side by side gathered in their village, went into the nearest town, where they found their friends and neighbours beside whom they were to serve, put on once more the uniform of the regiment in which they had received their training, and found themselves under a colonel and a general whom they had often seen at the head of the troops at local reviews and route marches. The ideal of the whole organisation was that the nation should be ready in the event of war to bring its whole manhood into the field. But during the first half of the nineteenth century this ideal was far from being realised. The armies of all the powers of the Continent were kept at a figure far below that of the later years of the century, and Prussia did not possess the resources or feel the necessity to train any large proportion of the men who were each year liable to service. There was a partial mobilisation of the Prussian army in 1850, during the war between Napoleon III and Austria. Prince William of Prussia, afterwards the King and the first of the new German Emperors, was then acting as regent of the kingdom on account of the illness of Frederic William IV. He had devoted his whole life to military affairs, and as a young man had fought against Napoleon in the campaign of 1814. He was disappointed at finding that the mobilisation took a considerable time, and did not give the numbers which had been anticipated. The fact was that during long years of peace with small numbers called up each year to the colours, the military system of the country had fallen far below the ideals of its founders. On January 2nd, 1861, Frederic William died, and the Crown Prince became King of Prussia. He had already formed a scheme for reorganising the army, increasing its effective strength, and making the process of mobilisation more rapid and workmanlike. He meant to make Prussia the leading military power of Germany. In carrying out this work he was assisted by three remarkable men, Von Bismarck, as head of the Ministry, Von Roon, as Minister of War, and Von Moltke, as Chief of the General Staff. . . . The reorganisation of the army was carried out on the lines which the King had laid down with the help of Von Roon and Von Moltke. The latter had been Chief of the General Staff since King William became regent in 1858. He had made it a centre of information on which he based plans for mobilisation and concentration in the event of a quarrel with any of Prussia's neighbours. At the same time he directed the instruction of the officers and the training of the army, and he gathered around him a singularly able group of war leaders, who were thoroughly familiar with his ideas and could be trusted to act on their own initiative in the spirit of the military doctrine he had taught them. The remarkable thing is that except for a brief and disastrous campaign with the Turkish

army in Western Asia, he had never taken part in actual operations in the field, but he had made a close study of the great campaign, and under his direction the Prussian army manœuvres became a real school of war at a time when in other armies such manœuvres were either non-existent or were mere theatrical displays. . . . Attention was chiefly attracted to the fact that the infantry was armed with a rather clumsy kind of breechloader adopted in 1855. The Prussian army was then the only one in Europe which possessed such a weapon, and conservative military opinion in other countries set little value on it. It was said that it was too complicated, liable to get out of order, and certain to lead to useless waste of ammunition, which might leave whole battalions without a shot to fire when the crisis of the fight arrived. . . . The three wars of 1864, 1866 and 1870 had proved the value of the military tradition inaugurated by Scharnhorst



ALBRECHT THEODOR EMIL,
COUNT VON ROON

and Gneisenau, provided with a doctrine of war by Clausewitz and perfected in practical working by Von Moltke. The Emperor William I. had lived through the whole of this evolution and had done much to guide it. The new Germany had been made by the sword. To use Bismarck's phrase it had been built up 'with blood and iron,' and the result of the process had been the creation of an armed nation that had put more than a million fighting men in the field. It was recognised that the position thus won could be held only by maintaining and perfecting the organisation that had made such results possible."—A. H. Atteridge, *German army in war*, pp. 11-13, 15-19, 23.—See also GERMANY: 1861-1866.

"The extraordinary quickness and completeness of the German victory [1870] was due almost wholly to the superior training in strategy of the German officers. Henderson says: 'Even the French generals of divisions and brigades had had more actual experience [in war] than those who led the German army corps. Compared with the German rank and file, a great part of their non-commissioned officers and men were veterans, and veterans who had seen

much service. Their chief officers were practically familiar with the methods of moving, supplying, and manœuvring large masses of troops; their marshals were valiant and successful soldiers. And yet, the history of modern warfare records no defeats so swift and complete as those of Königgrätz [1866] and Sedan [1870]. The great host of Austria was shattered in seven weeks; the French imperial army was destroyed in seven weeks and three days; and to all intents and purposes the resistance they had offered was not much more effective than that of a respectable militia. But both the Austrian and the French armies were organized and trained under the old system. Courage, experience, and professional pride they possessed in abundance. Man for man in all virile qualities, neither officers nor men were inferior to their foes. But one thing their generals lacked, and that was education for war. Strategy was almost a sealed book to them.' Also: 'Moltke committed no mistake. Long before war had been declared, every possible precaution had been made. And these included much more than arrangements for rapid mobilization, the assembly of superior numbers completely organized, and the establishment of magazines. The enemy's numbers, armaments, readiness, and efficiency had been submitted to a most searching examination. Every possible movement that might be made, however unlikely, had been foreseen; every possible danger that might arise, however remote, discussed and guarded against.' . . . The unprecedented despatch with which this war and the war with Austria were settled, the long period of time during which the causes operated that brought on the wars, the facts that the armies had had nothing to do with bringing on the wars, and that the wars had been brought on by the people themselves, bring to our minds the analogy so often pointed out between the usefulness of surgery and the usefulness of war. In both cases, causes that are harmful to healthful living bring about an unhealthful condition, and in both cases this unhealthful condition is removed (or the attempt is made to remove it) by means that are very painful and very bloody, and that leave the patient in a weakened condition for a considerable time thereafter. If this analogy be at all correct, we are forced to admit that any means that can quicken the surgical operation in one case, or the progress of war in the other case, must be beneficial. There seems no reasonable doubt that *Moltke did more to shorten wars than did any other man in history*. It is true that the shortening of the wars has been paid for by long and laborious and expensive periods of preparation. Whether the shortening of wars is worth the cost or not, we have no exact means of determining; but those people who inveigh against the 'burden of militarism' should, in all fairness, realize that, without that burden, the world would be in the position that it was in when protracted wars like the Hundred Years' War and the Thirty Years' War cursed the human race.—B. A. Fiske, *Art of fighting*, pp. 260-271.

29. Germany.—Reorganization after 1871.—Continuous increase.—Terms of service.—Training of officers.—Drill, weapons and tactics.—Model adopted by other nations.—German militarism and World War.—“Thus, at the outbreak of the [World War] . . . the first line of the German army was formed of twenty-five army corps, namely, the Prussian Guards Corps, the twenty-one German Corps, and the three Bavarian Army Corps. Taking the fighting force of a German Army Corps at 40,000 men, this would give a first line of a million, without counting the cavalry divisions. The first great increase of the

German army was made by the new military law of 1880. The preamble of the law set forth that the military reforms introduced into neighbouring states made an expansion of the army necessary. 'Germany, with an immense frontier, which is also that of three great and four smaller powers, must be ever ready to defend her freedom and security.' It would therefore be necessary to increase the number of units in the army and the annual contingents of trained men. There was a further increase in 1887, and in 1890 new army corps were formed and the peace strength of the army was raised to nearly half a million. Three years later the Government announced a further increase, declaring that the time was come when all men really fit for service would have to be employed in the army. Hitherto the recruit on joining had served for three years with the colours. It was now decided to reduce the period of training to two years for all branches of the service, except the cavalry and the batteries of horse artillery attached to it. The two years' service would mean that year after year a larger number of men would be passed into the reserve of the army. The peace strength was raised to over 500,550 men, and it was estimated that after the new law had been a few years in operation, the available reserves would be about four millions. Under the system thus established, a man, on joining the army at the age of twenty, served for two years with the colours, or for three years, if he was allotted to the cavalry, or four if he was allotted to the horse artillery. His years of service with the colours were a time of strenuous and unceasing training. He had to be made into a soldier before being dismissed to the Reserve. The total period of service in the first line was seven years. . . . At the age of twenty-seven, the German soldier passed out of the first line army. Then until the age of thirty-nine, he belonged to the second line army, or Landwehr. Originally a territorial army of home defence force, the Landwehr is liable to be called out for service beyond the frontiers, either in the actual fighting line, or for the work of guarding the lines of communication and supplying garrisons to captured fortresses. . . . After the first five years the Landwehr man is not called out to service, except in time of actual war. For seven years of his life, from the age of thirty-two to thirty-nine, he is in the second levy of the Landwehr. His name is kept on regular lists in which the men are allotted to the units into which they are to be formed on mobilisation. Nothing is left to be improvised at the last moment. . . . The reservists join the battalions, squadrons and batteries of the first line army, and these move away to the frontier. Hundreds of thousands of reservists are available who are not required to bring these first line units up to war strength. There are [1015] more of them than need be kept in the depôts to make up the first losses in the field. This surplus of reservists, with the men of the first levy of the Landwehr, are available to form at once a number of reserve corps and divisions for the first fighting line. In the . . . [World War] it is said that during the first weeks every army corps in the German army was thus duplicated by a reserve corps, so that in all fifty army corps, or over two millions of fighting men were immediately available for the battle line. The second levy of the Landwehr supplies another army which can be used for the line of communications, garrison duty and the like, or which, after a brief period of training, can supply complete units to the fighting line. But this does not exhaust the forces that become available in the second stage

of mobilisation. There are over 600,000 men who, in any given year, are awaiting the call to the colours as recruits. Instead of having to appeal to them to enlist, the War Office by signing an order can bring this huge army of recruits into the depôts and barracks. . . . After passing out of the Landwehr at the age of thirty-nine the German soldier has completed his full term of service in the first and second line of the army, but for six years more, that is until he reaches the age of forty-five, he belongs to a third line, the Landsturm. This is a home defence force, and includes theoretically not only these trained men, but all the untrained men of the *Ersatz Reserve* up to the age of forty-five. Practically, however, the Landsturm, who are called out for service, are the trained men. . . . The Landsturm is supposed to be only a home defence force, but in the . . . [World War] Landsturm units have been used for garrison work beyond the frontiers. After the passing of the Army Bill of 1893, General von der Goltz wrote that under the organisation it introduced, and by the establishment of the two years' colour service for the greater part of the army, 'Germany had arrived as nearly as the circumstances of the time would permit at the desired object, namely, to bring into the ranks every man capable of serving in the army.' . . . The number of army corps was increased to twenty-five. Those stationed on the eastern and western frontiers of the empire were kept nearly on a war footing. The strength of the army on a peace footing rose to nearly three-quarters of a million, and in every unit the number of officers was increased, so as to provide a larger reserve of leaders for the new units which would be formed on a declaration of war. . . .

"So far we have spoken only of the recruiting of the rank and file of the army. If millions of men are to be placed in this field for war, there must be tens of thousands of officers and non-commissioned officers to lead them. The non-commissioned officers are provided, partly by promotion in the ordinary course, and partly from a special class. These latter are young men who, without waiting to be called up at the age of twenty, join the army at the age of eighteen, in order to qualify for such promotion. They have thus two years of longer service, and are given special facilities for qualifying, and many of them are allowed to prolong their army service during part of the years in which they would ordinarily be in the Reserve. There is a second class of special enlistment provided for from the very beginning of the Prussian army system in 1814. The Royal Decree, which established universal liability service, with a view to avoiding serious interruption in the professional career of men of the more educated classes, allowed those who could produce certain certificates of education, or a preliminary degree of a university, to volunteer for one year of service in the army under special conditions [Einjährig Freiwilliger]. At the end of the year they would have to satisfy the military authorities that they had so far profited by their training as to be capable of doing the work of a non-commissioned officer or a company officer. They then passed into the reserve, thus, under the old system, saving two years of service with the colours, and returned to their professional work. This class . . . [supplied] a reserve of non-commissioned officers and officers for the first line army and the Landwehr. The officers of the army are recruited partly from military schools or cadet corps, partly by the promotion of educated young men who join the regiments with a view to training for a

commission. . . . After leaving the army numbers of officers keep their names on the reserve list for the first line or are posted to units of the Landwehr or Landsturm. Staff officers belong to a special class trained for staff duties, and usually serving with a regiment only for the purpose of obtaining practical experience of the working of this or that special arm of the service. In Prussia and all the German states there . . . [were] a large number of families which in each generation . . . [gave] most of their sons commission ranks for the army. And in military history, from the wars of Frederick the Great down to the . . . [World War], one finds the same name recurring in the higher command. . . . In an army in which most of the men in the ranks serve for only two years, the permanent element is supplied by the officers and those non-commissioned officers who prolong their term of service. On them it depends to carry on the military tradition. The first line of the army in times of peace is a vast school of war with this permanent body of teachers. Each autumn half their pupils go away and are replaced by the new recruits. The course of instruction is a short one, so the work is carried on at high pressure. It has often been said that the German army is too much of a machine, that the whole system is so rigid that men and officers are deprived of all initiative. . . . The old Prussian army of Frederick the Great was certainly one of the most rigid of machines ever created for the purpose of making each individual in its ranks a mere passive unit in the hands of the higher command. . . . The work of the drill ground was everything. Unthinking mechanical obedience was the cardinal virtue for the soldier, only a general or a colonel need trouble to do any thinking. The Prussian drill book was, after Frederick's victories, supposed to be the sum of military knowledge. It became the drill book of both the British and the French army in the years before the Great Revolution. But the progress of war and battle methods from Napoleon's days to our own, the introduction of new weapons and tactics, and the wide extension of the battle front, have made mere drill book and barrack yard work only the introduction to a soldier's training. The company officer, the sergeant, and even the private soldier has now to think, and often decide for himself what is best to be done. The important point is that this thinking should be intelligent, and inspired by a common tradition, so that co-operation with others is possible, and officers and men can understand what orders mean without every detail being explained, and when and where the strict letter of these orders may be departed from. . . . It is to the German army that we also owe what is now recognized as a necessary working rule in every army of the world, namely, that the higher commander must tell his officers not how they are to perform a certain operation, but in the most general terms what is the task assigned to them, leaving it to them to select the proper measures for accomplishing it. Thus, in the war of 1870, Von Moltke's orders to the commanders of army corps took up only a few lines of writing, merely conveying brief information as to the position of the enemy and the point on which the corps concerned was to move. The general commanding the army corps similarly assigned an object to his divisional commanders, leaving it to them to issue their special orders to their subordinates, and in the same way the battalion commander left it to his captains to choose for themselves the way in which their company should work once they had been given a general direction as to what was to

be done. There was thus the widest room for initiative, and in the higher commands the principle was everywhere accepted that whatever orders had been given, once fighting began the troops engaged must be supported at all costs by all those who were in reach of the scene of action. In such a system of command, there is nothing rigid and initiative is a necessity. . . . This much must be granted—it was the success of the Prussian army in 1870 that changed the military methods of all Europe. . . . But British study of German methods became more and more independent and practical. Nevertheless, even in recent years, we have been making new reforms of lines originally struck out by the soldiers of Germany. Lord Haldane's re-organisation of the army was to a great extent thus inspired. The . . . change made almost on the eve of the war—the organisation of the battalion into four companies instead of eight—was a direct copying of the German model. Every army in Europe has, in fact, based much of its progress in the last forty years on German teaching and experience, and even the army of Japan was re-organised by German officers on the methods which had secured success for the German arms in the wars of nearly half a century ago."—A. H. Atteridge, *German army in war*, pp. 28-36, 38-39.

"German militarism, which our enemies first decried and then by degrees themselves adopted, did not, prior to the World War, embrace our whole nation, since universal military service, in its literal sense, in reality existed only in law. If, however, the essence of militarism is to be sought in the military organization of the nation, then indeed it had been established among us for the last hundred years. The rigorous discipline with which it was accompanied was transferred automatically to numerous branches of industry, and proved beneficial to their work. Compulsory education also contributed to this result. There is some truth in the saying that the Prussian school-master won the Battle of Königgrätz. The immense improvement since that date in the education of the whole German people has also borne fruit in the World War. 'It was only,' writes Stegemann, [Geschichte des Krieges] 'the spirit of the army and the complete devotion of the whole nation to the service of the Fatherland which enabled Germany to enter upon such a war, and to engage in it so energetically and organize it so thoroughly that it became the expression of the full and arduous life, the purposeful activity, of the whole people, and raised the nation above itself.' . . . The training of the General Staff in the German Army was thoroughly practical; it was based upon a close association with the troops. The training of the latter culminated in manœuvres organized on a warlike scale. The rigorous demands which these manœuvres made upon the men have bred up that hard fighting race which has stood the test of the World War. It was by means of these large-scale manœuvres that the army was educated for a war of movement, and it is the war of movement which, wherever we have been able to resort to it, has procured us the greatest successes. The army did not rest on its laurels of 1870-71, but with unremitting industry pursued its work year in year out. It was in the army that the wish expressed by Treitschke in respect of the defeat of the year 1806—that this defeat should be 'as ineffaceable from the memory of all future generations as a personal injury, an admonition upon all to vigilance, humility, and loyalty'—found its fulfilment. The achievements of our army in the World War were the fruit of the spirit of the German people; but they were only

rendered possible by means of the previous peacetraining under the superintendence of the All-Highest War Lord, a training continued year by year and extending from the careful drilling of the individual soldier to the instruction of the large units. Only upon the basis of such a training was it possible to increase the army during the war in accordance with the demands of the world-conflict. The first new formations did not prove equal to the test. It became necessary to send to the Front, where they were, moreover, exposed to peculiarly difficult conditions, the new Reserve Corps, the formation of which had been decreed in the middle of August, 1914. Hardly ever have troops—or, at any rate, the bulk of them—exhibited such high qualities of spirit and will as did these new regiments, but three-fourths of them were war-volunteers, enlisted—except for a certain number of older men—from the youth of all classes, including a large number of graduates from the universities. Moreover, the few men among these troops who had already served in the army were elder members of the Landwehr and the Landsturm. Subsequently, the firmness of the new formation was enhanced, wherever possible, by including in them a considerable proportion of men possessing actual experience of war. The new corps who were put into the line at the Yser in the autumn of 1914 lacked, above all, experienced officers and non-commissioned officers. The reserve battalions were no longer able to furnish the latter in sufficient numbers. There had been heavy losses among the officers of the active army and the younger reserve officers during the first battles; the few who were left had to remain at their posts before the enemy. Hence it became necessary to have recourse to the older half-pay officers and reserve officers, who had long since abandoned any form of military exercise, and whose physical efficiency was in the majority of cases no longer up to the mark. Hence that confident leadership in battle, which is so particularly necessary in the case of young troops, was not fully ensured. Only gradually, in the course of the war, after the improvement of their officers' corps, were these new troops brought to the level of the old corps. . . . The fact that, in the German national army, the qualities requisite for every task that had to be performed were present where they were needed testified to its excellent organization and training. The work of a century now, at the hour of supreme danger, proved its worth. As a result of this work, moreover, the army constantly proved adequate to the new tasks which fell to its share, and, despite the very great demands upon the national strength, never sank to the level of a loose militia. Such would inevitably have been the fate of a national army which had been less well disciplined in time of peace. Such an army would not have been capable of defying for years the assault of an enemy superior in numbers, at the same time preserving to the end the strength to attack whenever the opportunity arose, and to pursue a victorious and irresistible offensive across the mountains of the Roumanian frontier and the Alps. Yet much would have been easier, and the arduous struggle would have been shortened, if our peace-preparation had been still more comprehensive, above all, if, before the war, we had actually enlisted all those liable for service. . . . Only the human ramparts in the West and the East secured for us the time in which to bring our technical war-equipment to the highest level of efficiency. Every war engenders new developments in this sphere, every war brings surprises, but we ought to make it our endeavour to limit the possibility of such surprises as far as

lies in our power."—Baron von Freytag-Loringhoven, *Nation trained in arms*, pp. 2-8, 13-15.—See also GERMANY: 1890-1914: Growth of the army; 1918 (November-December).

30. Great Britain.—Origin of standing army.—Feudal levies.—Employment of mercenaries.—Civil War.—Cromwell's "Ironsides."—"The British Army as a standing force dates from the Restoration of Charles II. in 1660. Before that date the organization of the Forces was much less systematic, although based on certain well-known principles. [See HOUSE CARLS.] Of these one only need be dealt with, as it is the sole survivor. It is the undoubted prerogative of the sovereign to call on all males capable of bearing arms, between the ages of 15 and 60, to come out when summoned for the defence of the realm. This general levy was—and is—available for a double purpose. As a civil force it was known as the *posse comitatus*, which the sheriff could call on to arrest criminals and suppress riots. As a military force it was called out, under the sheriff or some other officer of the Crown, to defend the realm in civil war or against foreign foes. The force was liable to serve only in the kingdom, and, except against an invader, only in its own county. Sometimes it was summoned in all the counties; at other times in particular counties only. The general levy was repeatedly called out by the Norman and Angevin kings (1066 to 1216) for the suppression of internal rebellion, or for border warfare against the Welsh and Scots. It was, however, plainly unsuitable for warfare beyond the seas, as service in it could be enforced for only 40 days. In the time of Edward VI., 'lieutenants' were appointed in the counties to array or lead, or both; and after the reign of Mary such 'lieutenants,' now commonly known as Lords Lieutenant, were usually appointed for these purposes. Even before the Norman Conquest the general levy took long to raise, and was difficult to keep together, especially when operating outside the boundary of its own petty kingdom. Hence the old English kings relied more on their military dependents, to whom they had granted land on condition of military service. These were known by the name of *Thegns*. The Norman Conquest altered all this by substituting a wholly feudalized military aristocracy for the semi-feudal thegnhood, the whole of England being divided by William I. into military fiefs held from the Crown. Some were small, others large, and the latter, the direct holders from the Sovereign, were subdivided into smaller fiefs or knights-fees dependent upon themselves. The holder of a military fief might therefore be either a tenant-in-chief holding directly from the Crown, or a sub-tenant holding under some great earl or baron. All alike were bound to attend the king at their own expense on horseback and in armour with their retainers, who might be either mounted or on foot. Though the earlier Monarchs successfully demanded service abroad as well as service at home, the former obligation was always a doubtful exercise of the prerogative, and as time passed the feudal tenants displayed increasing reluctance to serve out of the kingdom, and at length refused to do so. Personal service formed the basis of both the feudal and the general levy, but the obligation to serve in the latter rested on every man as a citizen, or, as it was termed, 'on every man within the allegiance of the King.' But from the time of Henry II. service by deputy, or payment in lieu of personal service under feudal obligations, was allowed. In the case of the general levy the practice arose of calling out only a certain quota from each county to serve in person, while those not so called on

were required to supply all arms and victuals, and defray the expenses of, those who served in person. Closely connected with the general levy was the Crown's prerogative of Purveyance, which enabled the Crown to enforce the supply of carriages, carpenters, smiths, and other artificers, as well as of victuals, for military purposes. Both the feudal and the general levy, when called out for war, were summoned by writs from the Crown, to which the name of Commissions of Array was given in the reign of Edward I. While perfectly legal for raising a force for service within the realm, they were illegal when used to raise troops for foreign service. For they threw on the counties the burden of finding soldiers for foreign wars, and paying their expenses, thus taxing them without consent of Parliament. By a series of Acts, therefore, beginning in 1327, it was provided that men should not be required to serve out of their counties except in the case of invasion; that men-at-arms, hoblars, and archers chosen to serve out of England should be paid by the Crown after leaving their counties; and that no man should be constrained to find men-at-arms, hoblars, or archers, unless bound by feudal service or under the authority of Parliament. During the Wars of the Roses troops were raised in the most irregular manner, and the practice of impressing men was introduced and became so common, that it was assumed to be the right of the Crown. Under the Tudors these irregularities were continued, and certain Acts passed which enforced the provision of equipment, and made archery compulsory. Penalties were also enforced for not attending musters of Commissions of Array authorized to levy the best men for the wars, and these assumed that the right to impress was one of the prerogatives of the Crown. Most of these acts were repealed under James I., but the liability to serve in the general levy continued, and was enforced by means of Commissions of Array which gradually developed into a rather different form under the title of Commissions of Musters. These commissions directed the Commissioners to register and muster all persons liable to provide horses, arms, or soldiers, and to select a convenient number of such persons to serve in person at the charge of their counties for the service and defence of the Crown. These were to be sorted into bands and trained and exercised at the charge of the different parishes in the county. This system of training appears to have assumed at the end of the sixteenth and beginning of the seventeenth century a quasi-permanent form under lieutenants of counties or other commissioners, and the bands trained under them became known as Trained or Train Bands, and were mustered annually. At the same time there existed, side by side with the trained bands and in more or less connexion with them, voluntary bodies, such as the Honourable Artillery Company in London and others elsewhere, which, doubtless, owed their origin to the fact of its being thought honourable to possess military acquirements. Under Charles I. commissions of musters were used for the purpose of exacting contributions in money and arms from the counties. These exactions were complained of in Parliament, and, together with the trial of persons by martial law in time of peace and the practice of billeting, were, in 1628, declared to be illegal by the Petition of Right. In the Long Parliament in 1640 the King, though at first claiming the power of impressment as the ancient and undoubted prerogative of the Crown, assented to an Act declaring it illegal except in case of those bound by the tenure of their lands. The Parliaments of Charles I., while protesting against the exactions enforced by

the lieutenants of counties and the illegality of impressment, did not complain of the mustering of the trained bands; and the value of the trained bands or militia, as they now began to be called, and the necessity for exercising them and providing them with arms and ammunition, were recognized on many occasions by Parliament. But objection was taken to the command of the militia being under the control of the Crown exercised through the lieutenants of counties, and this question was one of the principal matters in dispute at the time of the rupture between Charles I. and his Parliament. Certain other means than those described were also made use of to raise troops. Thus by two statutes passed in the reign of Henry VII., holders of offices, pensions, lordships, or lands from the Crown were made liable to serve at home or abroad on pain of forfeiture. Sometimes criminals were pardoned or debtors released on condition of serving as soldiers, and this custom was maintained even in the earlier years of the last century. Lastly, as early as 1066, mercenaries formed part of the forces of the Crown. The distinction, however, between these troops and those raised under the feudal or general levy was often not a wide one, as men raised under the latter were induced to serve beyond the seas, or for more than 40 days (their legal period of service) by payment. The mercenaries were usually raised by contract between the King and some person of position, who was able by his influence or wealth to obtain soldiers. The men so obtained were at first chiefly foreigners, and as their employment in England was not only strongly objected to, but was rendered unnecessary by the liability of the inhabitants of the realm to service at home, they were almost entirely employed on foreign service. After the raising of men compulsorily under Commissions of Array was restrained by Parliament, the practice of raising troops by contract became more common, and in the early part of the reign of Henry V., and subsequently, the larger part of the forces of the Crown were thus obtained. At first the men were enlisted to serve the officer who raised them, but after 1491, if not before, they were enlisted to serve the King. The method employed was by contract with an individual, sometimes for a sum of money, sometimes on condition of the contractor having the appointment of the officers of the force raised. Enlistment was strictly for service in the particular regiment with which the recruiting officer was connected."—*The Times* (London) *Book of the army*, pp. 1-7.—"At the outset of the war many of the nobles raised regiments from among their own tenants, and the armies were of picturesque look, each regiment having its own uniform. The Guards of Lord Essex adopted the buff leather coat, which afterward became the uniform of the whole Roundhead army. Hampden's regiment was in green; the London trained bands in bright scarlet. Other regiments were clad in blue or gray. In the Cavalier army there were foot-guards in white and foot-guards in red; and among their horde the Life Guards of the King—composed of lords and gentlemen who had no separate commands—wore plumed casques over their long curled locks, embroidered lace collars over their glittering cuirasses, gay scarfs, gilded sword-belts, and great boots of soft leather doubled down below the knee. The history of the English Civil War, like the history of the American Revolutionary War and the American Civil War, teaches two lessons. First, it shows that the average citizen of a civilized community requires months of training before he can be turned into a good soldier, and that raw levies—no matter how patriotic—are, under normal conditions, helpless before smaller

armies of trained and veteran troops, and cannot strike a finishing blow even when pitted against troops of their own stamp. In the second place it teaches a lesson, which at first sight seems contradictory of the first, but is in reality not in the least so; namely, that there is nothing sacrosanct in the trade of the soldier. It is a trade which can be learned without special difficulty by any man who is brave and intelligent, who realizes the necessity of obedience, and who is already gifted with physical hardihood and is accustomed to the use of the horse and of weapons, to enduring fatigue and exposure, and to acting on his own responsibility, taking care of himself in the open. Cromwell's troops were not regulars, like the professional soldiers of the Thirty Years' War; they were volunteers. After two or three years' service they became the finest troops that Europe could then show; just as by 1864 the volunteers of Grant and Lee had reached a grade of perfection which made them, for their own work, superior to any other of the armies then in existence. Under modern conditions, in a great civilized state, the regular army is composed of officers who have as a rule been carefully trained to their work; who possess remarkably fine physique, and who are accustomed to the command of men and to taking the lead in emergencies; and the enlisted men have likewise been picked out with great care as to their bodily development; have been drilled until they handle themselves, their horses, and their weapons admirably, can cook for themselves, and are trained to the endurance of hardship and exposure under the conditions of march and battle. An ordinary volunteer or militia regiment from an ordinary civilized community, on the other hand, no matter how enthusiastic or patriotic, or how intelligent, is officered by lawyers, merchants, business men, or their sons, and contains in its ranks clerks, mechanics, or farmers' lads of varying physique, who have to be laboriously taught how to shoot and how to ride, and, above all, how to cook and to take care of themselves and make themselves comfortable in the open, especially when tired out by long marches, and when the weather is bad. At the outset such a regiment is, of course, utterly inferior to a veteran regular regiment, but after it has been in active service in the field for a year or two, so that its weak men have been weeded out, and its strong men have learned their duties—which can be learned far more rapidly in time of war than in time of peace—it becomes equal to any regiment. . . . None of the men on the Parliamentary side who had received their training in the Continental armies amounted to much. On the Royalist side the only professional soldier who made his mark was Rupert; and Rupert, after a year or two, was decisively beaten by Cromwell—a greater natural military genius, who, although a civilian till after forty, showed an astonishing aptitude in grasping the essentials of his new profession. His only military rival in the war was Montrose, who was also not a professional soldier. The war had not opened well for the Parliamentary side, and their especial weakness was evidently in cavalry—the arm by which decisive battles in the open field were won. Cromwell, with unerring eye, saw the weakness and started to remedy it. It is about this time that his famous conversation with Hampden took place. Said Cromwell: 'Your troops are most of them old decayed serving-men and tapsters, and such kind of fellows; and their troops are gentlemen's sons, younger sons, and persons of quality; do you think that the spirits of such base, mean fellows will ever be able to encounter gentlemen that have honor and courage and resolution in them? . . .

You must get men of a spirit; and take it not ill what I say—I know you will not—of a spirit that is likely to go on as far as gentlemen will go, or else you will be beaten still. . . . I raised such men as had the fear of God before them, as made some conscience of what they did, and from that day forward they were never beaten.' The famous Presbyterian clergyman, Baxter, who was by no means friendly to Cromwell, described his special care to get religious men into his troop; men of greater intelligence than common soldiers, who enlisted, not for the money, but from an earnest sense of public duty. Naturally, said Baxter, these troopers 'having more than ordinary wit and resolution had more than ordinary success.' By another writer of the time, Cromwell's horse are described as 'freeholders and freeholders' sons, who upon matter of conscience engaged in this quarrel; and

without regard to creed or caste, it speedily became known that under him anyone would have a fair show according to his merits."—T. Roosevelt, *Oliver Cromwell*, pp. 63-66, 68-69, 73-75.—See also *ENGLAND: 1643* (May).

31. Great Britain.—Reforms after Restoration.—New model army.—Famous regiments.—In Marlborough's time.—Development under Wellington.—Problem of a trained reserve.—"After the Restoration in 1660, considerable changes took place in the military system of the country. Knight service with the feudal levy and its incidents, including escutage, were finally abolished and the organization of the general levy, of which the trained bands formed part in the form of the militia, was completed under the authority of Parliament. At the same time the foundation of the present standing army was laid. Before this time



CROMWELL'S "IRONSIDES" BEFORE THE BATTLE OF DUNBAR

(After painting by Andrew C. Gow)

thus being well-armed within by the satisfaction of their own consciences, and without by good iron arms, they would as one man stand firmly and charge desperately.' Cromwell at once distinguished himself among his contemporaries, alike by the absolute obedience he rendered to his superiors, and by the incessant, unwearied activity with which he drilled his men in the use of their weapons and horses. He was speedily promoted to a colonelcy. In a news-letter of the time his regiment was described as composed of 'brave men; well disciplined. No man swears but he pays his twelvenpence; if he be drunk he is set in the stocks or worse; if one calls the other Roundhead, he is cashiered; inso-much that the counties where they come leap for joy of them, and come in and join with them. How happy were it if all the forces were thus disciplined!' Cromwell suppressed all plundering with an iron hand. An eminently practical man, not in the least a theoretical democrat, but imbued with that essence of democracy which prompts a man to recognize his fellows for what they really are,

there had been no such force; armies for particular wars had, indeed, been raised and paid for by Parliament, but were disbanded after their conclusion. A few troops were, it is true, maintained in certain garrisons, and small corps of sergeants-at-arms, yeomen of the guard, and gentlemen pensioners existed, though these were intended rather as personal attendants on the King than for operations in the field. The only other corps of a permanent character were the trained bands, the Honourable Artillery Company of London, and similar associations, which were, in fact, either part of the general levy or voluntary associations, and an actual standing army was unknown. The troops raised by the Parliament during the Civil War were disbanded under Acts of Parliament passed on the Restoration in 1660, but under a section in those Acts, Charles II. was enabled not only to keep up the garrisons in certain fortified places, but also to maintain two regiments of horse and six of foot as guards for the Royal Person, which thus formed the beginning of the modern British Army. These

regiments were maintained during his reign and that of his successor, James II., and their numbers were gradually increased, not merely on the occurrence or in anticipation of foreign war, but on other occasions. Their maintenance, however, formed the subject of frequent remonstrances in Parliament, and the increase of their numbers by James II. was one of the causes which led to the Revolution of 1688."—*The Times (London) Book of the army*, pp. 9-10.—"The English Army, in 1702, was based upon the two bodies of English who fought on opposite sides, for French or for Spanish, at Dunkirk Dunes. The Duke of York's royalists became the First Foot Guards, afterwards the Grenadier Guards, at the Restoration. The victorious Cromwellian soldiers became the Coldstream Guards, so called because when General Monk marched from Scotland with them he made his last halt at the border town of Coldstream. Charles II's bodyguard which returned with him to England became the Life Guards. The Scots in the

named also after their Colonels—Leven's, Angus's, Wyndham's, Lumley's, Galway's, for example, to mention only a few from 'Tristram Shandy.' Now suddenly for the new war old regiments had to be brought up to strength and new ones formed. Three pounds a piece levy money (two pounds of it to the man) was paid for recruits, three times the usual price. The Colonel was responsible, but Colonels give patents to Lieutenant-Colonels, and they to Lieutenants, and they again to Corporals. It was no easy task to get the numbers. The ordinary method was to attract men by a march with drums beating and an announcement of the ceremony beforehand. Farquhar, who himself served in Holland, opens his *Recruiting Officer (1706)* with a recruiting speech by Sergeant Kite. Says he: 'If any gentlemen soldiers, or others, have a mind to serve his majesty and pull down the French King: if any prentices have severe masters, and children have undutiful parents: if any servants have too little wages, or any husband too much



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BRITISH HUSSARS, 1685 TO 1915, IN THEIR RESPECTIVE UNIFORMS

French service, 'a regiment of Scottish mercenaries renowned throughout Christendom, during four centuries past, for soldierly conduct, conspicuous bravery, and staunch fidelity,' came to England as the Royal Scots: the age of the regiment, and the claim based on it for precedence, earned it the nickname of 'Pontius Pilate's Guards.' The Horse Guards or The Blues were a Cromwellian Cavalry regiment re-enlisted in 1661 by the Earl of Oxford. The foot regiments raised for Tangier in the same year afterwards had the name of the 'Queen's,' while the horse are now the First Royal Dragoons. The English in the Dutch service who came back when England declared war against Holland in 1665, were called The Buffs from the colour of their facings. The Scots Greys date from 1681. The First to the Sixth Dragoon Guards were raised in James II's first year, together with nine regiments of foot, which included the Royal Fusiliers. In 1686 a Scottish regiment raised at the Restoration came south as the Scots Guards. For William III's wars in Ireland and the Netherlands many more regiments still existing were raised from time to time, numbered as they arrived, the Fifteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth of the Line, and so on, but

wife; let him repair to the noble Sergeant Kite at the sign of the Raven in that good town of Shrewsbury, and they shall receive present relief and entertainment.' But recruiting by beat of drum is as honest and unexceptionable as any other form of trading and advertising, and the man who thus volunteered had £2 paid him as levy-money, or twice that of the man taken against his will. There were more disagreeable methods. When an Act of Parliament, (1694) insists upon 3,000 men enlisting in Scotland and the counties and boroughs have to contribute in proportion, the chances are that someone goes against his will. By another Act (7 and 8 William III) a thousand men every year were to be sent in from Scotland. A sheriff had the power to seize men and choose among them by throwing dice, so long as they were idle, loose and vagabond men without lawful calling or visible means of subsistence and without families, or young able-bodied men without families who earn their living by daily wages or are hired for a term, but not menial or domestic servants. After 1702 debtors owing not more than £100 could escape prison, and criminals the scaffold, if they were willing to enter the army. Or an insolvent debtor

who would be set free if he could procure a recruit. After 1703 anyone not a voter who had no lawful calling or visible means of subsistence might be snapped up by the Justices of the Peace and rewarded with £1 as levy-money; but in 1704, between June 1st and October 15th, harvesters with certificates from parson and churchwarden of their parish were specially excepted, or they would all have been taken, or have been lost to the farmer by going into hiding, or have mulcted him with extravagant demands. Three pounds a man was payable to the parish for relieving the soldiers' poor relatives. It was possible, too, for Army officers to obtain men from the naval press-gangs. Pressing for the navy being allowed, the pressers could, if they wished, send the men required over to the Netherlands. Officers needing recruits could also be supplied by crimps who contrived to get men to accept or seem to accept the shilling while they were drunk, or not looking, or under a threat."—E. Thomas, *Life of the Duke of Marlborough*, pp. 98-101.—Throughout the eighteenth century the British army preserved the same general form and organization that it had under Marlborough in the War of the Spanish Succession. Recruitment was for the most part on a voluntary basis, though impressment was retained for the navy until the nineteenth century by means of the "press-gang." Down till 1783, the method of raising troops during time of peace was on the basis of a contract between the government and the colonel of the regiment. Commissions in the regiments were purchasable (until 1871) and it was difficult though not impossible for men to rise from the ranks. Until 1847 terms of enlistment were commonly for life, but in an emergency the term was sometimes fixed at two or three years. In 1806, the policy of permitting short-term enlistments was adopted for war time and has been retained ever since, although, until the World War, the crown forces were always regarded as a "professional army" and re-enlistment was encouraged. There was little that was distinctive in the equipment of the British army during the long interval between Marlborough and Wellington, though its tactics often differed from those of the continental armies. The "thin red line" became famous in the Peninsular War and the column formation in charging which was so characteristic of the armies on the continent was never a feature of the British. Furthermore, although Wellington adopted the divisional organization which was perfected by Napoleon, he never combined the divisions into permanent corps after the fashion of his great antagonist. This peculiarity of the British army has been perpetuated right down to the World War, and the expeditionary force which was sent over to Belgium and France in August-September, 1914, had no larger unit than the division until after it had reached the theater of war. Lacking any system of compulsory military service in time of peace Great Britain, like the United States, was always confronted with the problem of securing and maintaining a trained reserve. The solution attempted in both countries was much the same and consisted in the formation of a militia or national guard. In 1803, under threat of invasion by the First Consul, Bonaparte, a General Militia was embodied, which furnished over 100,000 men to the army between the years 1803-1813, and thus became a mere feeder to the regular forces. For home defence a Local Militia was organized by Lord Castlereagh in 1808, but after Waterloo all these military institutions languished.

32. Great Britain.—Lord Haldane's reforms.—Creation of territorial force.—Strength in

1914.—German military critic on British army in the World War.—Five million volunteers.—The problem of a reserve was met by Lord Haldane, secretary of state for War, in 1908, when he created the "Territorial Force," a body corresponding roughly to the American National Guard. The Territorials were given a definite place in the national military organization and took the place of the old volunteer units which had pursued a varied and rather haphazard career ever since the war scare of 1801. Side by side with the Territorials, who are infantry, and their predecessors the Volunteers, there grew up a body of reserve cavalry known as Yeomanry. These were first organized by the Elder Pitt (Lord Chatham) in 1761, and under the name of Imperial Yeomanry did good service as late as the South African War, 1899-1902. Since 1908, under their old name, they have become a part of the Territorial Force. "Lord Haldane's scheme provided an Expeditionary Force of voluntary recruits, who served seven years with the colours and five in the Army Reserve; a Special Reserve, which took the place of the old Militia, and which in peace acted as a feeder for the Regular Army, and in war might provide reserve battalions; and a Territorial Force, replacing the old Yeomanry and Volunteers, with an organization similar to that of the Regular Army. The aim of such a scheme was to provide a small striking force of professional soldiers, who should be ready at any moment to serve in our little frontier wars, and behind it a volunteer citizen army, capable of rapid expansion and intensive training in time of war, which was destined solely for home defence. Critics might differ as to the details of the two forces, but it was pretty generally admitted that this type of system met Britain's needs. We did not require an army on a continental scale; our navy was our chief weapon for defence and offence. To take the Regular Army first. This was organized as a force of six infantry divisions and one of cavalry. The infantry were divided between the stations at home and abroad, with the exception of the Guards, who in peace time were not employed on foreign service, and whose term was three years with the colours and nine in the Reserve. The Army Reserve consisted of those who had completed their service with the colours, and had not yet completed the term for which they had enlisted. The Special Reserve acted in peace time mainly as a feeder for the Regulars, many joining it as a preliminary to the Line; the period of enlistment was for six years, and all ranks were liable for foreign service in war. In the Territorial Force the term of service was four years, re-engagement being allowed, and the training was considerably higher than in most of the classes of the continental Territorial forces. The Territorial Reserve, which was part of Lord Haldane's scheme, had made little progress, and consisted mainly of officers who had left their regiments but wished to rejoin on mobilization. Lastly came the National Reserve, made up of old soldiers, many beyond the age limit, who were registered in part for general service, in part for home service alone, and in part merely for purposes of training and administration. It will be seen that the British army presented features analogous to all the classes of continental military systems. [See also WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1000: Imperial defense conference.] . . . On the outbreak of war [in 1914] our Expeditionary Force consisted of six divisions of infantry, one cavalry division, and one or more cavalry brigades with no divisional attachment, besides the usual complement of what are called 'army troops,' to be used for general purposes—a total of some 100,000 men. The total regular

strength with the British colours reached in round figures 250,000; the Army Reserve numbered 145,000; the Special Reserve 81,000; the Territorial Force had a peace establishment of 316,500, but it was short of this by some 50,000; and the National Reserve had reached the creditable level of 200,000. But these figures were no index to the potential fighting strength of Britain. We had never been called on to exert ourselves in recruiting, and the first shock of war sent young men flocking to the colours. Happily, the protection of our navy gave us the breathing space necessary to allow of the improvisation of an army. The first 100,000 recruits asked for appeared in a day or two; the second army of half a million was raised with little difficulty; and the nation accepted with equanimity Mr. Churchill's statement that within a year we must be able to put a million men into the field. It seemed a reasonable estimate, taking the analogy of continental countries, that Britain, with her colonies and dependencies, could within three years send 4,000,000 men to the theatre of war. Small as our striking force was by comparison with our neighbours—a mere spearhead to the shaft which was the man-power of Britain—it was not to be compared with any continental army of the same size. Our troops were without question the most professional in the world. The training of our Regulars, both in duration and thoroughness, was far beyond anything known in the short-service German army. The fact that we had had usually to fight our wars in desert and ill-provided countries had compelled us to bring our transport and commissariat arrangements to the highest point of perfection. The same held true of our engineering and medical services. It is also to be remembered that a very large proportion of both men and officers had had actual experience of war. Most officers over thirty had gone through the trying South African campaign, which was an excellent training in initiative; the senior commanders had Indian and Egyptian wars as well in their recollection. This field experience is no small ingredient in the *morale* of an army. A man who has already led or followed successfully under fire has learned something which no textbook or staff college or manoeuvres can teach. In Carnot's famous words, 'It is not pirouetting up and down a barrack yard, but active service that makes an old soldier.'—J. Buchan, *Nelson's history of the war, v. 1, pp. 61-65*.—'At the beginning of the war, England had at her disposition a field-army of 160,000 men in the home-country and in the colonies, exclusive of India, as well as reserve and garrison troops to the number of 127,000 men. It had been arranged that, under the protection of the force, the insufficiently trained territorial army, numbering 300,000 men, should complete their training in the space of six months. In India, the regular English troops numbered 77,000 men [see INDIA: 1902-1907], and there was a native army of 214,000 men. By degrees, the English field-army was augmented by considerable fighting forces from the colonies—Canadians, Indians, New Zealanders, and Australians. Nevertheless, the raising of the army to a force numbering millions was accomplished within the home-country itself. Lord Kitchener built up twelve divisions out of the six regular divisions existing before the war, and twenty-eight divisions out of the fourteen very imperfectly organized territorial divisions, thus doubling the army. These divisions were supplemented by the thirty so-called Kitchener divisions. By July, 1915, the army had been increased by more than two million volunteers. Nevertheless, the growing need of men resulting from the unforeseen extension of

the war made it necessary, in January, 1916, to introduce universal military service. [See also ENGLAND: 1916-1917.] A contemporary author writes: 'In the eyes of all those who have studied the history of England during the last three centuries, the introduction of universal military service will appear as something so outside the customary course of events as almost to possess the significance of a revolution. The English people had always exhibited a deep-rooted aversion, not only to military service, but also to the establishment and maintenance of a large army. This aversion was not the fruit of any reflection. It is a deeply rooted sentiment, an expression of the English temper, a peculiarity of the national consciousness. The Englishman can only conceive independence in the form of personal freedom. In view of this, it is exceedingly noteworthy that such a revolution should have been accomplished so easily, and, in fact, by universal consent, in the space of barely eighteen months. That this was possible is due to the fact that the men, whose task it was to guide the nation through the tremendous vicissitudes in which Europe is plunged at present [1917], had the good sense not to force the issue, but to allow events to develop to a logical conclusion. Consequently, the revolution came about as an integral part of the national development. It has been asserted that, at the beginning of the struggle, Lord Kitchener was urged by some to introduce universal military service forthwith. He emphatically declined to do so, and he was right. At that time the English people, great as was the danger with which they were confronted, had formed no notion of its true extent, and had not reached any clear understanding of the task that had to be accomplished. Hence this nation, which clings so tenaciously to its comfort and its prejudices, would not have understood why, short of irresistible necessity, it should abandon a system which was in such complete harmony with its traditions and so excellently suited to its habits. Kitchener preferred to allow the nation to come slowly to a realization of the truth, in the meantime continually increasing the number of recruits, until it was obvious to everyone how inadequate was a system which, with quite a few exceptions, had placed the whole nation upon a war-footing. The fact that, at the call of the government, over five million English came forward voluntarily for the defence of their country, before a single man had been compulsorily enlisted in the army, sheds imperishable glory on the name of Lord Kitchener and is a just source of pride to the English people.' In the matter of the training of the new troops, no less than in that of the constitutional innovations, England took her time. The long war of entrenchments afforded the possibility for this. First in the home-country, then behind the Front in France, the newly-formed divisions were subjected to a thorough training, before they were put into the line. It was not until the spring of 1916 that the English were able to take over extensive sections of the Front which had hitherto been held by the French, and even then they could not in all respects be classed as fully efficient fighting troops.'—Baron von Freytag-Loringhoven, *Nation trained in arms, pp. 20-24*.—See also ENGLAND: 1915 (Oct. 21).

33. **India.**—Ancient Hindu army.—Mahmoud of Ghuznee.—His invasions of India.—Maharatta warriors.—Conflicts with British.—Sikh wars.—'The vast region in Southern Asia known as India has a great antiquity, having been settled probably as early as 2000 B. C., by Hindoos, descended from the Aryan race with the exception of the hill tribes, numbering some millions, said to be of Tartar

origin. The population of India at the present time is not homogeneous, but composed of a large number of distinct nations differing in language, customs, and religion. The Hindoos have never been a conquering race, like the Assyrians or the Romans; they have been 'dreamers rather than actors' in the historical drama of the world. They are deficient in those characteristics essential to the highest development of national greatness,—energy and a love of liberty. Though not an aggressive, warlike people, they have been repeatedly subjected to the invasions of more ambitious nations, and the entire history of India affords a series of struggles for national existence, either with foreign enemies, or with the hill tribes in their own territory. The accounts of the early wars, as related by native writers, contain, doubtless, much that is mythical, but the fact that most of these struggles did occur, is proved by the remains of castles and fortifications seen in many Indian villages at the present day. No nation, however peacefully inclined, is secure without proper defences, and an armament ready for instant use. The ancient Hindoos, understanding this, maintained an efficient army, comprising cavalry, infantry, chariots, and elephants; in modern times they have adopted European tactics. They are more humane in their wars than any other Asiatic nation, and more carefully respect the rights of their vanquished foes. The Indian cavalry of the present day are remarkably skilful in their manœuvres, and their charge, front and flank at the same time, is said to be magnificent and terrible in the highest degree. The early history of India combines fact and fiction, and some of her heroes existed only in the imagination of the poets. . . . Among all the great conquerors the world has ever known, Mahmoud of Ghuznee, 967-1030 A. D., holds a first rank. He early developed a warlike nature, and won his first victories when a youth in his father's army. With a small force of 3,000 disciplined Mamelukes, he established his claim to his paternal estates against a rival brother, and assumed the government of Koristan, taking the title of sultan, being the first who ever bore it. Having conquered most of the kingdoms of Western Asia, he formed the plan of an invasion of India, and with an army of only 10,000 horse, he left Ghuznee, his capital, for the bold and hazardous enterprise of conquering India, and was met on the border of the Punjab by the Rajah of Lahore, when the first battle of Peshawer [Peshawur] was fought, in which the Indian prince was totally defeated and taken prisoner. . . . Mahmoud invaded Indian a second time, repeating his earlier success, and in a third excursion the Rajah of Lahore was defeated in a second battle of Peshawer. In the meantime, his own dominions were invaded by Tartars under Elik Kahn, who was driven back beyond the Oxus, but being reinforced by 50,000 allies, he recrossed the river and engaged Mahmoud, when the severe battle of the Oxus was fought, 1006, in which the Tartars were defeated. During the conflict, five hundred elephants were brought into the field, that caused terrible destruction among the soldiers of Elik Khan, breaking their lines and trampling them under their feet. Mahmoud was now left free to make a fourth irruption into India, in 1008. A confederacy of Hindoo princes, formed to repel the invaders, advanced to the Punjab, but they were soon defeated and scattered. Mahmoud made the fifth successful expedition in 1010, and during the next year he penetrated to Cashmere, without, however, securing any important results. His next blow was aimed at the very heart of India. He began his march with a force of 100,000 horse and

20,000 foot, and having crossed seven large rivers, he arrived at the capital of Canouj, which capitulated, and the Rajah formed an alliance with the conquerors. Mahmoud's twelfth attempt upon India was aimed at the rich temple of Somnat, in Guzerat. To reach it, a desert of three hundred and fifty miles must be crossed, an undertaking requiring 'skill, energy, prudence, and perseverance of no ordinary kind.' The march was accomplished in safety, but on reaching the place, Mahmoud found the temple manned at every point. A furious contest began; the Mussulmans were repulsed on the first and second days, and on the third were compelled to leave the assault and meet the allied native princes in open field. The battle was very severe; at first the Hindoos had the advantage, but at a critical moment Mahmoud sprang upon his horse, and, cheering his men, rushed with irresistible fury upon the enemy, and 5,000 of them were left on the field. Somnat was won, and the temple was despoiled of its valuable treasures. The last expedition of this famous conqueror to the East was made in 1027, for the purpose of chastising a body of marauders, when a great and decisive battle was gained over the outlaws. His last military achievement was the conquest of Persia. His capacity as a soldier and conqueror was of the highest order, and his ability for governing was evident from the good order that prevailed in his dominions during his absence on his campaigns; but, like many other conquerors, he failed to consolidate his vast empire, and it fell to pieces after his death. . . . Mohammed, who assumed the government in 1328, was the most accomplished prince of his age, but his military schemes were utterly impracticable, and, of course, failed. His vast army sent to conquer Persia dispersed for want of pay, and carried ruin everywhere. He next decided to attempt the conquest of China, and sent a force of from 100,000 to 300,000 across the Himalayas, only to be destroyed by the Chinese on the frontiers, so that in the course of a few days scarcely a soldier was left 'to tell the tale.'—S. M. Burnham, *Struggles of the nations*, v. 1, pp. 114-115, 117-120.—During the seventeenth century "the Mahrattas formed bands for plunder, and carried destruction everywhere in the Deccan, and then invaded Malwar and Guzerat. Aurungzebe prosecuted his wars in the Deccan for more than twenty years, capturing nearly every Mahratta fort after long and bloody sieges; that of Jinji lasting three years. The tactics of these warriors, requiring them to disperse quickly when hard pressed, and then rally as suddenly, enabled them to recover easily from a defeat, and renew the struggle."—*Ibid.*, p. 126.—In their struggle against the troops of the British East India Company during the latter half of the eighteenth century, "the restless Mahrattas, though checked, were not subdued, and kept the English army on the alert. These warlike tribes occupying a part of the Deccan, with their capital at Tagra, make a conspicuous figure in the modern history of India. Their military tactics are peculiar. When on the march, they present a disorderly crowd of infantry and cavalry mingled with elephants, camels, oxen, and other domestic animals, and accompanied by their women and children; yet strange to say, though ignoring every requirement of a well-disciplined army, they are seldom surprised by an enemy. In their encampments they display better order; their tents are generally white, and the pavilions of their chiefs are fitted up with great magnificence. Like the Tartars, they lay waste the regions through which they pass, and their course may be always traced by the ruin they leave behind. Their favor-

ite method of attack is the cavalry charge, in which they are almost irresistible. Their horses are trained to bound forward, stop, or wheel at full speed, by the slightest pressure of the rider's foot. The common soldier sleeps on the ground with his spear by his side, and the bridle of his horse on his arm, ready to mount at a moment's warning. When charged by the enemy, they disperse at once, and lead him into an ambush, when they fall upon him, cut off the stragglers, and capture his convoys. A defeat to them is 'like a blow on the water, which offers no resistance and retains no impression.' When they lose a battle, they disperse, and unite again at some other place. This turbulent race, which the Mongols could never subdue, was brought into a hostile attitude to Great Britain. The Mahrattas were giving trouble in the Carnatic, and a force of English and Indian troops were sent to chastise them, but it proved to be only a temporary check, and in 1778 they assumed an openly hostile attitude. An army was sent from the Ganges over land to the Gulf of Cambay, a distance of one thousand miles, under the command of Colonel Goddard, thus proving to the natives the resources of the English more effectually than any battles could have done. He captured several strong fortresses, and dispersed an army of Mahrattas, after a struggle of two years, and, later, they are found the allies of the English in their wars with Tipoo; but no reliance could be placed upon their constancy; they were ready to join any military expedition where there was any prospect of plunder. . . . The Sikhs, a kind of Hindoo deists who became fanatical warriors, were originally a religious order founded by Nanik, who lived 1469-1539. Govind, their chief, in 1675, organized them into a religious and military commonwealth, with every man a soldier, who always went armed. They overran the Punjab, laying waste the country, committing all manner of cruelties, killing the inhabitants without regard to age or sex, extending their ravages to Lahore and even to Delhi. Though severely defeated by the Mongols, they were not utterly subdued, and gave the English in India a good deal of trouble, resulting in two desperate wars, the first in 1845-1846, and the second in 1848-1849. The last war put an end to the national independence of the Sikhs, and the Punjab, their country, was annexed to the British Empire in India."—*Ibid.*, pp. 133-135, 138.—See also: INDIA: 1845-1840.

34. Italy.—Creation of national army by Machiavelli.—Italy in World War.—“The political sagacity and the patriotism for which Machiavelli has been admired are nowhere more conspicuous than in the discernment which suggested . . . [the creation of a national army], and in the indefatigable zeal with which he strove to carry it into effect. Pondering upon the causes of Italian weakness when confronted with nations like the French, and comparing contemporary with ancient history, Machiavelli came to the conclusion that the universal employment of mercenary troops was the chief secret of the insecurity of Italy. He therefore conceived a plan for establishing a national militia, and for placing the whole male population at the service of the state in times of war. He had to begin cautiously in bringing this scheme before the public; for the stronghold of the mercenary system was the sloth and luxury of the burghers. At first he induced the *Dieci di libertà e pace*, or war office, to require the service of one man per house throughout the Florentine dominion; but at the same time he caused a census to be taken of all men capable of bearing arms. His next step was to carry a law by which the permanent militia of the

state was fixed at 10,000. Then in 1503, having prepared the way by these preliminary measures, he addressed the Council of the Burghers in a set oration, unfolding the principles of his proposed reform, and appealing not only to their patriotism but also to their sense of self-preservation. It was his aim to prove that mercenary arms must be exchanged for a national militia, if freedom and independence were to be maintained. The Florentines allowed themselves to be convinced, and, on the recommendation of Machiavelli, they voted in 1506 a new magistracy, called the *Nove dell' Ordinanza e Milizia*, for the formation of companies, the discipline of soldiers, and the maintenance of the militia in a state of readiness for active service. Machiavelli became the secretary of this board; and much of his time was spent thenceforth in the levying of troops and the practical development of his system. It requires an intimate familiarity with the Italian military system of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries to understand the importance of this reform. We are so accustomed to the systems of Militia, Conscription, and Landwehr, by means of which military service has been nationalised among the modern races, that we need to tax our imagination before we can place ourselves at the point of view of men to whom Machiavelli's measure was a novelty of genius. It must be admitted that the new militia proved ineffectual in the hour of need. To revive the martial spirit of a nation, enervated by tyranny and given over to commerce, merely by a stroke of genius, was beyond the force of even Machiavelli."—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy*, pp. 245-247.—“Italy, in order to protect herself from foreign aggression, from the earliest days of her existence felt the necessity of having a strong army. After her entrance into the Triple Alliance she further increased her effectives, and voted large credits for military purposes, which caused serious financial embarrassment. Though the army budget was subsequently reduced, the Italian General Staff has always been directed by intelligent and efficient officers, whose spirit of initiative has kept the Italian forces in the vanguard of development in all branches of military science. Italy was the country first to train troops for mountain warfare, and her corps of *Alpini* were imitated by both France and Austria; as were her *Bersaglieri*, the first *chasseurs à pied* or light infantry in Europe. Aviation was actively encouraged as an essential branch of the service from the very earliest days of its practical usefulness, and dirigibles were first used in modern warfare by the Italians during the Tripolitan campaign. Italy was one of the first countries to adopt an ‘invisible’ field uniform. Though hampered by lack of funds, her armies have been kept up to a high standard of efficiency and discipline. Service in the Italian army is compulsory, beginning with the age of 20; the men remaining 10 years with the colours. Active service, formerly 3 years in the infantry and 5 years in the cavalry, was reduced to 2 years, while those paying £48 and passing an examination were required to serve only one year. The peace footing of the Italian army was 14,000 officers and 255,000 men, while the nominal war footing was 1,215,000. The actual war footing, however, was 41,692 officers and 3,433,150 men in 1913. Concerned with her position as a naval Power, and owing to the great length of her coast-line, Italy, when she entered upon the period of colonial expansion, made a great effort to bring her navy up to a high standard. She embarked upon a daring programme of naval construction; and set the example of building monster ships, armed with monster guns, the precursors of the modern Dreadnoughts. As the result

of great enterprise and efforts, by 1893 Italy had reached the position of third naval Power in the world, ranking immediately after Great Britain and France. But, owing to financial difficulties, her ambitious policy of naval expansion had to be abandoned, so that one by one the United States, Germany, and Japan passed her, and the Italian navy now [1917] ranks sixth."—W. K. Wallace, *Greater Italy*, pp. 154-155.—"The [modern] Italian military units mainly retain their old nomenclature, as such and such a regiment or other command—of Genoa, Milan, Turin, Venice, Florence, Naples, Palermo, etc., but under the system adopted in later years, while Liguria, Lombardy, Tuscany, Calabria, Sicily, Sardinia, etc., are still commemorated in the names of the Regiments or Battalions that shed lustre on them in the past, these commands are composed of troops representative of every region in Italy, the intention being to give the troops the feeling of being national and representative not of a province or city however renowned, but of Italy: Mother and Patria of all. Within these general lines there are certain corps which have a special prestige, as demanding certain qualifications for admission, such as the Cavalry, the Bersaglieri, the Alpini, the Arditi, the Granatieri, etc. The *Genio*, or Engineers, were everywhere, and were expected to do and did everything that was necessary to assist, facilitate, and contribute to the support of all the rest. They not only constructed the systems of trenches, they ran graded roads up impossible mountains; built bridges over rushing rivers and bottomless ravines; cut tunnels and corridors through the rock mountains; swung telefericas (cable railways) from mountain peaks across deep valleys; tunnelled and blew off mountain tops which resisted assault, and performed work everywhere and always, without which the Titanic achievements of the Italian army would have been impossible. This age has always regarded the ancient Romans as the great road-builders of History. Future ages gazing on the remains of this war will say that the Italians surpassed all others, even their ancestors, in this Titanic accomplishment."—Thomas Nelson Page, *Italy and the World War*, pp. 264-265.

See also ITALY: 1010 (January).

35. Japan.—Samurai: Military aristocracy.—Feudal armies.—Beginning of Shogunate.—Liability to service.—Professional soldiers.—Adoption of conscription.—Military administration.—Education of officers and troops.—Organization of modern army.—In World War.—"The existence of this insular empire was first made known to the European world by Marco Polo, who heard of it when at the court of Kublai Khan, of China, in 1298; but the Portuguese, in 1545, were the first of the Western nations to visit Japan, and were soon followed by Dutch, Spanish, and English navigators, all eager to trade with the newly discovered country. It is claimed that the Ainos were the aboriginal inhabitants, whose features, expression, and aspect are European, rather than Asiatic. They are a peaceful race, and know nothing of the art of war. . . . The Japanese are a different race from the Chinese, with a different civilization, and, as a rule, cultivated in mind and manners, and cherish an intense love of knowledge. The modern Japanese are 'inquisitive, progressive, ready to accept new ideas, and improve upon what they learn.' There are two great divisions of the population,—the military and the agricultural, or soldiers and farmers; the former constitute the aristocracy. The highest type of the Japanese man is the Samurai or the two-sworded, a class that for centuries has monopolized the profession of arms,

learning, and all literary achievements, in Japan. . . . The military tactics of the Japanese were at first copied from the Chinese, but, more recently, European strategy has been adopted. The warrior of the feudal age of Japan was armed much as his European brother of a similar though earlier period; but owing to the nature of the ground, cavalry are seldom used, infantry being the chief dependence. Kites, supposed to be of modern use in war, were employed of sufficient size to carry a soldier for the purpose of making observations, thus anticipating the modern balloon used for the same object. Regular assaults and sieges were conducted much in the same way as by other nations. The soldier, if in danger of falling into the hands of the enemy, generally committed suicide, death on the battlefield being considered highly meritorious. . . . The term Shogun means general, and was applied to the commander-in-chief before the dual system of government existed. In a great naval battle fought in 1185, between the rival families of Taira and Minamoto, the latter, under the command of Yoritomo, won a great victory, when the Mikado appointed him to a high office, with the title of Great General, or the Shogun, by way of eminence."—S. M. Burnham, *Struggles of the nations*, v. 1, pp. 152-153, 155.—See also JAPAN: 1150-1190.—"At the time of the foundation of the Japanese Empire the political institutions of the country were so simple that civil and military affairs were one. All adult males in the realm were liable to be called upon for service in the army, with the Emperor as Commander-in-Chief. Early in the Middle Ages, however, we begin to find traces of a line of demarcation between civil and military affairs, and soon this line becomes distinct, the army having regular generals and captains serving under the direction of a central office. This office next established the 'Left and Right Horse' Departments, which had the custody of horses contributed as tribute from the various provinces. For each province was organized a military corps, in which was enrolled every third male adult of the district, all of whom were liable to be called upon for service. Still later, when the military power passed into the hands of the Genji and the Heike clans, a class of professional soldiers made its appearance. The leaders and their retainers both trained their sons in their own profession, which thereby became hereditary, thus evolving the feudal system, which retained its strength until modern times. Powerful barons, entrenched in strongholds throughout the various districts of the country, gradually encroached upon the territory round about them, until at last they had brought these districts under their arbitrary sway, detaching them from direct control of the Imperial Court. The professional soldiers enjoyed hereditary pensions, were bound to their masters by the relationship of liege lords and retainers, and were largely instrumental in bringing the system of feudalism to the high state of organization which it attained during the Tokugawa Regency. With the Restoration and the reinstatement of the Imperial régime the system ceased to exist, being superseded by modern local administrative institutions, which swept away the evils engendered by the old and arbitrary rule of feudalism. The hereditary pensions of the professional warrior class were commuted by recourse to public loans, and the warriors were left to find other occupations. The ranks of the army thus left vacant were filled by male adults of every class, drawn by conscription. The most noticeable feature of this splendid revolutionary achievement lay in the fact that it was accomplished without heavy cost in bloodshed, or in the other national disasters usually

incidental to such sweeping changes, and reflects great credit upon the patriotism of the whole people as well as upon the tremendous influence and statesmanlike qualities of the Imperial Court. At the beginning of the new era administrative affairs were divided into seven departments, one of which took entire charge of military and naval affairs. This division was later designated the National Defence Office, to be superseded in turn by a system of military and naval Commissioners, who took charge of the Military and Naval Office, Fortification Office, Warship Office, Arms and Weapon Office, and Home Office. The Military College and Military Hospital were also attached to this Board of Commissioners. In the second year of the Restoration the post of Commissioner was abolished and the Military and Naval Department established, with jurisdiction over military and naval education, finance and discipline. An arsenal was attached to this department one year later, and during the following year two military garrisons were organized, as was also the Army Medical Corps. During this fourth year the department was subjected to thorough readjustment, and the line of demarcation between military and naval administration distinctly drawn. According to this arrangement the department was subdivided into the Army and Navy sections, the former to include the Education Office, Army Medical Office, Courts-Martial, Arsenal and Magazine, Staff Offices, 'Three Services' headquarters, and the three garrisons of Tokyo, Osaka, and Chinsei. This principle of the separation of the two branches of the service was completed in the following year, when the War and the Navy offices were formally separated and the former divided into the offices of Personnel, Education and Surgeon, Arsenal and Magazine, Imperial Household Guards, and Courts-Martial. The Non-commissioned School established that year was attached to the Education Office. In the sixth year the number of garrisons was increased to six—those of Tokyo, Sendai, Nagoya, Osaka, Hiroshima, and Kumamoto. In the seventh year the Remount Section and the Staff Board were created, while in the following year the offices of Arsenal and Magazines were superseded by the Central Arsenal and the Branch Arsenal, the latter located in Osaka. In the ninth year the Ordnance Council was organized, and in the eleventh year the Staff Board was superseded by the Central Staff Board and the Inspection Headquarters. These changes and progressions of organization are given in detail to show the exceptional spirit of elasticity which prevailed, making it possible to adopt from year to year such reforms, however drastic, as seemed called for by the logic of events, without the interference of bureaucratic red-tape or prejudice against change. During the next twenty years the Tokyo Gendarmerie was created, the Staff College was established, the Colonial Board was attached to the War Office, which had succeeded the Board, the Engineering Council was formed, the various schools enlarged and their scope increased, and the Military Paymasters' School and the Military Supply Office brought into being. In the twenty-eighth year of the Restoration (1895), under the Governor-General of Formosa, several military offices, as well as a Telegraph Construction Office and Lighthouse Office, were adopted for that country, as was also the Wei-hai-wei Office of Occupation. In 1898 the Supreme Council of War to the Emperor was established, and in the following year the Non-commissioned School ceased to exist. . . .

"In the army, as in every other branch of occupation throughout Japan, the matter of education is considered of paramount importance, and no

effort has been spared to provide the most practical and most modern methods which could be found, either at home or in foreign countries. To this end no less than fourteen colleges and schools, or departments of colleges, have been established. The Staff College is provided to enable young officers of distinguished ability to study the higher branches of military science, and such other branches of knowledge as are deemed essential to those wishing to conduct investigations relating to military affairs. The Artillery and Engineering School answers the same purpose for Sub-lieutenants of Artillery and Engineering. The Officers' School is attended by cadets of various corps for preparation for the duties of subordinate officers. The term of study is one year. The annual attendance is about 450. The Military Training School is devoted principally to students sent from the Infantry Corps for training in tactics, shooting, fencing, and gymnastics. The term of attendance is from two to seven months, the number of pupils irregular, and determined from year to year according to the demands of the time. The Central Military Preparatory School is attended by graduates of the Local Military Preparatory Schools, and gives a general education as well as the preliminary instruction necessary for military cadets. The term is for two years, with an average enrolment of about 300 students. The Local Military Preparatory Schools provide a general education and military primary work to youths wishing to become officers. They are six in number, and are regularly connected with the central institution of the same name. Each admits about fifty students each year for a term of three years. The Military Riding School collects from the different Cavalry corps such students as wish to take a course in riding and tactics. The term extends over about eleven months, with an attendance which has not been definitely fixed. The Military Field Artillery Shooting School is maintained for the benefit of students from the Field Artillery Corps, the term being from two to three months, with an attendance to be decided from time to time as circumstances direct. The Military Paymasters' School trains men for the post of paymaster, the applicants being admitted from among Lieutenants and Sub-lieutenants who have passed the examination, and also from the colleges of law of the Imperial Universities and from the higher commercial schools. The courses are divided into one of two years and one of six months, with an attendance varying from year to year as the authorities deem expedient. The Military Surgery School includes surgeons of the Army Medical Corps, and licensed medical practitioners and pharmacists who wish to become military surgeons on active service. First-class students are taught for four months, second class for one year. The Military Veterinary Surgeon-School includes veterinary surgeons of the Military Veterinary Surgeons Corps who require training, and also the farrier foremen of the various corps, the latter being instructed in the science of farriery. The course extends from three to nine months. The Military Gunnery and Mechanics' Work School trains those who wish to become foreman smiths, foreman saddlers, foreman gunsmiths, foreman wood mechanics, and foreman of casting work. The course may be one or two years. The Military Band School takes prospective bandsmen through a course of training lasting about one year."—Field-Marshal Marquis Oyama, *Army to-day* (A. Stead, ed., *Japan by the Japanese*, pp. 112-115, 117-119).—"In 1871 the system of conscription may be said to have first been introduced into Japan. Anterior to that date the organization of the Imperial army had been for many cen-

turies based upon the principles of the feudal system. Some thousand years ago, however, feudalism was unknown in the history of the empire, which was divided into *ken* (prefecture) and *gun* (counties), and there was no class distinction of *shi* (feudal vassals) and *no* (farmers). They were all equally liable to military service. By recalling this old system of administration, and at the same time introducing the advanced principles of conscription as adopted in Europe, a new army system closely resembling conscription was organized. In the feudal times the Imperial army consisted of 400,000 families of *shizoku*, or the followers of the feudal lords (daimyos), who each kept as many retainers as his finances would permit. A large number of non-combatants, such as surgeons and treasurers, were included. Such was the standing army of those times. If, however, we allow for two or three male members—such, perhaps, as brothers—in the families, feudal Japan would possibly have 800,000 to 1,200,000 *shi*. The new system—that of quasi-conscription—was first experimentally put into force in the five provinces of Tamashiro, Yamato, Kawachu, Izumi, and Settsu; and it was only in 1873 that the law of conscription, in its proper sense, was promulgated and had its full force throughout the empire. The Imperial scheme was at first to organize a standing army of 400,000 men, which would constitute twelve *shidan* (divisions) or six army corps; but in practice it was only found possible to create a small army of 40,000 on a peace footing and 75,000 on a war footing. In this year (1873) the military academy was established, and several French officers were invited and entrusted with the care of the military education. . . . In 1883 the army was reconstructed and increased to 200,000 men, which were to make six *shidan* of national forces and one *shidan* of the Imperial bodyguard. Even after this reorganization the strength of the standing army was still far short of what was first intended in 1873—400,000 men. This was owing to the fact that the national funds had to be distributed among various urgent requirements. The construction of forts for coast defence, the extension of military education, the establishment of arsenals—one in Tokyo and another in Osaka—and also of powder factories, claimed considerable sums of the money available. In 1896 the Imperial army again underwent a change after the Chino-Japanese War. At last, by this reorganization, the military strength, as at first projected in 1871, was realized, after a long and patience-trying period. The standing army now numbers 500,000 men, who are formed into twelve *shidan* (divisions) of mixed command and one division of the Imperial Bodyguard. Returning to the time when the system of conscription was first introduced, it must be remembered that it was one of the vital portions of the works undertaken after the Restoration. It meant that the 400,000 families of the *shizoku* had to abandon their hereditary rights and duties as soldiers, together with their hereditary fees, given in rice. Certain sums were allotted to them from the national finances in proportion to the amount of fees which they used to receive. All the daimyos, or feudal lords, had also to give up their dominions; their castles and fortifications were placed under the care of the War Department. It was the abolition of the long-existing feudalism in Japan—a great revolution. The most influential class of the people under this system were the *shizoku*, and the people who suffered most in honour and in interest under the new régime were the *shizoku*. As a consequence of this, in 1874 the *shizoku* of Hizen broke forth in rebellion—known as the Saga affair—and in 1876

Maibara, an ex-retainer of the daimyo Mori, revolted against the Government with many followers. In the same year many of the *shizoku* of Chikuzen also rose in insurrection. Fortunately, however, all these rebellions were suppressed before they assumed important dimensions. In 1877, however, there broke forth a war of rebellion in Satsuma. It was the last of its kind and the greatest in magnitude. It was of a most serious nature. Many of the rebels were the veteran soldiers of the Restoration. Nevertheless, the Imperial army proved victorious after many severe engagements. All these rebellions were vindications of the efficacy of the conscript army, and the Chino-Japanese War of 1894-95 was a crowning triumph for the system. After the war the army of 200,000 was at once increased to some 500,000 although such a sudden augmentation was generally considered to be impossible."—Field-Marshal Prince A. Yamagata, *Growth of the army* (A. Stead, ed., *Japan by the Japanese*, pp. 105-107).—The modern Japanese army is largely modeled on the German. At the outbreak of the World War Japan had twice the military power which she had when she began the war with Russia in 1904; she had since then made a specialty of artillery, particularly the heavy guns. For the siege of Tsing-tau (Kiao-Chau) in 1914 the Japanese organized a special siege force under the command of Lieutenant-General Kamio, consisting of a division of infantry, and three additional brigades—a corps of siege artillery, a flying detachment, and detachments of engineers and marine artillery. Japan has universal conscription for service in the army and navy, beginning with the age of twenty and ending at forty.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914 V. Japan: a.

36. Poland.—Sixteenth century army.—Foreign mercenaries.—“The historian Dlugosz gives us reason to conclude that Poland had possessed infantry troops as early as in the beginning of the fifteenth century, but this body of men—a small one, numbering not more than 2,000—was only armed with pikes. Batory [king of Poland, 1575-1586] provided a more modern armament—muskets, swords, and battle-axes—and trebled the strength of his infantry by calling out the peasants on the crown lands. Those who enlisted of their own free-will were forgiven all they owed. The volunteers were many, and distinguished themselves by their bravery: some of them performed prodigies of valour. Besides these men, the King had a body of Hungarian infantry, some 5,000 strong, another of Polish infantry equipped in the Hungarian style, and consisting of the serving-men attached to the army, and a third recruited among the nobility. These he reinforced by divers bodies of auxiliaries belonging to the same arm of the service—Germans, who formed themselves into huge squares, Scotsmen, and Cossacks. Into his cavalry he introduced German and Polish arquebus-men. The total number of troops, including the Lithuanian contingent, does not seem to have exceeded 20,000 men. It is worth remarking that in this war, certain separatist tendencies notwithstanding, Lithuania, or at all events the nobility of the country, which was still half Russian and half Orthodox, was heart and soul with Batory. This fact is acknowledged by the Russian historians themselves. . . . The sister nation gave all she could—a few thousand horsemen, who proved most invaluable, during the winter season especially, when, better able to endure the terrible climate and less distant from their own homes, they made up, to some extent, for the dispersal of the main army. This consisted of a mere handful of men, but it was the first, as to composition and quality, in any Slav country. The

proportion of foreigners it contained was very large, but in the sixteenth century this was by no means an exceptional case. At the Battle of Dreux (December 19, 1562) Guise had over 12,000 Germans, Swiss, and Spaniards in his army, as against 6,000 Frenchmen, and in his enemy's camp the state of things was similar. The Poles' weak point, in this and all the succeeding campaigns, was to be their enemy's strong one—artillery. In vain did Batory engage cannon-founders in Germany and even in Italy, and beg the Elector of Saxony to send siege-guns and ammunition; he never could get enough ordnance together, and his artillerymen, of whom he only had seventy-three in 1580, shrank, in the following year, to twenty."—M. Waliszewski, *Ivan the Terrible*, pp. 304-305.

37. Russia.—Army of Ivan the Terrible.—Motley composition.—Tactics.—Courage and endurance.—Artillery.—“In this country, where the feudal system was unknown, the military organization of the period was, nevertheless, essentially feudal in all its features. In France, naught of such an organization remained, save the *ban et l'arrière-ban*—a small matter, some 2,000 or 3,000 men, little or nothing in presence of the regular and permanent forces, the real army of modern times. In Russia, Ivan was only beginning to form this new type of contingent, by giving it a nucleus in the shape of the corps called the *Strieltsy*, a name which appears for the first time in the course of the decisive campaign of 1552 against Kazan. The *Strieltsy* were arquebus-men (*strielat*, to fire), recruited from the free class, on a life engagement. Most of them were married men, and they ultimately formed a separate body in which the profession of arms was hereditary. They were armed and equipped in the European fashion, and each received a rouble to build himself a house, another rouble of yearly pay, uniform, powder, and some measures of flour and *kacha*. These arrangements having proved insufficient, the Government ended by giving land, and allowing the *Strieltsy* to pursue divers trades, subject to the performance of their military duties. This led to their being confused with the ‘men who served.’ At the close of Ivan's reign they numbered 12,000 men, 7,500 of whom garrisoned Moscow, and formed, with the town Cossacks, the first body of infantry the Russian Tsars ever possessed. A permanent corps of artillerymen, divided into gunners (*pouchkari*), fort artillerymen (*zainchichiki*), grenadiers (*granat-chiki*), and artificers, and a special corps of arquebus-men (*pistchalniki*), was organized at the same time. All this did not constitute an army. The bulk of the force consisted of the ‘men who served,’ and of what was called the *rat*, the germ of another military force. In war-time two things were done. All or part of the ‘men who served’ were called out, on the one hand, and on the other, levies were ordered, such and such a town or diocese being obliged to furnish so many foot soldiers or mounted men, recruited outside the military class. This constituted the *rat* or *possokha*; and for one campaign alone—that undertaken to recover Polotsk from the Poles—Ivan was to collect 80,000 of these *possochniki*. They were not disciplined troops, as may well be imagined, nor calculated to cut any very brilliant figure on a battlefield. As a rule, therefore, they were employed in digging earthworks or preparing war material. The Muscovite Government, indeed, permitted its taxpayers to pay a money indemnity of two roubles instead of each man due, and even preferred this plan. It was simply a form of taxation. Mobilized by circulars sent by the War Office, or *Razriad*, to the provincial *voievodes*, and specifying the number of

men to be called out, the points on which they were to be concentrated, and the nature of their armament, the ‘men who served,’ boiars, boiars' sons, and courtiers (*dvorianie*), were divided, from Ivan IV.'s time onward, into five regiments—the great regiment, the vanguard, the right hand, the left hand, and the rearguard. When the Tsar was present, a sixth regiment, called ‘the Sovereign's regiment,’ was added. The first regiment consisted of three, and the others of two divisions, subdivided into ‘hundreds’ (*sotnias*). Each regiment was commanded by a *voievode*, each division by a lieutenant who ranked as a *voievode*, and each *sotnia* by a *dvorianine* of the first class. In the Tsar's absence, the whole body was under the orders of a Court *voievode*, the *magister militarum* of the Romans, the *generalissimo* of the present day, who was surrounded by a numerous staff, which included *shorchtchiki*, whose business was to bring the troops together; *okladtchiki*, who had to divide them; *posylnyie lioodi*, or aides-de-camp; *stanovchtchiki*, or engineers; foreign artisans, employed in siege works, provosts, medical men, and priests. How many men did all this come to? We have no data for the year 1552, but in 1556 the full numbers of the vanguard regiment did not bring it up to 1,500 horsemen. In 1578, in the campaign against Lithuania, the army, though increased by the presence of a Tartar contingent, only numbered 39,681 fighting men in all, made up as follows:

Russian and Circassian Princes.....	212
Moscow boiars and boiars' sons.....	9,200
‘Men who served’ from Novgorod and Iou-riev	1,109
Tartars and Mordvians.....	6,461
Court <i>Strieltsy</i>	2,000
<i>Strieltsy</i> and Cossacks from the provinces..	13,119
<i>Possokha</i> from the northern provinces....	7,580
	<hr/>
	39,681

“Part of the available forces had probably been left to guard the frontier, while every boiar, on the other hand, took at least two *ratniki*, or fatigue men, with him, and some brought fifty or more. One traveller of this period, Clement Adams, mentions 90,000 as the total number of men available for the Tsar's service, but adds that he only called out a third of these on his campaigns, being obliged to leave the other two-thirds to guard the fortified places. There is a striking agreement between this calculation and that furnished by the rosters for the year 1578. Apart from the *Strieltsy* of the special corps and the *possokha*, all these troops were mounted. Their armament was of the most varied description. In Ivan's time, the curved Turkish sword and the bow were the favourite arms with most Russians. Only a few substituted pistols or long muskets. An axe hanging at the warrior's saddle-bow, a dagger, and now and then a lance, made up the campaigning equipment. Cuirasses were very little patronized. A few great lords wore them, and of very splendid make, out of vanity, and covered their heads with ‘sallets’ or ‘morions.’ There were no spurs—the whip supplied their place. The horseman held his bridle and his bow in his left hand, and clasped his sword and whip with his right. When he shot he dropped the sword and whip, both of which were fastened to a strap. The moment the enemy came within range every arrow flew at once, and, however much or little the adversary's onslaught were checked, the whole body of troops beat a retreat without awaiting the shock of battle. Thus it came about that this cavalry never learnt to stand in the open country

against the Polish squadrons, which had been taught to charge right home. Its chief merits were its endurance and its extreme mobility. On their unshod horses, most of them undersized, and all clumsily accoutred, these Russian soldiers covered huge distances, and unflinchingly endured the greatest fatigues and the most extreme privations. Clement Adams and Chancellor show them camping out in the snow, lighting a tiny fire, content with such poor nourishment as a handful of flour mixed with boiling water, and lying down to sleep with no covering but their cloaks, and without even a stone for a pillow. The second of these two English travellers wonders how many of the warriors of his own country, prouder than most men of their valour, would have been able to hold out, even for a month, against these troops, and comes to the conclusion that if these men realized their own strength nobody in the world would be able to stand against them. But endurance is not everything in war. Ivan's undrilled and undisciplined soldiers did not possess the very elements of their art. The only tactics they knew consisted in surprising the enemy, overwhelming him with a force two or three times larger than his own, and deafening him with their yells and the discordant clangour of their trumpets and cymbals. Brave in their own way—as brave as they were temperate—they were seldom known to sue for mercy, even if they were worn out and on the brink of giving way. But they broke up very easily. They were useless in the service of any skilled strategy, and they were just as useless for siege operations, such as those which awaited Ivan under the walls of Kazan. In cases of defence their superiority was evident. Once shut up and cut off from all chance of taking to their heels in flight, they were extraordinarily tenacious, bore cold and hunger without a murmur, died in their thousands on the earthworks and wooden defences they perpetually repaired, and never gave in till the very last extremity. Hence the constant use in the Muscovite armies of portable defences, shields made of planks, with holes bored for the musket-barrels—these were called *khoudai gorody* ('towns on the march')—and hence, also, the precocious development of a very powerful artillery service. The first cannon the country had ever possessed were of foreign make, but, even in Ivan III.'s time, foreign workmen were casting them in Russia. A gun produced by this home factory, and bearing the date of the year 1485, is still preserved in the St. Petersburg arsenal. Under Ivan IV., the war material thus collected included all the European improvements in ballistics—serpentes (here called *zmei*), falconets (*sokolniki*), and mortars of various calibres, amongst which were classed the *haufnizy* (from the German word *haufnitz*), the *haubitzen* of a more modern type, and the *volkomietki* (from *volk*, wolf, and *mietat*, to launch). No Christian Prince of the period, according to Fletcher, possessed such a quantity of ordnance, and in 1557, Jankinson speaks with wonder of the Russian gunners' drill, in which he saw them vie with each other laying their guns with extraordinary swiftness and skill."—K. Waliszewski, *Ivan the Terrible*, pp. 159-163.

38. Russia.—Cossacks.—Army of hardy plainsmen.—Absorption into imperial army.—“In order to secure the military aid of the Cossacks, the Polish kings were forced to allow them to establish lists or ‘Registers’ of ‘Free Soldiers’ to whom claim of serfage was relinquished by the feudal lords. These latter, however, always claimed possession of the lands occupied by the Cossacks and their right to liberty as a caste was never recognized. This . . . was the cause of the great

uprising ending in the separation of the Cossack Ukraine from the Polish crown. . . . The Cossack warriors of the Polish Ukraine, though clinging tenaciously to their liberties and denying any right on the part of an alien government to claim their services, often entered the feudal military companies of the Polish nobles as volunteers or paid men-at-arms, while farther to the eastward, their kindred entered the service of the Tsar. . . . After the more or less voluntary submission of the ‘Free Cossacks of the Don’ the Russian Tsars soon began to make use of their matchless skill in frontier warfare. An arrangement mutually favorable was now perfected and the Cossacks became the basis of a system of defensive militia policing the steppes against the Crimean Tartars. Although the Muscovite peasants were brave and (above all) docile foot soldiers, their usefulness as cavalry was limited. Previous to the time when Cossacks were enrolled for this purpose, it had been found necessary—in order to defend the open frontiers of Muscovy—to mobilize every year a force of about 65,000 men. Owing to the fact that the rendezvous chosen lay on the banks of the river Oka, this was called the annual ‘bank service.’ In the early days this duty had been performed by the feudal levies of the great *boyars*, whose serf and peasant troops attended the annual musters unwillingly and often at great inconvenience to themselves during the harvest season (a time therefore usually chosen by the Tartars for their raids). As early as 1571 a Russian *boyar*, Prince Borotinsky, began to employ a system of mixed Cossack and militia patrols which appears to have differed but little from the military colonies of *stanitsi* of the later Cossack ‘armies.’ During the seasons less favorable to the Tartar raids a protective service alone was maintained. This was called the ‘Watch and Post Service’ and consisted of Cossacks living in rude blockhouses linked together by small fortified camps. This first line of defense was intended, however, rather to impede the march of the Tartar raiders—and to give warning of their sudden coming—than to attempt any serious resistance. Mobile outposts composed of squads of two, four or six horsemen, to each of which was assigned a regular ‘ride’ of about a day’s journey, joined together the Cossack encampments or settlements which were generally set upon high places from whence an outlook could be kept across the plains. In each of these encampments horses stood ready saddled, so that upon the appearance of suspicious signs—the distant black dots in the yellow waste, denoting the scouts of the enemy, or the inevitable clouds of dust raised by the hoofs of their horses—the news could be immediately communicated to the nearest fortified town. . . .

“The early military organization and strategy of these Dnieper Cossacks was probably but little different from that of the Tartar levies. By the end of the sixteenth century, however, not only the garrisons of the *sitch* [camp] but also the troops and militia stationed in the agricultural settlements along the upper Dnieper, had developed a characteristic system of military service. In the Hetman Bogdan Kostchinskoi, whose power was recognized by a majority of the free Cossacks settled along the Polish frontiers, King Stephen Bathory found a leader capable of bringing order and discipline out of the anarchy which had previously existed. Upon Bogdan he formally conferred the dignity of ‘Hetman of the Ukraine’ and at the same time presented him with splendid regalia composed of the Asiatic symbols recognized by the Cossacks as those of supreme authority, namely: the *boudava* or baton of the commander-in-chief; the *buntchuk* or

horse-tail standard similar to that carried before the conquering generals of Genghis Khan. To these were added the tokens conferred on Polish frontier officials—a great seal of office and the standards that distinguished the mercenaries employed by the kings of Poland. In the agricultural settlements or *stanitsi* of the Ukraine the Cossack levies were divided into regiments or *polki*. These, in turn, were subdivided into companies of one hundred men called *sotnia*, an organization which has persisted in the Cossack forces of the present day. Although a general of artillery, or *obozni* and a secretary, or *pisari* were nominated by the Polish king to assist the hetman (and at the same time to oversee the more technical details of military organization) the warlike customs of the Cossacks were not interfered with and their peculiar methods of fighting and discipline were generally maintained. . . . In considering the history of the Ukraine, a distinction must be made between the agricultural Cossack settlements of the Upper Dnieper and the outposts or garrisons of the *Za-Porogi* to which the former were tributary. . . . The military capabilities and peculiar organization of the Zaporogian Cossacks was a source of considerable interest and inquiry among contemporary military authorities. Many writers of the eighteenth century—wholly ignorant of their real condition—compared these famous frontier troops to military orders of chivalry such as the Knights of the Sword in Lithuania, or even the Knights of Malta. Others compared them to the 'Free Archers' of Charles the Seventh, or the 'military colonies' of Sparta and of the early Grecian states. As Lesur points out, a more reasonable and modern parallel is to be found in that strange republic of *filibusters* who almost contemporaneously established their piratical state among the islands of the West Indies. If this comparison does some injustice to the Zaporogians (to whom must be allowed the merit of holding in check, at a critical time, the ravages of the Mussulman invaders) it will appear more reasonable if viewed in the light of the intolerable nuisance to which their pretensions gave rise at a later date."—W. P. Cresson, *Cossacks, Their history and country*, pp. 16-19, 24-25, 27-28.—"The old tradition that pictures the Cossack troops as a levy of wild horsemen, only useful for the purpose of partisan warfare, in no way represents the actual state of their military capabilities. Besides living from childhood in a military atmosphere their officers are drilled with especial severity for their long period of duty. Under the old régime, while special military institutions existed for Cossack officers, they were subjected to the same educational requirements as the cadets graduating from regular military schools. Moreover, no amount of training could take the place of the marvellous *esprit de corps*—an almost instinctive 'clan' feeling—existing in every Cossack regiment. The introduction of universal military service in 1874, and the enactment of laws by which every male Russian was called upon to take up his share in the burden of state defence, removed many of the differences existing between the Cossacks and their peasant or *moujik* neighbours. But in spite of the important change thus realized the military traditions of the Cossack race remained unchanged and the imperial government continued to treat them as a distinct body in the community. Each Cossack was still required to furnish his own horse, uniform and weapons, and the only changes made in the old conditions of Cossack service had in view placing the Cossack armies in a position enabling them to co-operate with the regular troops of Russian line. Nearly all the Cossack troops engaged in

the heroic struggle which the Russian army made on the side of the Allies during the opening years of the World War, were cavalry formations. The levy of the united Cossack armies just before the war constituted a minimum of 144 cavalry regiments, 830 *sotnia* or 'hundreds' and a quota of light Cossack artillery, accompanying the infantry tactics, their services were useful even in trench warfare, but it was as scouts and raiders that the traditional Cossack qualities gained for these troops such well-deserved reputation. For military purposes all male Cossacks are divided into two general categories, active and reserve. . . . Cossack military service begins at eighteen years and is continued as follows: three years in the preparatory class; twelve years in the line; five years in the reserve. The 'line' category, in view of the long service required, is divided into three divisions, only the first of which serves constantly with the colours, while the other two are allowed to remain near their homes subject to 'the call to arms.' . . . With the negligible exception of twenty infantry 'hundreds' and a greatly reduced quota of light Cossack artillery, nearly all the Cossack troops serve as cavalry, or 'dismounted cavalry.' In addition to the regular Cossack troops the [former] imperial armies included a division of cavalry, armed and drilled according to Cossack methods, but exclusively recruited among the war-like tribes of the Tcherkess, Abkhazes, Lesghians, Daghestani, etc. These wild horsemen, who compose the celebrated 'Dikki Division' or 'Wild Division,' enjoy not only a great reputation for reckless bravery but also for the excesses which they are reputed to commit in enemy territory. Few, if any, of these troops are Cossacks, and only the similarity of dress and equipment causes them to be confused with the latter. On the other hand a bitter rivalry exists between them and the true Cossack troops against whom their ancestors were so long engaged in frontier feuds and skirmishes."—*Ibid.*, pp. 201-204.

39. *Russia*.—Imperial army since Crimean War.—Slackness of discipline.—Man-power.—Preparedness for World War.—"In order to understand the conduct of the Russian national army in the World War, it is necessary to take a brief survey of the past history of the Russian Army. After the Crimean War a complete departure was made from the form of training which had prevailed in the Russian Army under Nicholas I. Formality and stiffness in the bearing of the individual soldier as well as of the unit as a whole was done away with entirely, as being out of harmony with the national character, though this change undoubtedly involved the sacrifice of some indispensable aids to discipline. It was believed that the inborn submissiveness of the Russian soldier rendered the rigid discipline of the drill-master entirely superfluous, and it was overlooked that this lowering of the requirements from the unit in respect of outward appearance and uniformity necessarily involved a serious relaxation of its inward cohesion, and that where there was no careful training of the individual soldier, the practice of even the simplest movements by the unit as a whole must take up so much time that the training for war would necessarily prove too short. The recruit was just as willing, but the old subordination disappeared more and more, and moreover could not be made up for by a lofty and instinctive sense of duty, as in the case of a nation of old civilization. Finally, in the year 1874, with the introduction of universal military service, the army acquired an entirely different character. In place of the old soldiers,

with their long term of service, who looked upon their regiment as their home, we now find men who belonged to the service only for a few years. The change from an army of professional soldiers to an army based upon the principle of universal military service, took place, of course, only by degrees, so that, when the Balkan [Russo-Turkish] War of 1877-78 broke out, universal military service had still not become fully effective. . . . Far too many of the conditions which at one time contributed to the efficiency of the Russian troops, ceased to exist after the middle of the nineteenth century; they could not, indeed, any longer exist. An important fact, moreover, was that the war in the Far East [1904-1905] was thoroughly unpopular both with the officers and the men. They had no clear conception of what they were fighting for, and looked upon the war as something in the nature of an unsuccessful colonial enterprise. Hence the disaster to the Russian arms was not felt in any way as a disgrace. Kuropatkin repeatedly emphasizes the fact that in this respect the Russians were far inferior to the Japanese, who were inspired by a lofty national ambition, and that an army which is based on the principle of universal military service must be supported by general public opinion. He writes: 'In a collision between two nations, material weapons count for less than spiritual forces. Where the spirit of the nation and army is of higher worth, where there is revealed a more self-sacrificing devotion to the Fatherland, there is the greater likelihood of victory.' Such a likelihood of victory appeared on the outbreak of the World War to lie on the side of the Russians, both in virtue of their huge numbers and of the undoubted popularity of the war, at any rate at the beginning; and that all the more, since the experiences gained during the Manchurian campaign had not been disregarded. In the ten years' interval between the Peace of Portsmouth [1905] and the outbreak of the World War, much had been done to promote the war-preparedness of the Russian Army. But though individual improvements were effected, it was impossible to infuse a new spirit into a national army of gigantic size within the space of ten years, more especially in view of the low standard of culture and the apathetic temperament of the Russian people. The excellent passive qualities of the Russian soldier—his patience, his capacity of resistance to weather conditions and the impressions of the conflict—were equally revealed in the World War; and the huge Russian Army was an obedient tool in the hands of its leaders when, instructed by the failure of their defensive tactics in Eastern Asia they embarked on a reckless offensive. Only from a nation like the Russian could such an immense human sacrifice have been exacted. Owing to its insensibility to losses and defeats, as well as to the moral effects of retreat, the Russian Army maintained its cohesion even in the most difficult situations. Nevertheless, the unwieldy character of the Russian masses showed itself just as it had done in previous wars. In spite of the popular notion of the inexhaustible supply of the Russian reserves, the number of thoroughly trained men who could be sent to the Front grew less and less as time went on, so that the efficiency of the army steadily declined; although it cannot be denied that great pains were taken to profit by the experiences of the war, and that the Russian Army still remained a redoubtable adversary. The achievements of the Russians in respect of organization, both before and during the war, are very striking. Of course, in passing any judgment

upon Russia, it ought not to be forgotten that months before the order was given for its actual mobilization, the Russian Army had been brought to a high level of preparedness. Only as a result of this fact was it enabled to overcome the difficulties consequent upon the vast extent of the empire. This is at once evident if we consider that a total of two million combatants, equipped with abundant and excellent artillery, entered the field of battle in August, 1914, that in the late autumn of the same year the Russian Army was estimated at five million, and that the total number of men called under arms must have been not less than twelve million. . . . In any case, the World War has revealed very clearly that only a strongly united, well-trained national army is equal to great military achievements; such achievements cannot be performed by troops of the character of a militia. Past history teaches the same lesson."—Baron von Freytag-Loringhoven, *Nation trained in arms*, pp. 28-29, 37-41, 44.—See also RUSSIA: 1914 (August): Status of army; RUSSIA, SOVIET CONSTITUTION OF.

40. Serbia.—A military state.—Serbia, "with a population of only some 3,000,000 . . . was yet the type of state which in war could organize herself far more effectively than many richer and more populous communities. Her race of peasant proprietors, habituated to bare living and accustomed to arms, made excellent fighting material. She had a system of national service, each man serving with the colours from eighteen months to two years between the ages of twenty-one and forty-five, and her Landsturm included those between seventeen and twenty-one and forty-five and fifty. Her experiences in the Balkan War (1912-1913) had made her army a veteran one, and her General Staff had shown itself brilliant both in initiative and defence. Her weakness was her poverty; she was behindhand in the equipment of various arms, and her commissariat and medical arrangements were rudimentary. These drawbacks, however, were largely counteracted by the fighting spirit of her people, and their tolerance of hardships which to a Western European are unthinkable. In an extreme national crisis, such as the present (1914), she could probably count on a fighting strength of some half-million men."—J. Buchan, *Nelson's history of the war*, v. 1, pp. 66-67.—In the early stages of the World War the Serbian army gave such an excellent account of itself against the Austrian enemy that it seemed for a while as if the smaller nation were more than a match for the Dual Monarchy.

41. Switzerland.—Cheap but efficient national army.—Fighting qualities.—Training and organization.—"This little republic, the center of Europe, has for some years possessed the perfect model of a national army. The policy of the nation was easy to frame in relation with its surroundings. North, south, east and west lay neighbors so powerful as to preclude any territorial ambition. On the other hand, these neighbors presented a threat along every mile of frontier. So the Swiss decided on a policy of national defense. And defense to be bearable, with a small people and relatively poor country, had to be inexpensive; while on the other hand to stand any chance of success it had to place large masses in the field. To carry out this policy Switzerland gives preliminary military instruction in her schools, and at twenty years of age calls on every man, mentally, physically, and morally fit, to train for sixty days. (Ninety days in the artillery and other special services.) Thereafter he trains eleven days a year until he reaches the age of thirty-two

when he is turned over to the reserve, which holds him till he is forty-eight. The framework for this militia army, armament, equipment, officers' corps, technical services, munitions of war, are maintained in a highly organized state so that mobilization of the Swiss army can be effected within a few days of the call to arms. On first assembling it is not to be supposed that the Swiss infantry would equal the quality of the German or French. But a very few weeks' experience in the field, added to their early training with the rifle, would probably turn these hardy and liberty-loving mountaineers, of splendid fighting qualities and tradition, into an army formidable enough under modern standards to put up a strong resistance in defensive positions. The authorities give varying numbers for the Swiss army. Their first line is placed at from 150,000 to 250,000 men. The reserve may be reckoned at almost as many more. An army such as that, concentrated on a front near the line Bienne-Zurich would prove more than an embarrassment to any French or German army that should venture to cross lots through Bâle [Basel] and the northwestern corner of Switzerland. It is the virtual guarantee of the independence of a brave people, who have too much sense to put their faith in international guarantees of neutrality, and enough spirit to be willing to face the military issue instead of feebly evading it."—R. M. Johnston, *Arms and the race*, pp. 82-85.—"The army of Switzerland may be termed without exaggeration the most efficient militia force in existence to-day. The first clause of Article 18 of the Federal Constitution says: 'Every Swiss is bound to perform military service.' At stated dates every year, all young men who have come of age go before an examining board, consisting of military officers and physicians. They are subjected to an examination in the rudiments of learning, and are tested to see if they come up to the rather easy requirements in physical condition, demanded of Swiss recruits. Those who have successfully sustained these tests are drafted into the different branches of the service, according to their special aptitudes, and are sent to recruiting schools scattered over the country,—the infantry for a term of forty-five days, the artillery for fifty-five, the cavalry for sixty, and the engineers for fifty. On the other hand, the recruits who are unable to pass their examinations in the rudiments of learning are obliged to attend special recruits' schools, while those who are found to be physically incapacitated pay an annual tax of exemption. So severe are the regulations in this regard that even Swiss citizens living in foreign countries are required to pay this tax. Upon issuing from the recruiting schools, the young men, now trained to be regular soldiers, join the active army, the *Elite* as it is called in French, the *Auszug* in German, until they are thirty-two years old, being required to join the ranks every other year for regular drills,—the cavalry every year on account of the greater amount of training demanded by that branch of the service. The soldier then passes from the *Elite* into the *Landwehr*, until he is forty-four, and finally enters the *Landsturm*, which comprises all men capable of bearing arms, between the ages of seventeen and fifty, who are not in the *Elite* or the *Landwehr*. . . . It is one of the peculiar features of the Swiss military establishment that every soldier keeps his outfit at home, ready for immediate use when the summons may come. The third clause of Article 18 of the constitution provides that: 'Each soldier shall receive without expense his first equipment, clothing, and arms. The weapon remains in the

hands of the soldier, under conditions which shall be prescribed by federal legislation.' Rigid inspections of arms are held annually in each district, and if repairs are made necessary by any carelessness on the part of the soldier, they are executed at his own expense. . . . As one might expect of a citizen army, the uniforms are simple, but serviceable. The headdress for all arms is a kind of low shako (in German *Käppi*, in French *képi*), made of stiff felt, with fore-and-aft peaks. It is adorned with a colored worsted pompon, or cockade, to denote the wearer's particular branch of the service. Dark-blue tunics and dark-gray trousers are the rule, except green tunics for sharpshooters and cavalry, and complete light-blue uniforms for surgeons. In fact this latter uniform is the only brilliant one in the Swiss army. The rank of the officers is indicated by the number of narrow lace bands on the headdress, and of stars on the shoulder-straps. During active service all officers and men wear the Federal badge on the left arm, a broad red ribbon bearing a white cross. True to their deep-rooted Federal instinct, the Swiss do not admit a commander-in-chief in times of peace, but content themselves with a general staff composed of three colonels, sixteen lieutenant-colonels or majors, and thirty-five captains. In case of war, however, a general would immediately be elected by the Federal Assembly to take supreme command. Military law is administered by a special judiciary staff, in accordance with an elaborate law passed on the 28th of June, 1889. Among the most interesting subjects connected with the Swiss army are the regulations in regard to pensions. Short and simple as is the constitutional enactment upon this subject, it is worthy of serious attention. The second clause of Article 18 says: 'Soldiers who lose their lives or suffer permanent injury to their health in consequence of Federal service are entitled to aid from the Republic for themselves or their families, in case of need.' Observe these words, '*in case of need*'; they speak volumes. . . . If one were asked to designate the particular quality which distinguishes the Swiss army from all others, one would point to the comparative absence of class distinctions within the ranks. This model militia is as democratic as an efficient army can be. When the drill is over, the officer and the private may be seen plowing in the fields together, or working in the same factory. They are real brothers in arms."—W. D. McCrackan, *Rise of the Swiss republic*, pp. 368-370.

42. Turkey.—Corps of Janissaries.—Recruited from Christian subjects.—Discipline and organization.—Fantastic costumes.—Native cavalry and infantry.—Tatar auxiliaries.—Modern army at outbreak of World War.—"The Sultan's armies [in the sixteenth century] comprised five principal branches—first and foremost the janissaries, then the feudal troops, the *spahis* and *piadés*, thirdly the artillery, fourthly the irregular troops, *acabs*, *akinjis* and the rest, and lastly the Tartar auxiliaries. All of them are interesting and picturesque, but none so much as the janissaries, that wonderful corps of which an eminent writer has said that 'it was one of the most remarkable bodies the world has ever seen, and goes far to explain the character of the early Ottoman Empire—that wild brilliancy and vigour in which no ordinary ideas of humanity, morality or economy find a place.' Tradition places the foundation of the corps in the reign of Sultan Orkhan, who succeeded Sultan Osman (founder of the Ottoman nation) and flourished 200 years before the capture of Constantinople. Several causes combined to

bring it to birth. The Ottomans were hopelessly unable—both from their lack of assimilative power and the rapidity of their progress—to digest their conquests in Europe and Asia, and the numbers and strength of their subject populations became a serious problem. Conversion to Islam was an obvious remedy and in seeking methods of encouraging this they hit on the janissary system. It was a brilliant solution from their own point of view, for it killed three birds at least with a single stone. It formed a deadly inducement to Christian parents to abandon their faith for the sake of their children; where this failed, it lessened the danger from the Christian element by removing the pick of each generation, and it provided ideal material for the Turkish armies. Its invention is credited by Turkish historians to one 'Black Khalil,' the Vizir of Sultan Orkhan, who suggested to his master that he should levy an annual tribute of one thousand children, selected at discretion, from the Christians under his power. [See also TURKEY: 1326-1350.] The scheme was adopted and the boys were reft from their homes with the same ruthlessness as the victims of the Minotaur, and forcibly initiated, by the customary rites, into Islam. The initiation was performed by a notable holy man, Hajji Bektash (founder of the Bektashi order of Dervishes which still flourishes in Turkey), who, we are told, blessed the neophytes by stretching his flowing sleeve above the head of their leader lying prostrate before him on the ground and pronouncing the following words: 'Let these youths be called the Yeni Cheri (meaning the 'New Armies' and corrupted by European lips to 'Janissaries'); let their countenance ever be bright, their hands victorious and their swords clean, and whithersoever they go, may they return always with a white face!' The corps adopted the peculiar mystic tenets taught by the Hajji and for centuries after preserved the memory of their baptismal day by wearing a piece of stuff, shaped like a miniature sleeve, attached to the peak of their caps. The janissaries were forbidden to marry, and passed their lives under a system of military discipline of the sternest imaginable nature. To quote from Sir Charles Eliot, 'they were thus a military religious order composed of men selected for physical and mental excellence, divorced more completely than any monk from all worldly ties of birth, marriage or profession, and encouraged to give their vigour full and unscrupulous play subject to no law save that of unquestioning obedience to their superior officers.' The system produced, indeed, a *corps d'élite* of incomparable fighters, and any fears which their founders may have entertained as to the standard of loyalty to be looked for from a body of forced converts were speedily dispelled when the young converts proved themselves capable of even fiercer acts of tyranny and oppression towards their own Christian relations than the natural-born sons of the Prophet. In this way the Turks organized the first regular standing army which Europe had known since Roman times, and developed it steadily until, by the time of Suleyman I, the corps reached a strength of 40,000. . . . On leaving school he (the embryo janissary) was posted to an *orta* or company, in which he usually remained for the rest of his life. This was a self-contained unit organized on such communistic lines as could not fail to win the approbation of the most uncompromising modern bolshevik. All pay and expenses were pooled, and contributions were levied from each member of the company to form a common purse which provided pensions for the sick and funds for general purposes. The principle

of equality was carried so far that when issues of stores or equipment took place the distribution was made at night to prevent any possibility of favouritism. One writer asserts, though one hesitates to believe it, that even the armour captured from Christian troops (the Turks made none themselves and only used what they obtained in this manner) was deliberately parcelled out at haphazard, so that a janissary in the ranks could often be seen wearing an assortment of ill-fitting pieces, the original property of half-a-dozen Christians of varying girth and stature. The supreme instance of the democratic foundation of the corps lay in the fact that the Sultan, though like the Czar, he was 'father' to every janissary, himself held the rank of a common private and drew his weekly pay accordingly. A curious feature among the janissaries was the regimental 'stew-pot.' These great cauldrons played a vital part in the life of the regiment; they were venerated as we venerate a regiment's colours, and were carried at the head of the column of all occasions, while a regiment which lost its cauldron in battle was disgraced eternally. The cooks held a proud and important position in the corps and the prestige of the kitchen may be gauged by the strange title given to company commanders, namely *chorbaji* or 'soup-man.' The janissary's hierarchy was a simple one. At the head was the Agha of the corps, who was accounted the third greatest man in the Empire. Under him were the commanders of *buluks* and *jema'ats* (the latter including the cavalry), distinguishable from each other only by the colour of their boots, red and yellow respectively. These units were subdivided into the *ortas* mentioned above, each of which was distinguished by an individual crest, such as for instance an anchor, embroidered on its standard, painted above the barracks and frequently tattooed on the persons of its members. The janissaries were divided also into various 'arms,' archers (*sulaks*), fusiliers (*tufankjis*), gunners (*topjis*), camelry, etc., besides non-combatant branches such as the foresters. Side by side with the spirit of democracy there existed an iron discipline within the corps. On the first occasion that a batch of new janissaries entered the palace they filed past the Agha, each holding on to the coat-tails of the man in front. The Agha gave every one as he passed a hearty smack in the face and a twitch of the ears and received in return a reverential salute from the victim as a token of loyal obedience. Absolute obedience to his superiors was indeed the first article of the janissary's charter which consisted—like another famous document—of fourteen points. The remaining thirteen were: (2) perfect harmony within the corps, (3) abstention from all things unbecoming a brave man, (4) adherence to the precepts of Hajji Bektash, (5) right to be recruited only in the established way, (6) in the case of men condemned to death for any misdeed, privilege of private execution by night and of a *coup de canon* at the moment when the body was thrown into the sea, (7) immunity from punishment by anyone except officers of the corps, (8) promotion by seniority, (9) pension for old age, (10) obligation to shave the chin, (11) celibacy, (12) prohibition to sleep outside barracks or (13) to follow a trade, (14) liability in peace time to take part in manoeuvres from June to November. The janissary's uniform was of dark blue cloth, plainly cut and comparatively free from ornamentation. Its simplicity was compensated for by the elaborate magnificence of their headdress. This consisted of a white felt hat shaped after the fashion affected by Marlborough's Grenadiers, richly embroidered round the base and

resolving itself behind into the sleeve-like appendage which commemorated their religious initiation; to the front was attached a gilt sheath encrusted with bastard stones and into this was stuck—if the wearer was a veteran soldier—a prodigious Bird-of-Paradise plume which fell in a magnificent curve down his back and reached nearly to the

and ferocious moustaches. Of the functions of the janissaries one of the chief was to police the country, and under the great Sultans they were such efficient guardians of the peace that travelers reported the roads in Turkey to be as safe or safer than in any Christian country. Especially in the reign of Murad IV—the most bloodthirsty



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level of his knees. When stationed at Constantinople the janissaries carried silver-tipped batons some six feet long with which they performed summary execution on anyone found breaking the laws. A feature which distinguished them from the bearded Turks was their shaven chins. This was supposed to impart a fierceness of expression unattainable by the wearer of a beard, and the effect was further enhanced by the cultivation of long

monster who ever donned the cloak and mantle of Osman—the punishment of crime was so drastic and so sure that people said, as in days of Charlemagne, that a woman could carry a basket of jewels in safety from one end of the empire to the other. A foreigner of distinction, on entering the Turkish dominions, was given a small body-guard of janissaries (a custom which survived until the beginning of the recent [World] war in

the privilege accorded to diplomatic and consular representatives to have a fixed number of armed *cavasses* attached to their persons), and a delightful sketch of one of these guards has come down to us in the memoirs of an old ambassador to the Porte, written in the middle of the sixteenth century. 'The Janizaries,' he says, 'came to me by couples. When they were admitted into my dining-room they bowed their heads and made obeisance, and presently they ran hastily to me and touched either my garment or my hand, as if they would have kissed it; and then forced upon me a bundle or nosegay of narcissuses, and presently retired backwards with equal speed to the door, that so they might not turn their backs on me, for that is accounted undecent by the rules of their order. At the door they bowed their heads again and wishing me all happiness, departed. The truth is, unless I had been told before they were Janizaries, I should have thought them to be some kind of Turkish monks, or Fellows of some College or other amongst them; yet these are the Janizaries that carry such terror with them wheresoever they go.'

"As time went on the original strictness of the order became relaxed, and when celibacy ceased to be enforced the old method of recruiting from among the children of the Christian *raiahs* gave way to the custom of enlisting the sons of ex-janissaries. In these later days, under a series of weak and dissolute Sultans, the janissaries followed in the footsteps of the Turkish Guards of the Bagdad Caliphs and the Mamelukes in Egypt though they never, like these, actually usurped the throne itself. Even in Suleyman's time the janissaries extorted higher pay by threats of mutiny or worse, and in the reigns of the next few Sultans their power grew to such an extent that no Vizir could be appointed without their sanction. By the middle of the seventeenth century they had become absolute arbiters of the Sultan's fate and had been guilty three times over of the supreme sacrilege of assassinating their own Caliph, besides deposing three others. Affairs by the end of the century had reached such a pass that an English traveller of the period writes of them, 'the mortallest corruption of this Order hath set in of late yeares; knowing their owne strength and growne saucy with familiarity at Court they have proceeded to such insolency as hath flesh'd them in the blood of their Sovereigns and have learnt that damnable Secret of making and unmaking their King at their pleasure whereby the Foundation of all Monarchy, that is the due awe towards the Blood Royall, is so irreparably decayed in them that, like the lost State of Innocence, it can never be restored.' They had a peculiar method of their own for expressing their discontent with the Government of the moment. When the huge bowls of rice which formed their daily rations were set out in the seraglio courtyard . . . the *Orta Bashis*, instead of quietly carrying them to their messes, turned them upside down on the ground. This was a pretty sure omen of riot and bloodshed and woe betide the reigning Sultan when it happened. Not till early in the nineteenth century did Turkey free herself from the incubus of these insolent tyrants, when that passionate reformer Mahmud II abolished the corps for good and all [in 1826] by the simple expedient of a wholesale massacre. [See also TURKEY: 1826.] The *spahis* and *piadés*, who, unlike the janissaries, were trueborn Turks, originated under much the same system as our own [English] feudal troops. The Sultans, as they extended their conquests in Europe, parcelled out a large proportion of the conquered land into fiefs, or *timars*, which they

gave to their followers in recognition of special services in the field. The 'timariot' held his land on much the same terms as a Norman baron, being bound to accompany his liege-lord whenever he went to war, and to bring with him a quota of armed retainers proportionate to the size of his holding. The military equipment of a spahi riding to the wars has been detailed by an old English writer, whose description reminds one of nothing so much as John Tenniel's picture of the Red Knight. It reads as follows:—'First the girdle stuck with three or four pistols, then on each side a knife as long as a man's arm with another of a foot long for ordinary purposes tuck't into his coat; an arquebus on his shoulder, and on his thigh a scymitar; on one side of the saddle a petronnelle, on the other a straight sword and, hanging by it, either a little axe or a Hungarian mace, or both. On his back bows and arrows.' Truly a portentous outfit! The *piadés* need no particular description as they were recruited and served under practically the same conditions as the *spahis*, the difference being that they were foot soldiers. Of the artillery also there is not very much to say. Originally the Turks borrowed this arm from their Christian enemies, and for centuries the arsenals on the Bosphorus were under the charge of renegades. They developed it rapidly, however, as they did all instruments of war, and soon outpaced the original inventors, so that by the fifteenth century they were better equipped with heavy artillery than any of their rivals. The size of some of the guns was enormous. At the siege of Constantinople [1453] when guns were sent to the Bosphorus from Adrianople—then the capital of the Turks in Europe—teams of 150 yoke of oxen were used to haul single pieces. The batteries placed to guard the Narrows at the Dardanelles were notorious. An English diplomat who visited them on his way to Constantinople in 1827 declares that one of the cannon was a 2-foot calibre and threw a solid stone projectile weighing a quarter of a ton. No unworthy ancestor, forsooth, of the monstrous 'Asiatic Annie' of evil memory. A considerable part of the Turkish army was made up of irregular troops. The chief of these were the *azabs* and *akinjis*, who, as cavalry and infantry respectively, played the rôle of 'shock troops' and were mercilessly sacrificed in action in order to prepare the ground for a charge by the invincible janissaries. Another and very extraordinary corps were the volunteers known as *delis* (*anglicé*, 'Mad-caps'), who, under the influence of religious fanaticism, used to offer themselves for any particularly desperate enterprise, and of whom it was said that not a single one had ever shown his back to the enemy, whatever the odds. The dress worn by these 'Mad-caps' was of an outrageous design, intended, like the masks of the old Chinese warriors, to strike fear into the heart of the enemy. It consisted of a dolman and breeches made of a lion or bear skin with the hair turned outwards, and a bonnet of leopard's skin with a pair of eagle's wings sewn on in such a way as to stand upright on either side. Another pair of wings projected from their shields, so that the whole effect was that of a moving mass of fur and feathers—even their horses being covered with the skins of various wild animals. Their usual weapons were a scimitar, a club and a long pike. The Tartar auxiliaries—the last of the five elements composing the Turkish armies—came from the Crimea and the northern shores of the Black Sea. The Tartars were hereditary allies of the Turks to whom they are related by religion, race and language. The Tartar *Khans*, heirs-presumptive to

the throne of Turkey in the event of the Ottoman dynasty becoming extinguished, were therefore bound to assist the Sultans with troops in all their campaigns against Christian nations. The bond was made doubly secure by the retention of the reigning *Khan's* eldest son at the Sultan's court, where he lived as a permanent hostage for his father's loyalty. Hordes of Tartar cavalry accompanied the Turkish armies when they marched into Europe, and acted as scouts and skirmishers on the flanks. They were wild, undisciplined horsemen who spent their whole lives in the saddle and whose food was mare's milk, caviare and meat 'cooked' by being placed in slabs under their horses' girths till it was bruised to a suitable state of tenderness. In enemy country they advanced in loose order ahead, and on the wings of, the regular army where they ambushed bodies of the enemy and pillaged and murdered with complete impartiality the inhabitants of the country and any unfortunate stragglers from the ranks of their own allies. Their services were paid by a free licence to loot and to them fell the lion's share of the plunder."—G. E. Hubbard, *Day of the Crescent*, pp. 39-49.—After the annihilation of the Janissaries in 1826 the Turkish army began to lose its Oriental complexion and gradually assumed an Occidental character. The light, gaudy costumes gave place to a more uniform and serviceable garb. French, German, Italian, and British instructors were introduced at various times to impart Western methods of drill and the handling of improved weapons, while numerous ex-soldiers and officers from European armies entered the Turkish service. From 1835 to 1839 Captain (afterwards Field-Marshal) von Moltke, the famous German strategist, was lent by his government to assist in the task of reorganizing the Turkish army. From the accession of the Emperor William II up to 1914 the principal instructors of the Turks had been Germans, while for a time a British naval mission attempted to place the Turkish navy on a business footing. At the outbreak of the World War "the Turkish army was based nominally on a universal conscription, but in practice only the Mussulman population was drawn upon; not all of that, indeed, for the Arabs were more usually opposed to than incorporated in the Turkish ranks. [See also *WORLD WAR: 1914: IV. Turkey: g.*] The conscript served for twenty years—nine in the first line (Nizam), nine in the Active Reserve (Redif), and two in the Territorial Militia (Mustafiz). The major unit was the army corps of three divisions, each division embracing ten battalions. The artillery, which had suffered severely in the Balkan wars [1912-1913], was patchy and largely out of date, though in recent months [1914] Germany and Austria had strengthened it with a number of heavy batteries. The peace strength of the army was, roughly, 17,000 officers and 250,000 men, and in war some total like 800,000 might have been looked for, provided equipment was forthcoming. . . . The Turkish infantryman had for many years a high reputation as a soldier—especially, as he showed at Plevna, in a stubborn defensive. His physique was good, his nerves steady, and his power of endurance incredible. But in recent wars his fame had suffered a certain eclipse. He had been badly led and badly armed, the commissariat and transport had been rudimentary, and successive defeats were believed to have shaken his *moral*. The truth seems to be that Turkey had fallen between two stools. Her ill-provided levies in the past had fought desperately under brilliant officers, because they were inspired by a simple

trust in their religion and their leaders and a genuine patriotic devotion. An attempt had been made to engraft upon this tradition the mechanical perfection of the German system. But the Turk is not meant by Providence to be a soldier of the German type, and the seed of Marshal von der Goltz and General Liman von Sanders was sown in barren soil. The consequence was a machine without precision and without motive power. The Turk had been at his best when he fought for Islam and the Padishah; but Islam was inconspicuous in the ideals of the new Committee [of Union and Progress], the old Padishah [Abdul Hamid II] was somewhere in exile, and the new one too patently a cypher. In addition, he could have little confidence in men who had already led him to disaster, and who had caused him to endure needless and horrible privations. A perfect machine is a mighty thing, but an imperfect machine is so much scrap iron. The Turkish soldier was now an incomplete German, which is like a gun lacking a breech-block. It is impossible to withhold our sympathy from a brave race going out to battle in a cause which they neither liked nor understood, from an army in the grip of an unfamiliar and imperfect machine, from a nation sacrificed to a muddled *Weltpolitik*. Disaster loomed large in its horoscope, but courage never failed it; and the time was to come when the machine went to pieces, and, amid the snows of the Caucasus or the sands of the desert, the children of Osman, fighting once more in the old fashion, died without fear or complaint."—J. Buchan, *Nelson's history of the war*, v. 5, pp. 103, 105-106.

43. **United States.**—Citizen volunteers.—Small professional army.—Expansion in Civil War.—Land grant colleges.—Training of reserves.—"It has been the historic history of this country to depend upon a voluntary army of citizens, called out at the outbreak of war, to defend it in case of any serious conflict. The development of the art of war during the last half-century has been such as to make radical changes in this policy necessary if it is to be successful. Hitherto we have relied upon training and equipping our volunteers after the outbreak of war. In our previous wars we have escaped disaster under this method largely on account of conditions which will in all probability never occur again. In the Civil War we were fighting against an enemy who was as unprepared as ourselves. Each side trained the other as the conflict proceeded. In the War of 1812 we were fighting a nation which was almost wholly absorbed in a great European war and which spent very little attention upon us. Yet in that war we called out, from first to last, 527,000 men to defend us against an enemy which never had a force of 16,000 men in the field at any one time, and whose total forces throughout the war aggregated only about 54,000 altogether. We were defeated in most of our battles, and we lost our capitol at Washington after a force of 5,400 untrained Americans had run away from less than 1,500 British on suffering a loss of only eight killed. . . . Modern war is fought with weapons which require time to construct and training to use to an extent hitherto unknown. . . . The training, equipment and discipline of the modern army is much more complicated than that of fifty years ago and requires very much greater time and expert knowledge. The conditions surrounding the raising and equipment of a force of citizen soldiery have therefore completely changed since the Civil War. To attempt to organize such a force of volunteers in the way in which we did

it then would be to invite disaster against practically any army of modern Europe."—H. L. Stimson, *National Security League Document no. 2, 1915*.—The regular army of the United States was established by act of Congress in 1790 and was from the beginning a small professional force recruited by voluntary enlistment. Men were attracted by a higher pay and better rations than in any other army and its chief duty of garrisoning Indian posts on the western frontier furnished plenty of excitement for adventurous spirits. As a part of the military system of the country the regular army was intended to form a solid nucleus of seasoned troops around which could be built a large force for war time. Also, it was to be a training school for officers and a reserve police force in case of domestic disturbances. As a matter of fact, the first case of this kind, the Whiskey Rebellion in western Pennsylvania, was handled by the militia of the neighboring states called out by the president. The army, which by the act of 1790 only numbered some twelve hundred men, was kept small throughout the first century of our national existence. The wars against England and Mexico and the great Civil War caused enormous though temporary expansion of the national armies but without seriously affecting the military system as a whole. It may even be said that Civil War caused a neglect of the regular army. Great numbers of its best officers were drawn off to command volunteer units and recruits preferred the volunteer service because of the high bounties offered. When the draft was resorted to in 1863 the vast number of men taken into the ranks was embodied into the volunteer organizations and not into the regular army. All told there were nearly 3,600,000 men in the Federal and Confederate armies but as soon as the war was over they went back quickly into civil life. The regular army reorganized by the law of July, 1866, was composed of forty-five regiments of infantry, ten of cavalry, and five of artillery with a total effective of a little over 50,000 men. During the next ten years the army dwindled to 25,000 men and remained around that figure till the war with Spain in 1898. The Spanish-American War resulted immediately in an increase of the standing army of the United States, and the legislation of Roosevelt's first administration gave the country a permanent force of about 100,000 men. Most important, however, was the reform of the military administration, particularly the creation in 1903 of a General Staff. These conditions remained until the World War led to the creation of a national army in 1917. (See *WORLD WAR: 1917: VIII, United States and the war: 2; 1, 4; 1, 8; 1, 9; 1, 10; U. S. A.: 1018* [August].) In attempting to create a reserve of trained soldiers the United States had a problem similar to that which was partially solved by the Haldane reforms in Great Britain. (See above: 32.) The organized militia of the country was left to be maintained by the several states (see *NATIONAL GUARD, UNITED STATES*), but the difficulty of training officers in time of peace was never really met. The most serious and promising attempt to do this was made through subsidizing educational institutions and by the Plattsburg idea. "When in 1862 Congress passed the first Morrill Act granting to the several states public lands with which to establish agricultural and mechanical colleges and providing that these colleges should include 'instruction in military science' in the curriculum, this country recognized for the first time the vital importance of training as a part of the equipment of a volunteer army. The Civil War was then

near its height. There had been serious defeats at Bull Run and elsewhere in the early campaigns for the unorganized and poorly trained Union volunteers. There had been thousands of volunteers in 1860 and '61 eager to go to the front, but without officers to train them. This condition the Morrill Act sought in some way to remedy and to take thought for in the future. 'These colleges, founded in every State,' said Representative Morrill, the author of the bill, 'will to some extent guard against the sheer ignorance of military art which shrouded the country, and especially the North, at the time when the tocsin of war sounded at Fort Sumter.' After the army and the militia, these colleges were to constitute an integral part of the national defense. . . . As a result of this act and of a second and revised act in 1890, . . . the cadets of the civil institutions of the country are a definite part of the present scheme of national military education. The system of training for the duties of soldiering which is maintained in these 'land-grant' colleges is not, however, a part of the work of the regular Army or of the State militia. . . . These departments have a peculiar and distinct purpose. Their purpose is to train officers for an emergency volunteer army. It is for the purpose of training college men in leadership for the defense as well as for the peaceful upbuilding of their country that courses in military science and tactics are made obligatory in all 'land-grant' colleges and many other collegiate institutions. The regular instruction in the armory and on the drill-ground at the colleges during the winter months has about the same relation to the summer student camps and the business men's camp maintained by the War Department at various points over the country that the regular sessions of these colleges bear to the summer schools and the 'short courses' which they provide for special classes of students. During the regular session the student carries his regular school work along with his military training. In the camps and at the barracks attention is concentrated for the time on military training, and by dint of constant drilling the 'rookies' at the camps are turned out in five or six weeks with a training approximately the same, or perhaps a little more complete, than that of the regularly enrolled college student who has attended his four hours of drill a week after school hours. The standard of instruction put before both the college student and the camper is that of 'what every officer must know.' . . . The course . . . consists of training in the school of the soldier, of the squad and of the company, the manual-of-arms, the fundamental principles of rifle shooting, of first aid, and camp hygiene, while it likewise includes such things as the preparation of military papers, the making of maps, maneuvers, and signaling of all kinds. None of the higher strategy such as is contained in the curriculum at West Point is taught. About one-third of the instruction is theoretical. After the first few months, as little drilling is done as possible. Commandants try to place before their students the intellectual aspects of the game of war, as well as the necessity of physical fitness of individuals for it. . . . For the purposes of drill, the students furnish their own uniforms. . . . The colleges themselves provide the armories and drill-grounds, and for the rest every need is supplied by the Federal Government itself. . . . In all of the colleges embraced in the scheme of military education over which the War Department has control, the obligation to take the instruction offered rests either upon the whole student body or upon specially designated

classes. In the larger institutions . . . drill is only required of the two lower classes. Cadet officers in these institutions are, however, chosen almost uniformly from the upper classes. For the time consumed from their college work they are usually paid an honorarium which, though small, is oftentimes an aid toward the paying of college expenses. . . . Obligation to take military training results in large numbers of cadets at some institutions. . . . The University of Illinois had drilling, during the fall of 1915, two thousand one hundred and forty students. Other large institutions of the Middle West, where the State Universities are predominant, furnish scarcely less surprising figures."—W. Rushton, *Training student soldiers* (*Review of Reviews*, Feb., 1916).

44. United States.—Reorganization during World War.—Creation of a national army.—Training camps.—Army equipment. See WORLD WAR: VIII. United States and the war: i; also Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VI. Military and naval equipment.

45. United States.—Reorganization after World War.—Vocational and general educational training.—"The germ of the educational army was planted as far back as the National Defense act of 1916, but the onrush of the war prevented its growth (except as emergency education was sledged into the millions who were summoned to the colors in 1917 and 1918) in order to make them fit to fight. The trying experience of those days, when it was found impossible to scrape up enough technicians to man the army services, and 25 per cent. of the draft men were discovered to be illiterate and thus unprepared even for the straight combat ranks of a modern army, soon made . . . converts to education within the army. . . . When the reorganization of the regular army began in 1919 the General Staff, in the light of its experience during the war, incorporated education into its plans just as much as it did military organization and equipment. General W. G. Haan, who as Chief of the War Plans Division was charged with the groundwork of the educational system, took it up as an urgent military consideration. He had found in France that even in the combat lines 52 per cent. of the enlisted men needed some sort of specialized training to be the best soldiers, and that every soldier under the conditions of modern warfare needs to be literate and trained to think and act on his own initiative. . . . The General Staff called in civilian advisers to assist in Washington and at all corps, area and division headquarters, and the army . . . plunged into the new field of adult education on a big scale. . . . To meet the new method an entire system of vocational and general educational manuals has had to be prepared laboriously by the army—worked out from start to finish on the problem basis. The magnitude of this task may be comprehended when it is known that the army trains for 117 different trades and provides general education from the illiterate stage up to the equivalent of the twelfth grade. . . . The teaching force consists of 600 officers, 1500 enlisted men and 1500 civilians, including many women. Of course the local commandant, is supreme in local matters and he has a wide range of authority in adapting the schools within his jurisdiction to local and emergency conditions and military necessity. At the bottom of the educational army are the recruit educational centers, to which are assigned native recruits who are illiterate and foreigners who are illiterate or, being literate, are unfamiliar with English. . . . It takes from three to five months

to put a man through a recruit educational center. And it is not until then that he is assigned to a regular military unit and enters the general educational or vocational courses. . . . The farms of the agricultural courses at Camp Grant in Illinois and Camp Travis in Texas pay their way now. The automotive schools, the electrical schools, the shoemaking, saddlery, vulcanizing, painting, and so forth, everywhere produce while they teach. A hundred thousand men in the army technical schools would mean \$30,000,000 worth of labor annually, which if adequately capitalized and provided with plant and machinery might enable the army to be entirely self-sufficient from uniforms to cannon. . . . It would take a hulky book to give an adequate account of this new thing in armies—so new that the definition no longer fits—an institution of popular education and industrial training quite as much as of military efficiency, that is making sane-minded sound-bodied, efficient citizens out of the rawest and sometimes the most unpromising material."—T. M. Knappen, *Army as a school* (*American Review of Reviews*, June, 1921).—See also WAR DEPARTMENT, UNITED STATES.

See also ABATIS; BATTALION; BATTERY; CAPTAINCY-GENERAL; CARROCCIO; FLAGS: Origin; GRENADES; HUSSARS; MILITARY LAW; ORDNANCE; PARTHIAN HORSE; RIFLES AND REVOLVERS; TANK CORPS; TRENCH WARFARE; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IV. Aviation: a; VI. Military and naval equipment; also CHILE: 1900; GREECE: 1900; FINLAND: 1899-1903; HUNGARY: 934-955; HUNS: 451; IRELAND: 13th-14th centuries; SPAIN: 1366-1360.

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Kriegswesens.—E. Simond, *Histoire militaire de France*.—W. Snyder, *Military annals of Greece*.—F. L. Taylor, *Art of war in Italy*.—T. F. Tout, *Medieval and modern warfare*.—E. Upton, *Military policy of the United States*.—L. Wood, *Our military history: Facts and fallacies*.—Idem, *Military obligations of citizenship*.—M. V. Woodhull, *West Point in our next war*.—J. A. Lejeune, *Brief history of the United States Marine Corps*.—J. Dickinson, *Building of an army*.

MILITARY POLICE IN WORLD WAR. See **WORLD WAR**: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VI. Military and naval equipment: c, 8.

MILITARY RECONSTRUCTION ACT (1867). See U.S.A.: 1867 (March).

MILITARY SERVICE ACT (1916). See **NEW ZEALAND**: 1914-1918.

MILITARY UNIFORMS. See **COSTUME**: Survivals; **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 1; 3; 10; 25; 41; 42.

MILITIA. See **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 31; **WAR POWERS OF THE UNITED STATES**: Congressional power over state militia.

MILITIA ACT (1778). See **IRELAND**: 1778-1782.

MILIUKOV, Paul Nikolayevich (1850-), Russian statesman and historian. See **RUSSIA**: 1904-1905: Growth of political parties; 1914 (August): Declaration of war; 1916: Opposition of Duma to cabinet; 1917: Disintegrating propaganda; 1917 (Mar. 16-20); **WORLD WAR**: 1917: III. Russia and the eastern front: d.

MILL, Henry (1683-1771), English engineer. See **INVENTIONS**: 10th century: Typewriter.

MILL, John Stuart (1806-1873), English philosopher and economist. "He shared the eighteenth century's enthusiasm for progress and enlightenment and with it believed in the supreme efficacy of education, holding that there is no natural impulse which it cannot transform or destroy, and that human character will change with men's ideas. In order to bring about reforms, knowledge is necessary, knowledge of the right ends and knowledge of the means of realizing them. But in order to reach knowledge, correct methods must be employed, and to the study of these Mill addressed himself in his *Logic*. The wonderful progress of the natural sciences suggested an examination of scientific methods and their application in the mental or moral sciences: in psychology, ethics, economics, politics, and history. . . . Mill's entire logical theory is based on the laws of association."—F. Thilly, *History of philosophy*, pp. 518-519.

Economic principles. See **ECONOMICS**: 10th century: Fore-runners, etc.

Free trade theory. See **TARIFF**: 1817-1848.
Opinion of Bible. See **BIBLE, ENGLISH**: Modern estimates.

His work as literature. See **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 1832-1890.

Views on woman suffrage. See **SUFFRAGE, WOMAN**: England: 1860-1905.

MILL SPRING, Battle of. See **U.S.A.**: 1862 (January-February: Kentucky-Tennessee).

MILLAIS, Sir John Everett (1829-1906), English painter. See **PAINTING**: Europe (10th century).

MILLENNIAL YEAR.—"It has often been stated that in the tenth century there was a universal belief that the end of the world was to happen in the year 1000. This representation has recently been subjected to a critical scrutiny by Eiken, Le Roy, and Orsi, and found to be an unwarrantable exaggeration. It would be still less applicable to any century earlier or later than the tenth. A conviction of the impending destruction of the world, however, was not uncommon at

almost any period of the middle age. It is frequently found expressed."—R. Flint, *History of the philosophy of history: France, etc.*, pp. 101-102.

MILLER, James (1776-1851), American soldier and political leader. See **U.S.A.**: 1814 (July-September).

MILLER, Lewis (1829-1899), American philanthropist and inventor. One of the organizers of the Chautauqua, 1874. See **EDUCATION**: Modern developments: 20th century: Chautauqua.

MILLER, Nathan (1868-), governor of New York, 1921-1923. See **NEW YORK**: 1921.

MILLER, Patrick (1731-1815), Scottish inventor. See **STEAM NAVIGATION**: Beginnings.

MILLER, Samuel Freeman (1816-1899), American jurist. See **SUPREME COURT**: 1887-1914.

MILLER, William (1782-1849), American religious leader. See **ADVENTISTS**.

MILLERAND, Alexandre (1859-), French statesman. Entered chamber of deputies, as a radical Socialist, 1885; leader of the party of the extreme left; minister of commerce, 1899-1902; minister of public works, 1900-1910; minister of war, 1912-1913; 1914-1915; commissioner general of the republics of Alsace-Lorraine, 1919-1920; president of the council (premier) and minister of foreign affairs, January-September, 1920; elected president of France, September, 1920. See **FRANCE**: 1899 (February-June); 1914 (August-September); 1920 (January); 1920 (September).

MILLET, Jean François (1814-1875), French painter. See **PAINTING**: Europe (10th century).

MILLIGAN CASE.—A man by the name of Milligan was arrested at his home in Indiana in 1864 by the military commander of that district, charged with conspiracy against the United States, tried by a military commission and sentenced to be hanged. He applied for a civil trial by a Federal court, and his appeal was carried to the United States Supreme Court. It was decided that there could not be a substitution of the military for the civil court in a district or state in which the civil courts had not been suspended, provided the accused were not a member of the military or naval forces of the United States. Four of the justices dissented from the decision. See **WAR POWERS OF THE UNITED STATES**: Martial law.

MILLIKEN, Carl Elias (1877-), governor of Maine, 1917-1921. See **MAINE**: 1911-1919.

MILLIONS FOR DEFENSE, BUT NOT ONE CENT FOR TRIBUTE. See **U.S.A.**: 1707-1799.

MILLS, Samuel John (1783-1818), American missionary. See **LIBERIA**: Early history.

MILLS TARIFF BILL (1888). See **TARIFF**: 1887-1888.

MILNE, Sir George Francis (1866-), British general. Served in the Sudan, 1898; on the staff in South Africa through the Boer War, 1899-1902; commander of British in the Salonika campaign, 1915-1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: V. Balkan theater: e; 1918: V. Balkan theater: c; e, 9.

MILNER, Alfred, 1st Viscount (1854-), British statesman. Governor of Cape of Good Hope, 1897-1901; high commissioner for Africa, 1897-1905 (see **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF**: 1897: 1899 [May-June]; 1901 [February-April]); governor of Transvaal and Orange River Colony, 1901-1905; became member of war cabinet without portfolio, 1916; became secretary of state for war, and for the colonies, 1918; member of commission appointed to prepare terms of the mandates of former German and Turkish territory under the treaties of Versailles and Sèvres, 1919; leader of British mission to Egypt, 1919-1920; resigned colonial secretaryship, February, 1921.

Representative at peace conference. See TREATY OF VERSAILLES: Conditions of peace; WORLD WAR: 1918: XI. End of the war: a, 1.

Report on affairs in Egypt. See EGYPT: 1920; 1921: Lord Milner's report.

MILNER-ZAGLUL AGREEMENT. See EGYPT: 1920.

MILOSH OBRENOVICH I (1780-1860), prince of Serbia, 1817-1860. See SERBIA: 1804-1817; 1817-1875.

MILOVANOVITCH, Milovan (1863-1912), Serbian statesman. See BALKAN STATES: 1912: Balkan League.

MILTIADES (died c. 488 B.C.), Athenian statesman and general. See GREECE: B.C. 490.

MILTITZ, Karl von (c. 1480-1529), German ecclesiastic. See PAPACY: 1517-1521.

MILTON, John (1608-1674), English poet. Latin secretary to the Council of State, 1640-1659. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1530-1660; EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century; Milton; CENSORSHIP: England; PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1644.

MILUKOV, Paul Nikolayevich. See MILUKOV, PAUL NIKOLAYEVICH.

MILVIAN BRIDGE, Battles of. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 78-68; Empire: 323.

MILWAUKEE, largest city in Wisconsin, on the western shore of Lake Michigan. The population in 1920 was 457,147. See WISCONSIN: 1832-1920; SOCIALISM: 1901-1913.

MILWAUKEE-REFRIGERATOR TRANSIT CASE (1906). See TRUSTS: United States: 1901-1906.

MIME. See DRAMA: Roman.

MIMS, Fort, thirty-five miles north of Mobile, Alabama. In 1813 it was the scene of an Indian massacre. See U.S.A.: 1813-1814 (August-April).

MINÆAN KINGDOM. See ARABIA: Sabæans.

MINAMOTO, one of the great Japanese families, which became dominant about 1185 in the person of Yoritomo, the first of the Shoguns. See JAPAN: 1150-1190.

MINCIO, Battle of the. See ITALY: 1814.

MINDANAO, island in the Philippine group. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Geographical features; 1521; 1600-1663; also Map.

MINDARUS (d. 410 B.C.), Greek admiral; served in the Peloponnesian War. See GREECE: B.C. 411-407.

MINDEN, Battle of. See GERMANY: 1759 (April-August).

MINDON (d. 1878), king of Burma, 1852-1878. See BURMA: 1824-1886.

MINDORO, island in the Philippine group. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Geographical features; also Map.

MINE RUN, Battles of (1863, 1864). See U.S.A.: 1863 (July-November: Virginia); 1864 (May: Virginia); Grant's movement on Richmond.

MINERS FEDERATION. See INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD: Recent tendencies; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1913-1921.

MINERS' HOMES. See HOUSING: United States: Industrial housing.

MINERS' PROVIDENT FUNDS, Germany. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Germany: 1845-1876.

MINER'S SAFETY LAMP. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric lighting: 1841-1921.

MINERS' STRIKES. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1877-1911; 1906-1913; 1910-1914; 1914-1915; 1915: South Wales coal strike; 1917; 1919: Bituminous coal strike; 1919: French metal trades strike; 1920-1922: Warfare in West Virginia; 1921-1922: Great Britain; 1922: South Africa; 1922: Nation wide coal strike.

MINERS' UNION, England, organized in 1863. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1843-1894.

MINERVA, Latin name for the Greek goddess Athena. See MYTHOLOGY: Grecian; Germanic: Identification of Germanic Gods, etc.

MINES, Bureau of. See INTERIOR, DEPARTMENT OF THE, UNITED STATES.

MINES, Military. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: d, 1.

MINES, Submarine. See SUBMARINES: 1912-1918; WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: c, 4.

MINES REGULATION ACT, England (1911). See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1903-1920.

MING DYNASTY, ruling dynasty in China, 1368-1644. See CHINA: 1294-1736.

MINGO COUNTY, West Virginia. It was the scene of a coal strike, 1920-1922. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1920-1922: Warfare in West Virginia; WEST VIRGINIA: 1920-1921.

MINGOES.—"The name of Mingo, or Mengwe, by which the Iroquois were known to the Delawares and the other southern Algonkins, is said to be a contraction of the Lenape word 'Mahongwi,' meaning the 'People of the Springs.' The Iroquois possessed the head-waters of the rivers which flowed through the country of the Delawares."—H. Hale, *Iroquois book of rites, appendix, note A*.

MINGOLSHEIM, Battle of (1622). See GERMANY: 1621-1623.

MINGRELIA, government in Transcaucasia, Russia. See CAUCASUS: 1801-1877.

MINIMALIST, political party in Russia. See BOLSHEVIKI: Origin of name.

MINIMS.—"Of the orders which arose in the 15th century, the most remarkable was that of Eremites [Hermits] of St. Francis, or Minims, founded . . . by St. Francis of Paola, and approved by Sixtus IV in 1474." St. Francis, a Minorite friar of Calabria, was one of the devotees whom Louis XI of France gathered about himself during his last days, in the hope that their intercessions might prolong his life. To propitiate him, Louis "founded convents at Plessis and at Amboise for the new religious society, the members of which, not content with the name of Minorites, desired to signify their profession of utter insignificance by styling themselves Minims."—J. C. Robertson, *History of the Christian church, v. 8, pp. 369, 224*.

MINIMUM WAGE LEGISLATION. See LABOR REMUNERATION: 1894-1922; 1910-1920; MASSACHUSETTS: 1922; OREGON: 1921-1923; WISCONSIN: 1912-1917.

MINING: Africa. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Labor problems; also, Lack of railway and industrial development.

Alaska. See ALASKA: 1904-1911; 1910-1920.

Australia. See AUSTRALIA: 1839-1855; SOUTH AUSTRALIA: 1840-1862.

Bolivia. See BOLIVIA: 1895-1919.

Chile. See CHILE: 1833-1884; 1909-1910.

China. See CHINA: Agriculture.

England. See ENGLAND: Area.

Gaul, Ancient. See COMMERCE: Ancient: 200-600.

Greece, Ancient. See GREECE: B.C. 4th century: Economic conditions.

Newfoundland. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1893-1895.

Poland. See POLAND: 1921: First year of peace. United States. See CALIFORNIA: 1848-1849; COLORADO: 1915; IDAHO: 1870-1901; ILLINOIS: 1910; MINNESOTA: 1884-1916; MONTANA: 1852-1864; 1890-1900; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RE-

SOURCES: United States: 1910-1912; NEVADA: 1846-1864; 1864-1913; U. S. A.: Economic map.

See also LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS.

MINING COURTS, England. See ENGLAND: 1915; Colliery recruiting courts.

MINISTRY, or Ministerial government. See CABINET.

MINNE, medieval associations. See GUILDS OF FLANDERS.

MINNEAPOLIS, largest city in the state of Minnesota, on the Mississippi at the Falls of St. Anthony. It is the largest flour and lumber market in the world. In 1920 the population was 380,582. The falls and site of the city came into the possession of the United States under the treaty made by Lieutenant Zebulon Pike with the Sioux Indians in 1807.

1819.—Fort Snelling built. See MINNESOTA: 1805-1867.

1856-1872.—Growth.—Minneapolis was incorporated as a town in 1856, as a city in 1867. "The rapid development of a great milling centre at the Falls of St. Anthony opened a market for the spring wheat, which could not otherwise have been grown. The Minnesota crop of fifteen million of bushels in 1870 was to be doubled in 1875. The patent milling process gave to Minneapolis an advantage soon apparent in the multiplication not only of flour mills, but of industries ancillary thereto. The manufacture of lumber out of logs from the pineries of the upper Mississippi and its tributaries, which had been her leading industry, now took a second but still important place. The city of Saint Anthony's Falls had suffered by the migration of many of her most capable men of affairs to 'the west side,' where Minneapolis sprang into being as by magic when the military reservation was reduced in the middle of the fifties. The new city soon outstripped the old in population, in manufacturing, and in merchandizing. At length it became apparent that there was no propriety in the maintenance of separate municipal organizations at the falls. By virtue of an act of the legislature, approved February 28, 1872, the older city lost its name and became the east division of Minneapolis, which thus enlarged might some day become the rival of Minnesota's capital city in wealth and numbers, if not in political importance."—W. W. Folwell, *Minnesota, the north star state*, p. 275.

1879-1917.—Importance of water power.—The city owes its growth and prosperity largely to the water power supplied by the falls which has been greatly increased in volume by dams built in 1879 and 1807, and has been still further increased by the Mississippi dam built by the Federal government, and opened in 1917.

1917-1919.—Socialist mayor.—Centralized administration.—In 1917, Minneapolis had a socialist mayor—Van Lear—who was elected on a non-partisan ticket. The support of public opinion was greatly weakened, however, by the mayor's pacifism. "On July 1, 1919, a law of the Minnesota legislature, applicable to Minneapolis, and providing for the establishment of a board of public welfare, in which is centralized the administration of all health, charitable and correctional affairs, went into effect. The board consists of seven members, one of whom is the mayor, *ex officio*. Four are appointed by the mayor and confirmed by the council; the other two are aldermen chosen by the council. The mayor's appointees serve for four years, one appointed annually. The council representatives are elected biennially. All serve without pay."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*, p. 78.

1920-1922.—Charter revision.—"In Minneapolis, the voters adopted a new charter, November, 1920, which, though not changing the previously existing form of government, gives to the voters of the city the power to change that form in the future without the sanction of the state legislature. A well planned movement has been set on foot to utilize this power and adopt a new charter changing the form of government. A large citizens' committee, representing over two hundred civic organizations, has been formed to conduct a campaign of investigation and education for the new charter."—G. L. Schramm, *Notes on municipal affairs (American Political Science Review, Feb., 1922, p. 89)*.

1921.—Poor relief. See CHARITIES: United States: 1921.

See also CITY PLANNING: United States: Progress, etc.

MINNESINGERS, German lyric poets in medieval times. See MUSIC: Medieval; 12th century.

MINNESOTA: Location.—Derivation of name.—Minnesota, nicknamed the "Gopher," or "North Star" state, is one of the north central states of the union. It is bounded on the north by the Canadian provinces of Ontario and Manitoba; east by Lake Superior and Wisconsin; south by Iowa; and on the west by the Dakotas. It has an area of 84,682 square miles of which 3,824 square miles are water, exclusive of Lake Superior; and a population, 1920, of 2,387,125. "During a hundred and sixty years, up to the time of the organization of Minnesota Territory, in 1849, the name St. Pierre, or St. Peter, had been generally applied to this river [Minnesota] by French and English explorers and writers. The aboriginal Sioux name 'Minnesota' means sky-tinted water (Minne, water, and sota, somewhat clouded). . . . This name was proposed by General Sibley and by Hon. Morgan Martin, of Wisconsin in the years 1846 to 1848, as the name of the new Territory, thus following the example of Wisconsin in the adoption of the title of a large stream within its borders. During the next few years after the selection of the Territorial name Minnesota, it displaced the name St. Peter as applied in common usage by the white people to the river whose euphonious ancient Dakota title will continue to be borne by the river and the State probably long after the Dakota language shall cease to be spoken."—W. Upham, *Explorations and surveys of the Minnesota and Red rivers (Mississippi Valley Historical Society Proceedings, 1913-1914)*.

Resources.—Minnesota is largely an agricultural state. In 1920, it contained 178,478 farms with a total area of 30,221,758 acres of which 21,481,710 acres were improved land given over to the production of cereals. In 1921, the live-stock industry had a total of 6,844,011 head, and a wool-clip that amounted to 3,536,000 pounds. In its output of iron ore Minnesota far outranks all the other states and contributes considerably more than half of the iron ore produced and marketed in the United States. In 1921, the national forest area was 1,947,857 acres.—See also U. S. A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See SIOUAN FAMILY.

1652-1847.—First explorers.—Early trading ports.—Grant by France to Great Britain.—Cession to the United States by Great Britain.—Ordinance of 1787.—Territorial changes.—"Until a very few years ago it has been generally accepted as a fact that Louis Hennepin, a Franciscan priest of the Recollect Order, was the first white man who entered the present boundaries of Minnesota; but a recent discovery has developed

the fact that there has reposed in the archives of the Bodleian Library and British Museum for more than two hundred years manuscript accounts of voyages made as far back as 1652 by two Frenchmen, named respectively Radison and Groselliers, proving that they traveled among the North American Indians from the last named date to the year 1684, during which time they visited what is now Minnesota. It is also a well authenticated fact that Du Luth anticipated Hennepin at least one year, and visited Mille Lacs in 1679, and there, on the southwest side of the lake, found a large Sioux town, called Kathio, from which point he wrote to Frontenac, on the second day of July, 1679, that he had caused his majesty's arms to be planted in Kathio, where no Frenchman had ever been. [Du Luth also built a port on the north shore of Lake Superior.] Hennepin did not arrive until 1680. . . . It should be remembered that the French sovereignty over the Northwest ceased in 1763, when, by a treaty made in Versailles, between the French and the English, all the lands embraced in what is now Minnesota were ceded by the French to England, so [Jonathan] Carver came as an Englishman into English territory."—C. E. Flandrau, *History of Minnesota and tales of the frontier*, pp. 3, 9.—The first explorer of the Minnesota River was M. Le Sueur, who, in the autumn of 1700, sailed up the river to the mouth of the Blue Earth, near which he built a post, or fort, in which the winter was spent. In the spring of 1701, Le Sueur left the post [on Prairie island] in charge of thirteen men, and, taking with him a quantity of 'blue earth,' returned to the Mississippi, down which he floated to a French port on the Gulf of Mexico, whence he had set out in April, 1700. . . . Jonathan Carver, the first American explorer to visit the Northwest, was on his way up the Mississippi. He followed the river from the mouth of the Wisconsin to the mouth of the Elk, some distance above the Falls of St. Anthony, returned to the mouth of the Minnesota, which he ascended to the Cottonwood, where he spent the winter of 1766-67, among the Indians. In the early spring, Carver returned to the present site of St. Paul, accompanied by a large number of Indians, who treated him as a distinguished guest. Carver's journey was made more than fifty years before Ft. Snelling was built, and when the nearest English settlements were hundreds of miles away. . . . The first post on Minnesota soil was erected by Le Sueur in 1695. It stood on Isle Pelee, [an] . . . island in the Mississippi, not far above Lake Pepin. . . . Later, other posts were established by the French at convenient points, and the trade was extended over the vast region now included in Minnesota, and far beyond. . . . [Verendrye, who in 1731 began to traverse the streams and lakes of the northern boundary, was the founder of the fur trade in the northern part of Minnesota.] The fur trade was very profitable, and for many years the French held it in their own hands. But as early as 1761, when the French power in America was rapidly waning, the English began to secure the trade of the Northwest; and after the Treaty of Versailles in 1763, they came into possession of all the posts. . . . To the American Fur Company, organized by John Jacob Astor, in 1809, the Northwestern Company transferred its posts south of the Canada line. Thereafter, the trade in Minnesota passed into the hands of the American Company. In 1816, Congress passed a law excluding foreigners from the Indian trade; . . . [Minnesota] was included in Louisiana district in 1803 [see LOUISIANA: 1708-1803], in Louisiana territory in 1805, in Missouri territory in 1812, in Michigan

territory in 1834, in Wisconsin territory in 1836, in Iowa territory in 1838. Minnesota east of the Mississippi became a part of Indiana territory in 1800, when that territory was created; a part of Michigan territory in 1805; a part of Illinois territory in 1809. When, in 1819, Illinois became a state with its present boundaries, this region again became a part of Michigan, under whose jurisdiction it remained until 1836, when Wisconsin territory was formed. . . . Although successively under the jurisdiction of the several territories named above, the whole region now included in Minnesota was without permanent civilized inhabitants, and no movement was made to institute local government until 1819, the year that the military post at Ft. Snelling was established. That year Minnesota, east of the Mississippi, then a part of Michigan, was organized as Crawford county. . . . In 1840 the legislature of Wisconsin created St. Croix county out of Crawford county, but the reorganization did not take place until 1847."—S. Niles, *History and civil government of Minnesota*, pp. 36-37, 46-48, 63. See WISCONSIN: 1805-1848.

1805-1867.—First Indian treaty.—Fort Snelling established.—Swiss settlements.—Later Indian treaties.—Immigration.—Fur trade.—"In 1805, the Government sent its first commissioner, Lieut. Zebulon M. Pike, to explore the Upper Mississippi; to deal with British traders, who were violating the laws of the United States; and to form alliances with the Indians. . . . He reached the mouth of the Minnesota late in September, and at once held a council [Sept. 23, 1805] with a large band of Sioux headed by Little Crow. In this council he acquired by treaty, for military uses by the United States a tract nine miles square, extending on both sides of the Mississippi from the Minnesota river to about a mile above the falls of St. Anthony. In 1817 this tract was again examined by Major Stephen H. Long, and in 1819 to 1823 a fort was established at the junction of the Minnesota with the Mississippi. It was called Fort St. Anthony by its first commandant, Lieut. Col. Henry Leavenworth, but was named Fort Snelling in 1824, by Gen. Winfield Scott. May 10, 1823, the first steam boat [the *Virginia*] came up the Mississippi to the fort. . . . In 1827, a party of Swiss . . . came to Ft. Snelling, where they were . . . allowed to settle on the 'Reservation.' . . . Here they opened farms, and having brought cattle with them, soon became prosperous farmers, the first in Minnesota. . . . Prior to the year 1837, not an acre of land in Minnesota was open to settlement. Save the military reservations, every foot of it belonged to the Indians. On the 20th of July of that year, Gov. Henry Dodge, of Wisconsin, made a treaty with the Chippewas at Ft. Snelling, whereby they ceded to the United States all the lands on the St. Croix River and its tributaries; and on the 29th of September following, Joel R. Poinsett made a treaty with a delegation of Sioux chiefs at Washington, by which they ceded to the United States all their lands east of the Mississippi, with all the islands in the same. . . . In 1851, important treaties were made with the Sioux and the Chippewas, whereby vast tracts of land came into possession of the United States. A year later, these treaties were ratified by the senate of the United States, with amendments which were accepted by the Indians, and on the 4th of February, 1853, President Fillmore issued his proclamation accepting, ratifying, and confirming the treaties as amended. The tracts of land acquired by the two treaties contained over 28,000,000 acres in Minnesota, and included all the possessions of the Sioux, save the two reservations on the Minnesota

river. . . Although the government lands thus obtained were not open to settlement until surveyed, immigration set in from all the Eastern states and from over the sea. . . The summers of 1854, '55, '56 saw the boats ascending the Mississippi crowded with passengers seeking homes and fortunes in the 'New England of the West,' while the chief roads into the territory were thronged with the covered wagons of pioneers, who built their claim shanties by lake and stream or by the sheltering grove, and, later, on the broad prairies, farther and farther from timber. . . With the influx of population came a period of town-site speculation, which was at its height in 1855, '56; but it was suddenly checked by the Ink-pa-du-ta massacre and the financial panic of 1857, which brought immigration to a stand still. . . A third treaty of 1851 . . . was not ratified at that time, but was renewed twelve years later, and on May 5, 1864, was confirmed by proclamation of President Lincoln."—S. Niles, *History of civil government of Minnesota*, pp. 38-39, 54-55, 58-60.—"The first legitimate business of the territory was the fur trade, and the carrying business resulting therefrom. . . When St. Paul became of some importance in 1849 the terminus and supply depot was removed to that point, and the trade rapidly increased in magnitude, and made St. Paul one of the largest fur markets in America, second only to St. Louis, the trade of which city consisted mostly of buffalo robes, which was always regarded as a distinct branch of the business, in contrast with that of fine furs. . . The extent and value of this trade can better be understood by a statement of the increase of the number of carts engaged in it between 1844 and 1858. In the first year mentioned six carts performed all the required service, and in 1858 six hundred carts came from Pembina to St. Paul. After the year 1858 the number of carts engaged in the traffic fell off, as a steamer had been put in operation on the Red river. . . In 1867, when the St. Paul & Pacific Railroad reached St. Cloud, the caravans of carts ceased their annual visits to St. Paul. St. Cloud then became the terminus of the traffic, until the increase of freight lines and the completion of the Northern Pacific Railroad to the Red river drove these most primitive of all transportation vehicles out of business. Another cause of the decrease in the fur trade was the imposition of a duty of twenty-five per cent on all dressed skins, which included buffalo robes, and from that time on robes that formerly came to St. Paul from the British possessions were diverted to Montreal. The extent and value of this trade to Minnesota, which was then in its infancy, can easily be judged by a brief statement of its growth. In 1844 it amounted to \$1,400 and in 1863 to \$250,000."—C. E. Flandrau, *History of Minnesota and tales of the frontier*, pp. 75-77.

1849.—Petition for organization of Minnesota Territory.—Act of Congress providing for territorial government.—First legislature.—With the admission of Wisconsin to statehood, in May, 1848, the part of her former territory west of the St. Croix river was left without a government, as was also the large area west of the Mississippi which had been formerly included in Iowa territory. Therefore a convention of the people of these areas, held in Stillwater on Aug. 20, 1848, petitioned Congress for the organization of a new territory, to be named Minnesota. "Congress, on March 3rd, 1849, passed an act providing for the territorial government of Minnesota. The Territory of Minnesota extended west beyond the boundary of the present State, and included parts

of both North and South Dakota. The promoters of the interests of Minnesota also desired and attained the incorporation of a part of the Northwest Territory with that larger tract of the Louisiana Purchase to form the new territory. . . . When Minnesota was organized as a territory in 1849, its boundaries were fixed in the Enabling Act and extended on the west to the Missouri river. The territory at that time was little more than a wilderness; and the Indian title to the lands upon the west bank of the Mississippi, from Iowa to lake Itasca, had not been extinguished."—S. M. Davis, *Admission of Minnesota to the Union (Minnesota Historical Society Collections, v. 9, p. 545)*.—"The officers of the territory were appointed by the President of the United States; and on the first day of June, Alexander Ramsey, of Pennsylvania, who was appointed governor, issued his proclamation declaring the territory organized with the following officers: Alexander Ramsey, governor; Charles K. Smith, secretary; Aaron Goodrich, chief justice; David Cooper and Bradley B. Meeker, associate justices; Joshua L. Taylor, marshal; Henry L. Moss, attorney-general. The Governor divided the territory into three judicial districts, and in the month of August court was held at Stillwater, at St. Anthony, and at Mendota. On the 7th of July the territory was divided into seven council districts, and an election by ballot was ordered to be held on the first day of August in the several districts, for the choice of nine councillors and eighteen representatives, to constitute a legislative assembly; also to choose one delegate to represent the people in congress. . . . On the 3d of September, 1849, the first legislature convened in the Central House, St. Paul. David Olmsted, of Long Prairie, was chosen president of the council, and Joseph W. Furber, of Cottage Grove, speaker of the house."—S. Niles, *History and civil government of Minnesota*, pp. 64-65, 67.

1849-1894.—Railroad development.—"Between 1849 and 1858, the territorial legislature chartered no fewer than twenty-seven railroad companies. Congress gave immense tracts of land to regularly organized companies, and the territory prepared to add to these tracts a large portion of the land set aside by Congress for the benefit of the state, as soon as it should gain admission to the Union. But the hard times occasioned by the panic, and the delay in admission of the state, hindered action until 1858. . . . Ten sections of land for each mile of railroad [amounting to 5,000,000 acres] were allowed by Act of Congress and the territorial legislature, on March third and May twenty-second, 1857, respectively."—E. D. Parsons, *Story of Minnesota*, pp. 136-137.—"Immediately certain scheming companies sought to get control of this land, and during an extra session of the legislature an act was passed giving it to them; but it was soon discovered that the companies that obtained the lands had neither money nor credit to carry on the proposed work. To further their scheme, the companies sought additional aid, and the legislature of 1858 passed an act submitting to the people an amendment to the constitution, providing for a loan of the public credit, amounting to \$5,000,000 to be paid on the completion of a certain number of miles of road. Regardless of the warning of prominent citizens, the amendment was carried by an overwhelming majority. But the scheme proved an utter failure. After bonds to the amount of \$2,275,000 had been issued, the state had not a mile of completed road, and only 250 miles of graded road. By foreclosure proceedings, settlement was, by an act of the legislature, submitted to a vote of the people, but it was voted down by

a large majority."—S. Niles, *History and civil government of Minnesota*, pp. 72-73.—"In 1860 Governor Ramsey declared the grants and privileges of the companies forfeited, and despite a court order offered them for sale. The state bid them in for one thousand dollars, and found itself with a few miles of grade and a heavy obligation of bonds. . . . The period from 1880 to 1890 was one of great activity, and 2,310 miles of road were put in operation. On the 30th of June, 1894, Minnesota had 5,912.42 miles of completed railroad. Of 16,111,001 acres of land given to our railroads, 12,151,527 acres were given by the general government, and 3,959,474 acres by the state. Of this vast amount, 10,216,000 acres have been patented by the state to railroads within its borders."—*Ibid.*, pp. 73-74.

1849-1899.—Establishment of school system.—University enactment.—School and traveling libraries.—"On the first day of November, 1849, the last day of the session, an act to establish and maintain common schools was passed and became a law. . . . [In 1881] an act for the encouragement of higher education was passed, and the city high school became a state high school with state aid. . . . From 1862 to 1867 the secretary of state was *ex-officio* superintendent. The legislature of 1867 created the office of state superintendent, and, since that date, we have had a department of public instruction. In 1893 provision was made for the appointment of a state inspector of high schools, and two years later for an inspector of graded schools, making the system of school supervision complete for all grades of public schools. . . . The organic act of the territory, and also the act authorizing the formation of a state government, set apart sections 16 and 36 in every township, about 3,000,000 acres in all, for the support of public schools. The constitution of the state provides for the sale of these lands and for the safe investment of the funds arising therefrom."—S. Niles, *History and civil government of Minnesota*, pp. 85, 86, 91.—"The University is the crown of the entire school system. It was established by legislative enactment as early as 1851, but was re-organized in 1860, 1864, and 1868. In the first year mentioned, Congress granted to the Territory two townships of land for the use and support of a university. A school was organized in 1851, which was continued until 1854; two years later the title passed out of the hands of the regents. It was in 1854 that the present site was secured. The old stone building was completed in 1858, but the vicissitudes of the University were so great that finally, in 1864, the legislature appointed a committee, consisting of John S. Pillsbury, John Nichols, and O. C. Merriman, to pay the debts and sell the building and lands. Through the tact and energy of these men the University was saved. . . . The act of 1868 created a governing body of nine regents and established five collegiate departments. Dr. William W. Folwell was chosen president in 1860. . . . The crowning act of the legislature in rounding out and completing the educational system of the State was the creation of travelling libraries. By an act passed in 1899 a commission of five persons was created, consisting of the president of the University, the superintendent of public instruction, the secretary of the Minnesota Historical Society, and two members appointed by the governor for six years. The board is to buy books and provide for their circulation throughout the State. The legislature appropriated \$5000 annually for this purpose. It will thus be seen that Minnesota has a remarkably well-developed system of public education."—F. L. McVey, *Government of Minnesota*, pp. 141, 156-157.

1854-1855.—Genesis of Republican party in Minnesota.—"The demand for the organization of a new anti-slavery party following the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill in May, 1854, was most urgent in the region of the old northwest. . . . Minnesota was slow in joining the movement. Settlers were pouring into the territory in large numbers, and people were too much occupied in establishing themselves in their new homes to evince much concern over national politics. The majority of the voters belonged to the Democratic Party, but in the territorial elections the various elements divided on the basis of local or personal rather than national issues. On July 4, 1854, a small group of men in and around St. Anthony, who called themselves 'friends of freedom,' and who had been prominently affiliated with the Democratic and Whig parties, met informally at the schoolhouse. . . . A territorial committee . . . was appointed to call a meeting, at such time and place as should seem proper, of the people of Minnesota who were opposed to the further extension of slavery and who were likewise resolved to get rid of the corruption existing in territorial and national politics by the creation of a new political party. Several months elapsed before the committee took any action in the matter. It was not until March 1, 1855, that the first printed notice of a 'Republican convention' to be held at St. Anthony, March 29 and 30, appeared. . . . The convention approved a set of fourteen resolutions embodying the principles of the Territorial Republican Party, authorized the issuance of an address to the people, and appointed a territorial central committee of seven to call a convention at St. Paul which should perfect a permanent organization of the party and nominate a delegate to Congress. . . . The date was set for 'Wednesday, the 25th of July next.' . . . Delegates to the convention to the number of 123 were selected, but only 94 were in attendance at the sessions on July 25. . . . The platform adopted reaffirmed the principles laid down by the St. Anthony convention, and pledged the party to the enactment of a prohibitory liquor statute."—Minnesota Historical Society, *History Bulletin*, v. 2, pp. 24-26.

1856-1862.—Admission as state.—Beginning of state government.—Ramsey, war governor.—"On December 24th, 1856, there was a bill introduced into Congress by Henry M. Rice, delegate from the Territory of Minnesota, authorizing the people of that territory to form a constitution. The bill was referred to the Committee on Territory, of which Galusha A. Grow of Pennsylvania was chairman. A substitute bill which afterwards became the Enabling Act, defined the boundaries of the proposed state as they now exist. This act changed the boundaries somewhat from those provided by the bill of Mr. Rice. . . . The bill was brought to vote with very little debate, and was passed by 97 in favor to 75 against it. In the Senate the debate was more prolonged. . . . It is worthy of notice that the principles laid down in the Ordinance of 1787 dominated all of the state papers relating to the admission of Minnesota to the Union. The provisions of that ordinance are clearly to be found in the organic act for the establishment of the territorial government, passed March 3rd, 1849, as also in the act authorizing the state government, passed February 26th, 1857, and finally they were embodied in the constitution of the state itself. . . . The main articles of the Ordinance of 1787 . . . [are] article one, referring to religious belief; article two, forming the bill of rights of the people; and article three, relating to education and good government. It is also noteworthy that these same provisions,

which related to all the Northwest Territory under the Ordinance of 1787, have passed over to, and have been dominant in, the constitutions and governments of almost all the states that have been carved out of the Louisiana Purchase. . . . [Improving the] enduring character of the principles laid down in the ordinance itself. . . . Thus the Ordinance of 1787 became a protecting aegis which extended its authority and power far beyond the limits to which it originally applied. This is clearly seen in the state of Minnesota, which formed a connecting link binding parts of the two great cessions into a single commonwealth; but, if further proof were required, it would be discovered in the constitutions of nearly every state between the Mississippi and the Pacific."—S. M. Davis, *Admission of Minnesota to the Union* (*Minnesota Historical Society Collections*, v. 9, pp. 546-548).—"The enabling act which permitted the framing of a state constitution for Minnesota also provided for the election of officers for the prospective state. Accordingly, when the constitution was ratified, October 13, 1857, a general election was held throughout the state. The candidates for governor were Henry H. Sibley, who was supported by the Democrats, and Alexander Ramsey, who led the forces of the newly organized Republican party. The contest was very close, and . . . the victory of the Democrats was finally conceded. . . . It was expected that Congress would admit Minnesota to statehood soon after its sessions opened in December, so the members elected to the state legislature assembled in St. Paul on December 2, 1857, and proceeded to organize. [Minnesota was admitted as a state May 11, 1858.] . . . Governor Sibley's administration was one of steady, conscientious effort for organization and adjustment, but it was somewhat overshadowed by the financial troubles of the times. . . . In the campaign of 1859, Alexander Ramsey again headed the Republican ticket and defeated his Democratic opponent, George L. Becker, by a decisive majority. No other governor in the history of the state has contributed so much to the upbuilding of her institutions and finances. . . . During his second year as governor, civil warfare spread its menace through the land and Alexander Ramsey thus became Minnesota's 'war governor.' . . . In the elections of 1862, the people of Minnesota gave proof of their confidence in Governor Ramsey by electing him for a second term. Within a few months, the state legislature chose him as United States senator, a position previously held by Henry M. Rice. Henry A. Swift, the lieutenant-governor, took Mr. Ramsey's place as chief executive."—M. V. Carney, *Minnesota, the star of the north*, pp. 213-215.

1856-1872.—Rise of Minneapolis. See MINNEAPOLIS: 1856-1872.

1860-1880.—First export of grain.—Boom in flour making.—"The manufacture of flour received a mighty impulse in the later seventies, by the introduction of the 'middlings purifier' and the 'rolls.' In the earlier days much of the good of the wheat had gone to make an inferior flour. . . . In 1860 a Frenchman, N. La Croix, . . . invented a bolting process that saved this value to the flour. He was known as 'the shaking miller.' In 1870 he moved to Minneapolis and gave the benefit of his idea to George H. Christian, who installed the shakers in the mills which he controlled. The result was a boom in flour making and in wheat growing; in the latter, because the new process made it possible to produce as good flour from spring wheat as from winter wheat. Then came the roller process as a substitute for grinding stones, and the trade was still more stimulated, until in

1876 the prices of the so-called patent flour were given in the Chicago reports, and in 1879 the exportation of Minnesota flour, was begun. . . . From 1880 on, the production of flour rapidly increased, mills springing up in villages all over the state; and Minneapolis soon doubled her output."—E. D. Parsons, *Story of Minnesota*, pp. 231-233.

ALSO IN: W. W. Folwell, *Minnesota, the north star state*, p. 275.

1861-1865.—Part played in Civil War.—"Governor Alexander Ramsey was in Washington on April 14, 1861, the day the Confederate colors were flown over the ruins of Fort Sumter in Charleston harbor. . . . Early that Sunday morning he hastened to the War Department to make a tender of one thousand Minnesota men for the national cause. The offer was put in writing at the request of Secretary Cameron. . . . Minnesota's tender of a regiment was doubtless the first recorded. It was so promptly accepted that on the next day Governor Ramsey could so telegraph to St. Paul. . . . The First Minnesota was the only one which served its whole term east of the Alleghanies. The Fourth and Eighth reached salt water in the last months of the war. All the other Minnesota troops remained in the West. . . . The whole number of men furnished by Minnesota was 22,016."—W. W. Folwell, *Minnesota, the north star state*, p. 178.

1862-1864.—Great Sioux outbreak. See U. S. A.: 1862-1864.

1862-1876.—Homestead entries.—Panic of 1873.—Grasshopper plague.—"The homestead act of 1862 contributed not a little to the extension of settlements in the state. . . . In the three years following, 9520 homestead entries were made in Minnesota, thirty-six per cent. of the whole number."—W. W. Folwell, *Minnesota, the north star state*, pp. 252, 254.—"In 1864 the legislature provided for further settlement of the state, by making the secretary of state, commissioner of immigration; by organizing a committee in each county to assist him; and by appropriating at various times \$20,000 for advertisements. Several times the legislature went to the aid of the settlers. In 1868 it gave the destitute people of the southwest counties \$8000; in 1869 the sum of \$5000 was appropriated for the flood victims of the Red River Valley."—E. D. Parsons, *Story of Minnesota*, p. 210.—"In 1873, came another financial crash, bringing public enterprises to a stand, checking the growth of all the towns, and greatly discouraging farmers, who had been active in the development of the country. In the midst of the general gloom came the Rocky Mountain locusts (1873-1876). Of this visitation, Governor Davis spoke as follows: 'The whole country west of Blue Earth county and south of the Minnesota river was laid waste. The agents of destruction moved in clouds which darkened the sun and descended like rain upon the soil. The growth of thousands of acres would be destroyed within a few hours, and the locusts would then rise and seek new fields. The regions laid waste were inhabited by people who generally had no resources except from their crops, and though men, women, and children turned out to fight the pests, the counties and the state itself, through its legislature, were obliged to come to the relief of the stricken farmers.'"—S. Niles, *History and civil government of Minnesota*, p. 61.

1868.—Granger movement.—"One of the great forces which have stimulated agricultural education as well as economic discussion and ultimate legislative action in American farming circles, was

the widely extended and long enduring organization known as the Patrons of Husbandry—or more popularly as the 'Granger Movement.' This was especially and distinctly of Minnesota origin. The idea of a national agricultural order originated with Mr. Oliver H. Kelly, a native of Boston, who moved to Minnesota in 1849. . . . The first active grange in Minnesota was the North Star Grange, which was organized in St. Paul, September 2, 1868. . . . The farmers of Minnesota were at this time far more interested in protection against middlemen, corporations and monopolies than in any plan for social or educational improvement. They had lost interest in the old agricultural societies and were ready for something new. The 'Farmers' Union,' published in Minneapolis by Mr. C. A. Nimmo, largely in the interest of a mutual fire insurance company of which Mr. Nimmo was the manager, pronounced Kelly's plan of organization the most perfect that had ever been proposed and recommended it heartily to the farmers of the state. One effective argument for organization was the cooperative feature, whereby farmers would be enabled to purchase machinery, nursery stock, groceries, and other necessities without the expensive services of retailers and commission men. The success in the field of insurance was pointed out as a proof of the practicability of cooperation and the farmers were urged to apply this principle in other fields. . . . By February 20, 1869, six new granges had been added to the list, and on February 23, 1869, the Minnesota State Grange was duly organized. When the Minnesota State Grange met in June, 1870, there were sixty-six subordinate granges in the United States, of which fifty were in Minnesota. . . . These were the modest beginnings of a movement which had a tremendous and an enduring influence on the educational interests, the economic conditions, the agricultural development, the legislation and the jurisprudence of the country. . . . In most of its early aspects, Minnesota was the storm-center, and its political manifestations were noteworthy. It made and unmade politicians. . . . [In the political campaign of 1875, the Granger influence controlled the dominant Republican majority, though by a narrow margin.] From 1873 forward for a series of years, the Patrons of Husbandry continued to flourish as an order, to accomplish a great work in the education of the farming classes, and to exercise a potent influence on national affairs, political as well as economic."—H. A. Castle, *Minnesota: Its story and biography*, pp. 302-304.—See also U. S. A.: 1866-1877.

ALSO IN: E. V. Robinson, *Early economic conditions and the development of agriculture in Minnesota*.

1877-1888.—Progressive legislation.—In 1877, the constitution was amended by providing for biennial instead of annual sessions of the legislature. "The legislature of 1883 enlarged the powers of the state board of health. . . . It had been the policy of the state to intrust the care of her penal and charitable institutions to separate boards of citizens serving without pay. To secure uniformity of administration and to enable these separate bodies to profit from one another's experiences, a state board of charities and corrections was authorized by law in 1883. . . . Following Governor Hubbard's earnest advice, the legislature of 1885 established 'The State Public School' for neglected children, which under wise management by different officials has rescued from lives of crime or dependence many hundreds of homeless waifs. The reformatory for youthful de-

linquents and the Soldiers' Home, commended by him to the legislature, were established under the succeeding administration. . . . Another measure successfully pressed upon the legislature by Governor Hubbard was that of public state grain inspection. The precarious and conflicting grades fixed by individual and associated buyers were the source of incessant dissatisfaction and complaint. Chapter 144 of the General Laws of Minnesota, 1885, established that system of inspection and grading since known and approved on both sides of the Atlantic. A warehouse receipt for a certain quantity of grain of a certain Minnesota grade became a definite asset. Because grain inspection necessarily involved the regulation and control of elevators, which in turn were closely related to railroads, the law placed the control of the system in the hands of the Board of Railroad Commissioners. The title of the board was changed to Board of Railroad and Warehouse Commissioners, and its powers were much extended and fortified. Annual sessions of the legislature had ceased with that of 1879, but elections continued to be held annually till 1886, from which year all United States, state, and county officers have been elected in the even-numbered years. All state and county terms of office begin on January 1; the fiscal year begins August 1."—W. W. Folwell, *Minnesota, the north star state*, pp. 334-337.—In 1888, the state agricultural experiment station, and the school of agriculture were reorganized.

1883-1890.—Amendments to state constitution.—The Constitution of 1857 remained unamended until 1883 when several amendments were passed in a period of a few years. "They may be enumerated:—1. 1883, an amendment fixing January 1 as the beginning of the official year of the state, on which day all officers chosen at the previous election enter upon their duties. 2. 1886, an amendment authorizing loans upon interest from the permanent school fund of the state to counties and school districts, to be used in the erection of county and school buildings. . . . 3. Of the same year, an amendment forbidding the enactment of any special law in all cases where a general law can be made applicable, and specifically inhibiting special legislation in fifteen cases. . . . 4. 1888, an amendment limiting the sessions of the legislature to ninety legislative days, and forbidding the introduction of any new bill during the last twenty days, unless upon recommendation of the governor in a special message. 5. Of the same year, an amendment declaring any combination to monopolize markets for food products, or to interfere with the freedom of such markets, to be a criminal conspiracy, punishable as the legislature may provide. . . . 6. 1890, an amendment authorizing the legislature to provide that an agreement of ten jurors in a civil action shall be a sufficient verdict."—W. W. Folwell, *Minnesota, the north star state*, pp. 345-346.

1884-1916.—Development of iron industry.—Transportation.—"Reports concerning the existence of iron ore in northeastern Minnesota had been spread about in a casual way for several years by Indians, hunters, and lumbermen, before anyone became interested enough to try to work the deposits. . . . About 1867, great excitement was roused. . . . by reports of discoveries of gold in the neighborhood of Gunflint Lake. Hundreds of amateur prospectors set out to search for the precious metal, but they spent their time and money without results. The excitement was soon quieted, and the disappointed gold-seekers turned to other lines of work. There was one man,

however, who did not lose interest in the forbidding wilderness of northern Minnesota. This was George R. Stuntz of Duluth. He returned from his gold expedition, taking to his employer some specimens of iron ore from the region near the present town of Tower. He was certain that untold wealth lay hidden in the northern woods and so insistent was he that finally he persuaded his employer, George C. Stone, to organize a company to begin mining operations. It was necessary to secure eastern capital, and this was furnished mainly by Charlemagne Tower, a lawyer and capitalist of Philadelphia. Before Mr. Tower invested his money, however, he sent a geologist to make an examination of the region. The report sent to him assured him that it was 'safe to predict the development there of an iron district of immense value and importance.' . . . A mining company was soon organized, and a force of men was sent into the wilderness to begin operations. Work was begun on the Vermilion Range, more than a hundred miles from Duluth. The Soudan Mine near Soudan was the first mine opened. . . . Mr. Stone was elected to the state legislature and was able to persuade the body to give a liberal grant of state lands to aid in constructing the Duluth and Iron Range Railroad from Two Harbors to Lake Vermilion. This road was finished in 1884 and the first shipment of ore was made in that year. . . . The Mountain Iron Mine was discovered late in 1890. . . . In quick succession other bodies of ore were discovered, showing such an enormous tonnage that the explorers feared the price of ore would be lowered to such an extent that there would be no profit in working the deposits. In 1892, railroad connection with Duluth was established. In that year about 4,000 tons of ore were shipped. Within a few years, careful explorations were made over all the land in the region of the Mesabi Range. . . . The deposits have an average depth of 200 feet, but in some places are 500 feet deep. Their width varies from one-half mile to two miles. In most parts of the range these deposits lie under an 'overburden' or covering of gravel and boulders which is, on the average, about 50 feet deep. . . . The most recent development of iron mining in Minnesota has been on the Cuyuna Range, about one hundred miles southwest of Duluth. Its area has not yet been fully determined, but it is believed to extend across Crow Wing County on the southwest. Mines have been opened at Crosby, Ironton, and Brainerd, the first shipment being made in 1911. . . . Nowhere else in the world are there such extensive and valuable deposits of iron ore as in Minnesota. No state or nation equals our commonwealth in the annual production of this most useful metal, and about five-eighths of the total output of iron ore in the United States is mined here. Shipments for the season of 1916 approximated 45,000,000 tons, thus bringing the total output of the state, since the opening of the first mines, up to more than 450,000,000 tons. . . . Recent improvements in the process of smelting have reduced the amount of coal needed to smelt a given quantity of ore, and the steady increase of population and industry in the western parts of the United States and Canada make it desirable to manufacture steel as closely as possible to these new markets. The United States Steel Corporation at once took advantage of these conditions and erected a \$20,000,000 plant just west of Duluth, where, in 1915, the manufactures of steel was begun."—M. V. Carney, *Minnesota, the star of the north*, pp. 206-208, 210-211.—"An act of Congress of 1873 expressly excepted Minnesota

from the operation of the mining laws of the United States, leaving all her mineral lands open to settlement or purchase in legal subdivisions, like agricultural or timbered lands, thus virtually giving to lucky speculators these priceless ore deposits."—W. W. Folwell, *Minnesota, the north star state*, p. 360.—"In the northern part of the state are many sections of land which have been reserved as school or swamp lands and which are still in the possession of the state. In 1889 the legislature provided for the leasing, for a period of fifty years, of all such lands which contained minerals. A royalty or tax of twenty-five cents for every ton of ore taken from the mines is paid to the state by mining corporations which have leased them. The school fund is thus increased each year by several hundreds of thousands of dollars."—M. V. Carney, *Minnesota, the star of the north*, p. 211.—"Transportation is the key to modern industrial supremacy. To the eastward this Minnesota country has the Great Lakes waterway through the Soo Canal. South to the great valley flows the Mississippi River. For deepening and improving the navigable channel of the Mississippi from the Gulf to the 'Twin Cities,' the Government is now [1914] spending \$30,000,000. A three-million-dollar lock and dam is being completed between St. Paul and Minneapolis; and both cities are voting funds for municipal docks and wharves. But between the head of Lake Superior and the Mississippi at St. Paul there is no water route. To connect the two is the problem. The Minnesota prophets point to the St. Croix River, which rises on the ranges within twenty miles of Duluth-Superior harbor and flows into the Mississippi a few miles below Minneapolis. The United States Government's engineers report that the most feasible route for uniting Lake Superior with the Mississippi is via the canalized St. Croix. . . . Plans for such canalization have been approved engineeringly feasible by three governmental preliminary surveys. . . . Through a state commission created by the legislature, Minnesota is now presenting data to the Federal Government, showing a volume of available coal, grain, flour, oil cake, lumber, iron, and steel tonnage, that would tax the capacity of any canal the Government might care to build, without regard to the through business between the lakes and the Gulf, or between New York and the Mississippi Valley, via the lakes and the Erie Barge Canal. Whether this dream come true or not, the building of the new steel plant and the coal companies' new docks at Duluth are the signs of the beginning of an industrial era in the iron country."—F. N. Stacey, *Pittsburg moving west* (*World's Work*, Jan., 1914).

ALSO IN: W. H. Emmons, *Iron ores of Minnesota* (*Journal of Geography*, Feb., 1916).

1889.—Railroad Rate Case. See SUPREME COURT: 1882-1808.

1889-1905.—Legislation.—Australian ballot.—Primary law.—"The Australian ballot system, established in 1889 for cities of 10,000 inhabitants or more, extended to operate throughout the state in 1891, was recodified in 1893. The legislature of 1890 passed a law providing for 'primary elections' to replace nominations by party caucuses and conventions. The act is not operative in towns, villages, and small cities, and does not apply to state officers. . . . The legislature of 1890 created a state forestry board, which has already outlined a policy and begun the immense work of re-forestation despoiled areas. Another act, that of 1905, provides for a forest commissioner, and to that office has been appointed General C. C. An-

draws, who for many years has been the apostle of forest preservation and replanting in Minnesota."—W. W. Folwell, *Minnesota, the north star state*, pp. 342, 358, 360.—"By an act of Legislature of 1901 a Board of Control was created consisting of three members to be appointed by the Governor, whose duties are prescribed by law. It has general supervision over the State Hospitals and Asylums for the Insane, the School for Feeble Minded and Colony for Epileptics at Faribault, the State Training School, the State Reformatory and the State Prison, and financial supervision of the State Public School at Owatonna, of the School for the Blind and School for the Deaf at Faribault."—L. F. Hubbard and R. I. Holcombe, *Minnesota in three centuries*, v. 3, pp. 496-497.—"In 1903 the State Art Society was created by the legislature. Its chief business is giving exhibitions of paintings in various towns, to stimulate the love of the beautiful among all the people."—E. D. Parsons, *Story of Minnesota*, p. 287.—"The legislature of 1905 adopted a new codification of the general laws of the state, which had been prepared by a commission of which Daniel Fish, Esq., was the working member."—W. W. Folwell, *Minnesota, the north star state*, p. 344.—"Among the measures that have been won for the people, the primary law stands out prominently. Enacted in 1905, it provided first only for the nomination of legislative candidates; but subsequent amendments have made it apply to all state offices."—E. D. Parsons, *Story of Minnesota*, p. 281.

1891.—Creation of Itasca park.—Inter-state park.—"April 20, 1891, the Legislative act creating Itasca Park, the first distinctive State park, went into effect. The tract comprised 19,702 acres about the head and source of the Mississippi, and 8,823 acres of this area were owned by individuals. The government survey of the region embracing the park was made by General James H. Baker, in 1875. The real author of the scheme for Itasca Park was the late Jacob V. Brower, of St. Cloud, although the Minnesota Historical Society largely aided in its accomplishment, and the Legislature has made regular annual appropriations of \$5,000 for the general care and improvement of this splendid and picturesque resort. The creation of Itasca Park was a pioneer movement in Minnesota along the lines of forest preservation and the protections of streams. The State is following the lead of certain Eastern states in the matter of reforestry, but leading them in the preservation of the natural timber tracts. It is estimated that the amount of fine white pine timber in Itasca Park alone exceeds 40,000,000 feet. The second State park created in Minnesota, and which was the first inter-state park in the United States, is the Inter-State Park Dalles of the St. Croix, at St. Croix Falls, Wisconsin, and Taylor's Falls, Minnesota. This is an important historical locality."—L. F. Hubbard and R. I. Holcombe, *Minnesota in three centuries*, v. 3, pp. 408-490.

1894-1910.—Forest fires.—"On Sept. 1, 1894, there was a most extensive and disastrous fire in Pine county. Four hundred square miles of territory were burned over by a forest fire, the towns of Hinckley and Sandstone were totally destroyed, and four hundred people burned. The money loss was estimated at \$1,000,000. . . . Shortly after the Hinckley fire a state convention was held at the Commercial Club in St. Paul, to devise legislation to accomplish this desirable end [fire prevention], which resulted in the passage of an act, at the session of the legislature in 1895, entitled, 'An act for the preservation of forests of this state, and for the prevention and suppression of

forest and prairie fires.' Under this act the state auditor was made the forest commissioner of the state, with authority to appoint a chief fire warden."—C. E. Flandrau, *History of Minnesota and tales of the frontier*, pp. 223-224.—The fire of 1894 "was greatly surpassed in financial loss, though with loss of but thirty lives, by the fires of 1908 and 1910, when Chisholm, Baudette, and Spooner were wiped out. In all a total of more than a million acres were burned over during these years, and property to the value of nearly twenty-five million dollars was destroyed."—E. D. Parsons, *Story of Minnesota*, p. 260.

1895.—Arbitration board created. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920.

1896.—Constitutional amendments.—Use of referendum.—Several constitutional amendments were submitted to the voters of the State and adopted; among them one requiring citizenship of the United States for three months and residence in the State for six months before permitting a new-comer to vote; another vesting the pardoning power in a Board of Pardons; another empowering cities to frame their own charters, subject to the State laws. At the same time, the referendum was brought into practical use, by the submission of several legislative acts to the popular vote. One of the acts thus submitted, providing for the holding of a constitutional convention, was rejected.

1898.—Outbreak of Pillager Indians. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1898.

1898-1899.—Part played in Spanish-American War.—Indian troubles.—"At the outbreak of the war with Spain in April, 1898, Minnesota was first of the states to respond to the call of the President for volunteers. . . . Before the close of the month three regiments,—Twelfth, Thirteenth, and Fourteenth,—mostly recruited from the national guard, were assembled at St. Paul. They were mustered into the United States service May 7 and 8. The Thirteenth Regiment, commanded by Colonel Charles McCormick Reeve, was dispatched to the Philippine Islands and participated in the capture of Manila, August 13, 1898. It performed provost guard duty in that city till the spring of 1899, and formed part of Lawton's expedition to the interior. The regiment was mustered out in San Francisco in September [1899]. . . . A detachment of the Fourteenth Minnesota saw some service, . . . in its own state. The Pilager band of Chippeway Indians on Leech Lake had long been complaining of injustice done them in the matter of the pine on their reservation which they had been persuaded to sell. The prices paid them were ridiculously low, and the charges for appraisal and inspection as ridiculously high. Parties holding permits to cut 'dead and down timber,' cut live trees standing convenient. Repeated protests to the government had brought no redress. The deputy United States marshal, Sheehan (he of Fort Ridgely), undertook to arrest a chief who had given show of misbehavior. He resisted arrest, and a number of his braves rallied and stood off the marshal's posse. A company of sixty United States infantry was sent from Fort Snelling, which was later reinforced by two hundred men commanded by Major M. C. Wilkinson and supervised by General Bacon. On October 5 the troops were landed on the peninsula known as Sugar Point, and a sharp little conflict followed which cost the lives of Major Wilkinson, Sergeant William Butler, and two privates. . . . After repeated councils, at which the United States commissioner of Indian affairs was present, eight chiefs

surrendered to the marshal, and the war ended."—W. W. Folwell, *Minnesota, the north star state*, pp. 350-352.

1898-1906.—Amendments to constitution.—The amendments passed during this period may be enumerated as follows: "9. In the year 1906 a so-called 'wide open' tax amendment, repealing a large part of Article IX as formerly standing. It declares that 'the power of taxation shall never be surrendered, suspended, nor contracted away.' After exemptions of the ordinary kind, it leaves the legislature free to levy taxes according to its discretion, requiring only that they shall be uniform upon the same class of subjects. 10. 1898, an amendment granting suffrage to women of full age in school and library measures absolutely, and not merely allowing the legislature to extend the privilege. 11. In the same year, an amendment requiring a majority of all the votes cast at the election to ratify an amendment to the constitution. Up to that year a majority of the electors voting on the particular amendment was sufficient to ratify. 12. In the same year, an amendment creating a state highway commission and a road and bridge fund and authorizing a special tax therefor. 13. Also in 1898, an amendment authorizing cities and villages to adopt charters for their own government, to be drafted by a board of freeholders appointed by district judges; commonly called a 'home-rule' amendment. An affirmative vote of four-sevenths of the electors is necessary to adopt. In Minneapolis on four occasions, large majorities have favored 'home-rule' amendment. An affirmative vote of four sevenths of the electors is necessary to adopt. . . . 14. 1904, an amendment authorizing the investment of the permanent school and university funds in the bonds of counties, towns, cities, villages, and school districts under prescribed conditions."—W. W. Folwell, *Minnesota, the north star state*, pp. 347-348.

1899.—Origin of direct primaries. See PRIMARIES IN THE UNITED STATES: Origin.

1901-1906.—Attempted consolidation of Northern Pacific and Great Northern railroads. See RAILROADS: 1001-1905; TRUSTS: United States: 1901-1906.

1902-1914.—Society of Equity.—Equity convention.—"A legitimate outgrowth and perhaps the lineal successor of the Granger movement is the Society of Equity which originated in Indiana about 1902, and had a steady growth for several years, especially in the southern states where it developed much successful handling of cotton, tobacco, etc., on the coöperative plan. The Equity Co-operative Exchange which is now a permanent fixture in St. Paul is an organization of farmers created to handle farm products at terminal markets. . . . It is but natural that this co-operative movement should receive its first impetus in the Great Northwest where there are now many hundreds of farmers' elevators and tens of thousands of grain raisers, stockholders in co-operative companies, eager to grasp the possibilities of high-frequency currents in such a movement as the Equity Exchange offers. No city has taken hold of the significance of this growing spirit as has St. Paul. . . . A monster 'Equity Convention' or Farmers' Congress was held in St. Paul, December 8 to 15, 1914, attended by perhaps three thousand delegates from nine Northwestern states, at which practical steps were taken for perfecting the organization and extending its operations. Thus the educational work and the business propositions inaugurated by the Patrons of Husbandry half a century ago, are taken up by a new generation with a wider outlook, with enlarged resources,

and with the benefit of illuminating experiences."—H. A. Castle, *Minnesota: Its story and biography*, pp. 305-306.

ALSO IN: E. V. Robinson, *Early economic conditions and the development of agriculture in Minnesota*.

1904-1921.—Administration of Governor Johnson.—Later governors.—"When politicians began to rally their forces for the elections of 1904, there was gloom and discouragement in the Democratic camp. They had been badly defeated in the state elections of 1902. . . . The Democratic leaders evidently concluded that their only chance for success lay in enlisting the Scandinavian vote, and after much effort they persuaded John A. Johnson, a newspaper editor in St. Peter, to accept the nomination for governor on their ticket. . . . He was elected governor by a plurality of more than 7,000 votes, in spite of the fact that Republican candidates were elected to all other important state offices by overwhelming majorities. . . . Even some of Governor Johnson's supporters were doubtful of his ability to handle the problems which were sure to confront him, but as he quietly disposed of each issue which came up, the confidence and admiration of the entire state grew steadily. . . . He secured legislation leading to the appointment of a permanent tax commission. . . . During the summer of 1907, a strike occurred among the iron miners of northern Minnesota, and the operating companies demanded that state troops should be sent at once to prevent violence and to guard their property. Instead, Governor Johnson went personally to the iron ranges and by conferences with both owners and workers made it plain that, as chief executive of the state, he would not tolerate violence on the part of the strikers, nor would he allow the use of state troops to prevent the workers from making a lawful demand for better working conditions. A compromise was effected, and work was resumed without further threats of violence. The people of the state showed popular approval of his policies by reëlecting him in 1906 and again in 1908. His fame spread far beyond the limits of Minnesota. . . . As early as 1907, political leaders in the Democratic party were looking toward Governor Johnson as a possible candidate for the presidential nomination in 1908. . . . The Minnesota delegation supported him loyally in the Democratic national convention of 1908, but was not able to secure his nomination. . . . Governor Johnson's strength was so overtaxed by steady travel and lecture work in the summer of 1900 that a surgical operation performed upon him in September proved fatal. Never has the death of any person in Minnesota caused such general and widespread sorrow as his. . . . Adolph O. Eberhart, the lieutenant-governor, immediately succeeded to the governorship. Although he was of the Republican party, he announced that he would carry out the policies of his predecessor. He became a candidate to succeed himself and was elected in 1910 and in 1912. . . . In the election of 1914, the successful candidate was Winfield Scott Hammond, the nominee of the Democratic party. . . . At the close of his first year in office, Governor Hammond died suddenly while on a business trip in Louisiana, and for a second time Minnesota mourned the death of her chief executive. . . . Shortly after Governor Hammond's death, the lieutenant-governor, J. A. A. Burnquist, took the oath of office and became the chief executive of the state. In 1916 he became a candidate to succeed himself and was elected by a total number of votes far in excess of the votes for the Republican presi-

dential electors. [He held office until 1921.]—M. V. Carney, *Minnesota, the star of the north*, pp. 220-224.

1908.—Growth of coöperative movement. See COÖPERATION: United States.

1911-1918.—Legislation.—Prohibition movement.—In 1911, the legislative acts provided for the abolition of capital punishment; for parole and indeterminate sentence; and for vocational education. The proposed constitutional amendment for the election of United States senators by direct vote of the people was ratified. This action was taken following the lead of Oregon and anticipating the federal amendment. In 1912, the Sixteenth Federal Amendment (income tax), and the Seventeenth Federal Amendment (direct election of United States senators), were passed. In 1913, the legislative enactments were the Workmen's Compensation, Mothers' pension, and presidential primary election laws. A minimum wage commission was created to carry out the minimum wage law of 1913; this law was declared constitutional by Supreme Court decision in 1917. "The first legislation passed in the interests of prohibition was enacted in 1913, in the local option law permitting villages, towns, and cities, of less than 10,000 inhabitants to vote on the question of prohibiting the sale of liquor within their limits. This was followed by the county option law, passed in 1915, by which the citizens of a county could, if they desired, vote as a unit upon the question of prohibition. . . . Before January 1, 1917, 57 of the 86 counties of the state were 'dry' territory. . . . In 1917 the legislature passed a law providing that in the general election to be held in November, 1918, an amendment to the state constitution, prohibiting the manufacture, sale, gift, or transportation of all intoxicating liquors shall be voted upon."—M. V. Carney, *Minnesota, the star of the north*, pp. 229-230.—The Prohibition Amendment received a majority of 16,000 votes but was defeated because a constitutional requirement provides that proposed amendments must receive a majority of all the votes cast and not a majority of all the votes cast for prohibition; the amendment lacked 705 votes. In 1917, the laws relating to labor and labor disputes were amended. It was made a felony to advocate "criminal syndicalism."

1913.—Railroad rate case. See RAILROADS: 1910-1916. U. S. A.: 1913 (June).

1915.—Allotment system. See BUDGET: Allotment system.

1916.—James J. Hill.—Services to agriculture.—On May 29, 1916, occurred the death of James J. Hill. "His services to agriculture do not yield in magnitude or value to those he rendered elsewhere. They have a double relation to his life, because, as he saw it, the farm and the railroad were partners. It was from that conception that the St. Paul, Minneapolis and Manitoba was born. The wheels of the Red River carts and the busy gophers brought to the surface soil specimens with a promise of inexhaustible richness. This would attract people. People would need railroads. Railroads bringing people, people creating more railroads, so he visioned the everlasting cycle. Therefore he believed that he was helping the farm when he improved the railroad, and helping the railroad when he showed how to make the farm more prosperous. He always insisted that the lowest freight rates should be those on farm products. He made it relatively cheaper for the farmer of the Northwest to reach his market than for any other in the country. He said over and over to the farmers that they and the railroad were

in the same boat; that if the farm did not prosper there could be no business, and nothing for the railroad to carry. Therefore he focused his attention from a very early day on increasing the number of farmers and the net acre product of the farm. . . . Under his direction the Great Northern entered the agronomic field, ran demonstration trains, conducted demonstration plots on farms, analyzed soils, for which purpose Mr. Hill gave the use of the greenhouses attached to his residence, scattered all over the Northwest truths about fertilization and soil conservation and the possibilities of production."—J. G. Pyle, *Career of James J. Hill (Minnesota History Bulletin, v. 11, pp. 319-320)*.

1918-1921.—Part played in World War.—Forest fire.—Industrial commission.—During the World War the state furnished 90,116 men, or 2.64 per cent of the entire Expeditionary Forces. The most disastrous forest fire in the history of the state occurred in 1918. It burned over 770,500 acres, caused 432 deaths, and destroyed about \$25,000,000 worth of property. In 1919, the Nineteenth Federal Amendment (woman suffrage), was ratified. The state machinery for the supervision of labor was reorganized in 1921. An industrial commission of three members, appointed by the governor, superseded the single commissioner previously controlling the Department of Labor. In 1921 Jacob A. O. Preus became governor.

ALSO IN: W. Upham, *Minnesota in three centuries*.—C. S. Bryant, *Minnesota: Its story and biography*.

1919.—Power of eminent domain in cities.—Case of state vs. Houghton. See EMINENT DOMAIN: Meaning of "public use."

MINNESOTA RATE CASE. See RAILROADS: 1910-1916; U. S. A.: 1913 (June).

MINNESOTA UNIVERSITY. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1916.

MINNETAREE, North American Indian tribe. See HIDATSA.

MINOAN CIVILIZATION. See ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Minoan Age; CRETE: Government; GREECE: Ægean, or Minoan, civilization; SCULPTURE: Greek.

MINORCA, second largest of the Balearic islands, about twenty-seven miles northeast of Majorca. The capital is Port Mahon. See BALEARIC ISLANDS.

13th century.—Conquest by King James of Aragon. See SPAIN: 1212-1238.

1708.—Acquisition by England.—In 1708, during the War of the Spanish Succession, Port Mahon and the whole island of Minorca were taken by an English expedition from Barcelona, under General Stanhope, who afterwards received a title from his conquest, becoming Viscount Stanhope of Mahon. Port Mahon was then considered the best harbor in the Mediterranean and its importance to England was rated above that of Gibraltar.—Lord Mahon, *History of England: Reign of Queen Anne, ch. 10*.—See also SPAIN: 1707-1710.—At the Peace of Utrecht Minorca was ceded to Great Britain and remained under the British flag during the greater part of the 18th century. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1756.—Taken by the French.—At the outbreak of the Seven Years War, in 1756, there was great dread in England of an immediate French invasion; and "the Government so thoroughly lost heart as to request the King to garrison England with Hanoverian troops. This dread was kept alive by a simulated collection of French troops in the north. But, under cover of this threat, a fleet was being collected at Toulon, with the real design of capturing Minorca. The ministry were

at last roused to this danger, and Byng was despatched with ten sail of the line to prevent it. Three days after he set sail the Duke de Richelieu, with 6,000 men, slipped across into the island, and compelled General Blakeney, who was somewhat old and infirm, to withdraw into the castle of St. Philip, which was at once besieged. On the 19th of May—much too late to prevent the landing of Richelieu—Byng arrived within view of St. Philip, which was still in the possession of the English. The French Admiral, La Galissonnière, sailed out to cover the siege, and Byng, who apparently felt himself unequally matched—although West, his second in command, behaved with gallantry and success—called a council of war, and withdrew. Blakeney, who had defended his position with great bravery, had to surrender. The failure of Byng, and the general weakness and incapacity of the ministry, roused the temper of the people to rage; and Newcastle, trembling for himself, threw all the blame upon the Admiral, hoping by this means to satisfy the popular cry. . . . A court martial held upon that officer had been bound by strict instructions, and had found itself obliged to bring in a verdict of guilty, though without casting any imputation on the personal courage of the Admiral. On his accession to power Pitt was courageous enough, although he rested on the popular favour, to do his best to get Byng pardoned, and urged on the King that the House of Commons seemed to wish the sentence to be mitigated. The King is said to have answered in words that fairly describe Pitt's position, 'Sir, you have taught me to look for the sense of my subjects in another place than the House of Commons.' The sentence was carried out, and Byng was shot on the quarter-deck of the *Monarque* at Portsmouth (March 14, 1757).—J. F. Bright, *History of England, period 3*, pp. 1021-1022.

1763.—Restored to England by Treaty of Paris. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Treaties: 1763; SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties; SPAIN: 1761-1763.

1782.—Captured by Spaniards. See ENGLAND: 1780-1782; SPAIN: 1770-1783.

1802.—Ceded to Spain by Treaty of Amiens. See FRANCE: 1801-1802.—Since the treaty Minorca together with all the Balearic islands, has remained uninterruptedly in the Spanish dominions.

MINORCANS, name for early settlers of Florida. See FLORIDA: 1767-1774.

MINORITES.—The Franciscan friars, called by their founder "Fratri Minori," bore very commonly the name of the Minorites. See FRANCISCAN FRIARS.

MINORITIES, Protection of. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Guarantees of protection; SEVRES, TREATY OF (1020): Part IV.

Guarantees of Bulgaria in Treaty of Neuilly. See NEUILLY, TREATY OF (1010).

MINOS, mythical king of Crete. See ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Excavations and antiquities: Cretan area; EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization.

MINQUAS, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

MINSIS, Munsees, or Minisinks, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; DELAWARES.

MINSK, province in the republic of the Ukraine. See RUSSIA: Map.

1915.—Germans attempt to control railway. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 6.

1921.—Part ceded to Poland. See POLAND: 1921: Peace treaty with Russia.

MINSTRELS. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: England; Medieval: 12th-14th centuries.

MINT: First use of word. See MONEY AND BANKING: Medieval: Coinage and banking in Middle Ages.

United States mint established (1792). See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1782-1792.

MINTO, Gilbert Elliot, 1st Earl of (1751-1814), British diplomat and administrator. See INDIA: 1805-1816.

MINUANOS, aboriginal tribe in Uruguay. See URUGUAY: Aborigines.

MINUIT, Peter (1580-1641), early governor of New Netherlands. Purchased the island of Manhattan from the Indians. See NEW YORK CITY: 1626; DELAWARE: 1638-1640.

MINUTE MEN, civilians in the American colonies who pledged themselves, at the approach of the Revolutionary War, to serve in the army at a minute's notice. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1774; U. S. A.: 1774-1775; 1775 (April-May).

MINYI.—"The race [among the Greeks] which . . . first issues forth with a history of its own from the dark background of the Pelasgian people is that of the Minyi. The cycle of their heroes includes Iason and Euneus, his son, who trades with Phœnicians and with Greeks. . . . The myths of the Argo were developed in the greatest completeness on the Pagasæan gulf, in the seats of the Minyi; and they are the first with whom a perceptible movement of the Pelasgian tribes beyond the sea—in other words, a Greek history in Europe—begins. The Minyi spread both by land and sea. They migrated southwards into the fertile fields of Bœotia, and settled on the southern side of the Copeic valley by the sea. . . . After leaving the low southern coast they founded a new city at the western extremity of the Bœotian valley. There a long mountain ridge juts out from the direction of Parnassus, and round its farthest projection flows in a semicircle the Cephissus. At the lower edge of the height lies the village of Skipu. Ascending from its huts, one passes over primitive lines of wall to the peak of the mountain, only approachable by a rocky staircase of a hundred steps, and forming the summit of a castle. This is the second city of the Minyi Bœotia, called Orchomenus: like the first, the most ancient walled royal seat which can be proved to have existed in Hellas, occupying a proud and commanding position over the valley by the sea. Only a little above the dirty huts of clay rises out of the depths of the soil the mighty block of marble, more than twenty feet high, which covered the entrance of a round building. The ancients called it the treasury of Minyas, in the vaults of which the ancient kings were believed to have hoarded the superfluity of their treasures of gold and silver, and in these remains endeavoured to recall to themselves the glory of Orchomenus sung by Homer."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 3*.—See also BŒOTIA; GREECE: Migrations of Hellenic tribes, etc.

MIQUELON, tiny island, which with St. Pierre forms the last remains of the French colonies in North America. "Lying close to the south coast of Newfoundland, they [Miquelon and St. Pierre] are separated from each other by a channel 5 or 6 kilometers wide. Miquelon itself is composed of two islands, the northern or Grande Miquelon and the southern or Petite Miquelon. The two islands are united by a belt of sand."—*Islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon* (*Scottish Geographic Magazine, June, 1903, p. 207*).

MIR.—The mir as it existed in the old Russia of the Romanovs was generally described as a commune whose bond was unity of government and of possession of land. It was the "mutual obligation of all the inhabitants to pay taxes and fur-

nish recruits to the army. Every male living . . . [had] a claim to a share in the land, this right belonging to him from the time of his birth, though during his minority his father occupied for him. When a person [died], . . . his share reverted to the community. The forests and the pasture lands, however, with the hunting and fishing, were never divided, though the arable land and meadow lands were divided by lot."—H. de B. Gibbons, *Economic and industrial progress*, p. 281. —"Sometimes the mir is a single village. In this case the economic administration adapts itself exactly to the civil. Again, it may happen that a large village is divided into many rural communes. Then each commune has its special economic administration, whilst the civil and police administration is common to all. Sometimes, lastly, a number of villages only have one mir. Thus the size of the mir may vary from 20 or 30 to some thousands of 'dvors.' . . . The 'dvor,' or court, is the economic unit: it contains one or several houses, and one or several married couples lodge in it. The 'dvor' has only one hedge and one gate in common for its inmates. . . . With the Great Russians the mir regulates even the ground that the houses stand on; the mir has the right to shift about the 'dvors.' . . . Besides land, the communes have property of another kind: fish-lakes, communal mills, a communal herd for the improvement of oxen and horses; finally, storehouses, intended for the distribution to the peasants of seeds for the fields or food for their families. The enjoyment of all these various things must be distributed among the members of the commune. . . . The Russian mir is not an elementary unit. It is made up of several primordial cells—of small circles that form in perfect freedom. The mir only asks that the circles (osmaks) are equal as to labour-power. . . . When the village has any work to do, any property to distribute, the administration or the assembly of the commune generally does not concern itself with individuals, but with the 'osmak.' . . . Each village has an administration; it is represented by a mayor (selski starosta), chosen by the mir. But this administration has to do only with affairs determined upon in principle by the communal assembly. The starosta has no right of initiating any measures of importance. Such questions (partition of the land, new taxes, leases of communal property, etc.) are only adjudicated and decided by the assembly of the mir. All the peasants living in the village come to the assembly, even the women. If, for example, the wife, by the death of her husband, is the head of the family, at the assembly she has the right to vote. . . . The peasants meet very frequently."—L. Tikhomirov, *Russia, political and social*, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 2, with foot-note, ch. 1.—"It [the mir] has been in existence in Russia from time immemorial, and the existence of these peasant republics has rightly been described as 'the first and surest sign of Russian nationality.' Although it possesses many admirable features, it is not a social condition which could ever be conducive to progress in agriculture; indeed, to the student of economic history, it can hardly appear otherwise than in the light of a survival from a primitive condition of society. Hence one is not surprised to find that Russian agriculture shows practically no progress during the nineteenth century, and certainly not during the first half of it."—H. de B. Gibbons, *Economic and industrial progress*, p. 281. —See also RUSSIA: 16th century; Industrial development; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Russia: 1100-1905.

ALSO IN: D. M. Wallace, *Russia*, v. 1, ch. 8.—W. T. Stead, *Truth about Russia*, bk. 4, ch. 2.—

A. Leroy-Beaulieu, *Empire of the Tsars*, pt. 1, bk. 8.

MIR JAFAR (1691-1765), Indian general and ruler. See INDIA: 1757; 1757-1772.

MIRABEAU, Honoré Gabriel Riqueti, Comte de (1749-1791), French statesman, author and orator. Entered public life as a member of the third estate in the States-General of 1789; president of the Jacobin Club, 1790; president of the National Assembly, 1791; advocate of a constitutional monarchy.—See also FRANCE: 1789; Survey of France on eve of revolution: Résumé, etc.; 1790-1791: Oath of clergy.

MIRABEAU, Victor Riqueti, Marquis de (1715-1789), French economist. See FRANCE: 1789; Survey of France on eve of revolution: Literary forerunners.

MIRACLE PLAYS. See DRAMA: Medieval; Music: Modern: 1535-1674.

MIRACLES: Non-Christian traditional miracles.—Primitive practices.—Miracles in ethnic religions.—In Old Testament.—"Magic or thaumaturgic miracle belongs to a quite primitive stage of thought, but many of the actions attributed to the shaman are reproduced in the miracles ascribed to Lao-tee, Buddha, Muhammed, or to ethnic and [medieval] Christian saints. . . . Miracles occur plentifully in religions at a higher level than those of savagery, and are freely ascribed to the great ethnic teachers and to saintly persons or ascetics in these religions. Asceticism and austerity are, in fact, sometimes a necessity as well as a guarantee of miracle, as they are also in the case of Christian saints. . . . In most of these religions miracles are commonly attributed to saints, sages, and ascetics. They bear a similar character in widely distant regions and under different creeds, and often run on parallel lines. Here again these miracles bear a curious likeness to many which are ascribed to Christian saints, Taoist, Zoroastrian, Buddhist, Hindu, and Muhammedan all believe in the possibility of the miraculous in the case of gifted persons. . . . Healing miracles were . . . wrought by gods, heroes, or famous persons [or by their images and relics and at their tombs]. . . . Roughly speaking, the miracles of the Old Testament fall into two groups, those connected with Moses and Joshua, and those connected with Elijah and Elisha."—J. A. MacCulloch, *Miracles* (J. Hastings, ed., *Encyclopaedia of religion and ethics*, v. 8, pp. 677-679).

1st century.—Miracles of Jesus and the apostles.—Belief in miracles, not only in those worked by Christ and by His apostles, but also in His miraculous advent, has always been a fundamental doctrine of the great body of the Christian church. "Saint Luke was an intellectual and educated man, with a keen sense of and desire for historical accuracy; leading us as he tells us to seek information from those who 'from the beginning were eye-witnesses.' Now Saint Luke not only records many of the miracles of Christ, including His resurrection, but in the Acts he recounts other miracles wrought through faith in His name; which would doubtless also have been made matter of conscientious enquiry. 'Many wonders and signs,' he says, 'were done by the apostles.' The simplicity and directness of these narratives does not suggest superstitious credulity; the occurrences in question are not even emphasized; they are merely stated like any other facts. And what of St. Paul himself? Emotional, enthusiastic, mystic he may be, but none the less a keenly intellectual thinker. . . . [St. Paul] speaks of the continuation of miracles in the Church as a fact with which his hearers were perfectly familiar. 'To one is given

through the spirit the word of wisdom . . . to another gifts of healing, in the one spirit, and to another working of miracles.' . . . Here then we have one of the master minds of human history, together with his intellectual educated friend, speaking of facts within their own experience, and to an audience with whom that experience had obviously been shared. And certain of these facts they represent as exceptional, differing from the daily order of events, striking, wonderful, miraculous and due to the particular action of God. . . . In a word, the Christian religion was first preached and accepted by men who profoundly believed in miracles; and it has been handed down by the ages by men who held that primitive belief to be true. It has always been presented as an historical religion, that is to say, founded upon events which happened, and contemplating others yet to come."—J. R. Illingworth, *Gospel miracles*, pp. 182-183.—Saint Paul "speaks as though the working of miracles was generally recognized to be a fundamental feature of early Christianity. In his list of significant persons within the church, apostles stand first, prophets second, teachers third; in his list of important activities the gradation arranged in the descending scale runs, miracles . . . gifts of hearings, helps, guides, varieties of tongues. The leading personalities in the community would, of course, display the most important activities, hence the appropriateness of citing as evidence of his apostolic authority the 'miracles' which were wrought in connection with his preaching in Corinth. He often refers to the dynamic display . . . which attended his work generally. . . . What was true of the Pauline communities need not necessarily have been true of others. Yet it is equally unsafe to conclude offhand that the Pauline churches were essentially distinctive in these fundamental matters. . . . If Paul's churches differed from those founded by other leaders, his converts naturally would be fearful lest they should inherit only an inferior place in the new kingdom. . . . Thus miracles seem to have been generally accepted as the supreme test of validity for the pillar apostles and their communities." S. J. Case, *Evolution of early Christianity*, pp. 147-148, 150-151.

Early attacks by opponents of Christian religion.—"A rigid monotheistic religion like the Jewish left but one way of escape from the authority of miracles, which once were acknowledged to be such . . . namely, that the works wrought by him were wrought from beneath: 'This fellow doth not cast out devils but by Beelzebub, the prince of the devils.' . . . This accusation brought against the miracles of Christ, that they were done by the power of an evil magic, the heathen also sometimes use; but evidently having borrowed this weapon from the armory of the Jewish adversaries of the faith. . . . It was [with them] little more than a stone which they found conveniently at hand to sling. . . . These two classes of assailants of the Christian miracles, the Jewish and the heathen, allowed the miracles themselves to stand unquestioned as facts, but either challenged their source, or denied the consequences drawn from them by the Church"—R. C. Trench, *Notes on the miracles of Our Lord*, pp. 63, 66, 70.

Post-Apostolic Age to modern times.—**Acceptance of miracles in Patristic period.**—**Profusion during Middle Ages.**—**Influence of modern thought.**—**Modern scepticism and the Oxford movement.**—"S. Augustine, in one of his earlier works, had said that 'miracles were not allowed to continue to his own time, lest the mind should always look for visible evidence of truth,

and lest Mankind, which at first had been kindled into devotion by the novelty of miracles should be chilled into indifference by their frequency.' But he revised his statement in his *Retractions*; and said, 'Though it be true that at the present time men do not speak with tongues when they receive the Holy Ghost by the laying on of hands, as they did in the Apostolic times; and though the sick are not healed by the shadow of Christian preachers passing by, as they were in the days of the Apostles (Acts v.15); yet the assertion is not to be so accepted as if we were to believe that no miracles are now wrought in the name of Christ.' . . . Augustine also asserts that miracles were wrought in his own Episcopal city, Hippo, so late as 425 A.D., in the presence of the relics of the first Martyr, Saint Stephen. Passages are often quoted from Saint Chrysostom as if he had thought that miracles had entirely ceased in his age. And yet he says that miracles are wrought sometimes at the tombs of Martyrs. These statements are, it seems, to be reconciled by the supposition that miracles were not wrought in his age so frequently as in Apostolic times, nor in the same manner."—C. Wordsworth, *Church history from 381, v. 3*, pp. 155-156.—"In the writings of the Fathers, and especially those of the fourth and fifth centuries, we find . . . [miracles] not only spoken as existing in profusion, but as being directed to the most various ends. . . . They were the sign of great and saintly virtue, securing universal respect for those who had attained a high degree of sanctity, or assisting, them in the performance of their more austere devotions. If we pass from the Fathers into the middle ages, we find ourselves in an atmosphere that was dense and charged with the supernatural. The demand for miracles was almost boundless, and the supply was equal to the demand. Men of extraordinary sanctity seemed naturally and habitually to obtain the power of performing them, and their lives are crowded with their achievements, which were attested by the highest sanction of the Church. Nothing could be more common than for a holy man to be lifted up from the floor in the midst of his devotions, or to be visited by the Virgin or by an angel. . . . Those who know how thoroughly the supernatural element pervades the old lives of the saints, may form some notion of the multitude of miracles that were related and generally believed, from the fact that M. Guizot has estimated the number of these lives, accumulated in the Bollandist Collection, at about 25,000. [See also MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval: 12th-15th centuries.] . . . Whenever a saint was canonized, it was necessary to prove that he had worked miracles; but except on those occasions miraculous accounts seem never to have been questioned. The most educated, as well as the most ignorant, habitually resorted to the supernatural as the simplest explanation of every difficulty. . . . The line of demarcation between the miraculous and the non-miraculous age, was generally drawn at about the period when the most eminent of the Fathers had passed away. As this was not very long after Christianity had obtained a complete command of the civil power, many plausible arguments could be urged in support of the view, which appears, in England at least, to have been universal. When Locke was writing his famous 'Letters on Toleration,' he was led to a consideration of the Patristic miracles. . . . After this time, the subject of the miracles of the Fathers seems to have slept until public attention was called to it by the well-known work of Middleton . . . Great questions . . . were evoked in 1748, by this Doctor of Divinity, and they were sufficient for

many years to attract the attention of the ablest enquirers in England. Among the laity, the work of Middleton seems to have met with great acceptance. Among the clergy its impetuous, uncompromising, and sceptical tone naturally excited much alarm, and the University of Oxford signalled itself in opposition; but it is a remarkable sign of the times that the Fathers found no abler defenders than Church and Dodwell."—W. E. H. Lecky, *Rationalism in Europe*, pp. 156-159, 160, 172.—"The pantheistic deniers of the miracles, . . . [refused to believe] that any miracle was possible since it was contrary to the idea of God. For these opponents of the truth Spinoza may be said, in modern times, to bear the word, the objection is so well connected with his name . . . Atheism . . . [his system] is not, nor is it even a material, however it may be a formal pantheism. . . . It would profit little to enter in detail on the special charges which Spinoza brings against the miracle. . . . They are but the application to a particular point of the same charges which he brings against all revelation. . . . While Spinoza rested his objection to the miracles on the ground that the everlasting laws of the universe left no room for such. . . . Hume . . . started his objection in . . . a different shape, namely, [by the question] . . . Are miracles [subjectively] credible? He is, in fact, the sceptic, which . . . Spinoza [as a doubter] is as far as possible from being. . . . Another [and later] scheme for getting rid of the miraculous element in the miracle, one often united with Spinoza's *a priori* argument against it . . . has been this. These works, it is said, were *relative* miracles,—miracles, in other words, for those in regard for whom they were first done—as when a savage believes that a telescope, has the power of bringing the far, instantaneously near,—but no miracles in themselves, being but in fact the anticipation of discoveries in the kingdom of nature, the works of one who, having penetrated deeper into her mysteries than those around him, could therefore wield powers which were unknown and bring about results which were inexplicable to them. . . . Schlieirmacher endeavours so to guard this view as that it shall not appear an entire denial of the miracles. . . . These facts [he argues], which seem exceptional, were deeply laid in the first constitution of the law; and now, at this turning point in the providence of God, . . . did at [the bidding of his Son] emerge. . . . We see in this scheme the attempt to reconcile and atone between revelation and science, which was the main purpose of all Schlieirmacher's writings. . . . The rise of rationalism . . . may be looked on as an escape from the conclusions of mere Deists concerning Christ's Person and His Word, upon the part of some who . . . were not prepared to give up the last lingering vestige of their respect for Holy Scripture. . . . But what if it could be shown that Christ never professed to do any miracles, nor the sacred historians to record any? . . . [This] attempt was certainly a bold one. To suffer the sacred text to stand, and yet to find no miracles in it, did appear a hopeless task. For this, it must be always remembered, altogether distinguishes this system from later mythic theories, that it does accept the New Testament as entirely historic; its great assertion being that the Evangelists did not intend to relate miracles. . . . This school, which many had already tried here and there, but which first appeared full blown and consistently carried through in the commentary of Dr. Paulus, published in 1800, did not long survive its first vigour. It perished under blows received from many and the

most diverse quarters. . . . When men arose who did not shrink [from totally denying the authority of the Scriptures] there was nothing to binder them from at once . . . [conceding] that the Evangelists did at any rate intend to record supernatural facts. . . . The historic-critical . . . [assault upon miracles] declares that the records of them are so full of contradictions, psychological and other improbabilities, that upon close handling they crumble to pieces, and are unable to maintain their ground as history. Among the English Deists . . . Woolston especially addressed himself in this way to the undermining the historic credit of these narratives. . . . There is always [he maintains] in every story something else that might have happened besides the thing that did happen. It is after this taking to pieces of the narrative . . . that he proceeds, as a sort of salvo, to say that it may very well stand in its spirit, as an allegory and symbol of something else. . . . Not very different is Strauss's . . . method of proceeding. He wields the same weapons of destructive criticism, thinking to show how each history will crumble at his touch."—R. C. Trench, *Notes on the miracles of Our Lord*, pp. 63, 65, 66, 70, 72, 80, 81, 83-86, 91.—"Farmer, reproducing an old notion of Lightfoot, Webster, and Semler, and anticipating in this respect the current of German rationalism, attempted to explain the diabolical possessions of Scripture by the ordinary phenomena of epilepsy. Warburton and Douglas, with probably most of the ablest of the clergy, abandoning the Patristic miracles, proceeded to establish the peculiar character and evidence of the miracles recorded by the Evangelists; and the general adoption of this tone may be said to have ushered in a new phase in the history of miracles. . . . In the Tractarian movement the subject of modern miracles can scarcely be said to have exercised a perceptible influence. . . . What little influence they had was chiefly an influence of repulsion; what little was written in their favor was written for the most part in the tone of an apology, as if to attenuate a difficulty rather than to establish a creed. . . . Generation after generation the province of the miraculous has contracted, and the circle of scepticism has expanded. . . . The countless miracles that were once associated with every holy relic and with every village shrine have rapidly and silently disappeared. . . . In the present day Christianity is regarded as a system which courts the strictest investigation, and which, among many other functions, was designed to vivify and stimulate all the energies of man."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of rationalism*, v. 1, pp. 173, 180, 194, 195.—"Deists reject miracles, for they deny the Providence of God. Agnostics, also, and Positivists reject them: Comte regarded miracles as the fruit of the theological imagination. Modern Pantheism has no place for the miracles. . . . Erroneous definitions of the supernatural lead to erroneous definitions of the miracle. Thus (a) Bushnell defines the natural to be what is necessary, the supernatural to be what is free; therefore the material world is what we call nature, the world of man's life is supernatural. . . . (b) The natural supernaturalism proposed by Carlyle, Theodore Parker, Prof. Pfleiderer, and, more recently, Prof. Everett . . . [and Profs. Bowne, and Hastings]. The natural and the supernatural are in reality one: the natural is its aspect to man, the supernatural is its aspect to God. [According to] the 'Immediate theory,' . . . God acts immediately without second causes, or . . . second causes, or laws of nature, must be defined as the regular methods of God's acting. . . . The relative theory

of miracles . . . [presents nature] as a vast mechanism wound up in the beginning and containing in itself the capacity to deviate at stated times its ordinary course. The theory is ingenious, but it makes the miracle a natural event. It admits the assumption of opponents of miracles, viz., that physical effects must have physical causes, but this assumption is contradicted by common facts of experience, e.g., will acts on matter. . . . Hence a miracle never happened in fact, and is only a name to cover our ignorance. Thus Matthew Arnold could claim that all Biblical miracles will disappear with the progress of science (Lit. and Bible) and M. Müller that 'the miraculous is reduced to mere seeming.' . . . The advocates of this theory assume that miracles are an appeal to ignorance. . . . Others explain higher law as a moral law, or law of the spirit. Thus the miracles of Christ are understood as illustrations of a higher, grander, more comprehensive law than men had yet known, the incoming of a new life, of higher forces acting according to higher laws as manifestations of the spirit in the higher stages of its development. The criticism of this theory is that miracles would cease to be miracles: they would not be extraordinary, for they would take place under the same conditions. To bring miracles under a law not yet understood is to deny their existence."—J. T. Driscoll, *Miracles* (*Catholic encyclopedia*, v. 10, 1011, p. 340).—"In the past this debate was carried on chiefly between religion and irreligion, but now it is going on to some extent among believers themselves. . . . As for the Sadducees, I have spent much time with them and doubt if they can be convinced, and I am not even sure that they wish to be convinced. . . . We are not in a machine world, but in God's world. . . . And in such a world it is permitted to see visions and dream dreams, and to keep the soul open to the heavenly vision. To some Sadducees this will always be a stumbling block, to others foolishness, and life must answer them. Perhaps it may still be true that some things are revealed to babes which are hidden from the wise and prudent. But if the Sadducee will continue this discussion, he should learn that philosophy has progressed since his traditional arguments were fashioned, so that they are now largely obsolete. . . . It might also be well for him to master the difference between science, as the fruitful study of the order of experience, to which we owe so much, and 'Science,' that product of crude dogmatism and great question begging term of the half-educated and hearsay thinker."—B. P. Bowne, *Concerning miracles* (*Harvard Theological Review*, Apr., 1910, pp. 164-166).

Modern attitude of Christian philosophy.—"Twenty-five years ago . . . it was the age of triumphant science. . . . Men stood under the spell and glamour of the great magician whose wonder-working wand had unlocked so many doors. In view of the achievements of the past no obstacle seemed adamant, no secret impenetrable. To men of this temper miracle had little interest. It was a synonym for all that was superstitious and out of date. The man who attempted to defend miracle stamped himself at once as an advocate of outworn dogma—a Canute committed to the hopeless task of bidding the tide stand still. It was not so much that his hearers did not believe in miracles, though that was true of large circles of intelligent persons, as that they were no longer interested in them. . . . [But] change has come over the spirit of our dream. The confidence, so much in evidence

among the scientists of the last generation, is less noticeable today. . . . We are more modest than we were; readier to confess that the exceptional dies hard, and that there are elements which enter into the explanation of even the simplest things of which we are not yet—of which indeed we may perhaps never become—masters. And with this insight our mood has changed. The phenomena that explain the miracle-faith have reasserted their claim upon our attention."—W. A. Brown, *Permanent significance of miracle for religion* (*Harvard Theological Review*, July, 1915).—"The principle of Christianity has come to self-consciousness, and it is therefore capable of being held without that mixture of illusion which was inevitable at an earlier age. In the process of its own history, it has been working itself free of the alien elements which were mingled with it at first; and now, as I believe, it exists in many minds as a simple faith in God and man, in God's revelation of Himself in man, and man's capacity to become the further manifestation of God and to work His work—a faith which does not need any extraneous support from vision or miracle."—E. Caird, *Evolution of religion*, v. 2, pp. 316-317.—"The particular phase of modern thought which underlies and colors the critical reconstruction of the gospel history is the opinion that miracles have been discredited forever, with the consequence that if Christianity is to be preserved to the world, it must be disencumbered of its miraculous element. But, this view of miracles is in no way entitled to call itself modern, in any exclusive sense; as if, for instance, it were the latest conclusion, on which all thinking men were agreed. The latest important attack upon miracles is not really being made to-day. It was made when some of the leading men of science were materialists, and were attempting to account for things by a process of purely material evolution, which left no room for God, immortality or freedom. And those who nowadays hold miracles suspect represent a survival of this opinion which is already somewhat out of date; while the philosophy which made it logical has been generally abandoned. . . . New properties of matter have been discovered which considerably modify the somewhat crude conceptions of it that were current fifty years ago; we see energy behind atoms, and energy is suggestive of will. Facts have been observed in biology and still more in psychology, which seem to indicate, in the opinion of many scientific men, the operation of guiding intelligence behind the physical order. . . . There is certainly, at the present moment, greater readiness to grant that 'there are more things in heaven and earth than are dreamed of in our philosophy.'"—J. R. Illingworth, *Gospel miracles*, pp. 164-167.—"It is the naturalistic principle that miracles cannot happen, not the Christian principle that they can happen and are to be admitted when the evidence for their happening is sufficient—which stands condemned by the application of historical principles to the Gospels. . . . The time of our Lord's earthly life was so unique in its character as to make it thinkable that the existence of true miracles might have been limited by God's providence to those few years. But our Lord's own words, assured His Church that, so far from such a limitation being intended, it was ordained that miracles of a similar kind should attend the subsequent course of her history and become a sign by which she could be recognized and accredited. . . . It is well-known that a profusion of reputed miracles, constituting the class which we usually call ecclesiastical miracles, confront us

in every age of the Church's history."—S. F. Smith, *Contemporary miracles* (*The Month*, Dec., 1914).

ALSO IN: J. H. Newman, *Two lectures on miracles*.—M. Arnold, *Literature and dogma*.—G. A. Gordon, *Religion and miracle*.—G. G. Coulton, *Miracles and the medieval mind* (*Hibbert Journal*, 1918, v. 17, pp. 137-146).—J. M. Mecklin, *Survival value of miracle* (*American Journal of Theology*, 1917, v. 21, pp. 240-250).—C. W. Hodge, *What is a miracle?* (*Princeton Theological Review*, Apr., 1916).—W. James, *Varieties of religious experience*, pp. 520-521.

MIRACULOUS VICTORY, name given to a victory of Marcus Aurelius over the Quadi, a barbarian tribe, in 174. See THUNDERING LEGION.

MIRAFLORES, Battle of (1881). See CHILE: 1833-1884.

MIRAMICHI, Fire at. See NEW BRUNSWICK: 1824-1854.

MIRAMON, Miguel (1832-1867), Mexican general. See MEXICO: 1848-1861.

MIRANDA, Francisco (c. 1756-1816), Spanish-American soldier and revolutionist. Served as general in the French Republican army, 1792-1793; after the fall of the Girondists, fled to England and later to the United States; sailed to South America with about 200 volunteers with a view to freeing the colonies from Spanish rule, 1806; captured Puerto, Valentia and nearly all of New Granada, 1810; organized a revolutionary government; captured and sent to Spain, 1812; died in prison at Cadiz, 1816.—See also COLOMBIA: 1810-1819; LOUISIANA: 1785-1800.

MIRANDOLA, Siege of (1511). See ITALY: 1510-1513.

MIRANHA, South American Indian tribe. See GUCK, OR COCO, GROUP.

MIRAUMONT, town in France, about ten miles west of Bapaume. It was a scene of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: X. War in the air; 1916: II. Western front: e, 5; 1918: II. Western front: d; k, 1.

MIRBACH, Alfred, Count (1872-1918), German ambassador at Moscow, 1918. On July 6 of that year he was assassinated by Socialist revolutionaries.

MIRDITES, district in Albania. See WORLD WAR: 1914: III. Balkans: e.

MIRISZLO, Battle of (1600). See RUMANIA: 13th-18th centuries.

MIRO, Esteban, Spanish governor of Louisiana, 1785-1791. See LOUISIANA: 1770-1797.

MIRSKI. See SVIATOPOLK-MIRSKI.

MIRZA, Persian title, often prefixed to a surname.

MISCHAZ, Battle of (1806). See SERBIA: 1804-1817.

MISCHIANZA, fête given by the British officers at Philadelphia, 1778, in honor of Sir William Howe. See PHILADELPHIA: 1777-1778.

MISCHNA.—Rabbi Jehuda, the patriarch at Tiberias, was the author (about 104) of "a new constitution to the Jewish people. He embodied in the celebrated Mischna, or Code of Traditional Law, all the authorized interpretations of the Mosaic Law, the traditions, the decisions of the learned, and the precedents of the courts or schools. . . . The sources from which the Mischna was derived may give a fair view of the nature of the Rabbinical authority, and the manner in which it had superseded the original Mosaic Constitution. The Mischna was grounded, 1. On the Written Law of Moses. 2. On the Oral Law, received by Moses on Mount Sinai, and handed down, it was said, by uninterrupted tradition. 3. The decisions or

maxims of the Wise Men. 4. Opinions of particular individuals, on which the schools were divided, and which still remained open. 5. Ancient usages and customs. The distribution of the Mischna affords a curious exemplification of the intimate manner in which the religious and civil duties of the Jews were interwoven, and of the authority assumed by the Law over every transaction of life. The Mischna commenced with rules for prayer, thanksgiving, ablutions; it is impossible to conceive the minuteness or subtlety of these rules, and the fine distinctions drawn by the Rabbins. It was a question whether a man who ate figs, grapes, and pomegranates, was to say one or three graces; . . . whether he should sweep the house and then wash his hands, or wash his hands and then sweep the house. But there are nobler words."—H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews*, bk. 19.—See also TALMUD.

MISE OF AMIENS, Louis IX's decision in the arbitration between Henry III and his barons, 1264. See ENGLAND: 1216-1272; OXFORD, PROVISIONS OF.

MISE OF LEWES, terms dictated by Montfort to the English kings, 1264. See ENGLAND: 1216-1272.

MISENUM, Treaty of (40 B. C.), the arrangement by which Sextus Pompeius was virtually admitted for a time into partnership with the triumvirate of Antony, Octavius and Lepidus.

MISNIA. See MEISSEN.

MISR, Arabic name for Egypt. See EGYPT: Names.

MISSAL. See MASS: 7th-14th centuries; 16th-19th centuries.

MISSI DOMINICI.—"Nothing was more novel or peculiar in the legislation of Karl [Charlemagne] than his institution of imperial deputies, called Missi Dominici, who were regularly sent forth from the palace to oversee and inspect the various local administrations. Consisting of a body of two or three officers each, one of whom was always a prelate, they visited the counties every three months, and held there the local assizes, or 'placita minores'. . . . Even religion and morals were not exempted from this scrutiny."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, ch. 17.—See also PALATINE, COUNTS; GERMANY: 768-814.

MISSIONARY ALLIANCE. See CHRISTIAN AND MISSIONARY ALLIANCE.

MISSIONARY ASSOCIATIONS. See EVANGELISTIC ASSOCIATIONS; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN.

MISSIONARY RIDGE, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1863 (August-September: Tennessee): Rosecrans' advance; 1863 (October-November: Tennessee).

MISSIONS, Christian: 1st-4th centuries.—First historical period of Christian missions.—"Broadly speaking, the first three centuries of the Christian movement were characterized by a great enthusiasm for the dissemination of the faith. The Christian passion was evangelism, the telling of the message of redemption. Before the end of this period the gospel had been preached everywhere in the basin of the Mediterranean and in the western parts of the ancient Asiatic empires. [See also CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Church organization.] The spread of the influence and teachings of Jesus was, however, in the earliest period, owing in but small part to men whom we should call missionaries. It was the achievement of men of every trade and occupation and of every order in society. Soldiers, scholars, travelers, even slaves, carried to the farthest limits of the empire that secret of the inner life, that new attitude toward the world, which in their experience constituted

salvation. The means of communication in the empire facilitated such a movement. Other oriental religions had spread in much the same way. Something like a uniformity of law, language, and civilization obtained at that time within the limits of the empire in a manner which has had no parallel in the world until our own day."—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity in the modern world*, pp. 6-7.—"It must not be thought, however, that this growth was attained without the severest opposition. The execution of Stephen and the persecutions led by Saul were but the forerunners of a long and pitiless attempt to root out this 'pestilent superstition.' . . . But after each baptism of fire the friends of Christ rose undismayed and boldly testified to His name in the very face of their relentless foes. . . . No wonder that with such witnesses for Christ during the ten great persecutions which ravaged the early Church, beginning with that of Nero in 64 A. D., and ending with the Diocletian persecution in 303, the Church not only lived, but grew and waxed strong. . . . At last the natural consummation of so wonderful a development was reached, and in A. D. 313, by the imperial edict of Constantine, Christianity was recognized as the official religion of the Roman world and took its place in history as a great world religion. Such was the marvelous change in three centuries from the faith of slaves to that of kings. . . . [But] the purity and simplicity of the early faith began to abate and heresies and crudities of thought to arise within the Church itself. Thus the battle of the Church was no longer waged alone with heathenism without, but also with heathenism within, and the great Patristic controversies that lasted for many years diverted the attention of the church from the task of propagating the gospel to that of defining and defending the faith once delivered to the saints."—A. D. Mason, *Outlines of missionary history*, pp. 16-20.

4th-7th centuries.—First era of arrest.—"The decline of the Roman Empire, the invasions of the barbarians, the natural development of the church as a great institution, caused the church in some sense to take the place of the decaying empire. The demoralization of the ancient world, the necessity of training the new northern peoples who had seized upon its mastery, set the church which was not an organized and self-conscious hierarchy a new task. That task was no longer the enlargement of the boundaries of nominal Christendom beyond the basin of the Mediterranean. It was that of the Christianization both of the peoples of the ancient civilization and of the new elements which were found in such strange admixture in all the lands which bordered upon the inland sea. It was the problem of making a really Christian world out of those areas to which Christianity in name at least had been carried before the decline of the empire had begun. Meantime the church had changed its own idea as to what constituted a Christian world. It was not therefore altogether a contradiction that the missionary period of the early church ended abruptly almost at the moment when the church attained a position of outward power and influence. That the church was able in the interval between the middle of the fourth and the middle of the seventh centuries to Christianize the world even in the measure that it did and after the pattern that it chose was a very great achievement. That it was itself in startling degree secularized and assimilated to that world was an inevitable consequence. It was, however, a consequence of which Christians were almost wholly unaware."—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity*

in the modern world, pp. 7-8.—Moreover, a few names do stand out to represent individual missionary effort in the church during this time of no great united undertaking. "This condition developed two widely differing classes of Christian champions, the one of which contended against the philosophies of the non-Christian thinkers and the false doctrines which sprang quickly up among the professed friends of Christ; and the others, leaving such contests to the Church at home, and to such mighty apologists and theologians as Athanasius, Jerome, Chrysostom, Augustine, and others, fared forth to distant lands and unfamiliar peoples to plant the faith in which they themselves trusted. Among these missionaries of the early Church we first note Ulfilas . . . [who] was born 311 A. D., and came from Christian parents who had been captured and enslaved during one of the many incursions made by the Goths into Asia Minor about the middle of the third century . . . [and who] returned as a missionary to his own people (341) and labored among the Goths north of the Danube River. [See also CHRISTIANITY: 238-400; GOTHs: 341-381.] His particular distinction comes from the fact that he 'was one of the first missionaries to give not only Christianity but letters to a whole people. The Goths were without books or writing. In order that they might have the Scriptures, Ulfilas invented for them an alphabet, using a modification of the Greek letters with the addition of some characters to represent Gothic sounds for which the Greeks had no signs. He translated the whole Bible, except the Books of Kings, omitting these because he feared that they would tend to feed the warlike passions of the Goths. Only his translation of the New Testament, however, has come down to us, the best extant copy of which is now in the University of Upsala, Sweden. . . . An early missionary to the Gauls, who left the most permanent impress on the inhabitants of the land that we now know as France, was Martin, Bishop of Tours (316-400). He did not introduce Christianity among the Franks, as many, including such noted men as Irenæus and Pothinus and Benignus, friends and disciples of Polycarp, had long before carried the gospel to these savage tribes. But his character and work were such that he finally established Christianity over a wide area of Gaul where it had been hitherto but imperfectly known or received. He was a soldier under Constantine before he became a Christian, which no doubt accounts for the manner in which he waged war against heathenism, organizing his monks into a sort of army, not, however, to fight with men, but to cut down sacred trees, destroy idols and temples, and thus to remove the traces of paganism from those communities which his preaching and instruction had led to embrace Christianity. . . . It certainly is somewhat strange that the name which popularly stands for that of the typical Irishman was not the name of any Irishman at all, but of a Scotchman, whose zeal for Christianity led him to brave captivity and toils that he might plant the banner of the cross amid the wild tribesmen of ancient Erin. Succat, or Patricius (to use the Latin form of the name, from which we get our familiar name Patrick), was born in Dumbartonshire, Scotland, near the present city of Glasgow, in the latter part of the fifth century (403). . . . Obedient to . . . [a] heavenly vision, Patrick left his native land and . . . sailing north, he entered Strangford Lough, in County Down, and in a barn near where is now Downpatrick, the first Christian Church in Ireland was gathered. Beginning about the year 525 he 'did the work

of an evangelist' with rare zeal and discretion, founding churches, schools, and monasteries, and preaching the gospel throughout the length and breadth of that wild and savage land. [See also CHRISTIANITY: 5th-9th centuries; IRELAND: 432.] . . . If Ireland was evangelized by a Scotchman, Scotland was later repaid for her gift by the labors among her people of the eminent Irish missionary Columba. He was of royal lineage, from one of the numerous families of Celtic chieftains, and was born about 521. . . . The extent of his work and that of the 'graduates' of his 'missionary training school,' is indicated by the fact that, 'during Columba's lifetime the gospel was generally accepted by the whole of the Western Picts; by the population of the Hebrides, whose numbers were probably but small, but among whom missionary work must have been carried on with immense difficulty; and by many in the Orkney, Shetland, and Faroe Islands. [See also CHRISTIANITY: 597-800.] . . . Germany, inhabited by rude tribes whose earlier civilization and Christianity had been almost wholly obliterated by the waves of barbaric invasion from the North and East that swept over it during the second and third centuries, was resown with the gospel seed, not, as would have been natural, by its nearest Christian neighbors, the Frankish Church, but by heralds from more distant lands. Severinus Fridold, or Fridolin, and others did much to re-lay the ruined foundations of religion among the Germanic tribes."—A. D. Mason, *Outlines of missionary history*, pp. 21-28.

7th-11th centuries.—Second missionary period.—"When, toward the end of the sixth century, the Christian propaganda was resumed, it had for its aim the conversion of the races of Northern and Western Europe, which had lain outside of the ancient Roman Empire or only nominally within it. The emissaries of the gospel went out from three centers. Southern Russia and the Balkan Peninsula were evangelized from Constantinople. Germany and the low Countries, northern Gaul and Britain, ultimately also Denmark and Norway and Sweden received most of their emissaries from Rome. [See also CHRISTIANITY: 9th-10th centuries.] A portion of this area was, however, the field of devout labor on the part also of Celtic monks [several of whom have been already referred to], who represented a British Christianity antedating the dissolution of the ancient province of Britain. The conversion of the Northern European races to Christianity brought gains to Christendom which in some measure offset the tremendous losses suffered through the conquest of the old seats of Christian faith and civilization in Northern Africa, in Syria and Asia Minor, in Persia, and in the valley of the Euphrates by the forces of Islam. It completed that occidentalizing of Christianity which had been in progress ever since the western journeys of St. Paul. . . . In striking contrast with the method of the earlier era the men engaged in this grand mission to the Northern European races were almost invariably ecclesiastics. They were the agents of a highly organized institution of religion. They were priests, indeed in large part they were monks. . . . They became practically everywhere teachers of the elements of culture, exponents in these new fields of an old and high civilization. They became the founders of a world-order. In large part they determined the political and economic, the intellectual and social and moral characteristics which are familiar to us as those of Europe in the Middle Ages. They preserved and transmitted a learning which was fundamentally Hellenic.

They perpetuated the power and order which mankind owed to the Roman genius for organization. They gave to much of the life of the Middle Ages the ecclesiastical cast which it never lost until the Renaissance."—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity in the modern world*, pp. 8-10.—"Turning . . . to England, we note that the great pioneer missionary to this land was Augustine, who, with his band of forty Benedictine monks, was sent by Pope Gregory to re-evangelize a people whose ancestors had once been evangelized but later had relapsed into heathenism through the weakness of the Church and the growing influence of pagan tribes. [See also CHRISTIANITY: 337-476.] . . . So well did they succeed that within a year after the landing of the missionaries, Ethelbert was baptized and, according to the method of the times, the nation followed their ruler in the acceptance of the new faith. . . . [Of apostles to the Germanic tribes at this period] three names stand out most conspicuously, Columbanus, Willibrord, and Winfrid or Boniface. These were all from the British Church, and their zeal and devotion bear witness to the high state of culture and piety in these islands. . . . Of all these Anglo-Saxon missionaries, Winfrid or Boniface was the most distinguished (755). . . . He converted, organized, and reorganized the German Churches into the one Church of Rome. [See also CHRISTIANITY: 496-800.] The heathen Allemani, Hessians, Bavarians, Saxons, and Franks of the various tribes heard the gospel from him and turned to Christ in great numbers.' 'It is said that in the course of about twenty years he baptized about 100,000 of the pagan inhabitants of Germany. Although this number is probably much exaggerated and, although such wholesale baptisms were not an un-mixed good, yet it is evident that it was by his zeal, combined with a singular faculty for organization, that Germany became a professedly Christian land.' . . . While this work was going on in Central Europe, there were those who penetrated beyond the rivers and forests of France and Germany and Holland to the remoter regions of Denmark and Sweden and even to far-away Greenland. In Denmark and Sweden the pioneer missionary was Anskar (822). [See CHRISTIANITY: 9th-10th centuries.] . . . Similar work was done in Pomerania by Otto, who astonished the splendor-loving Russians by the impressiveness of his services and the magnificence of the long line of his richly dressed retinue. It is said of this missionary that 'he did little public preaching, but a great many Christlike deeds,' which perhaps was not a bad example for his successors in other lands and ages. 'Lief the Lucky' was a son of the Norseman Eric the Red, the reputed discoverer and colonizer of Greenland. Visiting the king of Norway, who was a Christian, Lief was easily led to embrace the faith, and then determined to return to Greenland and Christianize the colonists from Iceland, who had settled there. . . . On reaching Greenland he established a Christian Church in his father's colony which continued for four hundred years or until the colony was finally abandoned. During all this time of missionary activity on the part of the Western or Roman Church, the Eastern Church or that portion of Christendom which acknowledged the Patriarch of Constantinople as their head, was not moved to any great display of missionary zeal. Perhaps their most noted achievement was in the mission of two Greek priests from Thessalonica, the brothers Cyril and Methodius, by name. Their special work was among the Bulgarians, and the story is that their savage king Bagoris was converted by seeing a

picture of the Last Judgment, which Methodius, who was skilled in painting, had depicted upon the wall of the palace. The brother missionaries also did a work more lasting than the conversion of a barbaric king. They found the Slavonic race without a written language and constructed for it an alphabet based on the Greek. Having made letters for the Slavs, they gave them a literature. They translated the whole Bible into Slavonian and created a liturgy in that tongue. . . . Such are a few examples of the early missionaries and of the character of the work whereby they laid the foundation of the religion which in most of their mission fields has persisted to the present day."—A. D. Mason, *Outlines of missionary history*, pp. 26-35.

11th-16th centuries.—Second era of arrest.—"Meantime, there came again a long period of suspension of advance. This too, at times, appeared as retrogression. There were centuries when there was no material enlargement of the area of nominal Christianity. There was only the vital process of assimilation of, and of assimilation to, the races which had already been included within its area. The crusades were wars which had indeed, in one way, a religious cast. They had their origin in a sense of indignation at the thought of that which the Moslem in his advance had wrested from Christendom. . . . The crusaders were the farthest removed from conceiving themselves as missionaries of a faith. They had no idea of seeking the conversion of the followers of the Prophet. They had no desire to win them to the spirit of Christianity or to give them the culture and civilization of Europe. . . . Without doubt the crusades did their part to build up that wall between East and West, between Mohammedan and Christian, which we feel to be so nearly unsurmountable even in our own day. There was built up a wall of separation between East and West such as the ancient world had known nothing of and which we are only now beginning to break down."—E. C. Moore, *West and East*, pp. 87-89.—"Although the Crusades did very little directly for the Christianization of the Mohammedans, there were those in that age who desired ardently to bring to their knowledge and acceptance the truth as it is in Christ. Among these stand out prominently Raymond Lull, the first to urge the supreme need of special training for the evangelization of Moslems, and to exemplify his contention by his own life of toil and martyrdom; John of Damascus (760) and Peter the Venerable (1115), who first studied Islam with sympathy and advocated the employment of spiritual weapons only against the Moslem and for this purpose prepared translations of the Scriptures and other religious works; and Francis Xavier who . . . [wrote] a work . . . to prove to Moslems the superiority of Christianity."—A. D. Mason, *Outlines of missionary history*, p. 43.

17th-19th centuries.—Beginning and spread of modern missions.—Jesuit zeal.—Early Protestant missions.—"With the Renaissance came again, at least to the western church, a great awakening. Since that day the European world has been making itself felt all over the non-Christian world in the manner we are endeavouring to describe. The Roman Church, but particularly the Jesuits, followed in zeal for the faith the earliest adventurers who sought the advantage of Asiatic and American trade. The fierceness of the Reformation struggle may account for the fact that the Protestants found their place in the modern missionary movement at a much later date. They have wrought with an enthusiasm which has at least

done what it could to atone for the delay. This time the area of territorial expansion of Christendom has not been an inland sea with margins of three continents. Nor, again, has it been the whole of one continent, Europe, as it was in the case of the mediæval missions. This time it has been practically the whole world. It is a matter of indifference now whether we travel toward the West to meet the East or the reverse. With the political, commercial, and educational expansion of Christendom has come also the advance of the Christian propaganda into every inhabited land. We are leaving no more worlds to conquer. There are no spaces left for a fourth enlargement parallel to the third which we are recounting."—E. C. Moore, *West and East*, p. 90.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 16th century: Counter Reformation.—"We are . . . [first] chiefly concerned with the Jesuits as a missionary order, and in this respect their progress was rapid and influential. In this work 'they outstripped all the older orders of the Church. In the Portuguese colonies of India the successes of Francis Xavier are well known. The results of their missions in China were even more extraordinary, as typified by the labors and successes of Matteo Ricci and Johann von Scholl, as they also were in Japan and in North and Central America. Their establishments in South America, as in Brazil, in Paraguay, and Uruguay, on the Pacific Coast in California, and in the Philippines, were missions of civilization as much as of religion.' . . . In the United States and Canada the Jesuit missions seem to have been of an higher order than in many other places. Beginning at Quebec in 1625, their missionaries exhibited great bravery and devotion, penetrating the wilderness, preaching to and teaching the most fierce and bloodthirsty Indian tribes, and often falling victims to the passions of savages. The names of Jogues, Breboeuf, Marquette, LaSalle, and others stand out as those of hardy explorers and pioneers and devoted Christian missionaries who without a murmur gave their strength and life for their Indian converts, and the annals of the Jesuit missionaries in Canada and the United States are, as a whole, a bright chapter in the history of this order."—A. D. Mason, *Outlines of missionary history*, pp. 49-50.—See also JESUITS: 1542-1649; 1761-1769; CHINA: 1294-1736; JAPAN: 1542-1593.—"In the great outburst of missionary enthusiasm which followed the spread of the Pietist movement and had its first signal illustration in the work of the Moravian communities, one may say that the absence of ecclesiastic authority and responsibility was almost the universal trait. There was no central religious authority among Protestants. Such developed organizations as existed among them were at the first almost invariably hostile to the missionary movement. Pietists were not looked upon with favor among the Lutherans. Those Independents who, with certain members of other dissenting bodies, formed the London Missionary society in 1795 were not the representatives of the dissenting churches as such. The establishment of the Church Missionary Society was something like an active rebellion within the Anglican church, so different were the views which obtained among these evangelical enthusiasts from the views which were held in authoritative circles in the Establishment at that time. The first missionary societies were not as a rule representative of any denomination. They were groups of men and women from various sects drawn together by their interest in this particular cause, a cause in which their denominations were frequently not interested. . . . It must be re-

membered that in very similar fashion Wesley had felt called upon to inaugurate, in 1738, what we should now call his great home missionary movement for the neglected among the population of the new towns and the declining rural districts in England and among the miners in Wales. Although he was a clergyman of the Church of England, he yet found himself opposed by the Church. The movement which he had intended to be a reform within that church ended in the complete separation of the Wesleyans from that church. Yet the church has since sought to accomplish many of the purposes which Wesley's eager spirit set before itself. [See also METHODIST CHURCH: 1729-1791.] Similarly the great missionary societies, most of them, have in the course of the nineteenth century been appropriated by the churches when these at last came to realize by significance of the cause which at first they had opposed. Most of the missionary societies were originally chartered corporations. They were not ecclesiastical bodies nor even the servants of such bodies."—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity in the modern world*, pp. 47-48.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 18th-20th centuries.

Africa.—"For more than fifteen hundred years Christianity in Africa, except as expressed by the corrupt Coptic and Abyssinian Churches, was almost dead. . . . In the eighteenth century a number of explorations were made chiefly by English and French, but it was not until the nineteenth century that the real exploration of the continent was attempted on any large scale. . . . The Roman Catholics, as everywhere . . . followed their explorers with the offer of Christianity to the peoples who were thus discovered. Soon after the Portuguese discovery of the Congo (in 1484), Dominicans and Jesuits hastened thither, but were unable to counter-act successfully the exploitation of the natives by the Portuguese traders, and their converts gradually again became heathen in everything but name. . . . The first systematic attempt . . . of the modern missionary movement in Africa was that of the Moravian, George Schmidt, who landed in Capetown in 1737."—A. D. Mason, *Outlines of missionary history*, pp. 49-50.—"The problem with which Christian missions is confronted in the continent of Africa differs materially from that which is presented in any other large section of the mission field. The majority of the inhabitants of this continent are more backward, and from a social and intellectual point of view less developed than are those of any other continent. . . . The missionary problem in Africa is complicated by the fact that here, to a greater extent than in any other continent, Mohammedan missionaries are to be found side by side with those who represent the Christian faith. Up to the present time Islam has hardly penetrated south of the equator, and it rests with the Christian Church to say whether in the near future the wave of Mohammedan propaganda shall be checked in its southward course, as it has been checked in Uganda, or whether the pagan tribes in Central Africa near and to the south of the equator are to become Moslems."—C. H. Robinson, *History of Christian missions*, pp. 277-279.—North African missions will be considered under the mission fields of the Near East. The pioneer of East African missions was John Ludwig Krapf who went out before the middle of the nineteenth century under the Church Missionary Society to Abyssinia and settled later in Mombasa. The names of Mackay of Uganda and of John Mackenzie, the missionary statesman, have been conspicuous in this field. "The history of South Africa is interwoven with that of East and Central Africa because

the first Christian pioneers worked north from South Africa, which they entered by the way of the Dutch settlement of Cape Colony. The names which inevitably recur to mind in connection with this northward trend of missionary effort in Africa are those of Robert Moffat and David Livingstone, with the scarcely less famous one of Henry M. Stanley, who, though not technically a missionary, did as much as any man to open Africa to the heralds of the cross and to plant civilization in the place of barbarism."—A. D. Mason, *Outlines of Missionary history*, p. 173.—In South Africa missionary work has been carried on under the auspices of the London Missionary Society, the Berlin Missionary Society, the Moravians, the Free Church of Scotland, the Dutch Reformed, Methodist, Congregational, African Methodist (of America), and other churches. South Africa has several Roman Catholic missions, chiefly French. "From the Christian standpoint the least hopeful prospect at the present time is in West Central Africa. Here, . . . partly in consequence of the enervating climate and partly owing to the degradation caused by centuries of intercourse with European slave-traders and gin-importers, the tribes who live on or near the coast are found to be appallingly deficient in moral stamina and strength of character. One result is that Christian missionaries are heavily handicapped when competing with the representatives of Islam, the demands made by which are much less exacting than are those of Christianity. If the Christian faith is ever to become the religion of West Africa and to stay the progress of Islam, this result will be achieved not so much by the development of the Christian communities which are now to be found on the coast, as by the conversion of the Hausas and of one or two other races in the interior, who possess a strength of character which is not to be discovered amongst the peoples in the coastal districts."—C. H. Robinson, *History of Christian missions*, p. 279.—Missions in West Africa are conducted by the Church Missionary Society, English Wesleyans, Baptists, Congregationalists, Presbyterians, and the Dutch Reformed Church (of America). In Central Africa are Baptist and Presbyterian missions, and others under Protestant churches. There are Roman Catholic missions, most of them French, in both West and Central Africa.—See also AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Chronology: 1834; 1835; 1842, and after; CHURCH OF ENGLAND: 20th century; MADAGASCAR: 1894-1899; PHILOLOGY: 24; UGANDA.

China.—"There has been debate as to the possibility of gnostic Christian influence upon northern Buddhism. . . . There is a monumental evidence that Nestorian Christian communities were established at Hsianfu in the province of Shensi after 635 A. D. There are references in Chinese documents of about the year 845 which speak of bodies of Chinese Christians using the Syrian rite. After the council of Lyons in 1245, Franciscans, responding to an appeal of Innocent IV for the conversion of the Mongols, attempted to reach China. John of Monte Corvino arrived at Peking in 1294. We hear of a bishop of this Franciscan mission executed near Peking in 1362. A Jew from Kaifeng told Ricci shortly after the beginning of the seventeenth century that Christianity had disappeared from the northern provinces after bitter persecution not more than sixty years before the time at which he spoke. Francis Xavier never reached the mainland of China, which had long been the goal of his ambition. He died in 1552 off the coast of Kwangtung province. . . . Thirty years after Xavier's death an Italian nobleman, a Jesuit priest, Matteo Ricci, who had been born in the year Xavier died,

came to the neighborhood of Canton accompanying an embassy from Macao. Ingratiating himself with the provincial rulers he was allowed to remain. Ricci's methods were long followed by missionaries to China. [See JESUITS: 1542-1649.] For seven years he dressed as a Buddhist priest and to the end of his life as one of the Chinese literati. He assured the Chinese that the faith which he preached was the development of the highest principles of Buddhism. He permitted his converts to continue the worship of ancestors. He had knowledge of geography, astronomy and mathematics, which greatly interested the learned men of China. . . . The name of no European of the seventeenth or eighteenth century was so well known in China. . . . Reports of the success of the Jesuit mission in China reached Europe and aroused the envy of rival orders. Dominicans came in 1631 and the Franciscans re-entered the empire in 1633. Almost

organizations within the Church. The R. C. missions have for many years supported orphanages in different parts of China for the care of destitute children. . . . The R. C. priests for the most part live simple, self-denying lives, and live and die amongst their converts. On the other hand, their bishops claimed the rank and dignity of mandarins. This claim, and the further claim to interfere in Chinese lawsuits wherever a R. C. Christian was concerned, often gave rise to hostility and persecution on the part of Chinese officials. . . . At the close of the Boxer riots, in which 54 R. C. missionaries lost their lives, the R. C. missionaries claimed £1,500,000 from the Chinese Government as an indemnity. . . . The *Chinese Mission* of the Russian Orthodox Church was the result of the capture of some Russians, one of whom was a priest, by a Chinese force at the end of the seventeenth century. . . . Of the 700 Christians at-



PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH AND MISSION, CHEFOO, CHINA

immediately the representatives of these orders began to protest against the methods employed by the Jesuits in their work. Both in China and at Rome they assailed the position which the Jesuits had taken with reference to ancestor worship. The controversy was long and bitter. The hostility of the two groups of Christians, the one to the other, did much to create prejudice against the mission cause."—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity in the modern world*, pp. 177-170.—"The revival of Roman Catholic missions in China dates from 1830. These missions are now to be found in every province in China and on the borders of Tibet, and in 1850 the number of baptized Christians was estimated at 330,000. . . . According to *Die Katholischen Missionen* of June, 1913, the total number of converts connected with R. C. missions in China was 1,421,258, in addition to 448,220 catechumens. The three tasks which are put forward as being most pressing are: the development of education; the securing of a more powerful political unity and influence; and the formation of strong religious

tached to the mission in 1000, 400 are said to have been killed during the Boxer insurrection. The work has since been resumed and has a Russian Bishop as its head."—C. H. Robinson, *History of Christian missions*, pp. 210-212.—"Many causes combined to bring the hatred of all the influences of Christendom and Christianity to expression in the Boxer uprising of 1000. This event is the turning-point in the modern history of China. Before we speak of it, however, we may seek to describe the Christian propaganda during the century which followed the coming of Robert Morrison to Canton in 1807. . . . Morrison was the first Protestant missionary to China. . . . He was appointed by the London Missionary Society in 1804. Such was the hostility of the Chinese to the English apropos of the trade in opium that he was obliged to sail in an American vessel from New York. . . . He rightly felt the power of the appeal to the Chinese through their literary class. . . . He had been interested in the beginnings of medical work. . . . Seven years after his arrival in Canton

he baptized his first convert, one of his language teachers. Morrison died in 1834, having seen, so far as we know, ten Chinese baptized in the Christian faith. . . . The London Missionary Society was represented by several distinguished men during this early period. . . . When one considers the number of men of mark whose lives were given to the cause of Protestant missions in China in the years from 1807 to 1850, the date of the outbreak of the Tai-ping Rebellion, it seems strange to say that it is doubtful if at the latter date there were a hundred converts to Christianity in China. Almost half a century had passed in the bare laying of foundations. . . . The ravages of the Tai-ping Rebellion . . . created conditions of such appalling misery and destitution that missionaries who would give themselves to works of mercy were assured of welcome. There arose in the China Inland Mission a new missionary instrumentality adapted to this situation. The founder, Hudson Taylor, an Englishman, had been in China under the Chinese Evangelization Society since 1853. . . . The mission soon became international as well as interdenominational. . . . The great strength of the China Inland Mission has been in pioneering. . . . In few countries have the pioneer missionaries waited so long for visible results of their labors. This fact is the more significant because the progress of Christianity in China during very recent years seems likely to surpass the gain in any large non-Christian country. Even in 1877 the total number of Protestant converts was reckoned at but thirteen thousand. Protestant missionaries had been seventy years in the country. The Church Missionary Society, which had come to China in 1850, worked in Foochow for ten years without a single convert. . . . The truth was that the leading classes among the Chinese were not yet widely touched. Leadership in China was everywhere in the hands of the intellectuals. The literati bred in the old classical culture were profoundly conservative. Public office was everywhere held on the basis of examinations in the ancient literature. The official class was therefore bound to the existing system. Foreign learning was feared when it was not despised. Those who sought it were esteemed to have turned against their country and allied themselves with the hated foreigner. In these circumstances it is a matter for wonder that the schools and colleges established by the missions succeeded as well as they did. . . . The mind of the nation was hostile and there was much suspicion. . . . There were warnings that the popular mind was turning to the thought of the destruction of all foreigners in the country. [See CHINA: 1805 (August); 1808 (May); 1800.] . . . Suddenly, in June, 1900, with almost unexampled fury the storm broke. [See CHINA: 1900.] . . . In this uprising one hundred and thirty-five Protestant missionaries, men and women, had been killed, and fifty-eight children in their families. Thirty-five Roman Catholic priests and nine sisters fell a sacrifice. The total number of foreigners of all occupations who perished is not accurately known. . . . The heaviest blow fell, however, on the Chinese Christians. . . . The recovery of the Christian cause in China after the catastrophe of 1900 was extraordinarily rapid. . . . The *China Mission Year Book* for 1918 gives 268,652 as the number of Protestant communicant members, and the total Chinese constituency as 526,108. The Roman church had, in 1918, 1,409 foreign priests, 006 Chinese priests, 1,956,205 communicants. There is difficulty in comparison of these figures as between the two great branches of the church because of the difference of the custom of the churches in reference to communicant mem-

bership. But it may be safely said that there is one Christian communicant for about one hundred and twenty-five of the Chinese population. . . . Union colleges and universities, like those at Peking, Foochow, and Nanking, have come into being. Union theological schools exist. Union preparatory schools, like that at Tungchau, make the colleges a fact and not merely a name. . . . Union of medical colleges like that which has been brought about at Peking and again at Shanghai was a great gain. The taking over of this work by a corporation of unlimited resources, like the China Medical Board of the Rockefeller Foundation, constitutes an inestimable benefit."—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity in the modern world*, pp. 185-204.—"The movement in favour of the phonetic script designed by the Chinese themselves on the initiation of the Chinese government is growing. The . . . [missions] Committee on Phonetic . . . which is working in conjunction with the Government, was able to report in April [1920] a circulation of over sixteen million pages of phonetic literature during the preceding year. . . . A hopeful feature is the completion of the General Missionary Survey, which . . . will be presented at a National Christian Conference to be held at Shanghai in 1921. . . . German missions, debarred from their former fields, are expanding work in China."—G. A. G. and E. G. K. H., *Missionary survey of the year 1920* (*International Review of Missions*, Jan., 1921).

India.—"India was the first Asiatic country in which Christian missionary work was organized after that revival of the spirit of missions which culminated in the establishment of the Society of Jesus. There is a legend to the effect that the apostle Thomas preached the gospel in Southern India. His tomb is shown today at Mylapore. The tradition is not of very ancient origin. The name 'India' was used by early Christian writers for several different countries. We are perhaps on firm ground if we connect the beginnings of Christianity in India with the wanderings of Nestorian exiles. References in Marco Polo, John of Monte Corvino, and Sir John Mandeville prove the presence of Christians in India in considerable numbers before the coming of the Portuguese. In 1500 Cabral brought to Calicut monks, Franciscans and Dominicans, who were to conduct mission work under the patronage of the king of Portugal. In 1534 Goa was constituted a bishopric. Its constituency was mainly of Europeans and of men of mixed race. In 1599 the Portuguese endeavored to force so-called Syrian Christians into obedience to the See of Rome. In 1816 the English Church Missionary Society sent a 'mission to help' to revive the Syrian church in India. The man to whom, however, the personal leadership in work for India was to fall was Francis Xavier. [See JESUITS: 1542-1649.] He arrived at Goa in 1542. . . . There is . . . no Christian missionary concerning whom it is more just to acknowledge his personal devotion and his power to inspire others, while at the same time we realize that he was the child of his own time. . . . In 1703 the papacy repudiated . . . [certain] practices of the Jesuits, especially condemning the refusal of the communion to pariahs. There is record of measurable success of the Jesuit missions in Northern India . . . especially at the court of the Mogul Emperor Akbar. Three princes of the royal blood are supposed to have been baptized at Lahore in 1670. Yet despite much labor and self-denial the testimony of the Abbé Dubois in 1823 was to the effect that Roman Catholic missionary work in the part of India of which he had knowledge was relatively a failure. The attitude of the natives was such as to render

the prosecution of the work almost hopeless. The suspension of the Society of Jesus in 1773 had everywhere injured their work. The missionary work of the Roman church at the beginning of the nineteenth century deeply needed, as it also received, a revival and renewal parallel in many ways to that which affected the Protestant bodies at the same time. . . . The British East India Company, especially in its earlier years, permitted chaplains sent out under its auspices to consider also the religious welfare of Indians with whom they came in contact. The Company had not yet taken up the attitude of hostility to missions which it later assumed. It was the Danish government which first took direct responsibility for Protestant missionary work in India. . . . The most distinguished of . . . [the thus protected] German Pietist missionaries . . . was Schwartz. . . . It would be a mistake to suppose that during all the time of this remarkable expansion of their trade and territory the British people had had no care for the maintenance of the means of grace and the extension of the knowledge of the gospel in the lands which were gradually being subjected to the crown. From the time of Cranmer different movements for colonization had recognized in principle, at least, the necessity of Christian missions. The Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge was organized in 1698, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, in 1701. This society gave a subvention to the Danish-Tamil mission in 1705. Throughout the latter part of that century it sent chaplains to India, who were allowed to do a certain measure of missionary work. Until the beginning of the nineteenth century, however, the interest of the Church of England in such work in India was not great. It was the Church Missionary Society, a chartered body, which represented the evangelical revival of the spirit of missions. It was founded in 1799. The bishops declined to ordain its candidates and it was not until 1819 that this difficulty was removed. It ought to be said that the field which the Church Missionary Society at first had in mind was Africa. Its founders were, many of them, agitators against slavery and the slave trade. Its first missionary went to India in 1813 after the opening of India to such work under the revised charter of the Company. . . . In 1793, however, there had come to Bengal William Carey, a cobbler of Paulersbury, Northamptonshire, who had been sent out by the newly founded Baptist Missionary Society of Great Britain in 1792. Carey was the impersonation of the new impulse which was now to make itself felt among the people of Great Britain as it had done in the Pietist Moravian communities in Germany. . . . He was one of the most modern of missionaries. To a far greater extent than any of his predecessors he realized the comparative futility of scattered missions and the impossibility of converting India by the work of European traveling preachers. By concentrating the greater part of his activities within a narrow circle and by spending his time upon the education and training of Indian teachers he inaugurated a new method of missionary work the importance of which it is still impossible to exaggerate. . . . The impersonation of another movement in Indian missions which has been very fruitful was Alexander Duff. Duff was the first missionary sent out to India by the Established Church of Scotland. . . . He realized the necessity of reaching the higher classes. He proposed to provide schools for youth of the higher castes of Northern India in which, through the medium of the English language, a liberal education in all subjects was to be offered to those

who were willing to receive Christian instruction at the hands of missionaries thoroughly competent in educational matters. . . . Duff and his compeers exerted the greatest influence upon the whole government system of education in India exactly in the period of its most rapid and significant expansion. . . . The first missionaries of the American Board, Nott and Hall, also went to India. . . . The present work of the Board in the Indian Empire thus dates from 1810. . . . The withdrawal of a part of the Presbyterian constituencies from co-operation with the American Board in 1837 had been already forecast by the establishment, under the Presbyterian name of American missions in the United Provinces and the Punjab. Judson, who had brought into being the Baptist Society, opened the work in Burma, which was not yet subject to Great Britain. He was a man who might well be measured by the standards of Carey. On the whole the American work in India in the period before the Mutiny [1857] was mainly on evangelistic lines. . . . Missions . . . suffered severely during the rebellion. Few of the northern stations . . . escaped destruction."—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity in the modern world*, pp. 100-112, 114-116, 122.—"Missionary work was resumed in India under the protection of Portugal in the sixteenth century, and during the space of two hundred and fifty years made good progress. But persecutions, colonial wars, the unfortunate dispute about the Malabar Rites, the suppression of the Society of Jesus, the after results of the French Revolution and the Portuguese Padraodo worked such terrible havoc that in the beginning of the nineteenth century, there was nothing left but ruins upon which the indefatigable pioneers of the Catholic Church had to commence a work of reconstruction. . . . Pope Gregory XVI (1830-1846) began to provide for the neglected missions in India. Hitherto only missionaries of Portuguese origin had been admitted. . . . India was henceforth to be opened to all Roman Catholic missionaries irrespective of nationality, Religious Order or Missionary Society. . . . The pride of the Portuguese Government was deeply wounded, and . . . [certain] archbishops placed themselves at the head of [the] . . . anti-papal movement which led to the Goanese Schism, 1836-1845. . . . In 1857 Pius IX concluded a Concordat between the Holy See and the Portuguese Government which put an end to the Goanese Schism, though there still remained a great many difficulties. . . . The first thirty years of the missions in India, 1830-1860, was a period of reconstruction, and from that moment onward a new era and a second spring begins to dawn, and a remarkable progress manifests itself. . . . Pope Leo XIII . . . on September 1, 1886, . . . established the Catholic Hierarchy in India, . . . eight Archbishops . . . to which was added Simla in 1900 and twenty Bishops. . . . The Catholic Church in India with Ceylon numbers 2,633,000 members against 318,000 . . . Greeks and Syrians and against 1,620,000 Protestants . . . and thus the majority of Christians in India belong to the Roman communion."—D. Maternus, *Progress of the Catholic church in India (Catholic Missions, Sept., 1916, pp. 201-204)*.—Chief among the problems of all Christian missions in India during the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries have been those of caste prejudice and political disturbance. Unique features of the work in this mission field are mass movements for conversion among many of the lower castes and "zenana work" or personal visitation of the high class Hindu women by women missionaries. Fifty thousand zenanas in India are said to be open to the visits of the Christian mis-

sionary. Steps have been taken in south India toward church reunion.

Islands of the Pacific.—"The London Missionary Society originated work among the Australian aborigines at Lake Macquarie in 1825, but the tribes among whom this work was prosecuted had practically become extinct before 1861. Gossner of the Berlin Society spent his life at Moreton and Keppel Bay. The migratory habits of the tribes and the influence of vicious whites broke up the work. The Moravians had at one time twenty-six stations on the Australian continent. The government aided them in maintaining reservations and schools. The Australian churches of various denominations have now inherited this task. The Bushmen do not adapt themselves to the life on the reservations and the number of those who have been Christianized is exceedingly small. . . . Christian work upon New Zealand has a very different history. The natives are of Malay origin and superior both mentally and physically to any others of the inhabitants of the Pacific Islands. Samuel Marsden, a clergyman of the Church of England . . . persuaded the Church Missionary Society to undertake a mission in New Zealand. [See NEW ZEALAND: 1815-1840.] The work was inaugurated in 1814. . . . [George] Selwyn spent twenty-seven years in Australasia, and when finally induced in 1868 by the Archbishop of Canterbury to accept the bishopric of Litchfield it was with the hope that with his remaining years he might render his greatest service of all by enabling the Church of England, the British government and people, to see its opportunity through missions for the Christianization of the world. . . . Labor conditions and the influx of foreigners in more recent years have affected the Maoris unfavorably. There are thought to be still some forty thousand Maoris, of whom half are Christian adherents."—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity in the modern world*, pp. 307-309.—"John Coleridge Patteson became the . . . bishop of Melanesia through the influence of Selwyn's preaching. Other names of devoted missionaries in the New Hebrides are John Geddis and John Paton. An even older work had been begun in the Hervey Islands where John Williams of the London Missionary Society labored in 1823 after a few years' preliminary work in the Society Islands. Later he established a permanent work in the Samoan Islands. It was in 1819 that the first mission was sent to Hawaii by the American Board. By 1880 the church on one of the islands of the group had become self supporting and carried on mission work abroad. Fiji Island missions have been among the most permanent and successful of the missions in this wide field. In the Philippines the work so far attempted by Protestants has been almost entirely among the Roman Catholic population of the islands. Besides there are thousands of non-Christian natives such as the Igorrotes, the Moros, the Chinese and others who have yet been scarcely touched."—A. D. Mason, *Outlines of missionary history*, p. 215.—"In 1898, when the Philippine Islands were annexed by the U. S. A., the country was for the first time opened to missionary work other than that connected with the R. C. Church. In 1901 the Protestant Episcopal Church of America organized missionary work in the islands, and Dr. C. H. Brent was appointed as the first Anglican Bishop. . . . In 1901 there also arrived representatives of the American Methodist Episcopal Church, the Baptists, the United Brethren, the Congregationalists, the Disciples of Christ and the Presbyterians. These missions . . . arranged to start in different areas."—C. H. Robinson, *History of Christian missions*, pp. 266-267.—

"There were over two thousand adult Protestant Christians in the Philippine Islands within five years after the landing of the first Protestant missionary."—A. J. Brown, *New era in the Philippines*.—See also PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1564-1572; 1900: Spanish friars.

Japan.—"It was on August 15, 1549, feast of the Assumption, that Francis Xavier, accompanied by two missionaries and three newly converted Japanese, landed at Kagoshima. . . . The first period of evangelization of Japan extends from 1549 till about 1640. [See JAPAN: 1542-1593.] As to the Christian population, at a given time, in the year 1605 there were 750,000 Christians. . . . In 1587 there were 113 members of the Society of Jesus working in Japan. . . . In 1613, on the eve of the edict of banishment, some 165 apostolic workers were employed in the task of cultivating this large field; 130 were Jesuits (half of whom were priests); 5 secular priests, and about 30 religious of the three orders of St. Augustin, St. Dominic, and St. Francis of Assisi. . . . The most formidable opposition came from Shintoism; its altar is the throne of the Cæsar—God; now Christianity threatens to rob him of his altar and of his dominion over souls. . . . The twenty-six faithful who were crucified at Nagasaki on the 5th of February, 1597, inaugurated the era of martyrdom in Japan. Ieyasu, after having subdued all his opponents, declared a war of extermination to Christianity by his edict of 1614. . . . Let us now examine the famous edict of Ieyasu. 'Japan is the home of the Gods and of Buddha. The faction of the 'Bateren' (a corruption of the Spanish word padre, father) is in opposition with this order of things. The hordes of Christianity have come to Japan in order to spread a perverse law and destroy the true doctrine, so as to be able to change the government established in Japan and to take a hold of the country.' Here a new grievance is put forward against Christianity: it endangers the country. Yet through all the years the missionaries have passed in Japan, history records not a single instance where these men or their followers had entered into a plot opposed to the independence of the country. . . . The Japanese historians, with hardly an exception, have given credence to this fable . . . unable to appreciate and understand the priest's self denial, nor the attachment the faithful show to the father of their souls. . . . In 1624 the persecution spread through the whole empire. . . . The Dutch Protestants [merchants] testify as to the horror of the tortures. . . . Some one hundred and forty religious had laid down their lives. . . . As to the faithful, it is not easy to say how many suffered death. . . . Takegoshi, a great and impartial Japanese historian of these times, says that the persecution in Japan made over 250,000 victims. . . . Jemitsu's [grandson of Ieyasu] hatred for Christianity knew of no respite; in 1636 he published a Draconian law punishing with death any Japanese who would wish to leave the country or who, after having dwelt some time in a foreign land, would return to these shores; he went even so far as to destroy all high-sea-going junks. In 1640, four Portuguese ambassadors with a suite of seventy-four men had come to Nagasaki. They were summoned before Jemitsu and ordered to apostatize. On their refusal they were condemned to death; thirteen sailors only were excepted from the massacre, and were sent back to Macao with the warning: 'As long as the sun warms the earth, let no Christian be so daring as to enter Japan! Let it be known to all, that were it the Spanish King, nay, the God of the Christians or the great Shaka himself, he would not have broken this law

without suffering the penalty of death.' Japan had thus entered into its savage seclusion which was to last over two hundred years."—L. Gracy, *Early days of the faith in Japan* (*Catholic Missions*, June, 1915, pp. 122-125).—"The resurrection of the Christian Church in Japan dates from 1859. In the previous year, as the result of treaties made between America, England, France and Japan, foreigners were permitted to reside at certain selected Japanese ports. In the very year that these treaties were signed, 80 Japanese Christians were discovered at Nagasaki, 10 of whom were tortured to death. The honour of sending the first missionaries to take advantage of the signing of the treaties belongs to America. On May 2, 1859, before the treaties came into force, the Rev. J. Liggins, of the Protestant Episcopal Church . . . arrived at Nagasaki. Within a year Dr. Hepburn of the American Presbyterian Board, Dr. Verbeck of the Dutch Reformed Church of America, and (in 1860) a representative of the American Baptists' Society were settled at Nagasaki, or at other treaty ports. In September, 1859, M. Girard, a Roman priest, arrived at Yedo. . . . During the next five years the Roman missionaries got into touch with a number of Christian communities, whose members were variously estimated at from twenty to fifty thousand, which still retained the sacrament of baptism and observed in secret Sundays and other Christian festivals. . . . The open avowal of their Christian faith soon brought persecution upon the Japanese Christians. Between 1867 and 1870, 4,000 who had refused to recant were arrested in Nagasaki and its neighbourhood. These were deported from their native villages and were placed in different provinces, where they were subjected to very harsh treatment, under which many of them died. By the end of 1872 these exiles began to be more kindly treated, and in the following year the persecution of Christians fell into abeyance. . . . In 1868 the revolution occurred in Japan, which restored the supreme power to the Emperor and inaugurated the modern Japanese system of government. Although the change in the form of government was not immediately followed by a cessation of persecution, it facilitated the residence of foreigners in Japan and indirectly paved the way for the spread of Christian missions. The first English missionary to commence work in Japan . . . reached Nagasaki in 1869. . . . The missions that were established in different parts of Japan continued to progress, despite considerable persecution, until the year 1873, when the attitude of the Japanese Government towards Christianity underwent a change. On February 10 the Government ordered the removal of the notice-boards which contained the prohibition of Christianity. . . . In 1873 the number of foreign missionaries in Japan, in addition to those connected with the R. C. and Greek missions, had risen to 87, of whom 79 hailed from America or Canada. The only English societies then represented were the C. M. S. [Church Missionary Society] and the S. P. G. [Society for the Propagation of the Gospel.] . . . Greater progress has been made in Japan than in any other non-Christian land in the formation of churches that are self-governed and are to a large extent independent of help received from foreign missionary societies. The total number of Christians in Japan is about 200,000, of whom half belong to the Roman and Russian missions. Of the other half, at least three-quarters are members of one of the four Japanese Churches which have absorbed the converts connected with the various English and American missionary societies. . . . The Protestant missions, with very few exceptions, have united in a general body called the Federated

Missions of Japan. . . . The Anglican missions have not become a corporate part of this Federation, but many of their representatives have given it their cordial support. . . . Special mention should be made of the work that is being done in many parts of Japan by the Y. M. C. A., which has 50 student associations. . . . The Y. W. C. A. is also doing excellent work amongst Japanese women. . . . Four leper asylums . . . are supported by Christian Missions in Japan. . . . Of the missionary colleges which have been established in Japan, the Doshisha College has perhaps exerted the widest influence. Its founder was Joseph Neesima. . . . The Jesuit College in Tokyo was recognized by the Japanese Government in 1913 as a university. . . . The Mission of the 'Orthodox' Church to Japan is one of the most romantic and most successful missions of modern times. Its founder, Père Nicolai, began his work at Hakodate in 1861. . . . A special feature of the work of Père Nicolai, or Archbishop Nicolai as he afterwards became, was his reliance upon Japanese workers for the conduct and development of his mission. He never had but six Europeans as members of his staff. . . . A new departure has recently been made by this mission in view of training boys who may hereafter serve as priests in Japan. Several Russian boys are being educated in the theological seminary of the mission along with Japanese boys. The Russian boys share the life of the Japanese boys in every detail. Those who are responsible for the control of the policy of the mission believe that the effect will be to produce Russian priests possessed of a better insight into Japanese character than any which Occidentals have hitherto obtained. The experiment that is being made is one of extraordinary interest. The total number of adherents of the Russian mission is about 33,000 (1914). . . . [Yet notwithstanding the fact that progress in the Christian ranks has been great from a numerical standpoint] there is probably no country in the world at the present time in which so large a proportion of the educated section of the population would call themselves 'agnostics' as is the case in Japan. . . . The cession of the island [of Formosa] to Japan in 1905 has been followed by its opening up to Western civilization and has facilitated the extension of missionary enterprise."—C. H. Robinson, *History of Christian missions*, pp. 224-246.

Korea.—"The story of Christian missions in Corea is full of romance and of inspiration. In no other country has the persecution of Christians been so intense, and in no other has Christianity within recent years made such rapid advance. . . . In 1784 a son of a Corean ambassador to Peking was baptized by the Franciscan Mission in Peking. On his return to Corea he began to preach and to baptize, but persecution almost immediately broke out and the first convert was induced to renounce his new faith. Many, however, of those whom he had helped to convert were tortured to death rather than recant, and, despite increasing persecution, the number of Christians continued to grow. . . . It is doubtful whether any Christians in the old Roman Empire suffered as did the Corean Christians during the first seventy years of the nineteenth century. [See also KOREA: Early history.] Renewed efforts were made to exterminate the Christians in 1815, 1819 and 1827. . . . At the close of 1838 the number of Christians was reckoned at 6000. In the following year another cruel persecution occurred. . . . By 1850 the number of Christians was reckoned at 16,700. In 1805 the anti-Christian party in the State persuaded the Regent to sanction the extermination of the Christians, and the Bishop and seven European mis-

sionaries were put to death with cruel tortures. In the course of a few weeks Christianity was well-nigh exterminated. . . . In 1870 a few Korean ports were opened to Japanese trade, but it was not till 1882 that, by a treaty made with the U. S. A., the country was practically opened to foreigners. Missionary work was commenced by American Presbyterians and by the American Episcopal Methodists in 1884. An Anglican Mission, with Bishop Corie as its leader, started work in 1890. At this time the number of converts unconnected with the Roman missions did not exceed 100. During the following ten years they multiplied by 10. . . . So rapidly did Christianity spread that when the annexation of the country was proclaimed by Japan in 1910 there were in all 453 missionaries, of whom 50 were French, 90 British and 306 hailed from America. Although the honour of having started the Christian Church in Corea and of ministering to it during nearly a century of continuous persecution belongs to the Roman missions, these do not at the present time minister to half the Christian population. . . . In 1913 the number of baptized Christians connected with the Anglican and Protestant missions numbered 75,000 and the number of Christian adherents 185,000. . . . The number of Christians connected with R. C. [Roman Catholic] missions in 1913 was 80,657."—*Ibid.*, pp. 247-251.

Latin America.—"The papal bull which assigned the West to Spain as it gave the East to Portugal contemplated conquests for the cross and gains for the church as well as increase of territory and of revenue for the crowns of the nations concerned. There is unfortunately no doubt as to the violence and perfidy with which the conquest of the islands and later of Mexico and Peru was carried out. On the other hand, there is evidence of humane and devout remonstrance on behalf of the helpless peoples as well as of the self-sacrifice of priests and members of the orders who sought their welfare. . . . The Spanish mission work was at first under the jurisdiction of the see of Seville. A bishopric of Hispaniola (San Domingo) was established in 1512. There was a bishopric at Santiago de Cuba in 1522 and one at the city of Mexico in 1530. . . . The figure of Bartholomew las Casas stands out in relief against a dark background. He was born in Seville in 1474. . . . He lived to the age of ninety-two and won for himself the title of Universal Protector of the Indians. . . . The first Franciscan mission arrived in the city of Mexico in 1524. . . . The Jesuits were established in Mexico in 1572, devoting themselves to the education both of whites and of natives. [See also JESUITS: 1542-1640.] . . . It was . . . the subjection of Spain and Portugal to Napoleon after the Peninsular War which emphasized to the South American colonies the necessity of caring for their own interests. The struggle for independence lasted from 1810 to 1826."—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity in the modern world*, pp. 285-288

Near East.—"Remnants of the early Christian church . . . and the subdivisions which with lapse of time these have undergone are to be found in Ottoman territory today. In a general way they fall under the popular designation of the Greek church, in contrast to the Roman church as this developed after the great schism. . . . These little outlying Christian peoples with their churches met the full fury of the onrush of Islam. . . . It was little that the Crusaders ever did for the relief of Eastern Christendom. The bitterness with which the two halves of Christendom hated one another had something to do with that. The provincialism of Europe, its ignorance of all matters pertaining

to the East, had more. . . . It will be evident that the problem of missions in the Ottoman Empire was very different from that which has been met in any country of which we have thus far spoken. . . . The plan was to leave ecclesiastical and theological questions on one side. It was to work for the inner transformation of the ancient Christian churches and by no means to set up bodies of mission adherents beside them or to add to the number of warring Christian sects. . . . Latins have been present in the empire, especially in Palestine, in appreciable numbers since the time of the Crusades. Yet the suspicion and hatred between the Latin and oriental churches had been such that one could hardly speak of a religious influence of these devout groups of scholars or of monks and nuns upon the Christians of the land. . . . The monks and nuns have done hospital and orphanage work and some school work. Exactly the thing which was needed, however, aid to the oriental churches in the realization of themselves, seemed to lie outside of the Roman power."—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity in the modern world*, pp. 214-219.—"In 1820 the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions [Congregational] . . . began to send missionaries to various parts of the Turkish Empire, their primary object being to evangelize Moslems and Jews. In course of time the missionaries came to realize that the unsatisfactory lives of many of the Christians belonging to the Oriental Churches rendered their task of influencing Moslems a hopeless one, and they were led by the force of circumstances to devote a large portion of their time and attention to the education of the Greek and Armenian Christians, amongst whom they were living. The Robert Noble College, which they established in Constantinople, and the schools and colleges at Smyrna, Tarsus, Aintab, and other centres, have had a wide-reaching influence upon the pupils who have attended them, and who have included a considerable number of Moslems. Although the work . . . has not resulted in the conversion of any appreciable number of Moslems, it has indirectly prepared the way for the missionary work which will become possible under the new political conditions that have lately arisen. . . . In 1870 the Presbyterians of America organized a separate mission. . . . The chief educational centre in Syria is the Protestant College at Beyrout (1865), which, though not under the control of the Presbyterian mission, serves as its chief educational centre."—C. H. Robinson, *History of Christian missions*, pp. 269-270.—"Mission work in Palestine . . . began with the work of Fiske and Parsons, of the American Board, in Jerusalem, but the history of Protestant Churches in the cradle land of Christianity is generally included under that of the missions in Syria, of which Palestine is politically a part. 'Within the limits of what may be designated as 'The Holy Land' Christian sentiment has led to the establishment of almost innumerable forms of work, sixteen different societies with thirty-seven mission stations manned by foreign workers for a population of a million and a quarter, resulting, as missionary reports show, in an entanglement of interests, a foolish and harmful overlapping of fields of work, rivalries and cross purposes, which, when joined to the complex situation resulting from the presence of the warring factions of the Oriental Churches, make this field perhaps the most difficult in the world. It should be pointed out that the work of the Church Missionary Society is easily the most extensive and wisely planned. . . . (World Missionary Conference, v. 3, p. 236)."—A. D. Mason, *Outlines of missionary history*, pp. 155-156.—"Missionary work in Arabia is still in an initial stage,

and there is urgent need of additional missions and missionaries in this long-neglected land. . . . [The only American Protestant work there is under control of the Dutch Reformed Church.] After the separation between the Christians of the East and the West the Persian Church began to display considerable missionary activity in the regions which lay farther to the East. . . . A Nestorian patriarch ruled the Church during the reigns of seven Mogul kings, but after this Christianity almost disappeared. . . . As a result of the visit of Dr. Joseph Wolff (a converted Jew) in 1827, the A. B. C. F. M. opened a mission in 1834 amongst the Nestorian Christians. This mission was transferred in 1871 to the Presbyterian Board, which has also undertaken work amongst Kurds and Mohammedans in Northern and Western Persia. . . . In 1912 an Anglican bishop for Persia was appointed. A considerable and slowly increasing number of converts from Islam have been obtained.—C. H. Robinson, *History of Christian missions*, pp. 271-273.—“In Egypt, next to Palestine the most hallowed of Bible lands, the Christian missionary faces not only Mohammedanism, but some of the more corrupt forms of Christianity as represented by the Coptic and Abyssinian Churches. . . . The American United Presbyterian Mission is the best established mission in Egypt. It began its work in 1854 and is still doing excellent service among the Copts and the Moslems. . . . The Church Missionary Society also has a strong mission to Moslems in Egypt.”—A. D. Mason, *Outlines of missionary history*, pp. 157-158.—“Since the World War whole areas of this mission field have been in upheaval. In many Mohammedan countries the status of missionary institutions is undermined due to the political confusion. In the meantime, the American University in Cairo is expanding. Many of the Protestant churches of America including the Presbyterian, Congregationalist, Methodist, Baptist, and Protestant Episcopal now have missions in South America and Mexico. “Governments have frequently been favorable to the entrance of the Protestants. Indeed in all these countries, as also in the Philippines, there are considerable elements which have long since broken with the Roman church besides those who never had any such relation. Closer contacts with South America in the immediate future will assuredly bring expansion of religious work.”—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity in the modern world*, p. 289.—“Since the World War, the South American Missionary Society, a Protestant organization, has launched a plan for providing hostels in various mission centers where Indian Christians may be trained as evangelists to their own people.

North America: Indians.—Negroes and immigrants.—The work of the early Jesuit missionaries to North America has been touched upon. “The real history of the great Jesuit missions in North America begins after the treaty of St. Germain in 1632. The most famous centers were that on Cape Breton Island for the Miami Indians and that at Tadousac for the tribes of the lower St. Lawrence. [See also JESUITS: 1542-1640.] For the mission among the Algonquins, Sillery was the point of departure. The Algonquins were, however, almost exterminated in wars with the hostile tribes. Beyond Montreal was the mission to the Nipissings and the great Huron mission, the scene of the most arduous and continued labors of the Fathers among the Wyandottes and other tribes. Then there were the Ottawa missions, which represented effort to Christianize the Chippeways and the Crees. Farther south were the centers for the work among the Miamis and the Illinois. . . . The great figures in the Ottawa Mission are without doubt the fathers Marquette and Hennepin. . . . Canada fell to Eng-

land and Louisiana to Spain after 1763. Then came the dissolution of the Society of Jesus [Jesuits] in 1773. Before the restoration of the Society by Pius VII in 1814 the whole face of America had changed. The record of the Jesuit missionaries is a chapter of American history full of personal devotion. . . . [Yet] both the Spanish and the French missions failed because, although in different ways and for different reasons, they were unable to establish stable religious communities of the natives to whose representatives in due time the management of affairs could be passed over. . . . [Turning to Protestant missions] it is not too much to say that the Pilgrim Fathers, devout men as they were, were not consumed with solicitude for the salvation of the souls of the red Indians. . . . Yet there were . . . those among the Puritans who took a very different view. John Eliot . . . who came to Boston in 1631, was the first to devote himself to the task of preaching the gospel to the Indians. . . . In 1649 the Long Parliament incorporated the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in New England, which henceforth supported and directed the work inaugurated by Eliot. . . . King Philip's War dealt a staggering blow to the missionary enterprise. . . . Jonathan Edwards, after his retirement from Northampton, devoted himself in part to work among the Indians at Stockbridge. . . . He labored also among the tribes on the Delaware River in Pennsylvania and New Jersey. . . . But the great work of the eighteenth century in this regard was done by the Moravians. . . . The heroic personality was David Zeisberger. . . . His most successful settlements were in Ohio. [See MORAVIAN, OR BOHEMIAN, BRETHREN: Saxony and America.] Zeisberger left in manuscript grammars and lexicons which are almost our only source of knowledge of several of the Indian languages, widely spread in the eighteenth century, which are now extinct. Similar work was done by Moravians in several of the islands of the Dutch and Danish and British West Indies. . . . After 1781 Congress began to provide for the education of Indian youth . . . and after 1783 began a system of reservation of public lands for the Indians. . . . The public conscience was spasmodically aroused. . . . The career of Marcus Whitman was one of perfect devotion to the Kayuse Indians in what is now the state of Washington. He with his family and ten other persons were murdered by these Indians in 1847. . . . Stephen Riggs spent forty-five years in active and successful work among the Dakotas and Sioux.”—E. C. Moore, *Spread of Christianity in the modern world*, pp. 205-207, 300-305.—Among other apostles to the American Indians have been Bishops Whipple and Hare of the Protestant Episcopal Church of America and William Duncan, whose civic community on Annette island met with noteworthy economic success. Moravian and Friends' missions are among Protestant agencies working with Indians, and there are churches and schools conducted by the Presbyterians, Methodists, and other denominations. The Roman Catholic church has a number of organizations whose purpose is the spread of its faith among Indians. The Eskimo Indians of Alaska have also afforded a field for Christian evangelization. The Greek Catholic church sent its missionaries at an early day, during the Russian occupation, and there are still Greek churches in existence. After the transfer to the United States, missionaries from almost every denomination entered Alaska, Sheldon Jackson being the most famous of them. At present (1921), most of the missions are under the control of the Episcopalians, Congregationalists, Presbyterians or Roman Catholics. (See also ENCA-

TION: Modern developments: 20th century: General: United States: North American Indians; CALIFORNIA: 1543-1781; OREGON: 1840-1842; TEXAS: 1690-1806.) "Early missionaries to the negro race in America were confronted by the reluctance of slave owners to allow their slaves to receive any kind of education. This difficulty, however, was not too great to prevent the nominal Christianization of the race, though missionary efforts have naturally been attended with a larger measure of success since the emancipation of the negroes in 1863. Many independent and self-sustaining Protestant churches have been formed by the negroes. The Roman Catholic church reported in January, 1921, between 150,000 and 175,000 Catholic negroes in their various dio-

ceses, vicariates apostolic, and missions of St Joseph's society in the United States out of a negro population of 7,127,965."—*Report of Roman Catholic Commission of mission work among negroes and Indians*, p. 12.—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Religious bodies, etc.—The attempt to evangelize the non-Christian immigrants, especially the Chinese and Japanese settlers along the Pacific slope is recognized by most of the local missionary societies as an important part of mission propaganda. Very few attempts are being made to reach those from India, however, except by the agents of the American Bible Society. North American missions also include work among European immigrants to Amer-

Statistics of Protestant Missions in All Fields

GENERAL AND EVANGELISTIC SUMMARIES

Societies working	Foreign staff	Native staff	Residence stations	Organized churches	Communicants	Baptised non-communicants, adults and children	Others under Christian instruction
351	24,039	109,009	4,094	26,210	2,408,900	1,313,022	1,423,314

EDUCATIONAL SUMMARIES.—SECTION I

Total individuals under instruction	Kindergarten		Elementary		Secondary		Colleges and universities		Theological and Bible training	
	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Institutions	Students	Schools	Students
1,973,816	376	12,596	36,478	1,699,775	2,114	218,207	109	15,636	406	10,588

EDUCATIONAL SUMMARIES.—SECTION II

	Industrial		Normal		Medical		Boarders in schools of all grades	Hostels	
	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Students		B'ld'gs	Residents
		209	10,125	240	7,504	30	819	61,417	59

MEDICAL AND PHILANTHROPIC SUMMARIES.—SECTION I

In patients	Foreign physicians	Native physicians	Dispensaries	Hospitals	Orphanages	
					Instits.	Inmates
253,633	1,052	230	1,234	793	245	9,736

MEDICAL AND PHILANTHROPIC SUMMARIES.—SECTION II

Dispensary Treatments	Major Operations	Leper Homes	
		Institutions	Inmates
8,833,759	36,044	39	1,880

H. P. Beach and B. St. John, ed., *World Statistics of Christian Missions*, pp. 50-61.

ica, the mountaineers of the southern states and the Mormons, most of whom are the concern of the American home missions' societies.

Statistics of Protestant missions in all fields.—The statistics of the Protestant missions are shown in the preceding table.

Statistics of Roman Catholic missions.—The statistics of the Roman Catholic missions are given in the accompanying table.

Statistics of the Russian Orthodox church missions.—"The Russian Missionary Society of the Orthodox Church to non-Christians is divided as follows: 1. Nine Siberian missions. 2. Several Missionary Institutions, chiefly schools in sixteen dioceses in European Russia among the foreign population. 3. Two Foreign missions, one to Japan and the other to North America. The Society had, in 1908, 400 missionaries in 126 districts and 700 schools with 1,000 pupils; in North America its adherents were estimated at about 10,000. No comprehensive summaries of the work of the Siberian and European Russian missions are avail-

able; the Japanese mission comprised 265 church parishes with 30,712 Christians."—J. S. Dennis, H. P. Beach, and C. H. Fahs, ed., *World atlas of Christian missions*, pp. 129-130.—The "Christian Movement for the Japanese Empire" (1915) reports 34,782 Christians of the Russian Orthodox church in the 265 parishes of the mission in Japan.

MISSISSIPPI, sometimes called the "Bayou," "Eagle," or "Magnolia" state, is one of the south central states of the United States. It is bounded, north, by Tennessee; east, by Alabama; south, by the Gulf of Mexico and Louisiana; and west, by Louisiana, from which it is separated by the Pearl and Mississippi rivers, and by Arkansas, from which it is also separated by the Mississippi. The state has an area of 46,865 square miles, 303 square miles being water; and a population, 1,020, of 1,790,618.

Resources.—Mississippi is preëminently an agricultural state. In 1921, the farms numbered 272,101, with an area of 18,253,579 acres of which 9,325,677 acres were improved land. The leading crops were cereals, forage, potatoes, and cotton.

Statistics of Roman Catholic Missions

Areas	Priests	Lay brothers	Lay sisters	Native priests	Head stations	Chapels and churches	Native Catholics	Catechumens	Pupils in all schools	Dispensaries	Hospitals	Children's Orphanages
Japan.....	162	90	79	33	129	270	76,134	2,826	6,066	11	6	909
Korea.....	40	7	10	15	59	130	78,850	5,000	2,027	2	4	358
China.....	1,305	247	743	721	1,442	9,214	1,406,659	613,002	134,057	427	97	29,198
Siam and French Indo-China.....	517			689	637	4,018	986,597		73,804	105	70	10,419
India and Ceylon.....	1,268	432	1,957	1,230	1,108	5,801	2,166,524	92,757	211,035	175	48	14,706
Persia.....	22	4	38	5	62	5	350		700		3	
Turkish Empire.....	595	591	1,133	59	108	387	137,850		59,414	32	21	2,154
East India Islands.....	101	41	232	2	64	180	37,707	815	9,707	10	2	613
Philippines.....	1,341	105	696			1,330	7,455,714		12,097			
Oceania.....	427	227	418	8	309	900	131,436	11,598	31,933	99	3	948
N. Africa (E.).....	206	300	733	80	118	190	138,018	1,689	20,557	37	13	747
N. Africa (W.).....	427	141	339	5	149	334	119,210	43,245	40,992	91	12	558
So. Africa.....	387	360	1,672	4	163	358	60,000	5,866	28,042	28	14	661
Cent. Africa.....	810	361	466	3	294	2,426	332,676	352,763	126,499	230	100	9,630
African Islands.....	188	109	187	2	88	1,267	223,504	253,015	32,499	17	11	940
Argentine Republic and Paraguay.....				1,564		1,830	7,530,600				68	300
Chile.....				1,502		1,022	3,517,889				66	3,866
Uruguay.....				175		85	800,000					
Brazil.....				3,362		5,286	20,670,471				16	430
Bolivia.....				641		769	1,716,560				2	50
Peru.....				1,104		3,202	4,161,666				12	50
Ecuador.....				537		466	1,202,560				2	107
Guianas.....				94		101	78,200				2	161
Venezuela.....				309		577	2,221,070				46	273
Colombia.....				1,154		1,208	4,020,445				37	280
Central America.....				583		792	3,795,291				40	1,113
Mexico.....				3,824		5,476	13,880,706				25	1,109
West Indies.....				1,067		937	5,046,002					
United States— N. American Indians				163		306	67,741					

H. P. Beach and B. St. John, ed., *World Statistics of Christian Missions*, pp. 105-104. Prepared by P. Kare Streit from Atlas Hierarchus, 1913. Many items are necessarily incomplete. In Latin American countries natives and foreigners were not distinguished in most cases.)

The last named is the chief product. The forest area is about 17,500,000 acres. Mississippi ranks third among the states in the production of rough lumber. See U.S.A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas of North America: Southeastern area.

1540.—Spanish explorations.—“Nearly three-quarters of a century before English colonies were planted at Jamestown and Plymouth, the hardy and adventurous Spaniards were exploring the region which now constitutes the State of Mississippi. The coming of De Soto and his soldiery marks the beginning of Mississippi history.”—D. Rowland, ed., *Mississippi*, v. 1, p. vii.—See also FLORIDA: 1528-1542; SOTO, HERNANDO.

1629.—Embraced in grant to Sir Robert Heath. See AMERICA: 1629.

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

1699-1710.—Founding of first European settlement.—Pierre le Moyne d'Iberville founded in 1699 the first European settlement in the state at Fort Maurepas (Old Biloxi). The site proved undesirable, and in 1702 the colony was transferred to Twenty-seven Mile Bluff on the Mobile river; after the violent spring freshets in 1710, it was moved to the site of the present city of Mobile.

1712-1729.—Founding of New Biloxi.—Mississippi river ascended by Iberville and Brienville.—Friendly relations with Indians.—Massacre at Natchez. See LOUISIANA: 1608-1712; 1690-1763; 1710-1750.

1732.—Mostly embraced in the new province of Georgia. See GEORGIA: 1732-1730.

1733.—Colony at war with Chickasaws. See LOUISIANA: 1710-1750.

1763.—Partly embraced in West Florida, ceded to Great Britain. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties; NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1763.

1779-1781.—Reconquest of West Florida by Spaniards. See FLORIDA: 1770-1781.

1779-1813.—Spanish domination of lower Mississippi valley and the Floridas. See LOUISIANA: 1770-1797; 1785-1800; 1798-1803.

1783.—Mostly covered by English cession to the United States. See U.S.A.: 1783 (September).

1783-1787.—Boundary dispute with Spain. See FLORIDA: 1783-1787.

1798-1804.—Territory constituted and organized.—Establishment of a legislative assembly.—“The territory heretofore surrendered by the Spanish authorities, and lying north of the 31st degree of latitude, with the consent and approbation of the State of Georgia, was erected into a territory of the United States by act of Congress, approved April 7th, 1798, entitled ‘an act for the amicable settlement of limits with the State of Georgia, and authorizing the establishment of a government in the Mississippi Territory.’ The territory comprised in the new organization, or the original Mississippi Territory, embraced that portion of country between the Spanish line of demarkation and a line drawn due east from the mouth of the Yazoo to the Chattahoochy River. The Mississippi river was its western limit and the Chattahoochy its eastern. The organization of a territorial government by the United States was in no wise to impair the rights of Georgia to the soil, which was left open for future negotiation between the State of Georgia and the United States.” In 1802 the State of Georgia ceded to the United States all her claim to lands south of the

State of Tennessee, stipulating to receive \$1,250,000 “out of the first net proceeds of lands lying in said ceded territory.” In 1804 “the whole of the extensive territory ceded by Georgia, lying north of the Mississippi Territory, and south of Tennessee, was . . . annexed to the Mississippi Territory, and was subsequently included within its limits and jurisdiction. The boundaries of the Mississippi Territory, consequently, were the 31st degree on the south, and the 35th degree on the north, extending from the Mississippi River to the western limits of Georgia, and comprised the whole territory now embraced in the States of Alabama and Mississippi, excepting the small Florida District between the Pearl and Perdido Rivers. Four fifths of this extensive territory were in the possession of the four great southern Indian confederacies, the Choctas, the Chickasas, the Creeks, and the Cherokees, comprising an aggregate of about 75,000 souls, and at least 10,000 warriors. The only portions of this territory to which the Indian title had been extinguished was a narrow strip from 15 to 50 miles in width, on the east side of the Mississippi, and about 70 miles in length, and a small district on the Tombigby.”—J. W. Monette, *Discovery and settlement of the valley of the Mississippi*, v. 2, bk. 5, ch. 13.—“The act which created the Territory of Mississippi provided for a government similar in form to that of the Northwest Territory. The President was authorized to appoint a governor for a term of three years, a secretary for a term of four years, and three judges for a term of ‘good behavior.’ The governor and judges, or any three of them, were authorized to adopt and publish in the district such laws of the original States as were necessary and best suited to the district, and report them to Congress from time to time. The governor was directed to appoint and commission all military officers below the rank of general officers and such magistrates and other civil officers as might be necessary before the organization of the general assembly. . . . This form of the government was to last until the population of the Territory should number ‘five thousand free male inhabitants of full age,’ when a second grade of territorial government should be organized. . . . Winthrop Sargent, a native of Massachusetts and a former secretary of the Territory northwest of the Ohio, was the first governor of the Territory of Mississippi. . . . On April 2, 1790, Governor Sargent divided the Territory into two counties, which he named Adams and Pickering after the President and the Secretary of State. These were the first counties to be organized in the State of Mississippi. . . . It will be remembered that the governor and the three judges, or any three of them, were authorized to frame for the Territory laws like those of the States then belonging to the Union. These officials went beyond the limits of their authority, however, and made laws that were in many cases against not only the spirit of our institutions, but the Constitution of the United States. . . . Most of these laws were afterwards annulled by Congress. . . . [The first legislative act bears the date of February 28, 1799, and is entitled “a law establishing militia.” It does not purport to be taken from or based upon the law or code of any other state. In all, thirty-nine laws were enacted by the governor and judges of the Mississippi Territory, all violating the technical letter of the ordinance, but having the tacit approval of Congress.] These unjust laws increased the opposition to the governor until a general committee, chosen by the people, prepared a memorial, telling of their troubles and praying that Congress would advance the country to the

second grade of territorial government. Congress condemned the governor's system of unjust fees, and, contrary to the ordinance of 1787, advanced the country to the second grade of territorial government by permitting the people to have a legislature before the population had reached the prescribed number of 'five thousand free male inhabitants of full age.' . . . By an act, approved May 10, 1800, Congress provided for the establishment of a general assembly, or legislature, consisting of the governor, a legislative council, and a house of representatives. The legislative council was to consist of five members chosen for a period of five years. They were to be selected by Congress from a list of names, nominated by the house of representatives of the Territory. The number of representatives in the assembly was limited to nine—four each from Adams and Pickering counties and one from the newly created county of Washington—until the number of free male inhabitants of full age in the Territory should amount to five thousand. After that time there should be one representative for every five hundred free male inhabitants, until the total number should amount to twenty-five when the number and proportion of representatives should be regulated by the legislature. The council and house of representatives were authorized to elect by joint ballot a delegate to Congress, who was to have the right of debating, but not of voting, in that body. The governor was given power to veto legislative acts, and no provision was made for overriding his veto. The act of Congress also provided for the first meeting of the general assembly on September 22, 1800, and for annual meetings thereafter, unless called together oftener by the governor."—F. L. Riley, *School history of Mississippi*, pp. 94-98.

ALSO IN: W. L. Jenks, *Territorial legislation by governor and judges (Mississippi Valley Historical Review, June, 1918, pp. 41-44)*.

1801-1811.—Administration of territorial governors. — First Choctaw cession. — Requirements for voting.—"In 1801 President Jefferson appointed William Charles Cole Claiborne to succeed Winthrop Sargent as governor of the Territory of Mississippi. . . . In his administration Indian titles to large tracts of land were extinguished, the militia was well organized, lawlessness was put down, and the limits of the Territory were increased. Governor Claiborne was one of the commissioners to receive Louisiana from the French government, and was later appointed governor of the newly acquired territory of Orleans (October 1, 1804). From the time of his departure from Mississippi (December 2, 1803) to the arrival of Governor Williams in January, 1805, Cato West, secretary of the Territory, served as governor. . . . Robert Williams, of North Carolina, and Cowles Mead . . . a native of Virginia, were then appointed governor and secretary, respectively, of the Mississippi Territory. . . . The principal event of his term as governor was the arrest and trial of Aaron Burr. The administration of Governor Williams ended with his removal by President Madison, in March, 1800. . . . Although great efforts had been made by Governor Sargent to organize the militia, the Territory was found to be entirely defenceless upon the arrival of his successor. The legislature, following Governor Claiborne's advice, passed a law which resulted in the organization of military companies in every county of the Territory. . . . In 1802, the militia of the Territory numbered about two thousand, and was well organized. . . . By a treaty made shortly after Governor Claiborne's arrival in the Territory, the Choctaws gave to the United States all the lands

in the old Natchez District which had been ceded to England in 1777. In 1805 the Choctaws ceded to the United States a strip of land north of the thirty-first degree and east of the Natchez District. This grant is marked 'First Choctaw Cession' . . . In 1802 the legislature of the Territory removed the seat of the territorial government to the town of Washington, six miles east of Natchez, the first capital. . . . By an act of Congress, approved January 9, 1808, the requirements for voting were changed so that it could be exercised by any white male person in the Territory above the age of twenty-one who had lived therein for one year, or had been a citizen of the United States, and who owned fifty acres of land or a town lot valued at one hundred dollars. It authorized the general assembly of the Territory to apportion the representatives of the counties according to the population, but provided that, until there should be six thousand white inhabitants of full age in the Territory, the number of representatives should not be more than twelve nor less than ten. This act also took from the general assembly the power to elect the delegates to Congress, and gave it to the citizens of the Territory that were qualified to vote. . . . Governor Williams' grew more unpopular daily, until he was finally removed by President Madison (March, 1809). David Holmes was then appointed governor of the Territory. . . . His term of public service in Mississippi embraced eighteen of the most eventful years in the early history of the Territory and State. The fact that, after having served as governor to the end of the territorial period, he was elected by the people to be the first governor of the State of Mississippi shows the tact and ability with which he discharged his duties. . . . In his administration as territorial governor the limits of Mississippi were extended to the Gulf coast."—F. L. Riley, *School history of Mississippi*, pp. 99-102, 106-108.

ALSO IN: D. Rowland, *Mississippi*, v. 2, pp. 707-821.

1802.—Incorporation of Jefferson College.—Jefferson College, the first school established in the state, was incorporated in 1802. It is now Jefferson Military College, located near Natchez.

1803.—Portion acquired by Louisiana Purchase. See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803; U.S.A.: 1803: Louisiana Purchase.

1812-1813.—Spanish West Florida annexed to Mississippi territory and possession taken. See FLORIDA: 1811-1813.

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

1817.—Constitution as a state and admission into the Union.—The sixth and seventh of the new states added to the original Union of thirteen were Indiana and Mississippi. "These last almost simultaneously found representation in the Fifteenth Congress; and of them Indiana, not without an internal struggle, held steadfastly to the fundamental Ordinance of 1787 under which it was settled, having adopted its free State constitution in June, 1816; Mississippi, which followed on the slave side, agreeing upon a constitution, in August, 1817, which the new Congress, at its earliest opportunity [Dec. 10, 1817] after assembling, pronounced republican in form, and satisfactory."—J. Schouler, *History of the United States*, v. 3, p. 100.—At the same time, the part of Mississippi Territory which forms the present state of Alabama was detached and erected into the Territory of Alabama. See ALABAMA: 1817-1810.—"The constitution provided that the government should consist of three distinct departments—the executive, the legislative, and the judicial—and that 'no person, or collection of per-

sons, being of one of these departments' should 'exercise any power properly belonging to either of the others.' All State officials and voters for the same were required to be citizens of the United States. Any person who denied the being of God, or a future state of rewards and punishments, was not allowed to hold the office of governor or lieutenant-governor, or be a member of either branch of the general assembly. The legislature was also given power to pass a law forbidding those who engage in dueling to hold office. Ministers of the Gospel were not permitted to hold the office of governor or to become members of the legislature. The governor and lieutenant-governor were elected by the people for a term of two years. They were required to be at least thirty years of age, to have been citizens of the United States for twenty years and inhabitants of the State for five years, and to have owned for twelve months previous to their election 600 acres of land or real estate to the value of \$2,000. The governor was given power to veto acts of the legislature and to pardon criminals. The lieutenant-governor was authorized to preside over the Senate, and to discharge the duties of governor whenever a vacancy occurred in that office. The other State officials were elected by the legislature. The legislative department was composed of a house of representatives and a senate, elected by the qualified voters of the State for a term of one and three years, respectively. The members of this branch of the government were also required to own a certain amount of land, and to have lived in the State a certain length of time preceding their election. The judges of the supreme and superior courts were chosen by the legislature for a term of 'good behavior,' or until they had arrived at the age of sixty-five. All free white male persons, twenty-one years of age or upwards, who had lived in the State one year and in the voting precinct six months, and belonged to the militia—unless they had been excused therefrom or had paid a State or county tax—were allowed to vote for all officers elected by the people. The legislature was authorized to regulate the slave trade and to pass laws defining the rights and duties of masters of slaves. This constitution was not submitted to a vote of the people for ratification, but went into effect on August 15, 1817, the day it was signed. . . . The constitution provided for the meeting of the legislature at Natchez on the first Monday in October, 1817, but, owing to a yellow fever panic in that place about the middle of September, the governor called the legislature together at the town of Washington. After the governor had been sworn into office and the United States Senators elected, the legislature adjourned. Two months later it met again in Natchez."—F. L. Riley, *School history of Mississippi*, pp. 145-146, 149.

1818-1886.—Development of public school system.—"Chickasaw School Lands."—"Shortly after the formation of the State government (1818) the county courts of the different counties were given control over these lands within their respective borders, with the authority to lease them. A legislative act of 1824 authorized the election of trustees in each township to preserve the school lands, to lease them, and to apply the fund arising therefrom to the building of schoolhouses and the employment of teachers. Upon the recommendation of Governor Poindexter the legislature established (1821) a 'literary fund' for the free education of poor children, and authorized the lending of it to individuals or the investment of it in bank stocks within the State. This fund was raised by setting aside the moneys obtained from fines and forfei-

tures 'not otherwise appropriated.' By the latter part of the year 1836 it amounted to over thirty thousand dollars, but the greater part of it was invested in bank stocks and lost. . . . By an act of Congress, passed in 1803, the sixteenth section of public land in each township was reserved for the support of schools within the township. In violation of this act the United States made a treaty with the Chickasaw Indians (1834), which required that the lands held by these Indians should be sold for the benefit of the tribe. In July . . . [1836] Congress granted the State the same number of sections to be chosen out of any public land that remained unsold within either of the land districts adjoining the Chickasaw counties. The lands thus selected are known as the 'Chickasaw School Lands,' and include 174,550 acres. By an act of the legislature of 1848 they were leased for a term of ninety-nine years. The fund thus secured (\$816,615) is known as the 'Chickasaw School Fund.' It was borrowed by the State and the interest upon it is still used for the support of the schools in the sixteen Chickasaw counties and in the counties of Tallahatchie, Webster, and Yalobusha. . . . In March of the same year [1840] the legislature passed the first statute in Mississippi for a uniform and general system of common schools. The bill provided for the levying of a special tax for public school purposes in those townships in which a majority of the heads of families were favorable thereto. . . . [In 1846 the public school system was established and in 1848 the University of Mississippi was opened.] In his last message to the legislature, January 3, 1848, Governor Brown stated that the common school law had not fulfilled the expectation of its friends. He therefore recommended that it be immediately repealed, and that 'an act more in accordance with the suggestions' contained in his message of two years previous be substituted. But instead of following this recommendation the legislature passed four other acts, which provided for as many different schemes of educational management in thirty-five counties of the State, and left the rest of the counties under the application of the old law. Each succeeding legislature increased the number of special acts, thus rendering the public school system more complicated and less effective year by year. This development reached a climax in the legislature of 1850-1860, which passed no less than twenty-six different acts of this nature. 'Under such management,' says Mayes, 'the schools drifted along to the period of the War between the States, doing some good, more in some localities than in others, of course, but in all crippled, in many paralyzed, by the want of a uniform and vigorous policy.' . . . One of the acts of the legislature of 1870 was the establishment of a free school system for the benefit of both white and colored children. . . . [In 1880 the state agricultural and mechanical college was opened.] The session of the legislature of 1886 enacted a law which greatly improved the public school system of the State and increased its power for good. . . . When the carpet-bag government was overthrown in 1876, the public school system was left undisturbed, 'except in the way of some economic reforms.'"—F. L. Riley, *School history of Mississippi*, pp. 172, 208, 245-246, 305, 335.

1818-1890.—State banks.—Repudiations.—The Bank of Mississippi, which had been incorporated by the territory in 1800, was rechartered by the state in 1818. It was guaranteed a monopoly until 1840, but in 1830, despite the pledge, the Planters' Bank was established with two-thirds of its \$3,000,000 capital subscribed by the state. The next few

years saw a wild era of speculation in the state, and charters were granted to a great many new banks and to railroad corporations with banking privileges. In 1838 the Union Bank was incorporated with a capital of \$15,500,000, of which \$5,000,000 was subscribed by the state and raised on bonds sold to Nicholas Biddle, president of the United States Bank of Pennsylvania. A financial panic had already begun at the time of the founding of the bank, and it was bound to meet with failure. Governor A. G. McNutt (1801-1848) began an agitation for repudiation, which became the main issue of the gubernatorial campaign of 1841. The 'repudiators' were represented by the Democratic candidate Tilghman M. Tucker (1802-1859), the 'anti-repudiators' by the Whig candidate, David O. Shattuck. The Democrats won, the bonds were formally repudiated in 1842, and, though the High Court of Appeals of the state decided in 1853 that the state could not be absolved from its obligation, the decision was disregarded. In the same year Planters' Bank bonds were repudiated also; and both acts of repudiation were upheld by the constitution of 1800. Some \$7,000,000 were thus saved the state, but the consequent loss of public confidence probably offset any advantage gained.

1820-1839.—Second Choctaw cession.—Revision of state laws.—Impeachment of judges.—Indian treaties.—“The limits of the State, as prescribed by the act of Congress in 1816, embraced a large part of Indian territory on which white people were not allowed to settle, and over which the State government had no control. The ‘Old Natchez District,’ the ‘Coast Addition,’ and the ‘First Choctaw Cession,’ were the only parts of the State that were organized into counties, and hence were represented in the constitutional convention of 1817. The second Choctaw cession was made by a treaty drawn up at Doak’s Stand in Madison county on October 18, 1820. . . . By an act of the legislature (1821) Governor Poindexter was asked to revise the laws of the State. In May, 1822, his code was completed, and in the following June it was adopted by the legislature. The value of his service is shown by the fact that much of this code still exists in our system of laws. . . . Walter Leake, a native of Virginia, was elected governor of Mississippi in 1821. . . . In his term of office *Poindexter’s Code* was adopted, the capital of the State was located at Jackson, and a contest arose between the legislature and the supreme court. . . . In 1821 the legislature selected the town of Monticello as the capital of the State. On the day after the act was passed it was repealed. Three commissioners were then appointed to locate within twenty miles of the center of the entire State two sections of land which had been given for a capital two years previous by the general government. This commission was instructed to lay off the future capital, which the act declared should be called ‘Jackson’ in honor of Major-General Andrew Jackson. . . . In 1825 the supreme court of Mississippi declared an act passed by the legislature a year previous to be unconstitutional. The house of representatives thereupon made the judges to appear before it and show cause why they should not be removed from office for daring to pass upon the constitutionality of an act of the legislature. The matter was referred to a special committee of the house, which acquitted the judges of any wrong motives, but stated that it knew of no power that the supreme court had to declare any law unconstitutional. One of the judges then resigned. . . . Only a few years had passed after the second Choctaw cession, when the white people of the State began to urge the national government to

make another treaty with the Choctaws. At a great council of these Indians (1828) they refused to sell the land they still owned. . . . Two acts were passed in Governor Brandon’s terms of office for the purpose of limiting the power of the Indians and of hastening their removal from the State. The first of these acts (1829) made the white people, living in the Chickasaw and Choctaw nations, subject to the laws of the State. It did not affect, however, the tribal organization and the laws of the Indians, since they were especially exempted from its application. By an act of the year following, the government of the Indians was abolished, citizenship was granted them, and the laws of the State were extended over them. . . . In 1830 the ‘mingoes, chiefs, captains, and warriors’ of the Choctaw nation assembled at Dancing Rabbit Creek, and agreed to a treaty by which they granted to the United States all the remaining lands they held east of the Mississippi. . . . On October 22, 1832, the United States made with the Chickasaw nation, at their council-house on Pontotoc Creek, a treaty which destroyed the remaining Indian titles to lands within the borders of the State. This gave the State the land now embraced in about twenty counties. The terms of the treaty were the same as those of the last treaty with the Choctaw nation, except that the Chickasaws retained the right to decide when they would move. Many of them left the State in 1835, and by the end of the year 1830 the rest had moved to their new lands west of the Choctaw nation in the Indian Territory.”—F. L. Rowley, *School history of Mississippi*, pp. 151-153, 154-157, 187-188.

ALSO IN: D. Rowland, *Mississippi*, v. 2, pp. 797-821.

1831-1869.—Railroad building.—Constitutional changes.—“In 1831, three years after the building of the first railway in the United States, the people of Woodville organized a company to build a railroad from that place to St. Francisville. It was the first railroad in the State. In the same year a company was formed for the purpose of building a railroad from Vicksburg to Jackson. . . . In the period between 1831 and 1841 little was done in the way of building railroads except on paper. Although twenty-two railroad companies had been organized in this decade, the railway facilities of the State were summed up in 1840 in the following sentence: ‘For several years we have had a railroad from Vicksburg to Jackson.’ It is interesting to note that the fare in this road was at that time six cents a mile. In 1857 work was being done on five roads within the State, and in the year following almost twenty millions of dollars had been invested in these enterprises. In 1860 the railroad mileage of the State was estimated at 860. . . .

“The fifteen years immediately following the formation of the first constitution of Mississippi produced many changes in the political ideas of the American people. . . . A large majority of the States had done away with the old requirements for voting. The people of Mississippi saw this and became dissatisfied with the high requirements of their first constitution for voting and holding office. [See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1864-1021.] This constitution had also placed the choice of the judges in the hands of the legislature. . . . There was also much dissatisfaction over the fact that the judges of the supreme court practically held office for life. These and other objections to the constitution of 1817 caused the legislature, in December, 1831, to take steps for the formation of a new constitution. . . . Delegates from the twenty-six counties of the State met in Jackson on September 10, 1832. . . . The con-

vention completed its work on October 28th. . . . The new constitution went into effect without being voted on by the people for adoption or rejection. . . . Probably the most important change introduced by the constitution of 1832 was the requirement that all officers, both State and county, should be chosen by the people. Another change, scarcely less important, forbade the election of any officer in the State for life or for a term of good behavior. By a third change citizens were no longer required to own property in order to vote or to hold office. By another provision ministers of the Gospel were allowed to become members of the legislature and to hold the office of governor. Provision was made for a 'High Court of Errors and Appeals,' for a superior court, and for probate courts. The office of lieutenant-governor was done away with, the president of the senate being authorized to act as governor in case of a vacancy in that office. The bringing of slaves into the State as merchandise or for sale was forbidden, and imprisonment for debt, after the surrender of the debtor's property for the benefit of his creditors, was prohibited except in case of fraud. The legislature was authorized to meet in regular session every two years instead of every year. . . . The 'High Court of Errors and Appeals' consisted of three judges, elected for a term of six years, one of whom was to be chief justice. . . . The constitution of 1832 provided that Jackson should be continued as the capital of the State, at least until 1850."—F. L. Riley, *School history of Mississippi*, pp. 169, 176-179, 240-241.—"Six amendments were adopted before 1860: (1) giving the legislature power to regulate or prohibit the introduction of slaves into the State, adopted 1844-46; (2) regarding county board of police, adopted 1850-52; (3) abolishing the superior court of chancery, adopted 1854-56; (4) extending terms of office to January, 1858, adopted 1854-56; (5) changing the general elections to the first Monday of October, session of legislature to first Monday of November, biennially, and further regulating terms of office; (6) abrogating the preceding, so far as it related to terms of legislators. The result was very confusing."—D. Rowland, ed., *Mississippi*, v. 1, p. 549.

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

1851.—Secession proposals by state Democrats.—Defeat.—The compromise measures of Congress, enacted in 1850, led to the adoption by the Democratic party in 1851 of a platform favoring secession. Jefferson Davis was nominated for governor. The Whigs nominated United States Senator Foote, and declared their attachment to the Union. The Union party was victorious in the elections, and the slavery question remained in the background until 1856, when it was raised again by those who feared the election of Fremont to the national presidency.

1859.—Legislative enactments to prevent insurrection.—"In 1850 John Brown made a desperate, though unsuccessful attempt to arouse the slaves of Virginia to an insurrection. . . . In order to suppress in Mississippi all attempts like that made by Brown in Virginia, the legislature of 1850 appropriated \$150,000 for the purchase of military supplies, and passed an act to regulate the militia and volunteer systems of the State. . . . The constitution of 1832 was retained by the State during her connection with the Confederacy. The words, 'Confederate States,' were substituted for the expression, 'United States,' wherever the latter occurred in that document."—F. L. Riley, *School history of Mississippi*, pp. 218-219, 225.

1861 (January).—Secession from the Union.—

Member of "The Confederate States of America." See U. S. A.: 1861 (January-February); (February: Adoption of a constitution, etc.).

1862 (April-May).—Taking of Corinth by Union forces. See U. S. A.: 1862 (April-May: Tennessee-Mississippi).

1862 (May-July).—First Union attempts against Vicksburg. See U. S. A.: 1862 (May-July).

1862 (September-October).—Battles of Iuka and Corinth. See U. S. A.: 1862 (September-October).

1863 (April-May).—Grierson's raid. See U. S. A.: 1863 (April-May: Mississippi).

1863 (April-July).—Federal siege and capture of Vicksburg. See U. S. A.: 1863 (April-July).

1863 (July).—Capture and destruction of Jackson. See U. S. A.: 1863 (July: Mississippi).

1864 (February).—Sherman's raid to Meridian. See U. S. A.: 1863-1864 (December-April: Tennessee-Mississippi).

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

1865 (June).—Provisional government set up under President Johnson's plan of reconstruction. See U. S. A.: 1865 (May-July).

1865-1869.—Repeal of ordinances of 1861.—Extension of civil and political rights to the negro.—"The Mississippi Convention, which met in Jackson August 14, 1865, was the first in the Southern States to be held in accordance with the President's plan of reconstruction. The Ordinance of Secession was declared null and void, and the other ordinances passed by the convention of 1861 were repealed. All legislative acts that had been passed since January 9, 1861, with two or three exceptions, were ratified and confirmed. An ordinance was adopted, making it the duty of the legislature at the next session to provide by law for the protection and security of the persons and property of freedmen, and to guard them and the State against the evils that might arise from their sudden emancipation. United States Senators and representatives were also chosen by this body, but were refused admission to their seats in Congress. The convention adjourned August 24th. . . . The freedom of the negro now being an established fact, it remained to extend to them the civil and political rights incident to that freedom. As the testimony of freedmen was not at that time allowed in the courts, the United States military authorities had adopted the practice of removing all cases in which freedmen were involved from the civil courts to military tribunals under the control of the Freedmen's Bureau. [See U. S. A.: 1865-1866: Creation of Freedmen's Bureau.] In September, Governor Sharkey, by proclamation, extended to them the right to testify in all cases in which the rights of freedmen were involved. Shortly afterwards the legislature conferred upon them the right to hold real estate and to sue in the courts. In 1869 they were made jurors by Governor Ames. . . . The legislature, chosen on October 2d, met at Jackson on October 16th. . . . It devolved upon the legislature to secure to the freedmen the political and civil rights to which they were now entitled. . . . The legislature made its first error by refusing to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment after the convention had almost unanimously decreed the abolition of slavery. A stringent law was enacted to regulate the relation of master and apprentice, as it related to freedmen. Another required all freedmen to have employment by the 1st of January. Another prohibited them from renting and leasing land except in incorporated towns and cities. These measures have come down

to us under the name of the 'Black Code' of 1865 [see BLACK CODES]."—F. L. Riley, *School history of Mississippi*, pp. 286-289.—"A very valuable section [of the constitution] was ratified by special vote in 1869: 'The credit of the State shall not be pledged or loaned in aid of any person, association or corporation, nor shall the State hereafter become a stockholder in any corporation.' It was forbidden to create or extend any corporate body with the privilege of issuing paper to circulate as money. Counties, cities and towns were forbidden to take stock in any corporation except by a two-thirds vote of the electors; lotteries were forbidden; taxation was required to be equal and uniform and property of corporations 'shall be subject to taxation the same as that of individuals.' Regarding county organization the county board of police was succeeded by the 'board of supervisors.'"—D. Rowland, ed., *Mississippi*, v. 1, p. 551.

1866.—Beginning of operation of Black Code.—The Mississippi Black Code, passed in 1865, "withheld from the freedmen the right to own or lease land except in incorporated towns, and provided for 'apprenticing' negro children whose parents were unwilling or unable to support them, preference being given in such cases to former masters, who were given power to use 'moderate corporal chastisement.' Any negro over eighteen years of age who should be found on the 2d of January, 1866, or thereafter, without lawful employment or business was made subject to fine and to imprisonment at the discretion of the court, and to being hired out in case he did not pay such fine. . . . Intermarriage between the races was forbidden under heavy penalties, that prescribed by Mississippi being life imprisonment."—P. L. Harworth, *United States in our own times*, pp. 17-18.—See also U. S. A.: 1865 (May-July); (July-December); 1865-1866 (December-April); 1868-1876.

1867-1870.—Part of Fourth Military District.—By the Reconstruction Act of March 2, 1867, Mississippi and Arkansas were included in the Fourth Military District. Commanders were General E. O. C. Ord, 1867; Alvan C. Gillem, 1868-1869; and Adelbert Ames, 1869-1870.

1868-1879.—Black and Tan convention.—Constitution of 1868.—Readmission of state.—"The important event of General Gillem's short administration was the session of the constitutional convention. It assembled at Jackson January 6, 1868, in accordance with a military order issued by General Ord. In personnel, it was the most remarkable assemblage ever held in the State. There were one hundred members, seventeen of whom were colored. The majority of the latter had been slaves up to the close of the war. . . . There were nineteen ex-Union soldiers in the convention, three of whom had been brigadier-generals. There were nineteen Democrats and thirty native white Republicans, the latter commonly called 'scalawags.' The few honest, patriotic men in the convention could accomplish nothing, as the influence of political adventurers dominated that assembly. . . . Perhaps less than a dozen who voted for these measures were owners of real estate in Mississippi. Congress was memorialized to declare all the civil offices of the State vacant, so that they might be filled with men of 'known loyalty,' by which . . . was meant Republicans. . . . This convention inserted in the constitution which it formed, a clause that would have deprived thousands of the white citizens of Mississippi of the right to vote or hold office. The Democratic members then resigned. . . . It was determined to submit the new constitution to the qualified electors of the State, and a

committee of five was appointed to receive and determine the results. . . . The white people were active in their efforts to defeat the constitution, knowing that if they failed they could scarcely live in comfort under its diabolical provisions. The freedmen were organized into 'loyal leagues' and drilled by their white leaders. They were sworn to vote against their late masters who, it was alleged, only wanted an opportunity to put them back into slavery. Be it said to their honor, many negroes voted with the white people against the constitution, and by their help it was rejected. . . . July 10th General Gillem announced that 55,231 votes had been cast for the constitution and 63,860 against it; that four of the five members of Congress elected were Democrats; and that Humphreys had defeated Eggleston for governor by a majority of eight thousand. The Radicals, however, secured a small majority in the legislature. As the constitution was rejected, the legislature did not meet to give the party an opportunity to profit by its success. . . . On June 4, 1868, General Gillem was succeeded by General Irwin McDowell, who commanded the district until July 4th, when General Gillem was reinstated. McDowell's brief reign was marked by the removal of Governor Humphreys and Attorney-General Hooker, it being alleged that they were an obstacle to the reconstruction acts. Brevet Major-General Adelbert Ames was appointed provisional governor in the place of Governor Humphreys. A military officer was detailed to perform the duties of attorney-general. On February 9th following, the Secretary of State was removed. General Ames proceeded to Jackson and informed Governor Humphreys of his appointment, and requested that the executive office be vacated as soon as possible. The governor replied that the attempt to remove him was a usurpation of the civil government of Mississippi, and that he would not surrender the archives until a legally qualified successor was chosen. On the following day a detail of soldiers took possession of the Statehouse and forcibly ejected the governor against his dignified protest. . . . The constitution as adopted in 1868 made several changes in the fundamental law of the State. It created a public school system and established the office of State superintendent of education. It reestablished the office of lieutenant-governor and extended the terms of State officers to four years. It provided that all judges should be appointed by the governor and confirmed by the senate. The old county probate courts were abolished and a system of chancery courts established. The High Court of Errors and Appeals was changed to the Supreme Court and the terms of its judges were fixed at nine years. The old county boards of police were abolished, and boards of supervisors established instead. . . . The legislature chosen in 1869 met in Jackson, January 11, 1870. It ratified the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments and elected United States Senators. . . . As the State had met the demands of Congress by adopting a new constitution and by ratifying, through the legislature, the new amendments to the Federal constitution, her representatives were admitted to seats in that body, February 24, 1870."—F. L. Riley, *School history of Mississippi*, pp. 205-208, 300.—"Three amendments to the constitution were proposed by the legislature and adopted at the general election in 1875: (1) to prohibit the payment of the Union and Planters' bank bonds; (2) to require the payment for forfeited lands, fines and liquor licenses in United States money; to be applied to the support of schools; (3) to permit

a reduction of the number of chancery judges. These were inserted in the constitution by resolution of January 18, 1876. Another amendment was submitted in 1879 for biennial elections, and was overwhelmingly defeated. Only 13,000 votes, out of 122,000 votes, were cast for it."—D. Rowland, ed., *Mississippi*, v. 1, p. 551.

1876.—Impeachment of state officers.—"The legislature chosen in November met at Jackson, January 4, 1876. It was composed of thirty-seven senators and one hundred and sixteen representatives. There were but twenty-one colored members in this body. Politically all the members were Democratic except about thirty. In his message Governor Ames declared that the legislature had been elected by fraud and violence, and that it was therefore an illegal body. . . . It had been the general understanding that in the event of Democratic success at the polls in November, Governor Ames and several other State officers would be impeached and removed from office. . . . Soon after the reading of the governor's message General Featherston, a representative from Holly Springs, offered a resolution for the appointment of a committee to learn whether there were good grounds for the impeachment of the governor, a thorough investigation was made. . . . February 22d the committee reported resolutions in favor of impeachment and removal of the governor for official misconduct on eleven separate and distinct charges. . . . On the 13th of March Lieutenant-Governor Davis denied the five articles of impeachment against him, was tried before the senate, convicted, and removed from office. . . . Cardoza, the superintendent of education, was charged with official malfeasance in twelve instances. While the impeachment was impending he asked permission to resign and have the proceedings dismissed. His request was granted, and on the 22d of February his resignation was accepted by an almost unanimous vote. On March 16th the trial of Governor Ames began before the senate sitting as a high court of impeachment. . . . One week later he expressed a desire to resign should the articles of impeachment be dismissed. The house at once adopted a resolution dismissing the articles of impeachment, and on the same day he resigned his office and left the State. . . . Upon the resignation of Governor Ames and the removal of Lieutenant-Governor Davis, Colonel John M. Stone succeeded to the office of governor."—F. L. Riley, *School history of Mississippi*, pp. 321-323, 326.

1880-1890.—"Mississippi Plan."—Agitation for a new constitution.—"In the decade of 1880 to 1890 it became apparent that the 'Mississippi plan' of dealing with black majorities would, unless checked, pollute the very sources of representative government. [The "Mississippi Plan" was a term used to denote the general Southern method of dealing with the Negro vote—involving intimidation and nullifying franchise laws.] Symptoms of the diseased political condition grew so acute that the demand for suffrage restriction to effect an electorate under which there could be white supremacy through honest elections became quite imperative. The agitation for a Constitutional Convention was revived, and grew very urgent. Responding to this sentiment the Legislature, in 1886, adopted a resolution calling such a Convention, which was vetoed by Governor Lowry. In 1888 another resolution was adopted, one inviting discussion of the question in the ensuing campaign for the election of a Legislature and State officers. A Constitutional Convention was therefore made a direct issue in the canvass of

1889. Ex-Governor Stone, a candidate for Governor, declared he would approve a bill for a Convention if passed. [Governor Stone was elected and a constitutional convention was duly assembled.]—J. S. McNeilly, *War and reconstruction in Mississippi* (*Mississippi Historical Society*, v. 2, p. 532).

1886-1906.—Board of control.—"An act of 1886 conferred upon the Railroad commissioners . . . the duties of a board of control of the penitentiary, . . . after legislation looking to the termination of the leasing system and the resumption of direct control of convicts by the State. The penitentiary was at that time leased to the Gulf & Ship Island Railroad Company, W. H. Hardy, president, but the board cancelled the lease December 3, 1888, on the ground of non-compliance with contract. . . . Consequently the board took charge of the convicts December 4. . . . In January, 1889, the board rented . . . farms, near Jackson, formerly worked by convict labor. . . . Good financial results were obtained the first year, all expenses were paid, and over \$22,000 remained in the treasury. . . . The governor and attorney-general were added to the membership of the Board of Control in 1892. In 1893 the board reported that in five years \$111,000 had been paid into the State treasury as the net earnings of convicts. The legislature having made no enactment, the convicts were being mainly leased to planters. In 1894 'planting contracts' were made, public sentiment permitting no more leasing. In the same year there was begun the purchase of State farms. . . . The Board of Control continued in the management of these farms and the convicts. The legislature of 1906 changed the management of convict affairs by providing for the appointment by the Governor of a board of three trustees and a superintendent, the change to go into effect January 1, 1907."—D. Rowland, ed., *Mississippi*, v. 1, pp. 258-259.

1889.—Lynchings. See LYNCH LAW: Origin.

1890-1892.—New state constitution.—Qualification of suffrage.—A new state constitution, framed and put in force in 1890 by a constitutional convention, without submission to the people, established a qualification of the suffrage which heavily diminished the negro vote by its effect. "In accordance with an act of the legislature ratified February 5, 1890, the fourth constitutional convention in the history of the State met in Jackson, August 12, 1890. . . . The most important features of the constitution of 1890 related to the requirements for voting and the method of conducting elections. Another important clause made provision for the educational needs of the State. Certain officers were made ineligible to succeed themselves. Decided restrictions were laid upon corporate legislation, yet liberal terms were granted to new factories. The constitution also placed restrictions upon the leasing of convicts, and provided for the purchase of State farms at the discretion of the legislature. . . . The new State constitution made provision for the appointment of three commissioners 'to draft such general laws as are contemplated by the constitution, and such other general laws as shall be necessary and proper to put into operation the provisions thereof, and as may be appropriate to conform the general statutes of the State to the constitution.'"—F. L. Riley, *School history of Mississippi*, pp. 339-340, 343-344.—"A provision was inserted into the constitution to the effect that all persons permitted to register 'shall be able to read any section of the Constitution of the State; or he shall be able to understand the same when read to him,

or to give a reasonable interpretation thereof.' As the registration officers were practically all white men, it was easy for them, when they deemed it desirable, to enforce a very high standard in the case of negroes and to lower the bars for illiterate whites."—P. L. Haworth, *United States in our own times*, pp. 95.—In 1892, the supreme court of the state affirmed the validity of the constitution, which had been challenged on two grounds, namely: that it had not been submitted to the vote of the people, and that it was in conflict with the Fourteenth Amendment of the constitution of the United States.

1900-1906.—Primary election law.—Other legislation.—"In his inaugural address (1900) Governor Longino urged the enactment of a 'uniform compulsory primary election law.' . . . In his message of 1902 the governor quoted the clause of the constitution of 1890, 'The legislature shall enact laws to secure fairness in party primary elections, conventions and other methods of nominating party candidates.' . . . The existing statutes were embraced in the code of 1892. The legislature of 1902 repealed the same except two sections, and adopted senate bill No. 1, now known as the primary election law, amended in 1904. It requires that 'all nominations for State, district, county and county district officers made by the different parties of the State shall hereafter be made by primary elections,' which shall be governed by the election law in force at the time of such primary elections, with some exceptions provided. . . . A State convention shall be held by each political party in 1904 and every four years thereafter, to select a State executive committee, delegates to the national convention, and to nominate presidential electors, each county to have a representation in the convention equal to twice its representation in the house of representatives, the delegates to be selected by county delegate conventions in each county, the representation in which is also regulated. . . . 'No persons shall be eligible to participate in primary elections unless they are qualified electors, intend to support the nominations in which they participate, have participated with the political party holding the primary within the two years preceding, and are not excluded from such primary by regulations of the party State executive committee.' . . . Among the important laws of 1904 were those establishing two new, agricultural experiment stations,—one in the northwest and one in the delta; creating a text book commission to select a uniform series of school books; making September 1 a legal holiday; authorizing the boards of levee commissioners to issue \$1,500,000 in bonds; protecting wild birds other than game birds; requiring 'equal but separate accommodations for white and colored races' on street cars; authorizing a new code of laws; creating the county of Lamar from parts of Marion and Pearl River; creating a commission to build a new institution for the deaf and dumb; creating a permanent capitol commission; and a stringent vagrancy law. At the congressional election of 1904 a constitutional amendment was adopted, striking out the requirement of a decennial State census. . . . Much of the time of this legislature [1906] was given to the adoption of the new code of laws, prepared under the act of 1904."—R. Rowland, ed., *Mississippi*, v. 2, pp. 481-482, 853.

1908-1918.—Financial difficulties.—Need of strict legislation regarding banks.—Law guaranteeing deposits.—"From 1907 to 1914 there were no less than one hundred bank failures in the State of Mississippi. . . . Beginning in 1908

each year showed more and more agitation throughout the state in favor of strict legislation regulating banks. . . . One thing was quite apparent; no such thing as real centralized supervision existed. The State Banking Department had neither the authority nor the administrative machinery necessary for the proper supervision of the banking business of the state. Before the meeting of the legislature in January 1914, much had been said of the guaranty of deposits system then existing in a few states. . . . During January and February [1914] while the legislature was in session fourteen state banks failed, involving an aggregate loss of no less than three hundred thousand dollars to depositors. . . . Early in this session the proposition for a law regulating banking was received; therefore, with much attention a bill was soon formulated and started on its journey. As is always the case in such matters, the bill was beset with many formidable obstacles, but a law was enacted, which, with a few amendments passed in 1916 and 1918, stands at the present time."—D. Rowland, ed., *Publications of the Mississippi Historical Society*, v. 3, p. 165.

1908-1922.—Legislation.—Part played in World War.—Governatorial changes.—In 1908, county agricultural high schools were established. By a legislative enactment of 1910 the legislature was elected for four years to meet in regular session biennially. In 1912 a bureau of vital statistics was created, a child labor law passed, Greek letter and similar secret fraternities forbidden, and the judiciary (circuit and chancery) was made elective. In 1914, a state department of banking was created. In 1915, the Torrens system for perfecting land titles went into effect. In 1916, a uniform negotiable-instrument law was enacted, the supreme court was made elective (the court to consist of six judges and permitted to sit in two divisions for the consideration of cases, the term of the supreme court judges to be for six years, the circuit and chancery for four years. In 1916, the initiative and referendum were embodied in the constitution by amendment. (See INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States.) During the World War Mississippi furnished 54,295 men or 1.44 of the total Expeditionary Forces. About 24,066 were negroes. In 1920, a compulsory school attendance law was enacted, and a five-million-dollar bond issue was authorized to provide buildings for the state's charitable institutions and institutions of higher learning. The governors for the period, 1908-1922, were: Edmund F. Noel, 1908-1912; Earl Leroy Brewer, 1912-1916; Theodore G. Bilbo, 1916-1920; and L. M. Russell, 1920.

ALSO IN: C. Hearon, *Mississippi and the compromise of 1850*.

MISSISSIPPI BUBBLE, or Mississippi scheme. See FRANCE: 1717-1720; LOUISIANA: 1717-1718.

MISSISSIPPI RIVER, principal river of the North American continent, and the main artery of the river system which drains the greater part of the United States. The total length of the river from the source near Lake Itasca to its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico is about 2,400 miles. The Mississippi and its tributaries have more than 15,000 miles of navigable waterways and drain an area of about 1,250,000 square miles. Owing to the nature of the river bed its channel is constantly changing, and vast sums of money have been spent on works to sustain its banks, chiefly by dykes known as levees. The first levee was begun in 1717 when the engineer Le Blond de la

Tour erected one to protect the city of New Orleans.

1519.—Discovery of the mouth by Pineda, for Garay. See AMERICA: 1519-1525.

1528-1542.—Crossed by Cabeça de Vaca, and by Hernando de Soto.—Descended by survivors of De Soto's company. See FLORIDA: 1528-1542.

1673.—Discovery by Joliet and Marquette. See CANADA: 1634-1673.

1682.—Exploration to the mouth by La Salle. See CANADA: 1669-1687.

1712.—Called the River St. Louis by the French. See LOUISIANA: 1698-1712.

1783-1803.—Right of navigation disputed between Spain and the United States. See FLORIDA: 1783-1787; LOUISIANA: 1785-1800; 1798-1803; U. S. A.: 1784-1788.

1849-1913.—Floods.—On May 12, 1849, a flood in New Orleans spread over 160 squares and submerged 1,600 buildings. On February 22, 1882, the valley of the Mississippi was flooded, and the loss of life and property was so great that the governor of Mississippi made an appeal for public help. In March and April of 1890 the levees of the Mississippi river gave way in many places and large areas of land in Louisiana and Mississippi were flooded. The worst crevasse was caused by the giving way of the Morgansea, near Bayou Sara, which had been built by the federal and state governments at a cost of about \$250,000. In extent of area and loss of property these floods were the most remarkable in the history of the continent. The total area under water on April 10 was about 15,800 square miles, containing about 39,500 farms, whose value was close upon \$65,000,000. The loss of life was small. Congress gave relief to the extent of \$200,000, besides appropriating \$2,583,300 for the improvement of the Mississippi. From March to June, 1912, levees on the Mississippi between Cape Girardeau, Missouri, and the head of the Passes, in Louisiana, gave way under pressure of a record breaking flood, rendering nearly 400,000 persons homeless, and damaging property to an estimated extent of \$50,000,000. Congress appropriated \$1,500,000 for the repair of levees, and the president ordered army relief work. In 1913, two floods passed Cairo, the first in January and the second in April, the latter exceeding all previous records from Cairo to the Gulf of Mexico. At Beulah, Mississippi, a crevasse attained a width of 1,000 feet.

1861-1863.—Battles and sieges of Civil War. See U. S. A.: 1861 (September-November: On the Mississippi); 1862 (March-April: On the Mississippi); (April: On the Mississippi); (May-July: On the Mississippi); (June: On the Mississippi); (December: On the Mississippi); 1863 (January-April: On the Mississippi); (April-July: On the Mississippi); (May-July: On the Mississippi); (July: On the Mississippi).

1875-1879.—South Pass channel.—Mississippi Commission created.—In 1875 Congress authorized a deep channel through the South Pass of the river mouth. "President Johnson in 1866 recommended appropriations for the reconstruction of the Mississippi embankments; but little was done until a succession of overflows led Congress in 1879 to provide a commission consisting of three engineers from the army, three civilians, and a representative of the coast survey to form plans to 'correct, permanently locate, and deepen the channel, and protect the banks of the Mississippi River; improve and give safety and ease to the navigation thereof; prevent destructive floods; and promote and facilitate commerce, trade, and the postal service.' This 'Mississippi River commis-

sion' was sustained for a number of years, and made careful surveys and many suggestions."—E. E. Sparks, *National development*, pp. 313-314.

1900.—Chicago drainage canal opened. See CHICAGO: 1900.

1903.—Channel kept open.—A scheme was put in operation to maintain the river channel at a depth of at least nine feet and a width of 250 feet. Constant work by dredges, during low water seasons, has kept the desired channel open since 1903.

1917.—Flood bill and appropriation by Congress.—"Few pieces of legislation in recent years have marked a more important development in national internal policy [than the Ransdell-Humphres Flood bill signed by the president, 1917]. For in this bill the federal government has committed itself for the first time to an interest in the control and prevention of floods—to stream regulation in its largest sense—and has provided, under the 'welfare clause' of the constitution, the foundation for a legislative and administrative system that is certain to become one of the important national governmental activities of the United States. . . . [On] December 4, 1912, President Taft . . . said, referring to the devastation in the Mississippi valley: 'Under the welfare clause of the constitution, shall we spend for that great section of the country \$40,000,000 or \$50,000,000, in order to make the levees of that river a system which will prevent destruction? . . . Under the constitution we can expend money from the treasury of the United States for the general welfare, and that would seem to include the avoidance of danger if it affects so large a part of the country that it may be said to affect the whole country.' It was, therefore, an event of first importance when both houses of Congress passed and the President approved a bill appropriating \$45,000,000 for controlling the floods of the Mississippi river and continuing its improvement from the head of the passes to the mouth of the Ohio river."—M. Knowles, *Bridling the Mississippi* (*Survey*, Mar. 24, 1917).

1922.—Completion of levees.—"The Mississippi levees are now completed to standard height and width for about 500 miles. The whole length of the levee line has been built up to a level that will withstand the normal floods. . . . To protect the levees from erosion by rain they are sodded with Bermuda grass. They are protected against the wash of waves by a layer of 4 inches of concrete, or by a board protection. . . . Methods of revetment which have been developed as a protection against bank erosion . . . [are] the willow mattress, the articulated concrete mat, and the solid concrete mat. . . . The present program is the appropriation of \$45,000,000, to be available in annual installments of \$10,000,000, these moneys to cover the control of the Mississippi and also of the Sacramento River, California."—J. B. Walker, *Curbing the Mississippi* (*Scientific American*, Aug., 1922).

Also IN: J. L. Mathews, *Remaking the Mississippi*.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY: 17th-18th centuries.—Rivalry of French and English. See U. S. A.: 1681-1750.

1763.—Cession of the eastern side of the river to Great Britain. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties.

1803.—Purchase of western side by the United States. See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY ASSOCIATION: Organized, 1919. See NEW ORLEANS: 1919.

MISSOLONGHI, Siege and capture of (1825-1826). See GREECE: 1821-1829.

MISSOURI, sometimes called the "Ozark," or "Iron Mountain," state, is a north-central state of the United States lying almost midway between the two oceans, the Gulf of Mexico and Canada. It has an area of 69,420 square miles of which 693 square miles are water; and a population, 1920, of 3,404,055. Missouri was originally "Upper Louisiana," the vague frontiers of the French dominions that centered in New Orleans. For at least a century before its emergence in history as part of the Louisiana Purchase it was the center of a great fur-trade and the lure of exploring parties.

Resources.—In 1920, Missouri had 263,004 farms with an area of 34,774,679 acres of which 24,832,966 acres were improved land. The chief crops are cereals, potatoes, flax, cotton, and orchard fruits. The live-stock industry had an approximate total of 8,997,000 head; and a wool-clip of 8,296,000 pounds. The principal mineral products are lead, zinc, and coal; in the production of lead and zinc, Missouri leads all the other states. The productive coal-fields have an area of about 14,000 square miles with an annual output of about 5,133,020 tons. See U.S.A.; Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area. 1629.—Included in grant to Sir Robert Heath. See AMERICA: 1629.

1700-1800.—Fur trade.—Enormous profits.—"The French-Canadian inhabitants of the country before the acquisition of Louisiana, were all practically engaged in the fur trade in one way or another. Piernas in 1769 says in his report: 'The sole and universal trade consists in furs.' French fur traders visited the Missouri and Osages in 1689. Penetrating from Quebec and Montreal into the far interior in search of furs, in early days, these voyageurs, and 'coureurs des bois,' dazzled the savages in their villages with the glittering trinkets in their packs, no less than by the knives, awls, hatchets, kettles, gaudy calico ribbons, gay red blankets and other European commodities. . . . The profits of the traders were usually large. An average profit of one hundred percent on goods sent out, by no means represented the whole gain, because the merchandise going out was valued at its selling price current at the post where they were purchased. For instance, red cloth might sell at Ste. Genevieve or St. Louis or New Madrid at four shillings, or one dollar, per yard, including freight, although actually it cost the merchant at the post not more than one half that sum, yet this cloth when sold to the Indian would bring two dollars or even more. On the other hand, the beaver skins or furs with which the Indian paid for such cloth, would be valued at perhaps two dollars at the post, but they would fetch in London, five or ten times as much. Stoddard estimated the value of the fur trade of upper Louisiana for fifteen successive years before the cession, amounted to about \$200,000 per annum and that this trade annually yielded the traders a profit of over \$55,000, which he justly observes to be a large sum considering the scanty population."—L. Houck, *History of Missouri*, v. 2, pp. 243, 248.

ALSO IN: L. Carr, *Missouri*, pp. 26-28.

1719-1732.—First development of lead mines by the French. See LOUISIANA: 1710-1750.

1762-1803.—Upper and lower administrative divisions.—Administration of justice.—Duties of the commandant.—"Prior to 1762 France had held legal title to Louisiana, but since the settlements made in that part now included in the State of Missouri had been few, the French law need not

receive consideration here. From 1762 to 1800 Spain held legal title to Louisiana. By the Treaty of San Ildefonso, October 1, 1800, Louisiana was retroceded by Spain to France, but Spain remained in actual possession almost up to the time of transfer to the United States in 1803. [See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.] During a period of thirty-four years the Spanish law of Upper Louisiana governed the people within the present limits of Missouri. Nor were these laws less binding after the cession of 1803, except as they were expressly annulled, superseded, or amended. However, for our purposes, the provisions of the Spanish laws of Upper Louisiana may be disregarded. The English system of jurisprudence gradually superseded that of the Continent in Upper Louisiana, and today the organic law of Missouri rests on an Anglo-American basis beginning with the act of Congress of October 31, 1803. . . . Under Spanish rule, the Province of Louisiana was divided into a lower and an upper district for the purpose of facilitating governmental administration. There were several reasons for this division, the more important being the great distance separating the two centers of settlement near the mouth of the Mississippi and that of the Missouri. Also, the population around New Orleans, which was the seat of government of Lower Louisiana, was greater and represented a higher stage of development than we find in Upper Louisiana. The Governor-General at New Orleans exercised direct jurisdiction over Lower Louisiana and appellate jurisdiction over the upper district; and a Lieutenant-Governor at St. Louis exercised direct jurisdiction over Upper Louisiana."—F. C. Shoemaker, *Missouri's struggle for statehood*, pp. 9-11.—The lieutenant-governor "was appointed by the governor general at New Orleans and was subordinate to him. Under the lieutenant governor and appointed by him were commandants of the various military posts throughout the province. The commandant of New Madrid was, however, exempt from the authority of the lieutenant governor. The commandants in turn appointed the syndics for the remote settlements of their districts and the dependencies of the posts. The syndics and most of the commandants received no pay for their services. . . . In the administration of laws the process was very simple and direct. Cases that fell within the jurisdiction of the commandants were quickly tried by them or by the syndics who acted for them. After hearing the statements of both parties to a suit, the commandant or the syndic would give his decision, which was usually accepted as final. However, an appeal might be taken to the lieutenant governor and from him to the governor general, but this was seldom done. . . . In criminal matters either the lieutenant governor would go to the place where the crime was committed and try the case, or the commandant would try it, his decision, however, being subject to an appeal to the lieutenant governor, and from him to the governor general. The law also provided for still further appeals, the last tribunal being the Council of the Indies in Spain, but it was seldom that appeals of any sort were taken. In addition to these judicial functions the commandant exercised extensive administrative and military authority. He maintained peace and order, examined passports, which every traveler was compelled to have, passed upon requests of prospective settlers for permission to take up their residence in the district, and punished slaves. He had the rank and military duties of captain."—E. M. Violette, *History of Missouri*, pp. 52-54.

ALSO IN: L. Carr, *Missouri*, ch. 3.—A. Stoddard, *Sketches of Louisiana, 1812*.—H. M. Breckinridge, *Views of Louisiana, 1814*.

1765.—Northern part included in territory ceded by France to Spain.—England makes peace with Indians. See ILLINOIS: 1765.

1766-1770.—Early exploration and settlement.—Ste. Genevieve and St. Louis, first settlements.—“As far as we know, Ste. Genevieve and St. Louis [see St. Louis] were the only existing settlements in what is now Missouri [in 1769], . . . unless the garrison in the fort built in 1767 by that government at the mouth of the Missouri River be called a settlement. In 1766 the Spanish government sent D'Ulloa to New Orleans to take control of the newly acquired territory. . . . While in New Orleans he [D'Ulloa] sent a body of men under Captain Rui up the Mississippi to establish two forts at the mouth of the Missouri, one on the north bank and one on the south. The reason assigned by D'Ulloa for projecting these forts was to keep the English, who were then holding territory on the east side of the Mississippi, from attempting to ascend the Missouri and establishing settlements there. It was later found advisable to erect only one of these forts, the one on the south bank. To this fort was given the . . . name of 'El Principe de Asturias—Senor Don Carlos,' in honor of Charles, Prince of the Asturias and heir apparent to the throne of Spain. A block house was, however, built on the north side of the mouth of the river, to which was given the name of 'Don Carlos Tercero el Rey,' in honor of Charles III, King of Spain. But by this time these two settlements [Ste. Genevieve and St. Louis] had grown considerably, their population numbering between 900 and 1000. The chief cause for this growth had been the emigration of the French from their settlements in the Illinois country.”—E. M. Violette, *History of Missouri*, pp. 17-18.—See also ILLINOIS: 1765-1774.

1769-1799.—Spanish régime in Upper Louisiana.—“Don Pedro Piernas, who was in command of the Spanish companies when Ulloa landed, succeeded Rui as commander on the Missouri. He came to the fort in 1769. But a few days after he assumed command, he was ordered to surrender the possessions to St. Ange, who was thus officially placed by Spanish authority in command of the upper Louisiana. . . . After Piernas returned to New Orleans, he was re-appointed by O'Reilly, lieutenant-governor 'for the villages of San Luis, Santa Genevieve, and the whole district of the Misuri River, and the part of the Yllineses' belonging to the Province of Louisiana, and this appointment was afterwards, by royal cedula, approved. . . . Don Francisco Cruzat succeeded Piernas as lieutenant-governor, but only remained in office a short time, being superseded on account of sending agents without first obtaining orders to the English possessions to negotiate with the Indians there for the liberation of some captive Missouris and Piorias. Fernando de Leyba was appointed his successor. . . . The celebrated attack of the English and Indians on St. Louis was made while de Leyba was lieutenant-governor. . . . Shortly after the attack on St. Louis, de Leyba died, and Cruzat was reappointed. He fortified St. Louis by surrounding the town with a stockade and erecting several towers. Impressed with the rapid growth of the settlements on the east side of the river, an effort was made by the Spaniards to induce Canadians to immigrate into the country. Liberal offers were made to French, Spanish, Italian, and German Catholic settlers. Such immigrants were offered free land and in

addition enough 'maize in the ear' for the first year, 'an axe, a hoe, a scythe or sickle, a spade, two hens, a cock, and a pig of two months, and with which they can easily found and establish a household which will provide them with a living, or may even make their fortune.' But these inducements did not secure the desired immigration. Cruzat, also in order to promote the cultivation of hemp, recommended the introduction of negro slaves, and the government decided to make provision to supply the settlers 'with negroes in such manner as may be practicable.' During his administration Cruzat promulgated a number of general ordinances for upper Louisiana, as well as ordinances relating more particularly to the municipal affairs of St. Louis. . . . In 1787 Perez followed Cruzat, and he without delay reported that the fortifications of St. Louis needed repairs. While Perez was lieutenant-governor, Colonel George Morgan with some of his adventurers visited him, with letters from Gardoqui. Morgan then supposed that he had received a vast grant and was authorized to establish a colony on the west bank of the river near the mouth of the Ohio. He was well received by Perez and supplied with guides and provisions to make a careful examination of the country from St. Louis south, and finally established the capital of his supposed principality at New Madrid, then known as L'Anse a la Graisse. He at once began his surveys, but his scheme was rudely shattered by the machinations of Wilkinson and the orders of Governor-General Miro. . . . Zenon Trudeau was the next lieutenant-governor of upper Louisiana. . . . The most significant event during Trudeau's administration was the arrival of Pedro Vial dit Manitou overland from Santa Fé. He was commissioned by the Spanish authorities of Mexico to trace out a route to St. Louis, and this task he successfully accomplished. . . . In 1799 Don Carlos de Hault de Lassus, Commandant of New Madrid, was appointed successor of Trudeau and New Madrid was attached to upper Louisiana. Before this time New Madrid was a separate sub-delegation under command of Foucher, Portelle, and De Lassus. De Lassus remained lieutenant-governor of upper Louisiana until the cession of the country.”—L. Houck, *Spanish régime in Missouri*, v. 1, pp. xv, xviii-xxiv.

1803.—Embraced in Louisiana Purchase. See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.

1803-1812.—Earliest attempts to govern Missouri or “Upper Louisiana” as American territory.—“At the time of the cession the population of Upper Louisiana was over ten thousand, of which over one-half were Americans. Not only did Spanish law give place to English law, . . . but even Spanish and French influence as represented by the population had already greatly diminished and was soon to become a negligible quantity as far as legislation was concerned. Excepting some of the large Spanish land grantees and a part of the American settlers, especially those around Cape Girardeau and Mine a Breton, the inhabitants of Upper Louisiana neither rejoiced nor were they even reconciled either at the time when the treaty of cession became known or later when the actual transfer was made. . . . The first organic law of American origin that applied to Louisiana was passed at the first session of the Eighth Congress of the United States on October 31, 1803, and provided a temporary government for the new district [which lasted until 1812]. This act empowered the President of the United States to take possession of Louisiana, and placed under his direction all military, civil and judicial powers

that had been exercised by the officials of the existing government. This great power was lodged in his hands until Congress made other regulations. . . . This law was not unfavorably received by the French inhabitants of Louisiana. . . . Under this law Captain Amos Stoddard was appointed the first American civil commandant of Upper Louisiana. The seat of Government remained at St. Louis, and little change in governmental administration was introduced. This was in accordance with the policy of the Washington officials, who wisely tried to pacify the fears of the inhabitants. Congress did not wait long, however, in making provisions for the government of Louisiana."—F. C. Shoemaker, *Missouri's struggle for statehood*, pp. 11, 14-15.—"On the 26th of March, 1804 . . . President Jefferson approved of the act of Congress by which Louisiana was divided into two parts, and all north of the 33d parallel of north latitude was formed into a district, and styled the District of Louisiana. For judicial and administrative purposes this district, or upper Louisiana . . . was attached to the territory of Indiana, and in October of that year the governor and judges of that territory prepared a series of ordinances, and inaugurated the new government within the district, thereby relieving Major Stoddard from the anomalous position which he had hitherto held of first civil commandant of upper Louisiana, under the appointment of Governor Claiborne, of Mississippi, with all the powers and prerogatives of Spanish lieutenant-governor. [See LOUISIANA: 1803-1804.] . . . No mention is made in the act of the land grants of the French and Spanish commandants, nor is there any reference to the removal of the Indians to the west side of the Mississippi. . . . During the preceding autumn [1804], the intention of the general government was made manifest by a treaty in which the Sacs and Foxes had relinquished some three million acres of land situated immediately north of the Missouri and in the angle formed by the junction of that stream with the Mississippi. In regard to the land grants, . . . it was not until April, 1814, that an act was passed confirming all claims made 'by virtue of incomplete French or Spanish grants or concessions, or any warrant, or order of survey which was granted prior to the 10th of March, 1804,' the day on which the United States took formal possession of upper Louisiana. . . . [The act of 1805 did not] allow the citizens of the newly formed territory to choose their own officers, frame their own laws, or do much else that a self-governing community is usually supposed to do; but it gave them officers whose field of duty was limited to the territory; and, theoretically, it made of that territory a sort of preparatory school, in which the inhabitants were to take their first lessons in the science of self-government, though, practically, except in the introduction of the trial by jury, it made but few changes either in the laws or in the manner in which they were administered."—L. Carr, *Missouri a bone of contention*, pp. 82, 85.

Also in: C. H. McClure, *History of Missouri*, p. 1.

1804-1805.—Exploration of territory. See U. S. A.: 1804-1805: Expedition of Lewis and Clark.

1812-1813.—Region about New Madrid devastated by earthquakes.—Between 1812-1813 a great part of the land near New Madrid was sunk in a terrible earthquake. Such large openings were formed in the earth that a number of lakes came into existence along the Mississippi river. Reelfoot lake developed during this earthquake. It is

so deep that boats easily pass over tops of submerged trees.

1812-1815.—War of 1812.—Trouble with Indians.—Manufacture of munitions.—"The greatest danger to which Missourians who had settled along the Mississippi River were exposed during the war [of 1812] came from the Indians living east of that river, who had been stirred up by English agents. In fact, these agents had been active in stirring up the Indians even before the war broke out. Roving bands of savages who had been furnished with arms by these English agents had crossed the Mississippi and engaged in horse stealing and other marauding. After the war was declared, the Sacs and Foxes who lived along the Rock River in Illinois were induced to make war against the settlers in Missouri, and throughout the war they proved the most troublesome of all the Indians engaged in it. . . . The situation, however, was very serious and called forth energetic efforts on the part of the territorial governor of Missouri. The militia was ordered out, and forts and stations were established and garrisoned. . . . A volunteer force of about 1,400 men was sent up the Mississippi under General Howard in September, 1813, to attack the Illinois Sacs and Foxes. . . . He was unable to bring them into open battle, but he burned several of their villages and destroyed many of their stores of corn, and thus put a check upon their attacks. The situation became so serious in the Boone's Lick country, because of the frequent Indian raids, that General Henry Dodge, who was in command of the militia of the territory, was ordered in September, 1814, to take a body of 350 mounted rangers and go to the relief of the settlers in that region. With Dodge's command there were forty or fifty of the friendly Shawnees and Delawares from the Cape Girardeau District. On reaching what is now Saline County, Dodge was able, through his Indian allies, to locate the hostile Miamis and shortly afterward to effect their capture. The Miamis, 153 in all, surrendered, and were promised that their lives should be spared. . . . Peace with the Indians was ultimately secured at a conference held at Portage des Sioux in the St. Charles District in June, 1815. . . . [There is also] another part that Missouri played in the War of 1812. It was from Missouri that large quantities of munitions of war were obtained for the armies of the United States in this war. The lead industry in Missouri was an old one when this war broke out and had had much to do with the early development of Missouri. But just prior to the beginning of the war a big improvement was made in the manufacture of bullets in Missouri, which made the lead industry very important in that war. Heretofore, the making of bullets in Missouri had been by the hand mold process, and hence the output was limited. But about 1800 John Nicholas Maclot, a political exile from France, made his way to the lead regions of Missouri and discovered that Herculaneum offered certain facilities for the erection of a shot tower. Just below the town was a high and overhanging cliff, and he saw that about all that was needed was to erect on the edge of this cliff a place where the lead could be melted and then dropped into some sort of receptacle at the base. He immediately acted upon his discovery and, after erecting a tower, advertised that he was ready to manufacture buckshot and bullets at a reasonable price. It was from this shot tower that ammunition was sent in large quantities to the armies of the United States in the War of 1812, and the victory

of New Orleans in 1815 is said to have been won with the bullets that had been manufactured there."—E. M. Violette, *History of Missouri*, pp. 68-69, 72-73.

1812-1816.—Progress toward statehood.—Attainment of representative government.—"The last of the measures to which we find it necessary to refer at this time was the act of Congress of June 4, 1812, by which, on the 12th of the December following, [Upper] Louisiana was to be advanced from the first to the second grade of territories, and its name changed to Missouri. It was time that this change should come, for the territory had a population of over twenty thousand, exclusive of Indians. This was four times as many as were necessary, under the law for the government of the Northwest Territory, to entitle them to the promotion, and they had begun to grow restive under a mode of treatment which discriminated unfavorably between them and their neighbors on the other side of the Mississippi. By the terms of this act, the territorial affairs were to be administered by a governor appointed by the President, and a general assembly consisting of a house of representatives elected by the people, and a legislative council of nine members, chosen by the President from a list of eighteen returned to him by the territorial house of representatives."

—L. Carr, *Missouri a bone of contention*, p. 115. —"Population kept increasing rapidly in Missouri. Lawrence county was established by the Territorial Legislature January 15, 1815, and just a little over a year later Howard county, the 'mother of counties' and one of the empire counties of Missouri, was erected by act of January 23, 1816. On January 21, 1816, on motion of Mr. Easton in the House of Representatives, the Committee on the Judiciary was instructed to inquire if any, and what, alterations were necessary to be made in the act entitled 'An act providing for the government of the Territory of Missouri' approved June 4, 1812.' This committee on March 6, 1816, reported a bill to alter certain parts of the act of 1812, which without any amendment finally became the organic act of Congress of April 29, 1816, by which Missouri became a territory of the highest grade. . . . The year following this law of Congress of 1816, which made Missouri a territory of the highest rank, saw the inhabitants here petitioning Congress for that greatest of all boons—the privilege of statehood."—F. C. Shoemaker, *Missouri's struggle for statehood*, pp. 35-36.

1812-1820.—Iowa included in Missouri territory before formation of state. See IOWA: 1673-1834.

1812-1836.—Territorial changes.—Platte purchase.—"The Territory of Missouri, organized in 1812, included all of the Louisiana Purchase except the State of Louisiana. All of the white people lived in what is now Missouri and Arkansas. In 1819 the Territory of Arkansas was set off [see ARKANSAS: 1819-1836] and in 1820 the State of Missouri was formed. The shape of Missouri in 1820 was the same as it is to-day with one important exception. Instead of the Missouri river north of Kansas City being the western boundary, a line was run directly north. This excluded from Missouri what are to-day the counties of Atchison, Nodaway, Holt, Andrew, Platte, and Buchanan. This tract of rich land was held by the Sac, Fox, and Iowa Indians. It was called the Platte country. The United States government purchased this from the Indians in 1836 and gave it to Missouri. This was called the Platte Purchase, and by it, Missouri's boundary was

completed."—F. C. Shoemaker, *History of Missouri and Missourians*, p. 17.

1819-1820.—Missouri question in Congress.—Ominous character.—Missouri Enabling Act.—Extensive boundaries of state.—Electoral qualifications for constitutional convention.—"It is hardly an exaggeration to say that seldom in the history of this nation since the adoption of the Constitution has there been a purely domestic question, except of course the Civil War of 1861-65, that has so stirred the country from border to border, as the famous Missouri Question. [See U. S. A.: 1818-1821.] . . . The Missouri Enabling Act was approved by President Monroe on March 6, 1820. . . . The act of March 6, 1820, consisted of eight sections. The first section empowered the inhabitants of Missouri Territory, under such rules and regulations as were later set forth, to form a constitution and state government and to assume such name as they wished. It also declared that such state when formed should be admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the original states in all respects. . . . Section two defined the boundaries of the new state, which were the same as those set forth in article I of the Missouri Constitution of 1820. . . . The third section of the Enabling Act provided for the election of representatives to a constitutional convention. The electors included 'all free white male citizens of the United States, who shall have arrived at the age of twenty-one years, and have resided in said territory three months' previous to the day of election, and all other persons qualified to vote for representatives to the General Assembly of the said territory.' This is one of the lowest qualifications for an elector that has ever obtained in Missouri. It is recalled that the act of Congress of June 4, 1812, relating to Missouri, provided that electors of representatives to the Territory Legislature were required to have resided in the territory twelve months before the election, and to have paid a territorial county tax assessment made at least six months before the election. The qualifications of electors as set forth in the Constitution of 1820 omitted the tax requirement, but required a residence of one year in the State and three months in the county or district."—F. C. Shoemaker, *Missouri's struggle for statehood*, pp. 36, 62, 65-68.

ALSO IN: W. B. Stevens, *Missouri's centennial* (*Missouri Historical Review*, Apr.-July, 1917, pp. 249-257).

1820.—Constitutional convention.—Sanction of slavery.—"The delegates met in convention in St. Louis in June, 1820. . . . David Barton was elected president, and William G. Pettus secretary of the convention. On the 10th day of July following, after a session of a little over a month, . . . the work of the convention was finished by the adoption of a constitution for the new state. The constitution adopted . . . was not submitted to a vote of the people for ratification, but went into effect of its own motion, superseding the territorial government, and provided for the election of a governor and a lieutenant-governor, members of the first general assembly, a representative to Congress, and the election of United States senators. The constitution thus adopted . . . remained in force for many years and as has been well said was 'a marvel of moderation and political sagacity,' framed as it was in a period of great political excitement. As was to be expected, slavery was sanctioned, but at the time it was thought that if no attempt had been made by congressional action to prohibit slavery, and the matter quietly left to the people, that slavery

would have been excluded from the new state. . . . Power was denied the General Assembly to emancipate slaves without the consent of the owners, without making full compensation, and the right of emigrants coming to Missouri in good faith with their slaves was guaranteed. Power was given to enact laws to prevent slaves from being brought into the state 'for the purpose of speculation,' or which had been imported 'into the United States contrary to law.' . . . In criminal cases slaves were secured 'and impartial trial by jury.' . . . A provision was incorporated in the constitution providing that 'no bishop, priest, clergyman, or teacher of any religious persuasion, denomination, society or sect' should be eligible to either house of the General Assembly, or appointed to any office of profit, 'except the office of justice of the peace.' The constitution expressly provided that 'schools and means of education shall forever be encouraged in this state' and that in each township schools should be established as soon as practicable and necessary 'and where the poor shall be taught gratis.'—L. Houck, *History of Missouri*, v. 3, pp. 243, 251.

Also IN: F. C. Shoemaker, *Missouri's struggle for statehood*, pp. 250-252.—W. B. Stevens, *Travail of Missouri for statehood* (*Missouri Historical Review*, Oct., 1920, pp. 19-28).—E. M. Violette, *History of Missouri*, pp. 118-124.

1820-1821.—Compromise concerning slavery.—Admission into Union. See U.S.A.: 1818-1821.

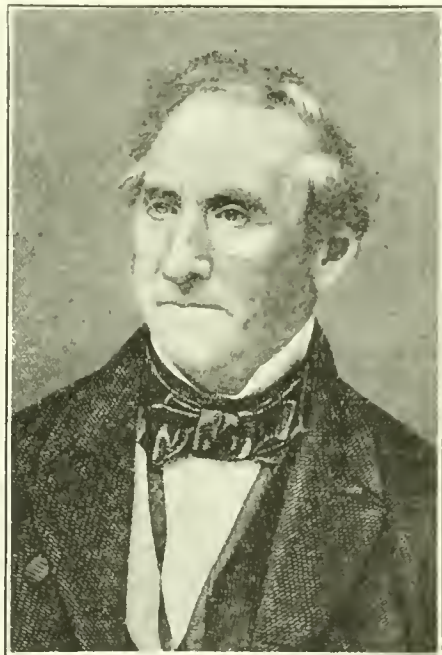
1821-1846.—Senator Benton and origin of "Manifest Destiny idea."—In 1821 Thomas H. Benton entered the United States Senate, representing Missouri, and soon became the leader in Missouri politics. "Missouri had lost all connection with the seacoast, and though, through her great river towns, swarming with raftsmen and flatboatmen, she drove her main and most thriving trade with the other Mississippi cities, yet her restless and adventure-loving citizens were already seeking other outlets for their activity, and were establishing trade relations with the Mexicans. . . . Missouri was thrust out beyond the Mississippi into the vast plains-country of the Far West, and, except on the river-front, was completely isolated, being flanked on every side by great stretches of level wilderness, inhabited by roaming tribes of warlike Indians. Thus for the first time the borders began to number in their ranks plainsmen as well as backwoodsmen. . . . Among such people Benton's views and habits of thought became more markedly Western and ultra-American than ever, especially in regard to our encroachments upon the territory of neighboring powers. The general feeling in the West upon this last subject afterwards crystallized into what became known as the 'Manifest Destiny' idea, which, reduced to its simplest terms, was: that it was our manifest destiny to swallow up the land of all adjoining nations who were too weak to withstand us; a theory that forthwith obtained immense popularity among all statesmen of easy international morality. . . . Benton, greatly to the credit of his foresight, and largely in consequence of his strong nationalist feeling, thoroughly appreciated the importance of our geographical extensions. He was the great champion of the West and of western development, and a furious partisan of every movement in the direction of the enlargement of our western boundaries. . . . He was keenly alive to the need of our having a free chance to spread towards the northwest; he very early grasped the idea that in that direction we ought to have room for continental development. . . . Benton felt that

all the unoccupied land to the northwest was by right our heritage, and he was willing to do battle for it if necessary."—T. Roosevelt, *Thomas H. Benton* (*American Statesmen Series*, v. 23, pp. 35-37, 233-234, 236).

1830-1840.—Temporary home of Mormons. See MORMONISM: 1830-1846.

1838.—Boundary controversy with Iowa. See IOWA: 1838-1848.

1846-1848.—War with Mexico.—Missourians in "Army of the West."—"The war between the United States and Mexico in 1846-48 was very popular in Missouri. . . . On hearing of the outbreak of hostilities between the United States and Mexico in the region between the Rio Grande and Nueces rivers in April, 1846, Missourians began to get themselves ready to take part in the war, and when a call came from General Gaines, . . . for volunteers to go to the assistance of General



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Taylor on the border between Texas and Mexico, a regiment of 650 men was quickly raised in Missouri and started down the Mississippi on its way to the seat of war; but these men were destined never to see any actual service, for General Gaines' action was disavowed at Washington, and all the troops that came at his call from Missouri and other states were discharged and sent home at the end of three months. . . . Congress passed an Act in May, 1846, authorizing the President to call into the field 50,000 volunteers, who were designed to operate against Mexico at three points. Taylor was to penetrate directly into the heart of the country with the Army of the South; Wool was to operate against Chihuahua with the Army of the Center; and Kearny was to march from Santa Fe with the Army of the West. . . . The Army of the West was made up largely of Missourians."—E. M. Violette, *History of Missouri*, pp. 151-153.

Also IN: I. N. Edwards, *Shelby's expedition to Mexico* (*Missouri Historical Review*, Apr., 1921,

pp. 545-560).—L. Carr, *Missouri, a bone of contention*, ch. 10.—J. T. Hughes, *Doniphan's expedition*.

1850-1860.—Slavery in Missouri.—Difference between Missouri slavery and that of southern plantations.—“The number of slaves in Missouri was never large. In 1803 there were between two and three thousand slaves, and in 1860 there were 114,931 slaves and 3572 free negroes. . . . Although Missouri was a slave state, its system of slavery differed in many ways from that which prevailed in the Southern states. There were few great plantations of ‘the Mississippi type with its white overseer and gangs of driven blacks’ cultivating a staple crop. Except in the Missouri River counties where hemp was the staple, the farmers of Missouri were usually engaged in general farming. . . . Hence the slaves on most of the Missouri farms were employed as general field hands and were not put under the ‘task system’ as in the South, where cotton was the great staple. Inasmuch as this was the case, the number of slaves held by a given master was not often large. ‘Very few masters had one hundred slaves and not many had fifty.’ While the number of slaves owned by one master varied from a single slave to four hundred, most of the masters had less than five slaves each. Many of the single slaves were household or personal servants. This was true in both the towns and the country. Slaves were employed at times as hands on the river boats and in the lead mines, and they were also used in general work about the towns.”—E. M. Violette, *History of Missouri*, pp. 287-290.

ALSO IN: C. H. McClure, *History of Missouri*, pt. 3.

1851-1874.—Development of railroads.—“The first railway construction work in Missouri was on the Pacific Railroad, which started July 4th, 1851, in St. Louis. . . . Work on the Hannibal & St. Joseph Railroad commenced in 1853. . . . In November, 1853, the final route of what was then called the Southwest Branch of the Pacific Railroad was located from Franklin, thirty-seven miles from St. Louis, through the valley of the Gasconade to Springfield, and thence to Newton county, a total distance of three hundred and twenty miles from St. Louis. The route of the North Missouri Railroad was determined October 16, 1854, and the road was to be built from St. Louis to St. Charles, and thence to a junction with the Hannibal & St. Joseph in Macon county, and from there to the north boundary line of the state, a total distance of two hundred and twenty-eight miles. The first division of this road was open for business in August, 1855, and was found to have cost \$52,000.00 per mile. . . . The route of the St. Louis & Iron Mountain was located September 8, 1853, from St. Louis to Pilot Knob, a distance of eighty-six miles. In prescribing the conditions under which this road should be operated, through Jefferson Barracks, the Secretary of War, Jefferson Davis, in October, 1853, stipulated that the trains should be by horse power alone, unless the route should be deflected from the Arsenal. . . . By the fall of 1855, the Pacific Railroad was almost completed to Jefferson City; the North Missouri had completed its first division from St. Louis to St. Charles; and the Hannibal & St. Joseph had about one hundred miles in process of construction. . . . The Pacific Railroad was completed to Sedalia in 1861, but it stopped here for about two years. This road was completed into Independence in December 19, 1865, and, as it had been operated into Kansas City from Independence prior to that time, on

September 20, 1865, the first passenger train passed over the whole line of the road. . . . The Southwest Branch was completed from Franklin to Rolla on December 22, 1860, and about the same time the Cairo & Fulton had twenty-six and a half miles in operation, and, by the close of the Civil war, the Platte County Railroad had fifty-seven and a half miles in operation between Savannah and Weston.”—E. J. White, *Century of transportation in Missouri (Missouri Historical Review, Oct., 1920)*.—“By 1870, St. Louis had rail connection with New Orleans, Mobile, Nashville, Atlanta and Charleston, as well as Des Moines, Omaha and other points. Kansas City, by this time, had also become a railroad center in both state and interstate traffic. Congress on July 25, 1866, passed an act authorizing the construction of bridges over the Mississippi at St. Louis and over the Missouri at Kansas City. The Burlington bridge at Kansas City was completed July 3, 1869, and was the occasion for a memorable celebration. The Wabash bridge over the Missouri at St. Charles was completed in 1871. The Eads bridge over the Mississippi at St. Louis was completed in June, 1874, and thus St. Louis and Kansas City were connected by rail with the outside world, and the boundaries of Missouri on both the east and west could be crossed, and these barriers of waters were overcome.”—E. J. White, *Century of transportation in Missouri (Missouri Historical Review, Oct., 1920)*.

ALSO IN: W. B. Stevens, *Missouri's centennial (Missouri Historical Review, Apr.-July, 1917, pp. 286-287)*.

1854.—Repeal of Missouri Compromise.—Relation to proposed railway to Pacific. See U.S.A.: 1853-1854.

1854-1859.—Kansas Struggle. See KANSAS: 1854-1859.

1857.—Dred Scott decision. See U.S.A.: 1857.

1860-1861.—Secession struggle.—Opinions of governor Stewart.—Special position of Missouri in secession question.—“In the midst of the great excitement that was caused by these momentous events [the first movements of the Civil War] the General Assembly of Missouri met at Jefferson City on the last day of December, 1860. At the presidential election Lincoln had received in the entire State barely seventeen thousand of the one hundred and sixty-five thousand votes which were cast, and most of these were given to him by the German inhabitants of the State. . . . The outgoing Governor, Robert M. Stewart, transmitted his message to the two Houses on the 3d of January. . . . The right of secession he not only denied, but he denied it utterly; . . . Missouri . . . had no right to secede. For she belonged to the United States by right of purchase—had been bought by the Federal Government, and paid for out of its treasury. Whatever other States might do, it was her plain duty, and her interest, too, to remain within the Union. His message . . . expressed in great measure the sentiments of a majority of the people of Missouri, at that time. . . . Governor Jackson [who succeeded Stewart], true to his Southern birth and sympathy with the South, insisted with equal earnestness that she [Missouri] should stand by her sister slave-holding States, and share their destiny. . . . The matter was brought more formally before the General Assembly, on the 28th, [1861] by Mr. Vest (the Patrick Henry of resistance in Missouri), who then reported from the Committee on Federal Relations a preamble and resolutions [expressing abhorrence towards the doctrine of coercion]. . . . The State Convention met at Jef-

erson City on the last day of February [and] . . . reassembled at St. Louis on the 4th of March. . . . On the 9th the Committee on Federal Relations made a long report through its chairman, Judge Gamble [which said in part:] . . . 'The true position for Missouri to assume is that of a State whose interests are bound up in the maintenance of the Union, and whose kind feelings and strong sympathies are with the people of the Southern States, with whom we are connected by the ties of friendship and blood. . . . We cannot follow them, we cannot give up the Union, but we will do all in our power to induce them to again take their places with us in the family from which they have attempted to separate themselves.'—T. L. Snead, *Fight for Missouri*, pp. 12-14, 16, 50, 79.—'The [secession] Convention was fully informed how matters stood in St. Louis, for on the 20th of March Isidore Bush stated, on behalf of 'the thousands of German citizens whom I have the honor to represent,' that 'should a conflict be inevitable, your German fellow citizens will stand by the Government and by the Union.' Unusual pressure must have been brought on the majority of the Committee for Federal Relations, for on March 18 Judge Gamble reported a resolution to send seven delegates to the Border State Convention called by Virginia. This concession to the conditional Union men was a most dangerous measure, which might have created a Border States combination, hostile to the Free Soil policy, the expressed will of the nation. . . . J. B. Henderson's Committee on Luther J. Glenn's Secession proposition from Georgia . . . took up the phases of Secession in their ethical, political, commercial and strategical relations, and proved beyond all doubt that the interests of Missouri are and must be with the Union. This report exercised a great influence upon the wavering and undecided in and out of the Convention. Defeated amendments proposed to Judge Gamble's report bore evidence that at least two-thirds of the members of the Convention were now unconditional Union men. . . . After an animated debate, the report and resolutions presented by Judge Gamble's Committee were adopted by a very decided majority, and the convention adjourned, subject to the call of a majority of the Committee selected for that purpose.'—R. J. Rombauer, *Union cause (St. Louis, 1861, p. 172)*.

Also in: S. B. Harding, *Life of George R. Smith*—L. Carr, *Missouri*, ch. 18.—E. M. Violette, *History of Missouri*, pp. 320-333.

1861.—Baffling of Secessionists.—Blair, Lyon and Home Guards of St. Louis.—Capture of Camp Jackson.—Battle of Boonville.—Loyal state government organized.—The seizure of arsenals and arms by the secessionists of the Atlantic and Gulf states "naturally directed the attention of the leaders of the different political parties in Missouri to the arsenal in St. Louis, and set them to work planning how they might get control of the 40,000 muskets and other munitions of war which it was known to contain. . . . Satisfied that movements were on foot among irresponsible parties, Unionist as well as Secessionist, to take possession of this post, General D. M. Frost, of the Missouri state militia, . . . is said to have called Governor Jackson's attention to the necessity of 'looking after' it. . . . Jackson . . . did not hesitate to give Frost authority to seize the arsenal. . . . Frost, however, was not the only person in St. Louis who had his eyes fixed upon the arsenal and its contents. Frank Blair . . . was already busily engaged in organizing the bands which, supplied with guns from this very store-

house, enabled him, some four months later, to lay such a heavy hand upon Missouri. . . . [Blair's work of recruiting and drilling] went on steadily, and as a consequence, when the moment came for action, Blair was able to appear at the decisive point with a well-armed force, ten times as numerous as that which his opponents could bring against him. In the mean time the federal government awoke from its lethargy, and began to concentrate troops in St. Louis for the protection of its property. . . . By the 18th of February, the day of the election of delegates to the convention which pronounced so decidedly against secession, there were between four and five hundred men behind the arsenal walls. . . . General Harney, who was in command of the department and presumably familiar with its condition, under date of February 19, notified the authorities at Washington that there was no danger of an attack, and never had been. . . . Such was not the opinion of Captain Nathaniel Lyon, who had arrived at the arsenal on the 6th of February, and who was destined, in the short space of the coming six months, to write his name indelibly in the history of the State. . . . Under the stimulating influence of two such spirits as Blair and . . . [Lyon] the work of preparation went bravely on. By the middle of April, four regiments had been enlisted, and Lyon, who was now in command of the arsenal, though not of the department, proceeded to arm them in accordance with an order which Blair had procured from Washington. Backed by this force, Blair felt strong enough to set up an opposition to the state government, and accordingly, when Jackson refused to furnish the quota of troops assigned to Missouri under President Lincoln's call of April 15, 1861 [see U.S.A.: 1861 (April)], he telegraphed to Washington that if an order to muster the men into the service was sent to Captain Lyon 'the requisition would be filled in two days.' The order was duly forwarded, and five regiments having been sworn in instead of four, as called for, Blair was offered the command. This he declined, and, on his recommendation, Lyon was elected in his place. On the 7th and 8th of May another brigade was organized. . . . This made ten regiments of volunteers, besides several companies of regulars and a battery of artillery, that were now ready for service; and as General Harney, whose relatives and associates were suspected of disloyalty, had been ordered to Washington to explain his position, Lyon was virtually in command of the department. . . . Jackson, . . . though possessed of but little actual power, was unwilling to give up the contest without an effort. He did not accept the decision of the February election as final. . . . Repairing to St. Louis, as soon as the adjournment of the General Assembly had left him free, he began at once, in conjunction with certain leading secessionists, to concert measures for arming the militia of the State. . . . To this end, the seizure of the arsenal was held to be a prerequisite, and General Frost was preparing a memorial showing how this could best be done, when the surrender of Fort Sumter and the President's consequent call for troops hurried Jackson into a position of antagonism to the federal government. . . . He sent messengers to the Confederate authorities at Montgomery, Alabama, asking them to supply him with the guns that were needed for the proposed attack on the arsenal; and he summoned the General Assembly to meet at Jefferson City on the 2d of May, to deliberate upon such measures as might be deemed necessary for placing the State in a position to defend herself. He also ordered, as he was author-

ized to do under the law, the commanders of the several military districts to hold regular yearly encampments for the purpose of instructing their men in drill and discipline. . . . Practically its effect was limited to the first or Frost's brigade, as that was the only one that had been organized under the law. On the 3d of May, this little band, numbering less than 700 men, pitched their tents in a wooded valley in the outskirts of the city of St. Louis, and named it Camp Jackson, in honor of the governor. . . . Putting his troops in motion early in the morning of the 10th of May, he [Lyon] surrounded Camp Jackson and demanded its surrender. As Frost could make no defense against the overwhelming odds brought against him, he was of course obliged to comply; and his men, having been disarmed, were marched to the arsenal, where they were paroled. . . . After the surrender, and whilst the prisoners were standing in line, waiting for the order to march, a crowd of men, women and children collected and began to abuse the home guards, attacking them with stones and other missiles. It is even said that several shots were fired at them, but this lacks confirmation. According to Frost, who was at the head of the column of prisoners, the first intimation of firing was given by a single shot, followed almost immediately by volley firing. . . . When the fusillade was checked, it was found that 28 persons had been killed or mortally wounded, among whom were three of the prisoners, two women, and one child. . . . Judging this action by the reasons assigned for it, and by its effect throughout the State, it must be pronounced a blunder. So far from intimidating the secessionists, it served only to exasperate them; and it drove not a few Union men, among them General Sterling Price, into the ranks of the opposition and ultimately into the Confederate army."—L. Carr, *Missouri*, ch. 14.—When news of the capture of Camp Jackson reached Jefferson City, where the legislature was in session, Governor Jackson at once ordered a bridge on the railroad from St. Louis to be destroyed, and the legislature made haste to pass several bills in the interest of the rebellion, including one which placed the whole military power of the State in the hands of the Governor. Armed with this authority, Jackson proceeded to organize the Militia of Missouri as a secession army. Meantime Captain Lyon had been superseded in command by the arrival at St. Louis of General Harney, and the latter introduced a total change of policy at once. He was trapped into an agreement with Governor Jackson and Sterling Price, now general-in-chief of the Missouri forces, which tied his hands, while the cunning rebel leaders were rapidly placing the State in active insurrection. But the eyes of the authorities at Washington were opened by Blair; Harney was soon displaced and Lyon restored to command. This occurred May 30th. On the 15th of June Lyon took possession of the capital of the State, Jefferson City, the Governor and other State officers taking flight to Boonville, where their forces were being gathered. Lyon promptly followed, routing and dispersing them at Boonville on the 17th. The State Convention which had taken a recess in March was now called together by a committee that had been empowered to do so before the convention separated, and a provisional State government was organized (July 31) with a loyal governor, Hamilton R. Gamble, at its head.—Based on J. G. Nicolay, *Outbreak of the Rebellion*, ch. 10.

Also in: J. Peekham, *General Nathaniel Lyon and Missouri in 1861*.—G. Anderson, *Story of a*

border city during the Civil War, pp. 63-110.—W. L. Webb, *Battles and biographies of Missourians*, ch. 4-6.—J. Schouler, *History of the United States*, v. 6, pp. 186-192.—T. L. Snead, *Fight for Missouri*, pp. 158-162.

1861 (July-September).—Sigel's retreat from Carthage.—Death of Lyon at Wilson's Creek.—Siege of Lexington.—Fremont in command. See U.S.A.: 1861 (July-September: Missouri).

1861 (August-October).—Fremont in command.—His premature proclamation of freedom to slaves of rebels.—His quarrel with Frank P. Blair.—Change in command. See U.S.A.: 1861 (August-October: Missouri).

1862 (January-March).—Price and the rebel forces driven into Arkansas.—Battle of Pea Ridge. See U.S.A.: 1862 (January-March: Missouri-Arkansas).

1862 (July-September).—Organization of loyal militia of the state.—Warfare with rebel guerrillas. See U.S.A.: 1862 (July-September: Missouri-Arkansas).

1862-1865.—Abolition of slavery.—Tentative approaches to emancipation.—Complete emancipation.—"The slow progress of the war, the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia (April 16, 1862), and the offer by Congress of financial aid to the loyal States adopting a policy of compensated emancipation, greatly strengthened the anti-slavery element in Missouri. By the close of 1862 the leaders of the Conservatives were united with the Radicals in the conviction that slavery must go; and Governor Gamble embodied this view in his message of December, 1862, to the legislature. . . . The Conservatives in the legislature, acting on the recommendation of the governor, wished to reconvene the existing convention to initiate emancipation, while the Radicals sought to secure the election of an entirely new convention. It was the Conservative policy which triumphed; and the majority of the convention, when it met, dealt with the subject in an eminently conservative way. . . . 'The institution of slavery in Missouri would have remained untouched for the period of seven years, with, of course, the contingent possibility of a change of public sentiment and a repeal of the ordinance before any right to freedom could accrue.' . . . The Radical agitation for emancipation went on more vigorously than ever; and it now received the form of an organized protest against the whole Conservative rule of the State and the Federal policy which supported it. To embody this protest, a mass convention was called to meet at Jefferson City September 2. Governor Gamble's administration, while it had reflected the consensus of Union opinion in July, 1861, was too lukewarm for the Radical Union opinion which had since developed. The fifth resolution adopted by the convention arraigns the provisional government as 'untrue to the people' of the State, the following being the chief counts in the indictment: the use of the forces of the State to maintain slavery; the disarmament of loyalists and the establishment of the 'enrolled militia,' many of whom are characterized as 'known and avowed disloyalists,' and a refusal to cooperate with the General Government, particularly in the execution of orders levying assessments against disloyalists. . . . A committee . . . [was] appointed to lay their grievances before the President. . . . He was obliged to refuse the more important demands. . . . 'It is my duty to hear all,' he said; 'but at last I must, within my sphere, judge what to do and what to forbear.' His own sympathies, however, were with the Radicals, because of the integrity and sincerity of their politi-

cal views. 'I believe, after all,' he remarked to his secretary, Mr. Hay, some weeks later, 'those Missouri Radicals will carry their State, and I do not object to it. They are nearer to me than the other side in thought and sentiment, though bitterly hostile personally. They are the unhandiest fellows in the world to deal with; but, after all, their faces are set Zionwards.' . . . In January, 1864, occurred the death of Governor Gamble, the most conspicuous leader of the Conservatives. This materially weakened the party, and as the Presidential election of that year came on the Conservatives as an organization practically went to pieces. . . . For the first time since the beginning of the war State officers were chosen at this election, and the entire Radical ticket, with Governor Fletcher at its head, was elected by a similar majority. In the elections to the general assembly the Radicals secured a majority of the senate and three-fourths of the lower house. Finally, at this election it was decided that a new constitutional convention be called, whose first duty, it was well understood, would be to pass an immediate emancipation ordinance, and of the delegates chosen to this body three-fourths were taken from the Radical party. The work of the convention of 1865 was of great political importance. . . . By a decree of January 11 slavery was abolished, immediately and without compensation; and so was closed the second chapter in the history of the contest. But, as in the former case, a new chapter was forthwith opened by the insertion, in the constitution adopted by the convention, of the most radical disfranchising provisions. No person was to be allowed to vote at any election in the State who had 'ever given aid, comfort, countenance, or support to any persons engaged in' hostilities to the United States, or had ever 'by word or deed manifested his adherence to the cause of such enemies, or his desire for their triumph over the arms of the United States, or his sympathy with those engaged in exciting or carrying on rebellion.' In the vote on the ratification of the constitution itself these provisions were by anticipation to apply; but even so, its adoption was procured by a majority of less than 2,000 votes."—S. B. Harding, *Missouri party struggles in the Civil War period (Annual Report of American Historical Association, 1900, pp. 99-102)*.—See also BORDER STATES.

ALSO IN: W. B. Stevens, *Lincoln and Missouri (Missouri Historical Review, Jan., 1916, pp. 80-115)*.—L. Carr, *Missouri, ch. 17*.—C. M. Harvey, *State of Missouri from its territorial days to 1904*.—E. M. Violette, *History of Missouri, pp. 400-401, 405-406*.

1863 (August).—Quantrell's guerrilla raid to Lawrence, Kansas. See U.S.A.: 1863 (August: Missouri-Kansas).

1863 (October).—Cabell's invasion. See U.S.A.: 1863 (August-October: Arkansas-Missouri).

1864 (March-October).—Price's raid. See U.S.A.: 1864 (March-October: Arkansas-Missouri).

1865-1874.—Radicals in power.—Political alignments.—Defeat of measure to enfranchise negroes.—"The Radicals were successful in the elections of 1866 and 1868. But the 'election of 1868 marks the high tide of their success.' . . . All during the time the Radicals were in power they had to confront a very active opposition. The constitution of 1865 had no sooner been adopted than there arose protests against its 'iniquities,' and an agitation was begun in favor of amending at least the test oath sections. Even some of the Radicals mildly advocated certain

immediate amendments, but the real agitation was carried on by two other parties, the Conservative Unionists and the Democrats. The Conservative Unionist party was definitely organized in Missouri early in 1866—chiefly under the leadership of Frank P. Blair. The Democratic party was being brought together in a fashion under such men as Lewis Bogy and John S. Phelps, the latter having served in the Union army. As both of these parties realized that it would be futile to act apart in their opposition to the Radicals, the Democrats were induced to support the Conservative Unionists in the campaign of 1866. But notwithstanding this political combination the Radicals won the day, easily electing seven out of the nine Congressmen and carrying the legislature two to one. . . . From the defeat which the Conservative Unionist party suffered in 1866 it never recovered, and by the time the campaign of 1868 occurred its place as a party in opposition to the Radicals had been taken by the Democrats, who had meanwhile been well reorganized and had entered the political field with their own candidates. . . . To their support came a great many of the Conservative Unionists and the old line Whigs. But they were not yet strong enough to overcome the Radicals, especially since the latter had been able to add to the strength of their political defense through the new registry act of 1868. McClurg, the Radical candidate for governor, was elected over Phelps by a majority of more than 10,000, and Grant carried the State over Seymour in the Presidential race by a majority of more than 25,000. The Radicals also elected six of the nine Congressmen and also a majority of the members of the legislature. The surprising feature of the election of 1868 was the defeat of the State constitutional amendment enfranchising the negro in Missouri. This amendment was submitted by the legislature, but it was defeated by the people by more than 19,000 votes, the opposition coming from the Democrats, who voted solidly against it, and from a goodly number of Republicans also. The question of enfranchising the negroes had been an important issue in the State ever since they had been freed in 1865, but it was not submitted to the people in the form of a constitutional amendment more than once. Before it could be submitted again, the fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which conferred suffrage upon the negro practically everywhere in the country, was ratified and put into force, and thus the issue was settled without any further contest in the State."—E. M. Violette, *History of Missouri, pp. 416-419*.

ALSO IN: *Letters of Edward Bates and the Blairs (Missouri Historical Review, Jan., 1917)*.—H. C. McDougal, *Decade of Missouri politics, 1860-1870 (Missouri Historical Review, Jan., 1909)*.

1865-1920.—Progress of education.—"The General Assembly in 1830 passed what was known as the Geyer Act. In reality this made provision for a complete state [school] system, and it should be stated that Missouri's school system . . . may be said to have had its origin in the content of this legislation. The provisions of this act provided for the constitution of the common school fund of the State, county school funds and township funds. . . . The law required that the distribution of moneys should be based on the number of white children between the ages of eight and sixteen years. This remained the school age until the second constitution was adopted in 1865, when the age limits were changed so as to include all persons between five and twenty-one years.

The constitution of 1875 required the State to provide gratuitous instruction for all persons between six and twenty years of age. The first one of these laws made provision only for white children. The constitution of 1865 especially provides for separate schools for the children of African descent; so does the constitution of 1875. The laws enacted in 1839 also made provision for a state university with limitations. Consequently we have a state system mapped out. However, it should be called a 'paper system' for it was really never put into operation. . . . The constitution of 1865 had a very elaborate article on education. . . . Under State Superintendent Parker a very elaborate school code was provided and presented to the General Assembly. . . . The constitution of 1875 was such as to allow the provisions of the new laws enacted in 1874 to remain in force or to be re-enacted. . . . Since the constitution of 1875 was adopted, . . . the General Assembly has enacted a good many statutes concerning education. In 1870 the law providing for normal schools was adopted. In 1903 the General Assembly passed a law providing for the inspection of high schools, thru which the high schools obtained a legal status. . . . Teachers' institutes were made mandatory under the Wolfe laws, which were passed in 1890 and some form of county teachers' association has been compulsory since that time. In 1905 a compulsory attendance law was enacted, requiring all school children between the ages of eight and fourteen to attend not less than three-fourths of the school term. In 1890 the General Assembly passed the first important consolidation law. In 1909 the General Assembly passed the special state aid law for weak districts. At various times this law has been amended until now it is possible for weak districts to secure \$200.00 directly from the state funds. Another very important law was passed by the General Assembly in 1909 which made provision for state-wide county supervision. The county superintendent's office had been abolished in 1872 and the State Legislature had passed a local option county supervision law. However, from 1872 until 1909 only twenty-two counties had availed themselves of the option. The new law made it mandatory for each county to select a county superintendent and gave a state subsidy of \$400.00 to help his salary. The General Assembly in 1913 enacted several very important pieces of legislation. At this time the teacher-training law for high schools was passed. . . . The principle of giving subsidies for special purposes in high schools and to enable certain communities to have high schools was established by the High School Aid Law. The free text book law and the school board convention law were enacted at this time. In 1917 a law was passed for the promotion of vocational education. This act was passed in order that the state might avail itself of the privileges and benefits of the Federal Vocational Educational Law, known as the Smith-Hughes Act. . . . The secondary schools of Missouri would be classified broadly as academies and high schools. Very early the academies were organized thruout the State. . . . There were also organized many female seminaries, some of them being opened as early as 1820. . . . A number of the female seminaries are now the junior colleges of the state, of which there are at the present time sixteen. [Of the universities and colleges in the state St. Louis University was the first to be incorporated. This incorporation took place in 1832.] . . . At the present time [1920] there are three hundred and two first class high schools, one hundred and sixteen second class and one hundred and eighty-eight

third class, making a grand total of six hundred and six fully classified high schools in the State. . . . The most important development about the high school has been the democratized curriculum. . . . The normal schools of the State were organized in 1870. They were established under the authority of an act of the legislature in March, 1870. At this time two schools were established, one at Kirksville and one at Warrensburg. In 1873 a third school was established at Cape Girardeau and in 1905 two additional schools were established—one at Springfield and one at Maryville. These schools are under the control and management of boards of regents, appointed by the governor for a term of six years. During the existence of these schools more than 145,000 students have been enrolled in them and more than 23,000 licenses to teach have been issued by them."—C. A. Phillips, *Century of education in Missouri* (*Missouri Historical Review*, Jan., 1921).

ALSO IN: E. M. Violette, *History of Missouri*, pp. 453-463.—W. B. Stevens, *Missouri's centennial* (*Missouri Historical Review*, Apr.-July, 1917).—M. S. Snow, *Higher education in Missouri*.

1874-1875.—New constitution.—Some of its provisions.—"At the election of 1874 a convention to frame a new constitution was voted for. . . . [This convention] met in the Capitol May 5, 1875. . . . A thorough revision of the entire organic law of the State was made. The best provisions of the preceding constitutions were retained, but an entire new constitution was framed. It has from time to time been amended, notably in increasing the number of judges of the Supreme Court from five to seven, in increasing the number of courts of appeals from one to three, in giving county courts power to levy a tax of twenty-five cents on the hundred dollars' valuation to be used exclusively for improving public roads, in authorizing counties by vote of the people to issue bonds for building permanent roads, and in authorizing a prosecuting attorney to institute prosecutions in all felony cases by his information instead of solely upon indictment by a grand jury. . . . It prohibits the Legislature from imposing a debt upon the State in excess of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars unless it has first submitted to the people the act by which the debt is to be incurred and two-thirds of the voters at a special election ratify the act. . . . But it also provides that the Constitution might be amended by a majority of the qualified voters, and in late years two amendments, one authorizing the Legislature to enact a law directing the issuance of sixty millions of state bonds to be used in constructing permanent roads, and the other authorizing it to enact a law directing the issuance of fifteen million dollars of state bonds to be used as a reward or bonus to Missouri soldiers in the World War, were adopted. By that course the consent of only a majority, and not two-thirds, of the qualified voters is necessary to authorize a state debt; but in no case can a large state debt be incurred until the proposition is first submitted to the people and their approval obtained. It prohibits counties, cities and school districts from creating debts for any purpose except upon the consent of two-thirds of the qualified voters, and even with such consent it permits them to incur debts only for the purpose of erecting some sort of public improvements, such as school houses, jails, court houses, permanent roads, waterworks and light plants. It fixed maximum rates of taxation to pay current expenses, which neither the Legislature, county court nor city councils can exceed. The purpose of these various provisions was to compel the State and all its subdivisions

to practice economy and conduct their affairs on a cash basis. But they have been persistently assailed by certain persons, who claim they hamper and even prevent necessary public enterprise. On the other hand, it is asserted that they are the most valuable features of the Constitution, and are necessary to prevent waste and extravagance. Whether the Constitution should contain maximum limits upon taxation will always be a live issue in our politics. Upon the final vote in the Convention on the adoption of this Constitution, not a vote was recorded against it, and on the thirtieth of October it was adopted by the people, there being ninety-one thousand votes for it and only fourteen thousand five hundred against it. It went into effect November 30, 1875, and marked a new era in the State's history."—P. S. Rader, *History of Missouri*, pp. 189-191.

1874-1920.—Supremacy of Democratic party.—Brief lapses in authority.—“For more than 20 years after the victory of 1874 the Democrats enjoyed an unbroken series of victories at the polls in Missouri over their regular opponents, the Republicans. In 1894, owing to the Republican landslide that swept over the whole country, the Democrats suffered their first defeat, . . . the Republicans electing not only the state superintendent of schools, a supreme court justice, and the railroad and warehouse commissioner, but also a majority of the members of the house of representatives. In 1904 they elected the entire State ticket except the governor, and in 1908 they elected the governor. The Presidential election in both of these years was carried by the Republicans. With these exceptions the Democrats have remained in power in Missouri from 1874 down to the present time [1920].”—E. M. Violette, *History of Missouri*, p. 420.

1889.—Industrial arbitration board created. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920.

1899.—Destructive tornado.—A destructive tornado in northern Missouri, in April, did much damage in the towns of Kirksville and Newtown. Over fifty persons were killed.

1904.—Louisiana Purchase Exposition. See ST. LOUIS: 1904.

1904-1922.—Political character of the state.—Effect on legislation.—“The two important features of this period from 1904 to 1922 are the independence of the individual voter and the doubtful political character of Missouri. . . . During this period Missouri elected five governors, three of whom were Democrats and two Republicans. Missouri voted for five presidents, and three times she cast her vote for a Republican and two times for a Democrat. This indicates a doubtful state politically. Again, Missouri in 1904 elected a Democratic governor, and a Republican lieutenant-governor, legislature, and State officers; in 1908, a Republican governor, lieutenant-governor, and House of Representatives, and a Democratic Senate and State officers; in 1912, and in 1910, a Democratic governor, State officers, and legislature, except a Republican state auditor in 1916; in 1920, a Republican governor, state officers, and legislature; in 1906 and 1914, a Democratic state superintendent of schools, and in 1910 and 1918, a Republican state superintendent of schools. . . . The campaign of 1908 was one vigorously waged between the two old parties. The Republican candidate was Herbert S. Hadley of Kansas City. He had been elected attorney-general of Missouri in 1904. While holding this office he had made a state and national reputation in his prosecution of trusts, especially the Standard Oil Company. His

record elected him governor by a plurality of 16,000, but he did not receive a majority. . . . The Republican candidate for lieutenant-governor was finally declared elected by a very small plurality. . . . The state officers elected were Democrats, the Senate was Democratic, but the House of Representatives was Republican. This bipartisan character of the State government made it difficult to obtain important legislation. Much of the legislation was regulative or inspectional in character. These departments, commissions, and boards were created: a game and fish department, a food and drug commissioner, a department for inspection of petroleum oils, a board of public accountancy, a board of examination of nurses, a hotel inspection department, and a board of pharmacy. A court of appeals, the third in the state, was established at Springfield; a state industrial home for negro girls was provided for by law; a state poultry experiment station was established at Mountain Grove; a birth and death registration law was passed, and a state capitol commission was created. The State capitol burned in 1911, and the people authorized the issuance of \$3,500,000.00 in bonds to build and furnish a new capitol.”—F. C. Shoemaker, *History of Missouri and Missourians*, pp. 106-198.

1908.—Initiative and referendum adopted. See INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States.

1912-1914.—Campaign for single tax.—Resistance of farmers.—Failure of campaign.—Attempt to destroy initiative and referendum.—“The single taxers of Missouri, by initiative petition, submitted to the voters of the state at the election of November, 1912, a proposed constitutional amendment prescribing for the state a tax system embodying a considerable measure of the single tax. The transition to the proposed system was to be gradual. The amendment provided for the immediate exemption from taxation of bonds issued by the state of Missouri or its local units; for the exemption of personal property from state and local taxation, the abolition of poll and license taxes (excepting licenses imposed for purposes of restriction or regulation, and the exemption from state and local taxation of improvements on homesteads to the value of \$3,000, these provisions to take effect beginning with 1914; and for the exemption from all taxes, state and local, of one-fourth of the value of ‘all improvements in or on lands’ in the years 1914 and 1915, one-half in 1916 and 1917, three-fourths in 1918 and 1919, and the whole in 1920 and thereafter. The amendment also provided specifically that land, with which was classed ‘all franchises for public service utilities,’ should never be exempt from taxation, and contained a proviso that ‘nothing in this Amendment shall be construed as limiting or denying the power of the State to tax any form of franchise, privilege or inheritance.’ Existing limitations upon the tax rate were to be repealed. Another amendment proposed the creation of a permanent tax commission of the type found in many other states. . . . Seldom has the proposal of a law stirred up such bitter opposition as did this single tax measure. Its opponents formed several organizations to fight it. . . . The platforms of the two older parties condemned the amendment, and the Progressive candidate for governor declared against it. The State Federation of Labor was practically the only non-single tax organization to support it. But the real opposition came from the farmers. They formed an organization and raised \$50,000 at the first meeting. They believed thoroughly that the single tax was a measure designed to

lighten the taxes of the rich city man by adding to those of the already heavily-burdened agriculturist. They resented, too, the fact that the campaign was largely supported from without the state by means of the Fels Fund money. . . . There was no doubt as to the decisiveness of the verdict of the Missouri electorate. The amendment received 87,000 votes, fourteen and a half per cent of the total, while 508,000 were polled against it. . . . A sequel to the single tax fight was an attempt made in 1914 to secure an amendment to the constitution of Missouri which would prevent a popular vote upon any measure relating to taxation. . . . It was proposed to amend that part of the constitution relating to the initiative and referendum. . . . However, the so-called 'anti-single tax amendment' was beaten decisively, 138,000 votes being cast for it, and 334,000 against it."—A. N. Young, *Single tax movement in the United States*, pp. 191, 193, 197.

1912-1920.—**Legislation.**—"In 1912 the Republican party split. . . . In Missouri the Republicans nominated J. C. McKinley for governor, the Progressives, Albert D. Nortoni, and the Democrats, Elliott W. Major. The Democratic candidate was elected by a plurality of 119,000, which was the next to the largest plurality ever received by a Missouri governor. . . . The important laws passed during his term were, first, those providing State aid to small high schools and weak common schools, and second, an act creating the state public service commission to control rates and service of telephone, railroad, street railway, light, and gas companies. A state board of pardon and paroles, a state highway department, a land reclamation department, a commission for the blind, and a children's code commission, were established. In 1913 the Seventeenth amendment to the United States Constitution was adopted providing for the election of United States senators by direct vote of the people. The State began to take a new interest in better highways at this time. . . . [In the 1916 campaign] the Democratic candidate for governor was Frederick D. Gardner of St. Louis. The Republican candidate was Judge Henry Lamm of Sedalia. The Democrats carried the State. . . . The Legislature was also Democratic. . . . Governor Gardner received a plurality of 2,000. . . . He became interested in the high interest rates charged farmers for money they borrowed and proposed a state farmer's land bank. This proposal, combined with a well conducted campaign on the basis of a business man for governor, secured for Governor Gardner both his nomination and his election. . . . The first two years of Governor Gardner's administration were largely filled with war activities throughout the State. . . . Legislative acts aside from war legislation provided for the creation of a state tax commission, a state prison board, abolition of the contract system in the penitentiary, a statewide mother's pension law [see below: 1913-1919], and a local tax levy for county hospitals. . . . The 1918 election gave the Republicans control of the House of Representatives in Missouri. They also elected the state superintendent of public schools. . . . The campaign of 1920 was waged on the issues growing out of the world war. Some of these were political as the League of Nations, others were economic as the high prices, which reached the highest level since 1864. The war closed in November 1918 and a post war boom began in 1919 and continued until the fall of 1920. . . . The election of 1920 resulted in a victory for the Republicans never equalled in the nation or in the State. Both houses of Congress

and the presidency went Republican, and Missouri, for the first time in fifty years, elected a Republican Legislature in both houses. All the state offices were Republican and Governor Hyde of Trenton, the Republican candidate, was elected by a majority of 57,000 and a plurality of 141,000. . . . At this election a number of amendments to the constitution were adopted. One permitted Kansas City to frame a new charter, one permitted road districts to vote increased taxes for roads, and another authorized the state to issue \$6,000,000 of road bonds. An amendment was adopted authorizing pensions for the blind, and another authorized a bond issue of \$1,000,000 for creating a soldiers' settlement fund. A 'bone dry' enforcement prohibition act passed by the 1919 Legislature was approved on a referendum vote and an initiative measure providing for a vote on holding a State constitutional convention carried."—F. C. Shoemaker, *History of Missouri and Missourians*, pp. 199, 201, 203, 205-206.

1913-1919.—**Child welfare legislation.**—**State-wide juvenile courts established.**—**Mothers' pension law.**—**Adoption of children made court proceeding.**—"The state-wide mothers' pension law, very comprehensive in its provisions, was passed in 1917. This law is one of the few laws of the kind in the country which enables the unmarried mother to receive a pension. Efforts have been made by social workers to persuade the state to establish a state school for dependent children, but owing to the cost of such an institution it was decided to work for a Children's Bureau connected with the State Board of Charities. This effort succeeded in 1913 and the Bureau began to operate with the prospect of excellent success when a curtailment of appropriations rendered the Bureau inactive. . . . Among recent reforms, however, may be mentioned the adoption law of 1917, which abolishes the old method and substitutes in its place a plan whereby an investigation by the juvenile court and a court decree are preliminary to the actual adoption of children. . . . For a number of years the state had but six juvenile courts, but in 1913 a new measure was enacted providing for such courts throughout the state. The jurisdiction of juvenile delinquents was placed in the probate court and a number of juvenile courts were established. The constitutionality of the law was tested and the supreme court finally declared the law invalid. As a consequence, new legislation became necessary and this was enacted in 1917. In the majority of cities, probation officers have in recent years been appointed and the methods and program of the juvenile court are being instituted. Jackson county and the city of St. Louis have made local provision for the care of the minor juvenile delinquents and the three state institutions are providing institutional care for delinquents throughout the remainder of the state. Until the advent of juvenile courts, comparatively small children were being sent from the counties to these institutions, but the development of a system of probation has lessened the tendency to do this. Furthermore, in 1910, neglected children were prohibited by law from being sent to the state institutions. . . . Increased protection is being afforded young girls through the changes effected in the age of consent which was raised in 1913 to fifteen years. . . . In order that the child welfare legislation of the state might be properly co-ordinated an attempt was made by the social workers to secure an appointment of a Children's Code Commission. Such a commission consisting of members of the State Legislature was authorized in 1915, but no appropria-

tions being available for the carrying on of the work, the attempt failed. Subsequently, a voluntary commission of twenty-three citizens was appointed by the Governor. This commission studied the laws of the state and the conditions relating to child welfare and presented a report to the Legislature of 1917 embodying its conclusions. Over forty bills were advocated, but only ten of these were enacted into law. In 1917 a second Children's Code Commission was appointed in a similar way and this group extended the investigations and the work of the previous commission. It reported forty-one bills of which twenty were enacted into law.—G. B. Mangold, *Social reform in Missouri during the last century* (*Missouri Historical Review*, Oct., 1920).

1917-1918.—Part played in World War.—Missouri "furnished to the land forces of the nation after the declaration of war, 128,000 civilian soldiers including all branches of the service, to the marine corps 3,400, and to the navy 6,910, a total of 138,310. . . . The entire National Guard was mobilized on the state rifle range near Nevada on August 5, 1917. . . . On September 28th the troops entrained for Camp Doniphan, Oklahoma, and were there consolidated with the Kansas National Guard, the combined National Guard of Missouri and Kansas constituting the 35th Division, this state furnishing about two-thirds and Kansas one-third of its strength."—H. C. Clark, *Missourians in service* (*Missouri Historical Review*, Oct., 1919).

1919.—Presidential Suffrage Bill passed.—Susan B. Anthony amendment ratified.—"The Fiftieth General Assembly has not only passed the Presidential Suffrage bill giving to Missouri women the right to vote for Presidential electors, but in a special session, July, 1919, it ratified the Susan B. Anthony Amendment to the Federal Constitution which declares that the right to vote shall not be denied to anyone because of sex. . . . Missouri [was] the eleventh state to grant Presidential suffrage to its women and the eleventh state to ratify the Federal Amendment."—E. N. Blair, *Foreword to history of woman suffrage movement in Missouri* (*Missouri Historical Review*, Apr.-July, 1920).

1921.—Budget system.—Missouri has created a department of budget which in addition to the compilation of the budget has the duties of the former tax commissioner, and supervision over purchasing and printing. The department is divided into two bureaus: a bureau of purchase, and a bureau of taxation and estimate. The department head is appointed by the governor subject to the approval of the senate.

ALSO IN: J. V. Barnard, *History and government of Missouri* (*State Government Series*).—E. Fair, *Government and politics in Missouri*.

MISSOURI COMPROMISE: Passage, repeal, and decision of Supreme Court against it. See U.S.A.: 1818-1821; 1854; 1857.

MISSOURI RIVER, called the River St. Philip by the French. See LOUISIANA: 1698-1712.

MISSOURI VS. HOLLAND: Supreme Court decision. See TREATIES, MAKING AND TERMINATION OF: Treaty-making power.

MISSOURIS, North American Indian tribe. See SIOUAN FAMILY.

MISTRAL, Frédéric (1830-1914), French poet. Leader of the modern Provençal revival. See NOBEL PRIZES: Literature: 1904.

MITCHEL, John (1815-1875), Irish revolutionist. One of the leaders of the "Young Ireland" movement. See IRELAND: 1841-1848.

MITCHEL, John Purroy (1870-1918), American mayor. Commissioner of accounts of New

York, 1907-1909; appointed collector of the port of New York, 1913; mayor of New York, 1913-1917; aviator in the United States army, in which service he was killed. See NEW YORK CITY: 1917.

MITCHEL, Ormsby M. (1810-1862), American general and astronomer. Director of the Cincinnati and Dudley observatories; served in the Civil War. See U.S.A.: 1862 (June-October: Tennessee-Kentucky); (April-May: Alabama).

MITCHELL, Eliisha (1793-1857), American geologist. See NORTH CAROLINA: 1857.

MITCHELL, Langdon Elwyn (1862-), American dramatist and poet. See DRAMA: 1865-1913.

MITHRA, Aryan sun-god. See MITHRAISM.

MITHRADATES THE GREAT (Mithridates) (c. 134-63 B.C.), king of Pontus, c. 121-63 B.C. Received an excellent Greek education; cultivated arts and sciences; subdued tribes on northern coast of Euxine; waged three wars with the Romans by whom he was considered the most formidable opponent in the East. See BACTRIA; BOSPORUS, CIMMERIAN: The city and kingdom; CYZICUS: B.C. 74; MITHRADATIC WARS; RHODES, ISLAND OF: B.C. 88.

MITHRADATIC WARS.—A somewhat vaguely defined part of eastern Asia Minor, between Armenia, Phrygia, Cilicia and the Euxine, was called Cappadocia in times anterior to 363 B.C. Like its neighbors, it had fallen under the rule of the Persians and formed a province of their empire, ruled by hereditary satraps. In the year above named, the then reigning satrap, Ariobarzanes, rebelled and made himself king of the northern coast district of Cappadocia, while the southern and inland part was retained under Persian rule. The kingdom founded by Ariobarzanes took the name of Pontus, from the sea on which it bordered. It was reduced to submission by Alexander the Great, but regained independence during the wars between Alexander's successors (see MACEDONIA: B.C. 310-301; SELEUCIDÆ: B.C. 281-224), and extended its limits towards the west and south. The kingdom of Pontus, however, only rose to importance in history under the powerful sovereignty of Mithradates V who took the title of Eupator and is often called Mithradates the Great. He ascended the throne while a child, 120 B.C., but received notwithstanding, a wonderful education and training. At the age of twenty (112 B.C.) he entered upon a career of conquest, which was intended to strengthen his power for the struggle with Rome, which he saw to be inevitable. Within a period of about seven years he extended his dominions around the nearly complete circuit of the Euxine, through Armenia, Colchis, and along the northern coasts westward to the Crimea and the Dniester; while at the same time he formed alliances with the barbarous tribes on the Danube, with which he hoped to threaten Italy.—Based on G. Rawlinson, *Manual of ancient history*, bk. 4, period 3, pt. 4—"He rivalled Hannibal in his unquenchable hatred to Rome. This hatred had its origin in the revocation of a district of Phrygia which the Senate had granted to his father. . . . To his banner clustered a quarter of a million of the fierce warriors of the Caucasus and the Scythian steppes and of his own Hellenized Pontic soldiers; Greek captains. In whom he had a confidence unshaken by disaster—Archelaus, Neoptolemus, Dorilaus—gave tactical strength to his forces. He was allied, too, with the Armenian king, Tigranes; and he now turned his thoughts to Numidia, Syria, and Egypt with the intention of forming a coalition against his foe on the Tiber. A coin has been found which

commemorated an alliance proposed between the Pontic king and the Italian rebels. . . . The imperious folly of M'. Aquilius, the Roman envoy in the East, precipitated the intentions of the king; instead of contending for the principedom of Bithynia and Cappadocia, he suddenly appealed to the disaffected in the Roman province. The fierce white fire of Asiatic hate shot out simultaneously through the length and breadth of the country [88 B.C.]; and the awful news came to distracted Rome that 80,000 Italians had fallen victims to the vengeance of the provincials. Terror-stricken publicani were chased from Adramyttium and Ephesus into the sea, their only refuge, and there cut down by their pursuers; the Mæander was rolling along the corpses of the Italians of Tralles; in Caria the refined cruelty of the oppressed people was butchering the children before the eyes of father and mother, then the mother before the eyes of her husband, and giving to the man death as the crown and the relief of his torture. . . . Asia was lost to Rome; only Rhodes, which had retained her independence, remained faithful to her great ally. The Pontic fleet, under Archelaus, appeared at Delos, and carried thence 2,000 talents to Athens, offering to that imperial city the government of her ancient tributary. This politic measure awakened hopes of independence in Greece. Aristion, an Epicurean philosopher, seized the reins of power in Athens, and Archelaus repaired the crumbling battlements of the Piræus. The wave of eastern conquest was rolling on towards Italy itself. The proconsul Sulla marched to Brundisium, and, undeterred by the ominous news that his consular colleague, Q. Rufus, had been murdered in Picenum, or by the sinister attitude of the new consul Cinna, he crossed over to Greece with five legions to stem the advancing wave. History knows no more magnificent illustration of cool, self-restrained, determination than the action of Sulla during these three years." He left Rome to his enemies, the fierce faction of Marius, who were prompt to seize the city and to fill it with "wailing for the dead, or with the more terrible silence which followed a complete massacre. [See *ROME: Republic: B. C. 88-78*]. . . . The news of this carnival of democracy reached the camp of Sulla along with innumerable noble fugitives who had escaped the Marian terror. The proconsul was unmoved; with unexampled self-confidence he began to assume that he and his constituted Rome, while the Forum and Curia were filled with lawless anarchists, who would soon have to be dealt with. He carried Athens by assault, and slew the whole population, with their tyrant Aristion [see *ATHENS: B. C. 87-86*], but he counted it among the favours of the goddess of Fortune that he, man of culture as he was, was able to save the immemorial buildings of the city from the fate of Syracuse or Corinth. Archelaus, in Piræus, offered the most heroic resistance. . . . With the spring Sulla heard of the approach of the main army from Pontus, under the command of Taxiles, 120,000 men, and ninety scythed chariots, were pouring over Mount Eta to overwhelm him. With wonderful rapidity he marched northwards through friendly Thebes, and drew up his little army on a slope near Chæronea, digging trenches on his left and right to save his flank from being turned. He showed himself every inch a general, he compelled the enemy to meet him on this ground of his own choice, and the day did not close before 110,000 of the enemy were captured or slain, and the camp of Archelaus, who had hastened from Athens to take the command, was

carried by assault. We have before us still, in the pages of Plutarch, Sulla's own memoirs. If we may believe him, he lost only fifteen men in the battle. By this brilliant engagement he had restored Greece to her allegiance, and, what was even better, the disaster aroused all the savagery of Mithradates, the Greek vanished in the oriental despot. Suspicious and ruthless, he ordered his nearest friends to be assassinated; he transported all the population of Chios to the mainland, and by his violence and exaction stirred Ephesus, Sardes, Tralles, and many other cities, to renounce his control, and to return to the Roman government. Still, he did not suspect Archelaus, but appointed him, together with Dorilaus, to lead a new army into Greece. The new army appeared in Bœotia, and encamped by the Copiac Lake, near Orchomenos. Before the raw levies could become familiar with the sight of the legions, Sulla assaulted the camp [85 B.C.], and rallied his wavering men by leading them in person with the cry, 'Go, tell them in Rome that you left your general in the trenches of Orchomenos;' the self-consciousness was sublime, for nothing would have pleased the people in Rome better; his victory was complete, and Archelaus escaped alone in a boat to Calchis. [See *GREECE: B. C. 146-A. D. 180.*] As the conqueror returned from the battlefield to reorganize Greece, he learnt that the Senate had deposed him from command, declared him an outlaw, and appointed as his successor the consul L. Valerius Flaccus. The disorganization of the republic seemed to have reached a climax. Flaccus conducted his army straight to the Bosphorus without venturing to approach the rebel proconsul Sulla; while Mithradates, who began to wish for peace, preferred to negotiate with his conqueror rather than with the consul of the republic. To complete this complication of anarchy, Flaccus was murdered, and superseded in the command by his own legate, C. Flavius Fimbria; this choice of their general by the legions themselves might seem significant if anything could be significant or connected in such a chaos. But Sulla now crossed into Asia, and concluded peace with Mithradates on these conditions: The king was to relinquish all his conquests, surrender deserters, restore the people of Chios, pay 2,000 talents, and give up seventy of his ships. Fimbria . . . remained to be dealt with. It was not a difficult matter: the two Roman armies confronted one another at Thyatira, and the Fimbrians streamed over to Sulla. After all, the legionaries, who had long ceased to be citizens, were soldiers first and politicians after; they worshipped the felicity of the great general; and the democratic general had not yet appeared who could bind his men to him by a spell stronger than Sulla's. Fimbria persuaded a slave to thrust him through with his sword. His enemies were vanquished in Asia, but in Rome Cinna was again consul (85 B.C.), and his colleague, Cn. Papirius Carbo, out-Cinnaed Cinna. Yet Sulla was in no hurry. He spent more than a year in reorganizing the disordered province. . . . He even allowed Cinna and Carbo, who began to prepare for war with him (84 B.C.), to be re-elected to the consulship; but when the more cautious party in the Senate entered into negotiations with him, and offered him a safe conduct to Italy, he showed in a word what he took to be the nature of the situation by saying that he was not in need of their safe conduct, but he was coming to secure them."—R. F. Horton, *History of the Romans*, ch. 26.—Plutarch, *Sulla*.—After a second and a third war with Rome (see *ROME: Republic: B. C. 78-63; 69-63*),

Mithradates was finally (65 B. C.) driven from his old dominions into the Crimean kingdom of Bosphorus, where he ended his life in despair two years later. The kingdom of Pontus was absorbed in the Roman empire. The southern part of Cappadocia held some rank as an independent kingdom until 17 A. D., when it was likewise reduced to the state of a Roman province.—See also AMISUS; CYZICUS: B. C. 74; POMPEIUS, GNAEUS MAGNUS; In the East.

MITHRAISM.—"Mithra was an old Aryan sun-god. His cult was a survival of those heathen elements of Persia which Zoroaster had been unable to suppress. As it developed on Persian soil, it took on the dualistic tendencies of later Zoroastrianism—the belief in Ahriman, and in angels and demons, together with the idea of perpetual strife between the good and the evil. By the time the cult reached the West it had been deeply penetrated by Babylonian sidereal conceptions, as well as its systems of conjuration. Mithraism also brought from Persia the general features of Zoroastrian eschatology. Its devotees believed in a very real heaven and hell. It developed a rich liturgy, with initiations, sacraments, and love-feasts. It recognized in an emphatic way the evil of the world with which men were impressed in the early centuries of our era, and offered a plausible explanation of it; it confronted the individual with the alternative of a happy heaven or an endless hell, and it offered mystic means of grace by which heaven could be secured. Moreover, the cult was very adaptable. In Babylonia, Mithra was Shamash under another name; in Rome he was Jupiter; in Syria, Baal. Wherever it spread it adapted itself to the local surroundings and absorbed the important features of the local cult. The introduction of Mithraism into Rome dates from her conquests of Asia Minor and Mesopotamia. Though there is said to have been a congregation of Mithra's votaries in Rome in the time of Pompey in 67 B. C., the real diffusion of his mysteries began with the Flavians in the last quarter of the first century A. D. Mithraism became more important under the Antonines in the second century, and still more so under the Severi in the third. At the beginning of the fourth century Mithra seemed on the point of eclipsing all rivals, for in 307 A. D. Diocletian, Galerius, and Licinius met at Carnuntum on the banks of the Danube and dedicated a sanctuary to Mithra, 'the protector of their empire.' Indeed, when Constantine accepted the sign of the cross, as told in the well-known legend, it is doubtful whether he was able to distinguish between the cross of the Galilean and the wheel-like sun disk, the symbol of Mithra. Of all the mystery-religions the cult of Mithra was the purest and most austere. It contained no impure ceremonies and nothing ethically repulsive. It exceeded the others in moral elevation, and was well calculated to gratify the imagination, appeal to the heart, and stimulate the moral instincts."—G. A. Barton, *Religions of the world*, pp. 283-284.—See also RELIGION: B. C. 750-A. D. 30.

Also in: A. L. Frothingham, *Cosmopolitan religion of Tarsus and the origin of Mithra*.—F. V. M. Cumont, *Mysteries of Mithra*.

MITLA, or Mictlan, a ruin about thirty miles from Oaxaca city in southern Mexico. Mitla is an Aztec word meaning "place of the dead." It was the burial city of the Zapotec kings and priests. The ruins of Mitla, sacred Zapotec city, "are distinguished by many peculiarities which render them almost unique. Here the quadrangular arrangement of building round courts attains its most definite

form. In two cases one of these buildings, on the east side, is a pyramid, and therefore presumably approached, as usual, from the west. The rest consists of long low buildings upon terraces, opening as a rule only upon the court which they surround, though in two cases one such building gives access at the back to another court, entirely enclosed by similar buildings, which has no other entrance. The material is rubble, faced with trachyte blocks set in mortar; the wall-surfaces are broken by sunk panels filled with the mosaic geometrical ornament which gives this site a character of its own. . . . Each block constituting the mosaic bears on its face in relief some detail entering into the design, but the blocks are not uniform, and each therefore was cut and fitted to its particular place, a method entailing enormous labour, especially when it is realized that over eighty thousand were employed in the ornamentation of one quadrangle alone. . . . Large masses of stone were used in construction, such as lintels from ten to twenty feet long and weighing from ten to fifteen tons, as well as cylindrical pillars used to support the roof in the broader buildings."—T. A. Joyce, *Mexican archaeology*, pp. 177-178.—See also ZAPOTEC.

MITRE LAW. See ARGENTINA: 1909: Mitre law and the railroads.

MITYLENE. See MITYLENE.

MIXES, Central American Indian tribe. See ZAPOTEC.

MIXTECS, Central American Indian tribe. See ZAPOTEC.

MIZRACHI, organization of orthodox Jews. See JEWS: Zionism: 1897-1918.

MIZRAIM, Hebrew name for Egypt. See EGYPT: Names.

MLAVA, or Mlawa, town in Poland, formerly in Russia, about fifty miles south of Königsberg. It was the scene of heavy fighting between the Germans and Russians during the World War, and was captured by the former in September, 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: h, 1.

MNESICLES, Greek architect. Built the Propylæa of the Acropolis, which was begun about 437 B. C. See ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS.

MNOITAE, serfs of ancient Crete. See ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Minoan Age: B. C. 1200-750.

MOABITES, MOABITE STONE.—As related in Genesis, 19:37, Moab was the son of Lot's eldest daughter and the ancient people called Moabites were descended from him. They occupied at an early time the rich table-land or highlands on the east side of the Dead sea; but the Amorites drove them out of the richer northern part of this territory into its southern half, where they occupied a very narrow domain, but one easily defended. [See CHRISTIANITY: Map of Sinaitic peninsula.] This occurred shortly before the coming of the Israelites into Canaan. Between the Moabites and the Israelites, after the settlement of the latter, there was frequent war, but sometimes relations both peaceful and friendly. David finally subjugated their nation, in a war of peculiar atrocity. After the division of the kingdoms, Moab was subject to Israel, but revolted on the death of Ahab and was nearly destroyed in the horrible war which followed. The Biblical account of this war is given in ii Kings, 3. It is strangely supplemented and filled out by a Moabite record—the famous Moabite Stone—found and deciphered within recent times, under the following circumstance. Dr. Klein, a German missionary, travelling in 1869 in what was formerly the "Land of Moab," discovered a stone of black basalt bearing a long inscription in Phœnician characters. He copied a small part of it and made his discovery known. The Prussian gov-

ernment opened negotiations for the purchase of the stone, and M. Clermont-Ganneau, of the French consulate at Jerusalem, made efforts likewise to secure it for his own country. Meantime, very fortunately, the latter sent men to take impressions—squeezes, as they are called—of the inscription, which was imperfectly done. But these imperfect squeezes proved invaluable; for the Arabs, finding the stone to be a covetable thing, and fearing that it was to be taken from them, crumbled it into fragments with the aid of fire and water. Most of the pieces were subsequently recovered, and were put together by the help of M. Clermont-Ganneau's squeezes, so that an important part of the inscription was deciphered in the end. It was found to be a record by Mesha, king of Moab, of the war with Israel referred to above.—A. H. Sayce, *Fresh light from the ancient monuments*, ch. 4.—The Moabites appear to have recovered from the blow, but not much of their subsequent history is known.—Based on G. Grove, *Dictionary of the Bible*.—See also AMALEKITES; AMMONITES; JEWS; Conquest of Canaan; Early Hebrew history; Israel under the judges.

ALSO IN: J. King, *Moab's patriarchal stone*.

MOAWIYAH I (c. 610-680), caliph of Bagdad, 661-680. Founder of the Omayyad dynasty. See CALIPHATE: 661; CONSTANTINOPLE: 668-675.

Moawiyah II (died c. 683), caliph of Bagdad, c. 663-683.

MOBILE, port in southern Alabama, on the Mobile river.

1702-1711.—Founding of city by the French. See LOUISIANA: 1698-1712.

1763.—Surrendered to the English. See FLORIDA: 1763 (July).

1781.—Retaken by Spaniards. See FLORIDA: 1779-1781; SPAIN: 1779-1783.

1813.—Possession taken from the Spaniards by the United States. See FLORIDA: 1810-1813.

1864.—Battle in the bay.—Farragut's naval victory. See U.S.A.: 1864 (August; Alabama).

1865 (March-April).—Siege and capture by national forces. See U.S.A.: 1865 (April-May).

MOBILIANS, tribe of North American Indians. See MUSKHOGEAN, OR MASKOKI, FAMILY.

MOBILIZATION OF ARMIES: Preparation for war. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 20; WORLD WAR: Preparation for war: a.

MOCOVIS, South American Indian tribe. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

MODDER, river rising in the central part of Orange Free State, South Africa, and flowing west into the Orange river. It was a scene of fighting during the Boer and the World wars. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (October-December); 1900 (January-February).

MODENA, former duchy of northern Italy comprising the modern provinces of Modena, Massa-e-Carrara and Reggio. It is also the capital of the present province of the same name.

1288-1453.—Acquired by Marquess of Este.—Created a duchy. See ESTE, HOUSE OF.

1767.—Expulsion of Jesuits. See JESUITS: 1761-1760.

1803.—Acquired by House of Austria. See ESTE, HOUSE OF.

1814-1815.—One of the eight Italian states after Congress of Vienna.—Restored to Austrian prince. See AUSTRIA: 1815-1846; ITALY: 1814-1815; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1831.—Revolt and expulsion of the duke.—His restoration by Austrian troops. See ITALY: 1830-1832.

1848-1849.—Abortive revolution. See ITALY: 1848-1849.

1859-1861.—End of duchy.—Absorption in new kingdom of Italy. See ITALY: 1856-1859; 1859-1861.

1860.—Extent of dominions at union with Italy. See ITALY: Map showing unification, etc.

MODERNISM, Papal encyclical against. See PAPACY: 1907 (September); TYRREL, FATHER GEORGE.

MODIUS, Roman unit of capacity. See AMPHORA.

MODOCS (Klamaths): Their California and Oregon neighbors.—"The principal tribes occupying this region [of Northern California from Rogue River on the north to the Eel River, south] are the Klamaths, who live on the head waters of the river and on the shores of the lake of that name; the Modocs, on Lower Klamath Lake and along Lost River; the Shastas, to the south-west of the Lakes; the Pitt River Indians; the Eurocs, on the Klamath River between Weitspek and the coast; the Cahrocs, on the Klamath River from a short distance above the junction of the Trinity to the Klamath Mountains; the Hoopahs [or Hupas, a tribe of the Athapascan family] in Hoopah Valley on the Trinity near its junction with the Klamath; numerous tribes on the coast from Eel River and Humboldt Bay north, such as the Weeyots, Wallies, Tolewahs, etc., and the Rogue River Indians, on and about the river of that name. The Northern Californians are in every way superior to the central and southern tribes."—H. H. Bancroft, *Native races of the Pacific states*, v. 1, ch. 4.—"On the Klamath there live three distinct tribes, called the Yú-rok, Ká-rok, and Mó-dok, which names are said to mean, respectively, 'down the river,' 'up the river,' and 'head of the river.' . . . The Károk are probably the finest tribe in California. . . . Hoopa Valley, on the Lower Trinity, is the home of [the Hú-pá]. Next after the Ká-rok they are the finest race in all that region, and they even excel them in their statecraft, and in the singular influence, or perhaps brute force, which they exercise over the vicinal tribes. They are the Romans of Northern California in their valor and their wide-reaching dominions; they are the French in the extended diffusion of their language. [The Modocs] on the whole . . . are rather a cloddish, indolent, ordinarily good-natured race, but treacherous at bottom, sullen when angered, notorious for keeping Punic faith. But their bravery nobody can impeach or deny; their heroic and long defense of their stronghold against the appliances of modern civilized warfare, including that arm so awful to savages—the artillery—was almost the only feature that lent respectability to their wretched tragedy of the Lava Beds [1873]."—S. Powers, *Tribes of California (Contributions to North American ethnology, v. 3, ch. 1, 7, 27)*.—See also U.S.A.: 1866-1876.—"The home of the Klamath tribe of southwestern Oregon lies upon the eastern slope of the southern extremity of the Cascade Range, and very nearly coincides with what we may call the head waters of the Klamath River, the main course of which lies in Northern California. . . . The main seat of the Modoc people was the valley of Lost River, the shores of Tule and of Little Klamath Lake. . . . The two main bodies forming the Klamath people are: (1) the Klamath Lake Indians; (2) the Modoc Indians. The Klamath Lake Indians number more than twice as many as the Modoc Indians. They speak the northern dialect and form the northern chieftaincy. . . . The Klamath people possess no historic traditions going further back in time than a century, for the simple reason that there was a strict law prohibiting the mention of the person or

acts of a deceased individual by using his name. . . . Our present knowledge does not allow us to connect the Klamath language genealogically with any of the other languages compared, but . . . it stands as a linguistic family for itself."—A. S. Gatschet, *Klamath Indians (Contributions to North American ethnology, v. 2, pt. 1)*.—In Major Powell's linguistic classification, the Klamath and Modoc dialects are embraced in a family called the Lutuanian Family, derived from a Pit river word signifying "lake"; the Yuroks in a family called the Weitspekan; and the Pit river Indian dialects are provisionally set apart in a distinct family named the Palaihnihan Family.—Based on J. W. Powell, *Seventh annual report, Bureau of ethnology, pp. 89, 97*.

MOE, Jørgen (1813-1880), Norwegian poet and theologian. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1814-1900.

MOERIS, Lake.—"On the west of Egypt there is an oasis of cultivable land, the Fayum, buried in the midst of the desert, and attached by a sort of isthmus to the country watered by the Nile. In the centre of this oasis is a large plateau about the same level as the valley of the Nile; to the west, however, a considerable depression of the land produces a valley occupied by a natural lake more than ten leagues in length, the 'Birket Kerun.' In the centre of this plateau Amenemhe [twelfth dynasty] undertook the formation of an artificial lake with an area of ten millions of square metres. If the rise of the Nile was insufficient, the water was led into the lake and stored up for use, not only in the Fayum, but over the whole of the left bank of the Nile as far as the sea. If too large an inundation threatened the dykes, the vast reservoir of the artificial lake remained open, and when the lake itself overflowed, the surplus waters were led by a canal into the Birket Kerun. The two names given in Egypt to this admirable work of Amenemhe III. deserve to be recorded. Of one, Meri, that is 'the Lake,' par excellence, the Greeks have made Moeris, a name erroneously applied by them to a king; whilst the other, P-iom, 'the Sea,' has become, in the mouth of the Arabs, the name of the entire province, Fayum."—M. Mariette (Lenormant's *Manual of ancient history of the East, bk. 3, ch. 2*).

MÆSIA, or Mæsia.—"After the Danube had received the waters of the Teyss [Theiss] and the Save, it acquired, at least among the Greeks, the name of Ister. It formerly divided Mæsia and Dacia, the latter of which, as we have already seen, was a conquest of Trajan, and the only province beyond the river. . . . On the right hand of the Danube, Mæsia, . . . during the middle ages, was broken—into the barbarian kingdoms of Servia and Bulgaria."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch. I*.—See also BALKAN STATES: Geographical position; ROMÉ: Empire: B. C. 31-A. D. 14.

3rd century.—Invaded by Goths. See BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 3rd century; GOTHS: 244-251.

4th-5th centuries.—Location and extent of territory. See EUROPE: Map showing Barbaric migrations.

341-382.—Settled by Christian Goths.—Visigoths transported to territory. See GOTHS: 341-381; 376; 379-382.

MOESKIRCH, Battle of (1800). See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (May-February).

MÆSO-GOTHIC ALPHABET. See GOTHS: 341-381.

MOGADOR, or Suera, port in Morocco. It was bombarded by the French in 1844. See BARBARIAN STATES: 1830-1846; FRANCE: 1842-1848.

MOGH NUATH (fl. 2nd century), king of Munster. See DUBLIN: Origin of name; IRELAND: From Tuathal to Cormac.

MOGONTIACUM.—"The two headquarters of the [Roman] army of the Rhine were always Vetera, near Wesel, and Mogontiacum, the modern Mentz. . . . Mogontiacum or Mentz, [was] from the time of Drusus down to the end of Rome the stronghold out of which the Romans sallied to attack Germany from Gaul, as it is at the present day the true barrier of Germany against France. Here the Romans, even after they had abandoned their rule in the region of the upper Rhine, generally retained not merely the tête-de-pont on the other bank, the 'castellum Mogontiacense' (Castel), but also that plain of the Main itself, in their possession; and in this region a Roman civilisation might establish itself. The land originally belonged to the Chatti, and a Chattan tribe, the Mattiaci, remained settled here even under Roman rule."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, bk. 8, ch. 4*.

MOGUL EMPIRE, Mohammedan Tatar empire in India founded by Baber in 1526. Under a succession of rulers it remained powerful until the death of Aurung-Zeb in 1707, when it was split up and the power passed to the Marhattas and the British. The last nominal ruler died in 1857.

1241-1767.—Moguls in India.—Invasion of the Punjab. See INDIA: 977-1200; 1290-1308; 1351-1767.

16th century.—Conquest of Bengal from Afghans. See BENGAL.

1587-1739.—Control of Kashmir. See KASHMIR.

1605-1748.—Rule in India. See INDIA: 1605-1658; 1662-1748.

1747-1761.—Decline and fall of empire. See INDIA: 1747-1761.

1757-1772.—War with English. See INDIA: 1757-1772.

1857.—Murder of princes. See INDIA: 1857 (June-September).

MOGUL SCHOOL OF PAINTING. See PAINTING: Asiatic: India and Persia.

MOHACS, Battles of (1526, 1687). See AUSTRIA: 1525-1527; HUNGARY: 1487-1526; 1683-1600.

MOHAMMED, Muhammed, or Mahomet (c. 570-632), founder of the religion of Islam. See MOHAMMEDANISM.

Mohammed, Turkish sultan, 1104-1116.

Mohammed I, Turkish sultan, 1413-1421. See TURKEY: 1402-1451.

Mohammed II (c. 1430-1481), Turkish sultan, 1451-1481. See TURKEY: 1451-1481; BOSNIA: 1453-1528; ATHENS: 1450; CONSTANTINOPLE: 1453.

Mohammed III (c. 1566-1603), Turkish sultan, 1505-1603. See HUNGARY: 1507-1604; 1505-1606.

Mohammed IV (c. 1641-1691), Turkish sultan, 1648-1687.

Mohammed V, Reschad Effendi (1844-1918), Turkish sultan, 1909-1918. See TURKEY: 1900.

Mohammed VI (1861-), Turkish sultan since 1918. See TURKEY: 1910 (March).

Mohammed I (Ala-ud-din) (d. 1316), ruler of India. See INDIA: 1200-1308.

Mohammed II (1325-1351), ruler of India. See INDIA: 1290-1308.

MOHAMMED ABUL-DHAHAB, governor of Cairo, 1772. See EGYPT: 1517-1708.

MOHAMMED AHMED IBN SEYYID ABDULLAH (1848-1885), self proclaimed prophet and deliverer of Egypt. Headed insurrection against Egyptian authority, 1881-1883. See EGYPT: 1870-1883.

MOHAMMED ALI MIRZA (1872-), sha of Persia, 1907-1909. See PERSIA: 1907-1908; 1908 (October).

MOHAMMED BEN ABDALLAH (fl. 12th century), religious teacher. Leader of a revolution which overturned the empire of the Almoravides. See **ALMOHADES**.

MOHAMMED BEN ABDULLAH, leader of the rebellion in 1902 against the British in Somaliland. See **SOMALILAND**.

MOHAMMED BEN SAM. See **MOHAMMED OF GHOR**.

MOHAMMED EL AMIN (d. 1903), native of Tunis, self-proclaimed Mahdi in southern Kordofan. Tried and executed by the British. See **SUDAN: 1903**.

MOHAMMED MIRZA, sha of Persia, 1577-1582.

MOHAMMED MOSTANSER, ruler of Tunis. Repulsed the Crusaders under Louis IX of France, 1270. See **CRUSADES: 1270-1271**.

MOHAMMED OF GHOR (d. 1206), conqueror of India, 1175-1199. See **INDIA: 977-1290**.

MOHAMMED SHA, ruler of Persia, 1834-1848.



MOHAMMED

MOHAMMED WAD EL BIAHARA, emir of Dongola. See **EGYPT: 1885-1896**.

MOHAMMEDAN CONFERENCE. See **INDIA: 1907 (December)**.

MOHAMMEDANISM.—This great Oriental religion, founded by Mohammed, is estimated to number considerably over 200,000,000 "followers of the Prophet." Its origin dates from the year 622 A. D. The sources for the life of the Prophet appear to be very numerous, but critical inspection restricts them considerably. It is strange that so remarkable a personage should have lacked a contemporary biographer, some friend or admirer who aspired to the honor of recording events and collecting material until the time arrived when a large circle would welcome an exhaustive memoir conveying the truth about him. If the idea did not occur to an Arab, because no Arab had till then composed a biography or other prose monument, there were converts from the Jewish and Christian communities to whom models for such a performance must have been familiar. That no such memoir was attempted agrees with a tradition according to which the Koran tolerated no

written literature besides itself. Letters might be written and contracts, but a book would constitute a possible rival to God's book, and it was not permissible to write one. The contents of the Prophet's letters were afterwards cited, not from originals jealously guarded, but from some traditionalist's memory. These are, till the last years of his life, few, obscure and meagre. Collections which would have been of unique value to the historian, such as the correspondence of the Prophet with his agent at Medina before the Flight, have perished without leaving a trace. Towards the end of his life Mohammed carried on a diplomatic correspondence with the aid of official secretaries, of which rather more has come to our knowledge. What was done in lieu of compiling biographies was to remember casual sayings, or, long after the events, to get persons who had been present to narrate them. When the Prophet had delivered an oracle he ordinarily thought no more about it. There is no evidence that he kept any sort of record of his revelations; indeed, there is good evidence that he kept none. After his death the Koran had to be collected; it did not exist as a whole. "The generation which knew Mohammed was devoid of the historic sense and left no record of his doings and sayings except the one which is furnished in the imperfect collection of his sporadic utterances known as the Koran. . . . Out of the late and untrustworthy traditions, we can supplement the Koran by some details—but only enough to sketch his life in general outlines. He was born of humble parentage in Mecca and in all probability in the year 570 A. D. There is an isolated tradition that his real name was Kutam. Mohammed (or better Muhammad, 'the praised one' or 'blessed' appears to be an epithet given to him. His father's name was Abdallah (servant of Allah), though the second element may have been a substitute for the name of some Arab god; and his mother is said to have been Amina ('the faithful one'). At a tender age Mohammed was left an orphan, the care of whom devolved first on his grandfather, Abd el-Muttalib, and after the death of the latter upon his maternal uncle, Abu Talib. Of his early years we know nothing till as a young man he entered the service of a rich widow, Khadijah, and as her agent entered upon mercantile pursuits. He subsequently married the widow, though she was considerably older, and had a large family—three sons and four daughters. The sons appear to have died before reaching manhood. We next hear of him as a preacher, exhorting the people of Mecca to cast aside the traditional worship of gods and to recognize Allah as the one god of the universe. This, the burden of his message, is repeated in many keys and in endless variations throughout his public career. 'There is no god but Allah' becomes the inspiration of his life, while the corollary 'Mohammed is the messenger of Allah' merely emphasizes his position as the mouthpiece of Allah, sent to proclaim him to his own people, as at other times messengers had been sent to other peoples—notably to Jews and Christians. [See **RELIGION: 622**.] He appears to have been about forty years old when he first made his public appearance. The twenty-two years of his career as a 'warner' . . . are divided into two almost equal periods. The first twelve are spent in Mecca, where he succeeds in gathering a small circle of followers about him, but also arouses considerable opposition by his denunciation of established customs."—M. Jastrow, Jr., *Religions of the past and present*, p. 213.—"Slowly and gradually he makes converts in his native city; his good wife Khadijah, his faithful servant Zeyd, are the first to recognize

his mission; his young cousin, the noble Ali, the brave and generous and injured model of Arabian chivalry, declares himself his convert and Vizier; the prudent, moderate and bountiful Abu-Bekr acknowledges the pretensions of the daring innovator. Through mockery and persecution the Prophet keeps unflinchingly in his path; no threats, no injuries, hinder him from still preaching to his people the unity and the righteousness of God, and exhorting to a far purer and better morality than had ever been set before them. He claims no temporal power, no spiritual domination; he asks but for simple toleration, for free permission to win men by persuasion into the way of truth. . . . As yet at least his hands were not stained with blood, nor his inner life with lust."—E. A. Freeman, *History and conquests of the Saracens, lect. 2*.—After ten years of preaching at Mecca, and of a private circulation and repetition of the successive Suras or chapters of the Koran, as the prophet delivered them, Mohammed had gained but a small following, while the opposition to his doctrines and pretensions had gained strength. But in 620 (being then fifty years of age) he gained the ear of a company of pilgrims from Medina and won them to his faith. Returning home, they spread the gospel of Islam among their neighbors, and the disciples at Medina were soon strong enough in numbers to offer protection to their prophet and to his persecuted followers in Mecca. As the result of two pledges, famous in Mohammedan history, which were given by the men of Medina to Mohammed, in secret meetings at the hill of Acaba, a general emigration of the adherents of the new faith from Mecca to Medina took place in the spring of the year 622. Mohammed and his closest friend, Abu Bekr, having remained with their families until the last, escaped the rage of the Koreish, or Coreish, only by a secret flight and a concealment for three days in a cave on Mount Thaur, near Mecca. Their departure from the cave of Thaur, according to the most accepted reckoning, was on June 20, 622. This is the date of the Hegira, or flight, or emigration of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina. The Mohammedan era of the Hegira, "though referring 'par excellence' to the flight of the Prophet, . . . is also applicable to all his followers who emigrated to Medina prior to the capture of Mecca; and they are hence called Muhājirin, i. e., the Emigrants, or Refugees. We have seen that they commenced to emigrate from the beginning of Moharram (the first month of the Hegira era) two months before." The title of the Muhājirin, or Refugees, soon became an illustrious one, as did that of the Ansar, or Allies, of Medina, who received and protected them. At Medina Mohammed found himself strongly sustained. Before the year of his flight ended, he opened hostilities against the city which had rejected him, by attacking its Syrian caravans. The attacks were followed up and the traffic of Mecca greatly interfered with, until January, 624, when the famous battle of Bedr, or Badr, was fought, and the first great victory of the sword of Islam achieved. The 300 warriors of Bedr formed "the peerage of Islam." From this time the ascendancy of Mohammed was rapidly gained, and assumed a political as well as a religious character. His authority was established at Medina and his influence spread among the neighboring tribes. Nor was his cause more than temporarily depressed by a sharp defeat which he sustained, January, 625, in battle with the Koreish at Ohod. Two years later Medina was attacked and besieged by a great force of the Koreish and other tribes of Arabs and Jews, against the latter of whom Mohammed, after

vainly courting their adhesion and recognition, had turned with relentless hostility. The siege failed and the retreat of the enemy was hastened by a timely storm. In the next year Mohammed extorted from the Koreish a treaty, known as the Truce of Hodeibia, which suspended hostilities for ten years and permitted the prophet and his followers to visit Mecca for three days in the following year. The pilgrimage to Mecca was made in the holy month, February, 629, and in 630 Mohammed found adherents enough within the city and outside of it to deliver the coveted shrine and capital of Arabia into his hands. Alleging a breach of the treaty of peace, he marched against the city with an army of 10,000 men, and it was surrendered to him by his obstinate opponent, Abu Sohān, who acknowledged, at last, the divine commission of Mohammed and became a disciple. The idols in the Kaaba were thrown down and the ancient temple dedicated to the worship of the one God. (See KAABA.) The conquest of Mecca was followed within no long time by the submission of the whole Arabic peninsula. The most obstinate in resisting were the great Bedouin tribe of the Hawazin, in the hill country, southeast of Mecca, with their kindred, the Bani Thackif. These were crushed in the important battle of Honein, and their strong city of Tayif was afterwards taken. Before Mohammed died, on June 8, 632, he was the prince as well as the prophet of Arabia, and his armies, passing the Syrian borders, had already encountered the Romans, though not gloriously, in a battle fought at Muta, not far from the Dead sea.—Based on W. Muir, *Life of Mahomet*.

"The last year of Mohammed's life was spent in [Medina]. . . . He settled the organisation of the provinces and tribal communities which had adopted Islam and become the component parts of the Moslem federation. In fact, though the faith had not penetrated among the Arab races settled in Syria and Mesopotamia, most of whom were Christians, the whole of Arabia now followed the Islamic faith. Officers were sent to the provinces and to the various tribes for the purpose of teaching the people the duties of Islam, administering justice, and collecting the tithes or *zakat*."—Ameer Ali, *Spirit of Islam*, p. 115.—After the death of Mohammed the men of Medina elected Abu Bekr as his successor. "He was one of the earliest converts to Islam, a rich and prosperous man. Devoted to the Prophet, he had been his companion in the flight from Mecca, his wise supporter at the battle of Badr, his substitute as Imam at the public prayers during his last illness. At this time, though Islam was strong in Mecca and Medina, its hold on many of the Arab tribes was weak and some were already in revolt. No man was better fitted than Abu Bakr to rule in times so critical. He was gentle, yet strong; he had a profound respect for the memory of the Prophet and an intimate acquaintance with his plans, whilst his faith in the ultimate prosperity of Islam was absolute. Muhammad had said:—'In Arabia there shall be no second creed,' so Abu Bakr at once took action against all the malcontents. Museilama, a claimant of the Khaliphate, was beaten in the battle of Yemana. Abu Bakr saw that to get peace at home he must have war abroad; so he said:—'When a people leaveth off to fight in the name of the Lord, the Lord casteth off that people.' The Arabs were to go forth and conquer. Abu Bakr died in 634 A. D., but in the two short years of his reign, he put down with a firm hand rebellions at home and diverted the warlike spirit of the Bedouins from internal tumult to external war.

The desire for plunder suspended for a time the animosity of tribal feuds. Abu Bakr thus saved Islam from disruption."—E. Sell, *Islam: Its rise and progress*, pp. 53-54.—See also ABU BEKR; HISTORY: 21.

Moslem orthodoxy.—Faith and practical religion.—Authority and sufficiency of the Koran.—Observances.—Sects.—"The sumptuary prohibitions of Mohammed may be divided into two classes, *qualitative* and *quantitative*. The prohibition against excess in eating and drinking and others of the like import belong to the latter class. They were called forth in part by the peculiar semi-barbarous epicureanism which was coming into fashion among the Arabs from their intercourse with the demoralised Syrians and Persians, and in part by circumstances of which only glimpses are afforded us in the Koran. The absolute prohibition of swine's flesh, which may be classed under the head of qualitative prohibitions, arose, as is evident, from hygienic reasons and this prohibition must remain unchanged as long as the nature of the animal and the diseases engendered by the eating of the flesh remain as at present. The prohibition against dancing was directed against the orgiastic dances with which the heathen Arabs used to celebrate the Syro-Phœnician worship of their Ashtoreth, Moloch and Baal."—Ameer Ali, *Spirit of Islam*, p. 187.—"The religion founded by Mahomet is called Islam, a word meaning 'the entire surrender of the will to God'; its professors are called Mussulmans—'those who have surrendered themselves,' or 'Believers,' as opposed to the 'Rejectors' of the Divine messengers, who are named 'Kafirs,' or 'Mushrikîn,' that is, 'those who associate, are companions or sharers with the Deity.' Islam is sometimes divided under the two heads of Faith and Practical Religion. I. Faith (Iman) includes a belief in one God, omnipotent, omniscient, all-merciful, the author of all good; and in Mahomet as his prophet, expressed in the formula 'There is no God but God, and Mahomet is the Prophet of God.' It includes, also, a belief in the authority and sufficiency of the Koran, in angels, genii, and the devil, in the immortality of the soul, the resurrection, the day of judgment and in God's absolute decree for good and evil. II. Practical religion (Din) consists of five observances: (1) Recital of the formula of Belief, (2) Prayer with Ablution, (3) Fasting, (4) Almsgiving, (5) the Pilgrimage. . . . The standard of Moslem orthodoxy is essentially the Koran and to it primary reference is made; but . . . some more extended and discriminating code became necessary. The deficiency was supplied by the compilation of the 'Sunnah,' or Traditional Law, which is built upon the sayings and practices of Mahomet, and, in the opinion of the orthodox, is invested with the force of law, and with some of the authority of inspiration. . . . In cases where both the Koran and the Sunnah afford no exact precept, the 'Rule of Faith' in their dogmatic belief, as well as the decisions of their secular courts, is based upon the teaching of one of the four great Imams, or founders of the orthodox sects, according as one or another of these prevails in any particular country. . . . The great Sunni sect is divided among the orthodox schools mentioned above, and is so called from its reception of the 'Sunnah,' as having authority concurrent with and supplementary to the Koran. [See SUNNITES.] In this respect it differs essentially from the Shias, or partisans of the house of Ali [the nephew of Mohammed and husband of his daughter Fatima] who, adhering to their own traditions, reject the authority of the 'Sunnah.' [See SHITES.] These two sects, moreover, have certain observ-

ances and matters of belief peculiar to themselves, the chief of which is the Shia doctrine, that the sovereign Imam, or temporal and spiritual lordship over the faithful, was by divine right vested in Ali and in his descendants, through Hasan and Hosen, the children of Fatima, the daughter of the prophet. And thus the Persian Shias add to the formula of belief the confession, 'Ali is the Caliph of God.' In Persia the Shia doctrines prevail, and formerly so intense was sectarian hatred that the Sunni Mahometans paid a higher capitation tax there than the infidels. In Turkey the great majority are Sunni. In India the Shias number about one in twenty. The Shias, who reject this name, and call themselves Adliyah, or the 'Society of the Just,' are subdivided into a great variety of minor sects; but these . . . are united in asserting that the first three Caliphs, Abu Bekr, Omar, and Othman were usurpers, who had possessed themselves of the rightful and inalienable inheritance of Ali."—J. W. H. Stobart, *Islam and its founder*, ch. 10.—"The twelve Imams, or pontiffs, of the Persian creed, are Ali, Hassan, Hosen, and the lineal descendants of Hosen to the ninth generation. Without arms, or treasures, or subjects, they successively enjoyed the veneration of the people and provoked the jealousy of the reigning caliphs. . . . The twelfth and last of the Imams, conspicuous by the title of Mahadi [see MAHADI], or the Guide, surpassed the solitude and sanctity of his predecessors. He concealed himself in a cavern near Bagdad: the time and place of his death are unknown; and his votaries pretend that he still lives and will appear before the day of judgment."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 50.—See also ETHICS: 5th-15th centuries; RELIGION: 622; ULEMA.—"Almost all the Mohammedan inhabitants of the Ottoman dominions and of Africa are Sunnites. They are divided into four Mezhebs, or principal sects, viz. the Hanafi, the Shafai, the Maliki, and the Hanabali. These sects differ on points of ritual, and as regards the interpretation of certain portions of the Mohammedan law. The Turks in Egypt belong to the Hanafite sect. Most of the Egyptians belong to the Shafai, but some few to the Maliki sect. Beneath these four main divisions are a number of Tarikas, or minor sects, which were called into existence at a later period of Islamism than the Mezhebs. They have generally been created, and are still being created, by persons noted for their piety and asceticism, who have, for the most part, recommended some special form of prayer or of ceremonial as being particularly efficacious. Some of the Tarikas have risen to considerable importance. Thus, the Wahabi sect caused at one time great political disturbance by reason both of the number and of the aggressive spirit of the sectarians. [See WAHHABIS.] The Sheikh El Mirghani also founded a large Tarika in the Eastern Soudan. The Sheikh El Senoussi is the head of one of the most important Tarikas which now exist. It has been estimated that his followers number no fewer than 3,000,000, who are scattered widely over the whole of Northern Africa. They are especially numerous in Wadai. In Egypt, the followers of Senoussi are also fairly numerous."—Lord Cromer, *Modern Egypt*, v. 2, p. 37.—See also AHMADIYA; ALMOHADES; ASSASSINS; AS-TURIAS; RELIGION: Ethnic and Catholic religions.

Places of worship. See MOSQUE; JERUSALEM:

637.

Christian missionary work. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Near East.

For the spread of Mohammedanism as a world

power see CHRISTIANITY; Map; EUROPE: Map of central Europe: 1618; ABYSSINIA: 1913-1920; AFRICA: 1914-1920; ARABIA; ARMENIA: 1915; BENGAL; BOSNIA: 1528-1875; CALIPHATE; CAUCASUS: 1400-1737; CRUSADES; EGYPT: 1870-1883; 1882-1883; 1906-1907; 1907-1911; INDIA: 1451-1767; 1905-1922; 1907-1921; MALAY ARCHIPELAGO: Before 16th century; PAN-ISLAMISM; PERSIA: 1258-1303; PRIESTHOOD: Priestless religions; SPAIN: 711-713; 713; TURKEY.

For influence on the arts and literature see ARABIC LITERATURE; ARCHITECTURE: Medieval: Mohammedan; EUROPE: Middle Ages: Saracenic civilization; SEMITIC LITERATURE.

ALSO IN: W. Irving, *Mahomet and his successors*.—T. Nöldeke, *Sketches from eastern history*.—G. Weil, *Muhammad der Prophet*.—A. Sprenger, *Life of Mohammed*.—R. B. Smith, *Mohammed and Mohammedanism*.—W. C. Taylor, *History of Mohammedanism*.

MOHAMMID. See MOHAMMED.

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

MOHARRAM FESTIVAL. See CALIPHATE: 680.

MOHAVES, or Mojaves, North American Indian tribe. See APACHE INDIANS.

MOHAWKS, North American Indian tribe. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY; NEW ENGLAND: 1637.

1647.—War with Susquehannas. See SUSQUEHANNAS.

"MOHAWKS," men disguised as Indians who took part in the Boston tea party. See BOSTON: 1773.

MOHAWKS, or Sons of Liberty. See NEW YORK: 1773-1774.

MOHBAT KHAN, ruler of Baluchistan. See BALUCHISTAN: 18th century.

MOHEGANS, or Mahicans, tribe of North American Indians. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Eastern woodlands area; ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; STOCKBRIDGE INDIANS; NEW ENGLAND: 1637.

MOHIKANDERS, tribe of North American Indians. See STOCKBRIDGE INDIANS.

MOHILEV SMOLENSK, Battle of (1812). See AUSTRIA: 1800-1814; RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September).

MOHOCKS.—After the Stuart restoration it became the fashion in London for dissolute young men to form themselves in clubs and associations for committing all sorts of excesses in the public streets. "These Clubs took various slang designations. At the Restoration they were 'Mums,' and 'Tityre-tus.' They were succeeded by the 'Hectors' and 'Scourers.' . . . Then came the 'Nickers,' whose delight it was to smash windows with showers of half-pence; next were the 'Ilawkabites;' and lastly the 'Mohocks.' These last were described in the 'Spectator,' No. 324, as a set of men who . . . took care to drink themselves to a pitch beyond reason or humanity, and then made a general sally, and attacked all who were in the streets. Some were knocked down, others stabbed, and others cut and carbonadoed. . . . They had special barbarities which they executed upon their prisoners. 'Tipping the lion' was squeezing the nose flat to the face and boring out the eyes with their fingers. 'Dancing-masters' were those who taught their scholars to cut capers by running swords through their legs. The 'Tumblers' set women on their heads. The 'Sweaters' worked in parties of half-a-dozen, surrounding their victims with the points of their swords. . . . Another savage diversion of the Mohocks was their thrusting women into barrels, and

rolling them down Snow or Ludgate Hill. . . . At length the villainies of the Mohocks were attempted to be put down by a Royal proclamation, issued on the 18th of March, 1712: this, however, had very little effect, for we soon find Swift exclaiming: 'They go on still and cut people's faces every night.' . . . The Mohocks held together until nearly the end of the reign of George I."—J. Timbs, *Clubs and club life in London*, pp. 33-38.

MOHONK (LAKE) PEACE CONFERENCE. See WAR, REVOLT AGAINST: 1909.

MOIRA, Lord. See HASTINGS, FRANCIS RAWDON.

MOISSAN, Henry (1852-1907), French chemist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Chemistry: 1906.

MOJOS, or Moxos, South American Indian tribe. See ANDESIANS; BOLIVIA: Aboriginal inhabitants.

MOKERN, Battle of (1813). See GERMANY: 1812-1813.

MOKIS, North American Indian tribe. See SHOSHONEAN FAMILY.

MOLASSES ACT (1763). See U.S.A.: 1763-1764.

MOLAY, or Molai, Jacques de (d. 1314), last grand master of the Knights Templars, 1295-1314. Burned as a heretic in Paris when the order was suppressed. See CRUSADES: 1299; TEMPLARS: 1307-1314.

MOLDAVIA, formerly a principality, now a part of Rumania. The chief city is Jassy. See BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities; RUMANIA: 15th-18th centuries.

1342-1442.—Conquest by Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442.

1595.—In domains of Transylvania. See HUNGARY: 1567-1604.

1828-1858.—Disputes with Rumania. See RUMANIA: 1828-1858.

1861.—United with Wallachia. See RUMANIA: 1856-1875.

MOLÉ, Louis Mathieu, Count (1781-1855), French statesman. Minister of foreign affairs, 1830; premier, 1836-1839. See FRANCE: 1830-1840.

MOLELE, North American Indian tribe. See WAILATPUAN FAMILY.

MOLÈMES, Abbey of, Burgundy, France. See CISTERCIAN ORDER.

MOLIERE (Jean Baptiste Poquelin) (1622-1673), French dramatist. See DRAMA: 1500-1700.

MOLINISTS, followers of Molinos, who taught the direct relationship between the soul and God. See MYSTICISM.

MOLINO DEL REY, Battle of. See MEXICO: 1847 (March-September).

MOLINOS, Michel de (1640-1606), Spanish priest. Led a Quietist revival about 1675. See MYSTICISM.

MOLLWITZ, Battle of (1741). See AUSTRIA: 1740-1741.

MOLLY MAGUIRES.—The name assumed by a secret organization which terrorized the Pennsylvania mining regions for a time, committing many murderous crimes. It was suppressed in 1877. An association of like character had existed in Ireland under the same name.—See also PENNSYLVANIA: 1875.

MOLOCH, Palestinian divinity. His cult was followed by many of the Jews in the later years of the kingdom of Judah. The name has become a synonym for atrocious cruelty through the bloody nature of the rites believed to have been associated with his worship, although later research gives reason to doubt the correctness of former accounts of the sacrifice of infants to him.

MOLOKAI, one of the Hawaiian islands, south-east of Oahu. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Geographical description; Map of Hawaii.

MOLOSSIANS, ancient Greek tribe of Epirus. See EPIRUS; HELLAS.

MOLTKE, Helmuth Johannes Ludwig, Count von (1848-1916), German general. Served as a lieutenant in the Franco-German War; became aide-camp to the emperor, 1891; chief of general staff, 1906-1914. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 4.

MOLTKE, Helmuth Karl Bernhard, Count von (1800-1891), German field marshal. Invited by the sultan of Turkey to undertake the reorganization of the Turkish army, 1835; directed the Schleswig-Holstein campaign, 1864, the Seven Weeks' War against Austria, 1866, and the Franco-German War, 1870-1871. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 20; 28; FRANCE: 1870: (July-August); (August-September); GERMANY: 1866; TURKEY: 1831-1840.

MOLUCCAS.—The general name of the Moluccas, or Spice islands, covers an extensive group between Celebes and New Guinea, the more important of which are Gilolo or Halmahera, Buru, Ceram or Serang, Ternate, Banda, and Amboyna. Nutmeg, clove and cardamom are the products which made the islands famous long before their whereabouts were discovered by the Portuguese in 1511. The Portuguese were expelled by the natives in 1583; but the Dutch came on the scene in 1613 and mastered the entire dominions of the sultans of Ternate and Tidore, who had been rulers of the whole group, as well as of Mindanao and northwestern New Guinea. The Dutch destroyed the spice trees in most of the islands, to limit and control the production, making Banda the seat of nutmeg culture and Amboyna that of the clove. From time to time the islands have been visited by earthquakes. In January, 1898, Amboyna, in the Molucca Islands, was almost destroyed. About 50 persons were killed and 200 injured. November 2, 1899, the island of Ceram was visited by an earthquake and a tidal wave. Many towns were destroyed, and 5,000 people killed.—See also MALAY ARCHIPELAGO: 1500; AMERICA: 1510-1524.

ALSO IN: A. S. Walcott, *Java and her neighbors*.

MOMBASA, or **Mombaz**, principal port of British East Africa and the terminus of the Uganda railway. It was visited by Vasco da Gama in 1497, and was held by the Portuguese from 1529 to 1698, when it appears to have become independent. The English held it from 1824 to 1826, after which it passed to Zanzibar and was ceded, 1891, to the Imperial British East Africa Company. It is now, 1923, under the control of the British government. During the World War it was a scene of fighting between the British and Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: c, 1.

MOMBASA-VICTORIA RAILWAY. See UGANDA RAILWAY.

MOMEMPHIS, Battle of (c. 570 B. C.). See EGYPT: B. C. 670-525.

MOMMSEN, Theodore (1817-1903), German historian. See HISTORY: 27; 32; NOBEL PRIZES: Literature: 1902.

MOMMU, emperor of Japan, 701-703. See JAPAN: 550-708.

MONA.—The ancient name of the island of Anglesea, the final seat of the Druidical religion in Britain. Taken by the Romans, 61 A. D., the priests were slain, the sacred groves destroyed and Druidism practically exterminated. See BRITAIN: A. D. 61.

MONA, island west of Porto Rico, of which it is a dependency. See PORTO RICO: 1899 (October).

MONACANS, North American Indian tribe. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Tribes of the south; POWHATAN CONFEDERACY.

MONACHISM. See MONASTICISM: Primitive forms.

MONACO, Prince Albert of. See ALBERT, PRINCE OF MONACO.

MONACO.—Monaco, the smallest independent state in Europe, having an area of only eight square miles, is on the Mediterranean, about nine miles east of Nice, surrounded by French territory. It has been a principality of the Grimaldi family since 968. In 1792 the reigning prince was dispossessed by the French revolution, but in 1814 the principality was reconstituted, and placed under the protection of the King of Sardinia by the Treaty of Vienna in 1815. In 1861 the Sardinian garrison was removed and the protectorate ended. Until 1911 the Prince of Monaco was an absolute monarch. But in that year a constitution was promulgated, which provides for a national assembly elected by universal suffrage. Monaco is most famed for Monte Carlo, the greatest gambling center in Europe. The population of the principality in 1913 was 22,956.

ALSO IN: I. Saige, *Monaco, ses origines et son histoire*.—A. Smith, *Monaco and Monte Carlo*.—L. Taxil, *Monaco*.

MONAPIA, Roman name of the Isle of Man.

MONARCHY.—"If the supreme governing authority is vested in a single person, however numerous his subordinates, the form of government is said to be monarchical. Popular usage, however, considers any government having a hereditary executive to be a monarchy, even though its legislative department rests upon a popular basis. In short, popular usage makes the test the nature of the executive tenure and the tenure of the titular executive at that. Thus most of the governments of Europe are commonly styled monarchies, when in reality only the executive part of the government is constituted on the monarchical principle. The modern term 'monarchy,' as Sidgwick observes, is largely used to denote governments in which only a share of power is left to the single individual called the monarch. . . . In the typical monarchies, so called, of Europe, there is an hereditary chief of state and a legislative body, containing usually both aristocratic and democratic elements. Only in certain absolute states of Asia and Africa do we find anything approaching pure monarchical government, that is, one in which the ruling power is vested in the hands of a single person. [See CHINA: 1662-1838; 1915-1916.] On the basis of the source or tenure of the executive, monarchies may be classified as hereditary or elective, or they may be a combination of both. All of the monarchies of the present day are hereditary, though there have been many exceptions in the past. The early Roman kings were elective, as were the kings of the ancient monarchy of Poland. The head of the Holy Roman Empire, as is well known, was chosen by a small college of electors, though usually from the same family. Under the Treaty of Berlin, of 1878, the reigning prince of Bulgaria owed his throne to election. In general, it may be said that the installation of dynasties in newly formed states usually takes place through election, though the crown thereafter is generally transmitted according to certain rules of hereditary succession. It may also be stated as a general proposition that in the early history of states kings were generally chosen or in some way accepted in the first instance, though the hereditary feature was so strong that the elective principle was gradually pushed into the background. Speak-

ing of the election of the early English kings, Stubbs observes that 'the king was in theory always elected and the fact of election was stated in the coronation service throughout the Middle Ages in accordance with the most ancient precedent.' 'But, he adds, 'it is no less true that the succession was by constitutional practice restricted to one family, and that the rule of hereditary succession was never, except in great emergencies and in most trying times, set aside.' In a sense, of course, the English monarchy is still elective, since Parliament claims and exercises the right to regulate the law of succession at its pleasure. [See ENGLAND: 959-975; 1471-1485; 1687.] Again, monarchy may be either of the absolute type, in which case the monarch is sovereign, and state and government, legally and politically speaking, are identical, or it may be constitutional or limited in form. In the former case the monarch is bound by no will except his own; in the latter case he is bound by the prescriptions of a constitution which he has sworn to support, and hence the royal office is nothing but an organ of government. No examples of the former type of monarchy, as has been said, are found to-day outside of Asia and Africa. All of the so-called monarchies of continental Europe now have written constitutions, framed either by national assemblies representing the people, or granted by ruling sovereigns and accepted by the people. Monarchies may of course be still further subdivided, but little or nothing would be gained by extending the classification beyond hereditary and elective, absolute and limited types."—J. W. Garner, *Introduction to political science*, pp. 169-174.—See also ABSOLUTISM; ADMINISTRATIVE LAW; ARISTOCRACY; DEMOCRACY: In the Middle Ages; EUROPE: Modern: Era of benevolent despots; SOCIAL COMPACT.

MONASH, Sir John (1865-), Australian general. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 29.

MONASTERY.—"The very word monastery is a misnomer: the word is a Greek word, and means the dwelling-place of a solitary person, living in seclusion. . . . In the 13th century . . . a monastery meant what we now understand it to mean—viz., the abode of a society of men or women who lived together in common—who were supposed to partake of common meals; to sleep together in one common dormitory; to attend certain services together in their common church; to transact certain business or pursue certain employments in the sight and hearing of each other in the common cloister; and, when the end came, to be laid side by side in the common graveyard, where in theory none but members of the order could find a resting-place for their bones. When I say 'societies of men and women' I am again reminded that the other term, 'convent,' has somehow got to be used commonly in a mistaken sense. People use the word as if it signified a religious house tenanted exclusively by women. The truth is that a convent is nothing more than a Latin name for an association of persons who have come together with a view to live for a common object and to submit to certain rules in the ordering of their daily lives. The monastery was the common dwelling-place; the convent was the society of persons inhabiting it; and the ordinary formula used when a body of monks or nuns execute any corporate act—such as buying or selling land—by any legal instrument is, 'The Prior and Convent of the Monastery of the Holy Trinity at Norwich'; 'the Abbot and Convent of the Monastery of St. Peter's, Westminster'; 'the Abbess and Convent of the Monastery of St. Mary and St. Bernard

at Lacock,' and so on. . . . A monastery in theory then was, as it was called, a Religious House. It was supposed to be the home of people whose lives were passed in the worship of God, and in taking care of their own souls, and making themselves fit for a better world than this hereafter. . . . The church of a monastery was the heart of the place. It was not that the church was built for the monastery, but the monastery existed for the church. . . . Almost as essential to the idea of a monastery as the church was the cloister or great quadrangle, inclosed on all sides by the high walls of the monastic buildings. . . . All round this quadrangle ran a covered arcade, whose roof, leaning against the high walls, was supported on the inner side by an open trellis work in stone—often exhibiting great beauty of design and workmanship—through which light and air was admitted into the arcade. . . . The cloister was really the living place of the monks. Here they pursued their daily avocations, here they taught their school. . . . 'But surely a monk always lived in a cell, didn't he?' The sooner we get rid of that delusion the better. Be it understood that until Henry II. founded the Carthusian Abbey of Witham, in 1178, there was no such thing known in England as a monk's cell, as we understand the term. It was a peculiarity of the Carthusian order, and when it was first introduced it was regarded as a startling novelty for any privacy or anything approaching solitude to be tolerated in a monastery. The Carthusian system never found much favour in England. . . . At the time of the Norman Conquest it may be said that all English monks were professedly under one and the same Rule—the famous Benedictine Rule. The Rule of a monastery was the constitution or code of laws, which regulated the discipline of the house, and the Rule of St. Benedict dates back as far as the 6th century, though it was not introduced into England for more than 100 years after it had been adopted elsewhere. . . . About 150 years before the Conquest, a great reformation had been attempted of the French monasteries, . . . the reformers breaking away from the old Benedictines and subjecting themselves to a new and improved Rule. These first reformers were called Cluniac monks, from the great Abbey of Clugni, in Burgundy, in which the new order of things had begun. The first English house of reformed or Cluniac monks was founded at Lewes, in Sussex, 11 years after the Conquest. . . . The constitution of every convent, great or small, was monarchical. The head of the house was almost an absolute sovereign, and was called the Abbot. His dominions often extended, even in England, over a very wide tract of country, and sometimes over several minor monasteries which were called Cells. . . . The heads of these cells or subject houses were called Priors. An Abbey was a monastery which was independent. A priory was a monastery which in theory or in fact was subject to an abbey. All the Cluniac monasteries in England were thus said to be alien priories, because they were mere cells of the great Abbey of Clugni in France, to which each priory paid heavy tribute."—A. Jessopp, *Coming of the friars*, ch. 3.—See also MONASTICISM; AUSTIN CANONS; BENEDICTINE ORDERS; CARMELITE FRIARS; CISTERCIAN ORDER; CENOBIIUM; LAURAS.

Aid to poor. See CHARITIES: England: 827-1553.

Part in education. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 4th-15th centuries; 5th-6th centuries; 6th-15th centuries: Scholasticism; EDUCATION, ART: Medieval and Renaissance; CLASSICS: Place in education; LIBRARIES: Medieval: Monastic libraries.

Suppression in England. See ENGLAND: 1535-1539.

ALSO IN: E. L. Cutts, *Scenes and characters of the Middle Ages*, ch. 6.—J. Bingham, *Antiquities of the Christian church*, bk. 7, ch. 3, sect. 11-14.—I. G. Smith, *Christian monasticism, 4th-9th centuries*.

MONASTIC ORDERS. See MONASTICISM; also AUSTIN CANONS; BEGUINES; BENEDICTINE ORDERS; CAMALDOLITES; CAPUCHINS; CARMELITE FRIARS; CARTHUSIAN ORDER; CISTERCIAN ORDER; CLAIRVAUX; CLUNY; DOMINICAN FRIARS; FRANCISCAN FRIARS; HOSPITALERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM; JESUITS; PREMONSTRATENSIS ORDER; RECOLLECTS; SERVITES; TEMPLARS; THEATINES; TRAPPISTS.

Suppression. See MONASTICISM: 16th-19th centuries; ENGLAND: 1535-1539; FRANCE: 1900-1904; CIVIL CONSTITUTION OF THE CLERGY IN FRANCE.

MONASTICISM: Primitive forms.—Under Buddhism and Brahmanism.—Other pre-Christian developments.—Early Christian: 4th-6th centuries.—“It has long been known that monachism was rife in the east, some ages previous to its adoption in Europe; but the history of its origin was involved in the same obscurity as the source of the mighty streams upon the banks of which the first ascetics commenced the practice of their austerities. . . . It is not in my power to pass the veil that shrouds from observation the origin we wish to trace; but we are able, now, to make nearer approaches towards it than were possible before the history of Buddhism was known. That Gotama Budha [c. 6th century B.C.] effected a great change in the social polity and religious institutions of the inhabitants of India cannot be denied; but how much of the system that bears his name was originally propounded by himself, or how much of that which he really propounded was the product of his own unaided intellect, will remain an unanswered problem to the end of time. . . . We may, however, collect from these venerated documents that there were both recluses and societies, communities, or schools, previous to the age of Gotama. But the recluses were not in communities, nor did the communities practise the austerities of the recluse. The originality of Gotama's system of discipline appears to have consisted in the more perfect combination of the two classes into one order, so that in this respect he rather resembled the Pachomius than the Anthony of the west. In the legends of the Buddhists there are numerous allusions to other societies, consisting of men and women who were leagued together for some common purpose; but in those instances in which religion is concerned there appears to be little more than the usual bond between the master and his disciple; and whenever we see evidences of a closer union the character of the association appears to be collegiate and not cœnobite, philosophical and not religious. The tirttakas were the most formidable rivals of Gotama; but we are not sufficiently acquainted with the facts of their history to decide in what degree their discipline approached to the regularity of a monastic order. Further researches may cause these conclusions to be modified. But if it be so, if it be proved that there were other monastic orders in existence, and that Gotama was not the institutor of the system, it will place in a more striking view the greatness of his genius, in having established an order that has long survived all contemporaneous systems; and that now, more than two thousand years after its promulgation, exercises a potent influence over many millions of the human race, in regions at a considerable distance from the source of its dis-

semination. . . . The practice of austerities is so interwoven with Brahmanism, under all the phases it has assumed, that we cannot realise its existence apart from the principles of the ascetic. . . . The practice of asceticism is supposed by the Brahmans to have commenced at a very early period; and . . . [to lead] to the possession of an energy the most mighty. The Hindu ascetics of more recent times are in many instances those who have fulfilled their supposed destiny as men, and then retire into the wilderness, that instead of assuming another form at their death they may be prepared for re-absorption in the supreme essence. In abstaining from animal food the Brahmans are stricter than the Buddhists; but the followers of Gotama never knowingly take life, and therefore regard the pasuyajna or aswamedha, a sacrifice supposed by the Brahmans to be highly efficacious, with great abhorrence. . . .

“It has been noticed, relative to the Greeks, that ‘the century between 650 and 500 B. C. appears to have been remarkable for the first diffusion and potent influence of distinct religious brotherhoods, mystic rites, and expiatory ceremonies, none of which find any recognition in the Homeric epic.’ This was precisely the age of Gotama; and the coincidence is striking. The Greeks were as free from the ascetic element as any people we can name, but even among them there was one nation that was apart from the rest; and if we examine the causes of its idiosyncrasy we shall see that they arose from the more powerful development of this principle. . . . But the Spartan annihilated self that he might become a patriot; the Buddhist ascetic, that he might become non-existent. . . . The vow of the Nazarite was the only ascetic custom of which we have any notice in the sacred Scriptures, as existing among the children of Israel; and, as in the case of blood-revenge, the regulations given by Moses may have been intended rather to restrain the pernicious effects of a custom already established, than to introduce a new principle among the people of God. It was a sacrifice of the whole man, body and mind, to the Lord. . . . The first order of recluses, for the knowledge of whose practices we have to go exclusively to the records of extra-Indian literature, is that of the Essenes. The Pharisees were more nearly allied to the Brahmans of India, whilst the Sadducees partook of the scepticism of the Buddhists, and the Essenes of their asceticism. The Essenes gave themselves up to a contemplative mode of life, avoided the ordinary pleasures of existence, and repudiated marriage; they despised riches, and had one common fund; commerce was avoided; they took their meals in common, each person having a loaf of bread set before him, with a single plate of one kind of food, and they drank only water; their garments were not renewed until worn out; they abstained from conversation on ordinary topics, endeavoured to maintain a perfect tranquillity of mind upon all occasions, and were unmoved amidst the most cruel tortures; a noviciate of three years was required before any one could enter into the order, after which they took an oath that they would obey the commands of the elders, and conceal nothing from the community; they had villages of their own, or when in cities lived apart from the rest of mankind; and they rejected sacrifices, offering only gifts of self-consecration at the temple. Like other communities of a similar kind, they were frequently joined by those who were suffering from remorse of conscience, by those who were disgusted with the vanities of the world, and by the aged. Near Alexandria, on

the shores of lake Moeris, resided an order of recluses called Therapeutæ, who are supposed to have been a branch of the Essenes; but this opinion is controverted. They were shut up in separate cells, lived on bread and water, and ate only in the evening."—R. S. Hardy, *Eastern monachism*, pp. 346-348, 351, 353-355.

"Thus monasticism was not the product of Christianity; it was the inheritance of the Church. . . . The Essenes, the Therapeutæ, and other Oriental mystics, were as truly the precursors of Christian asceticism in the desert or in the cloister, as Elijah and St. John the Baptist. The Neoplatonism of Alexandria, extolling the passionless man above him who regulates his passions, sanctioned and systematized this craving after a life of utter abstraction from external things, this abhorrence of all contact with what is material as a defilement. Doubtless the cherished remembrance of the martyrs and confessors, who in the preceding centuries of the Christian era had triumphed over many a sanguinary persecution, gave a fresh impulse in the fourth century to this propensity

by the monks in the Thebaid, of the marvellous exploits of Anthony, who was still alive, of the immense foundations which Pacome was at that time forming upon the banks of the higher Nile. He had brought with him two of the most austere of these monks. . . . The narratives of Athanasius . . . roused the hearts and imaginations of the Romans, and especially of the Roman women. The name of monk, to which popular prejudice seems already to have attached a kind of ignominy, became immediately an honoured and envied title. The impression produced at first by the exhortations of the illustrious exile, was extended and strengthened during the two other visits which he made to the Eternal City. Some time afterwards, on the death of St. Anthony, Athanasius, at the request of his disciples, wrote the life of the patriarch of the Thebaid; and this biography, circulating through all the West, immediately acquired there the popularity of a legend, and the authority of a confession of faith. . . . Under this narrative form, says St. Gregory of Nazianzus, he promulgated the laws of monastic life. The town



MONASTERY OF XEROPOTAMU AT MOUNT ATHOS

Said to have been founded in the time of Empress Pulcheria, 5th century

to asceticism, stimulating the devout to vie with their forefathers in the faith by their voluntary endurance of self-inflicted austerities. . . . From the beginning of the fourth century to the close of the fifth, from Antony the hermit to Benedict of Monte Casino, is the age of undisciplined impulse of enthusiasm not as yet regulated by experience."—G. Smith, *Christian monasticism, introduction*.—"The monastic stream, which had been born in the deserts of Egypt, divided itself into two great arms. The one spread in the East, at first inundated everything, then concentrated and lost itself there. The other escaped into the West, and spread itself by a thousand channels over an entire world which had to be covered and fertilised." Athanasius, who was driven twice by persecution to take refuge among the hermits in the Thebaid, Egypt, and who was three times exiled by an imperial order to the West, "became thus the natural link between the Fathers of the desert and those vast regions which their successors were to conquer and transform. . . . It was in 340 that he came for the first time to Rome, in order to escape the violence of the Arians, and invoke the protection of Pope Julius. . . . He spread in Rome the first report of the life led

and environs of Rome were soon full of monasteries, rapidly occupied by men distinguished alike by birth, fortune and knowledge, who lived there in charity, sanctity, and freedom. From Rome the new institution, already distinguished by the name of religion, or religious life, par excellence, extended itself over all Italy. It was planted at the foot of the Alps by the influence of a great bishop, Eusebius of Vercelli. . . . From the continent the new institution rapidly gained the isles of the Mediterranean, and even the rugged rocks of the Gargon and of Capraja, where the monks, voluntarily exiled from the world, went to take the place of the criminals and political victims whom the emperors had been accustomed to banish thither. . . . Most of the great leaders of the cenobitical institution had, since St. Pacome, made out, under the name of Rule, instructions and constitutions for the use of their immediate disciples; but none of these works had acquired an extensive or lasting sway. In the East, it is true, the rule of St. Basil had prevailed in a multitude of monasteries, yet notwithstanding Cassianus, in visiting Egypt, Palestine, and Mesopotamia, found there almost as many different rules as there were monasteries. In the West the di-

versity was still more strange. Each man made for himself his own rule and discipline, taking his authority from the writings or example of the Eastern Fathers. The Gauls especially exclaimed against the extreme rigour of the fasts and abstinences, which might be suitable under a fervid sky like that of Egypt or Syria, but which could not be endured by what they already called Gallican weakness; and even in the initial fervour of the monasteries of the Jura, they had succeeded in imposing a necessary medium upon their chiefs. Here it was the changing will of an abbot; there a written rule; elsewhere, the traditions of the elders, which determined the order of conventual life. In some houses various rules were practised at the same time, according to the inclination of the inhabitants of each cell, and were changed according to the times and places. They passed thus from excessive austerity to laxness, and conversely, according to the liking of each. Uncertainty and instability were everywhere. . . . A general arrangement was precisely what was most wanting in monastic life. There were an immense number of monks; there had been among them saints and illustrious men; but to speak truly, the monastic order had still no existence. Even where the rule of St. Basil had acquired the necessary degree of establishment and authority—that is to say, in a considerable portion of the East—the gift of fertility was denied to it. . . . In the West also, towards the end of the fifth century, the cenobitical institution seemed to have fallen into the torpor and sterility of the East. After St. Jerome, who died in 420, and St. Augustine, who died in 430, after the Fathers of Lerins, whose splendour paled towards 450, there was a kind of eclipse. . . . Except in Ireland and Gaul, where, in most of the provinces, some new foundations rose, a general interruption was observable in the extension of the institution. . . . If this eclipse had lasted, the history of the monks of the West would only have been, like that of the Eastern monks, a sublime but brief passage in the annals of the Church, instead of being their longest and best-filled page. This was not to be: but to keep the promises which the monastic order had made to the Church and to the new-born Christendom, it needed, at the beginning of the sixth century, a new and energetic impulse, such as would concentrate and discipline so many scattered, irregular, and intermittent forces; a uniform and universally accepted rule; a legislator inspired by the fertile and glorious past, to establish and govern the future. God provided for that necessity by sending St. Benedict into the world.”—Count de Montalembert, *Monks of the west*, v. 1, pp. 381-387, 512-515.

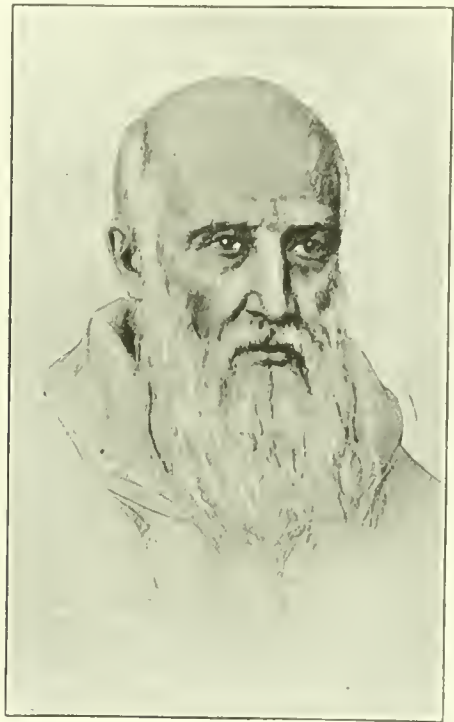
Women and monasticism.—“Passing from the ground of tradition to that of history . . . the convent was looked upon with favour by women of newly converted barbarian races, and they availed themselves of the protection which the Christian religion held out to them. . . . The representatives of Christianity, profiting by a surviving love of independence among womankind, turned the energies of women into new channels, and giving scope to their activity in new directions, secured their help in the cause of peaceful progress. The outward conditions of life were such that the woman who joined the convent made her decision once for all. But provided she agreed to forego the claims of family and sex, an honourable independence was secured to her, and she was brought into contact with the highest aims of her age. At a period when monasteries, placed in the remote and uncultivated districts, radiated peace

and civilisation throughout the neighbourhood, many women devoted themselves to managing settlements which in the standard they attained, vied in excellence with the settlements managed by men. At the outset many married women left their husbands for the purpose of founding and governing convents; sometimes they founded convents the management of which they left to others, and themselves retired to them later in life. The prestige and advantages enjoyed by the heads of religious settlements were such that kings and queens frequently installed their daughters as abbesses in preference to seeking for them matrimonial alliances, and these princesses were joined by many daughters of the most influential families, who gladly availed themselves of the opportunity of embracing the religious vocation. Through their close contact with high-born women, convents maintained a high tone in manners, morals, and general behaviour, and grew into important educational centres, the beneficent influence of which was generally recognised.

“The career open to the inmates of convents both in England and on the continent was greater than any other ever thrown open to women in the course of modern European history; abilities might raise the nun to the rank of abbess, a position of substantial authority. [See also *WOMAN'S RIGHTS*: 300-1400.] In the Kentish charter the names of the abbesses as representatives of religion follow those of the bishops. In Saxony it fell to an abbess to act as representative of the emperor during his absence. As independent landowners, who held their property of and from king and emperor, the abbess took rank with the lords temporal and spiritual in the right of jurisdiction which they exercised, and in the right of being represented in Parliament or at the Imperial Diet as the case might be. While fulfilling the duties which devolved on them in virtue of their station, abbesses did not neglect their opportunities of keeping in touch with culture and of widening their mental horizon. In Anglo-Saxon England men who attained to distinction received their training in settlements governed by women. Histories and a chronicle of unique value were inspired by and drafted under the auspices of Saxon abbesses. For nuns Ealdhelm wrote his most famous treatises, and several valuable contemporary biographies, such as those of Sturm and of Robert of Fontevraud, were written at the express desire of nuns. And while eager in encouraging productiveness in others, they were not slow in trying to develop their own literary powers. In the 6th century Radegund was writing epistles in verse under the tuition of an exiled Latin poet; to an Anglo-Saxon nun whose name is not recorded we owe one of the earliest and most interesting accounts extant of a journey to Palestine. In the 8th century the nun Lioba was trying her hand at Latin verse in a convent in Thanet; in the 10th century the nun Hrotsvith in Saxony was composing Latin dramas on the model of Terence. The contributions of nuns to literature as well as incidental remarks show that the curriculum of study in the nunnery was as liberal as that accepted by monks, and embraced all available writing, whether by Christian or profane authors. . . . The fact that a considerable number of women's houses after the monastic revival of the 11th and 12th centuries were founded largely at the instigation of men, proves that the usefulness of these institutions was generally recognised. While devoted to reading and study which pre-eminently constituted the religious vocation, nuns during their leisure hours cultivated art in several of its

branches. Spinning and weaving were necessarily practised in all settlements during many centuries, for the inmates of these settlements made the clothes which they wore. . . . The painstaking industry, which goes far in the production of such work, was reflected in the activity of women as scribes and illuminators, and the names of several nuns who were famous for their writing have been handed down to posterity. In the twofold domain of learning and art the climax of productiveness was reached in the person of Hærad, in whom a wide range of intellectual interests and a keen appreciation of study combined with considerable artistic skill and a certain amount of originality. Side by side with literary and artistic pursuits nuns were active in the cause of philanthropy. Several women who had the sufferings of their fellows at heart are numbered among the saints; and under the auspices of Hildegard a book was compiled on the uses of natural products in health and disease, which forms a landmark in the history of mediæval medicine. [See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Mediæval: 10th-12th centuries.] . . . Consequent upon the spread of the feudal system of land tenure, which in the interest of an improved military organisation reserved the holding of property for men, women forfeited their chance of founding and endowing independent monasteries, and the houses founded after the monastic revival never attained a position comparable with that of those dating from the earlier period. As monasteries were theoretically safe against infringement of their privileges by prince or bishop owing to their connection with Rome, the relation of the Pope to temporal rulers and to the greater ecclesiastics directly affected them, and when the power of the Pope was relaxed they were at the mercy of prince and bishop. . . . A considerable number of women's convents were interfered with by churchmen, who on the plea of instituting reforms took advantage of their position to appropriate the convent property. A change of a different kind which affected the convent in its educational and intellectual standing was the growth of university centres, and the increased facilities afforded to the student of visiting different centres in succession. . . . Some of the progressive monasteries of men lessened the loss they felt by securing a house at the university to which they sent their more promising pupils, but the tone at the mediæval university was such that one cannot wonder that no attempt was made in this direction by the convents of women. As a natural result their intellectual standard for a time remained stationary, and then, especially in the smaller and remoter settlements, it fell. This led to a want of interest in intellectual acquirements among nuns, and it was accompanied by a growing indifference in the outside world to the intellectual acquirements of women generally. . . . The change which had come over the convent life of women cramped rather than stimulated their intellectual vitality, and the system of which they made part was apparently beyond their control. The author of 'Holy Maidenhood' in the 13th century called the nun the free woman, and contrasted her with the wife who in his eyes was the slave. But Erasmus at the beginning of the 16th century urged that the woman who joined the convent by doing so became a slave, while she who remained outside was truly free. Erasmus also insisted on the fact that there was no reason why a woman should enter a convent, as she might as well stay in the world and remain unmarried if she so preferred. In point of fact social conditions had so far changed that society no longer called to the Church for protection of its daughters. For a time the convent

ranked high as an educational establishment; then this use began to pass away also, and it was largely on account of the provision religious houses made for unmarried women that they still continued in favour with a portion of the community. . . . Study now ran along a narrow groove, for the monastic reformers favoured devotional study only. The nuns, who were impressed by the excellence of the reformers' motives, and prevented by circumstance from forming opinions of their own in the matter, showed an increasing readiness to adopt their views. The friars led the way in this direction by cutting off the nuns, given into their care, from the management of outside affairs; they were followed by the order of Sion, and by the congregations of Bursfeld and Windesheim, all of which alike urged that the primary duty of a nun was sanctification of self."—



SAINT BENEDICT

L. Eckenstein, *Woman under monasticism*, pp. 477-482.

6th century.—Rule of St. Benedict.—Its results.—“The life of St. Benedict of Nursia forms the turning point in the history of Monasticism. Before Benedict's time Monasticism, though showing itself to be no exotic incapable of transplantation to other climes, had been essentially a plant of Eastern growth. After his life the Monasticism of East and West became so diverse in character, that henceforth they may be regarded as two different systems. . . . Benedict with a few companions journeyed to Monte Cassino on the border of the still wild Abruzzi. There he . . . built . . . what was destined to become the most illustrious monastery of Christendom. . . . To this monastery he gave in 520 . . . his famous *Rule*. His object he tells us was ‘to form a school of divine servitude, in which, we trust, nothing too heavy or rigorous will be established.’ . . . The old individualism, with its private ventures in asceticism,

gave place to rule and system. . . . Benedict systematized labour as the rule of all monastic life. . . . Benedict's success in linking on Monasticism with labour was the first step in a long evolution upon whose details we cannot dwell, but whose main features demand attention. The first change, common both to East and West, had been that from monachism to cenobitism, from the hermit to the brethren of the common life. The value of this change, especially when in the West it received the inspiration given to it by Benedict's *Rule*, we have already noticed. But the change itself would have been of little value, at any rate viewed from the standpoint of social development, had it not been accompanied by the glorification and systematization of toil. With this addition the change lay at the root of all that was best and most progressive in Monasticism. Instead of the dervish of Eastern fancy, we have a colony of workers. Instead of the hermit crushed by the horror and loneliness of Nature in her most terrible aspects, we have the organized community, in its beginnings as anxious as the hermit to escape the haunts of men, but whose axes and spades cleared the densest jungles, drained pestilent swamps, and by the alchemy of industry turned the sands into waving gold, and planted centres of culture in the hearts of forests. This change, invaluable as it was from the standpoint of the history of civilization, proved fatal in the long run to the principles of Monasticism, at any rate as first enunciated. For Monasticism was founded upon renunciation; but renunciation became impossible for a Monasticism whose remunerative toil forced upon it a wealth from which there seemed no escape. . . . First we have the burning enthusiast, seeking salvation in a more perfect renunciation, plunging into the wilderness that he may find a solitude where he may pray alone. There his reputation for renunciation draws to himself others of like mind, who place themselves under his direction. Or if he is already a monk, by profession a renunciant, in reality an inmate of some lordly abbey rich in its vineyards and granaries, we see him, pricked to the heart by the memory of the poverty of Christ, setting off to found some new convent where he may carry out in stricter fashion the primitive *Rule*, with the good seed no longer choked by the multitude of riches. In a few years his humble abode becomes too strait for the multitude who have sought out this Jacob's ladder with its vision of the angels. Wealth pours in; the rude huts of wattle and mud give place to the stately abbey; the humble church becomes the soaring minster. By their care and toil the desert blossoms as the rose, the fats overflow, while serfs and hinds, attracted by the security and greater freedom which the Church affords, built up outside its walls the town which perpetuates its name. The first dreams of poverty are once more forgotten; all things are ripe for some new saint to make a new effort towards that primitive renunciation, the dream and despair of Monasticism during the long centuries of its existence. For eight hundred years the ebb and flow of the monastic tide centred round this rock of offence. For eight hundred years after Benedict men tried to achieve the impossible, to attain simplicity and poverty by renunciation, through means of an organization that must inevitably produce wealth. To this conflict of ideal and actuality we owe the various congregations, orders, and reforms the mere names of which would demand a volume in themselves, for whose history the reader must seek in the great works that the devotion of the Orders has

produced."—H. B. Workman, *Evolution of the monastic ideal*, pp. 219-220, 223-224.—See also BENEDICTINE ORDERS; EINSIEDELN, ABBEY OF.

9th-13th centuries.—Attempted reform of Benedict of Aniane.—Degeneracy of monasticism.—Founding of Carthusians and Camaldules.—Reform orders of Cluny, Cîteaux, Clairvaux and Prémontré.—“The first of the great Benedictine reforms originated with Benedict of Aniane, ‘the second founder’ of Western Monasticism. . . . Under Benedict’s influence the Council sought, in the stricter enforcement of the *Rule* of Monte Cassino, the lost ideal of renunciation. Four years later he passed away (11 Feb., 821). In his efforts to secure reformation Benedict of Aniane made one fatal mistake: he sought a renunciation which should express itself in rigid uniformity. Meat, drink, the cut of the dress, the order of services, were to be exactly alike, the products of an almost mechanical mill. Even prayer and praise did not escape his machinery. Offices were multiplied until they became almost continuous. The issue could not be in any doubt. . . . The mechanical can never be anything else than short-lived. . . . Within a century of Benedict of Aniane’s reforms, matters were worse than ever; the renunciation, discipline, and ideal of Monasticism lost. . . . In many places the old monasteries had disappeared—burnt, destroyed, or appropriated. In others the ancient rule had given place to the law which seems to come uppermost in times of insecurity: ‘Let us eat and drink, for tomorrow we die.’”—H. B. Workman, *Evolution of the monastic ideal*, p. 226.—“In the tenth century, the bishops and abbots were usually the sons of lords; the priests and monks were sons of peasants, who, without any inclination, took orders in obedience to their parents or for the purpose of enjoying the wealth of the church. They brought into the church the manners of the laymen, they passed their time in hunting, drinking, gaming, and fighting. The abbots squandered the wealth of the convents in order to maintain a band of adventurers. Many married and bequeathed their children to the church; in Normandy priests have their curacies as dowry to their daughters. Many did not know how to read and had forgotten how to say mass. The greater number had bought their livings from the laity, and had sold them again to other ecclesiastics: this traffic in holy things was called simony. The clergy became gross, ignorant, and covetous, like the laity; it was said that the church was infected with the ‘spirit of the century.’ . . . These scandals caused great horror to those ecclesiastics who had remained faithful to the spirit of the church, and they urged the most zealous to lay new foundations. Some left this corrupt world and fled to the desert, Saint Bruno coming from the north of France, buried himself in the wild mountain regions of Dauphiny, and with a few companions founded the order of the Carthusians (Chartreux hermits who live in a chartre or cell). [See CARTHUSIAN ORDER.] An Italian seignior, Saint Romualdo, founded in the same manner, an order in the mountains of Tuscany, called the ‘Camaldules.’ Others wished to put an end to the scandals by making the clergy come back under the regulations: They began by re-establishing severe discipline in a convent, which afterward served as a model for reforming the others. The great centres of reform were Cluny, the oldest, where the reform took place in the eleventh century; Cîteaux, founded in 1094, both in Burgundy; Clairvaux founded in 1115; Prémontré founded in 1120. It was not a question of

replacing the ancient regulations of Saint Benedict, on the contrary, of restoring them to vigor by the practice of labor, obedience, and especially poverty, which the convents invaded by the spirit of the century had ceased to do. The founder of Clairvaux, Saint Bernard, forbade his monks to wear furs, cowls, or to use bed-clothes, he wanted no luxury even in the churches; he only permitted a cross of painted wood, an iron candelabra, and copper censers. The monks, after the reform, all remained Benedictines. But to arrest the progress of the disorders too easily introduced into an independent monastery, it was decided that the reformed convents should keep the direction of all convents founded or reformed by them. Thus Cluny, Cîteaux, and Prémontré became heads of the order; the convents of that order were no longer abbeys, but priories, all obeyed the same abbot, and sent delegates to the general assemblies of the order. The orders increased rapidly in numbers and in power; in the twelfth century, Cluny had more than 400 monks and had charge of 2,000 convents; Cîteaux had 1,800 convents scattered throughout Europe. Then began a rivalry between the black friars of Cluny and the white friars of Cîteaux (the Cistercians). It was these reformed monks who obliged the rest of the clergy to reform their manners; they energetically supported the pope and brought all Christians, laity and clergy, to submit to his authority. Gregory VII., the great papal reformer and ruler, was a monk of Cluny; Saint Bernard, the great doctor of the twelfth century, was a Cistercian."—C. Seignobos, *History of mediæval and modern civilization*, pp. 91-93.—"The Cluniac reform in its turn proved inefficient; nor is the cause far to seek. [See CLUNY.] The whole burden of discipline of the united order rested upon the abbot of Cluny. He was the 'general' of the order—to use the later term associated with the Jesuits and Salvation Army—the absolute ruler of the whole system, and of the thousands of monks whom it embraced, every one of whom was only professed by his permission. . . . If he fell into evil ways, this over-centralized system made the result the more appalling. By the beginning of the twelfth century, Cluny had followed the common round, and showed signs of falling from its high estate. . . . The revival by the Cistercians of the primitive discipline is . . . of less importance than their polity. The Cistercians represent the fourth development of the Monastic ideal. [See CISTERCIAN ORDER.] The Cluniacs had fallen because they had centralized authority in the abbot of Cluny. With the Cistercians each foundation was an independent abbey, and not a subject priory of its parent. . . . Independent almost from the first of all episcopal authority, the Cistercians bound themselves to the pope by oaths of direct obedience. They were thus the first of the militant spiritual orders, whose object was to bring the world under the government of Rome, nor is it without value in this connection to note that the Templars were supposed to have received their constitution from Bernard. But this very fact of papal dependence marks the real fall of Monasticism. When the monk became the auxiliary of Rome, with the control of its organization centred in the pope, it was plain to all that Monasticism had outlived its first purpose. She no longer held up an ideal of renunciation higher than that of the Church, to some extent even outside the Church: the ideal had become materialized as a tool in the hands of the Church to be used for their common aggrandizement. . . . Benedict's conception of the

monastery as separate families of renunciants had given place to the idea of an organized international corporation with its head centre in Rome seeking the dominion of the nations of the world. And this the new nations were determined not to allow. There was another aspect of the rise of the Cistercians in which we see the germs of the final form that Monasticism assumed. By the transfer of the order to the control of the pope we see that the centre of emphasis in renunciation was being slowly changed. Hitherto 'poverty' had been supreme, but the experience of centuries had shown that poverty as an ideal defeated itself. But 'obedience' had in it latent possibilities as yet little exploited."—H. B. Workman, *Evolution of the monastic ideal*, pp. 236-237, 243-245.—See also AUSTIN CANONS; BEGUINES; CAMALDOLITES; CARMELITE FRIARS; CLAIRVAUX; PREMONSTRATENSIAN ORDER; RECOLLECTS; SERVITES; THEATINES; TRAPPISTS.

11th-13th centuries.—Revival of canons.—Militant orders.—"The attempt of Hildebrand to impose the principles of Monasticism upon the whole body of the secular clergy as apart from its hierarchy does not stand alone. It was the last and most successful of a series of efforts in this direction, for the most part dealing with 'canons.' For the origins of this movement we must go back to Eusebius of Vercellæ, . . . who a few years after his appointment as bishop made the clerics of his cathedral live together according to a rule (363). When St. Augustine returned from Italy in 388, though he does not seem to have known of the work of Eusebius, he established a similar community at Tagaste, and on his becoming Bishop of Hippo (396) he introduced the custom into several sees of Africa. The usage was part of a larger movement which was slowly driving the clergy into a separate caste of the community, with a different dress, different method of trimming the hair (tonsure), different civil status, in a word, with altogether different habits of life from the laity. But such differentiation was of slow growth. Neither in dress, tonsure, nor community life was the change rapidly effected. . . . At the close of the eighth century efforts were made to bring the 'canons' into line with the monastic ideal. . . . From the first the attempt was doomed to failure. Mild as was . . . [the] *Rule* it was too severe to be acceptable to the seculars. . . . In the eleventh century, as part of the general revival of discipline, Ivo of Chartres . . . attempted once more, about the year 1078, to bring cathedrals and collegiate churches under monastic discipline. . . . A stricter rule was introduced, drawn in part from the works of St. Augustine, in part from spurious writings attributed to him. The Austin Canons, as they were thus called—Canons Regular of St. Augustine, to give them their fuller title—differed from monks by being also clerics, with singular powers of adapting themselves to work of any sort, whether pastoral in the churches they served, educational, or philanthropic, as in the hospitals attached to their houses; also by their greater simplicity and elasticity of organization. . . . Nothing is more remarkable than the elasticity of the so-called *Austin Rule*, and the variety of service to which it led. We have an illustration of this in the rise of the military orders, nominally, at least, enrolled under this *Rule*. When, in 1110, Hugues de Payens and eight French knights devoted themselves to the task of keeping the roads to Jerusalem clear of robbers, and thus established the famous Templars [see TEMPLARS], or when in the previous year Raymond du Puy reorganized

the 'Poor Brethren of the Hospital of St. John at Jerusalem,' they opened out a new conception of holiness. [See HOSPITALLERS OF SAINT JOHN OF JERUSALEM.] Their idea was to unite under the banner of the Cross the two strongest impulses of the age, the impulse to fight and the impulse to watch and pray. Hitherto in Europe the two motives had been at variance, the knight and the monk had nothing in common. Henceforth, under the pressure of the Paynim, they become one; feudalism passes into the service of the Church. . . . The establishment and growth of these military orders is of considerable importance in any study of the development of the monastic ideal. They form the middle stage in a slow but organic process. In the original conceptions of Monasticism, if a man would serve God he must quit the world. . . . With the military orders, to serve God was to fight the world."—*Ibid.*, pp. 253-259, 266.—"The life of Bernard forms an appropriate introduction to a consideration of the Military Religious Orders. Although weary with labor and the weight of years, he traveled over Europe preaching the second crusade. 'To kill or to be killed for Christ's sake is alike righteous and alike safe,' this was his message to the world. In spite of the opposition of court advisers, Bernard induced Louis VII and Conrad of Germany to take the crusader's vow. He gave the Knights Templars a new rule and kindled afresh a zeal for the knighthood. Although the members of the Military Orders were not monks in the strict sense of the word, yet they were soldier-monks, and as such deserve to be mentioned here. At the basis of all monastic orders, as has been pointed out, were the three vows of obedience, celibacy and poverty. Certain orders, by adding to these rules other obligations, or by laying special stress on one of the three ancient vows, produced new and distinct types of monastic character and life. The Knights of the Hospital assumed as their peculiar work the care of the sick. The Begging Friars, as will be seen later, were distinguished by the importance which they attached to the rule of poverty; the Jesuits, by exalting the law of unquestioning obedience. In view of the warlike character of the Middle Ages it is strange the soldier-monk did not appear earlier than he did. The abbots, in many cases, were feudal lords with immense possessions which needed protection like secular property, but as this could not be secured by the arts of peace, we find traces of the union of the soldier and the monk before the distinct orders professing that character. The immediate cause of such organizations was the crusades. There were numerous societies of this character, some of them so far removed from the monastic type as scarcely to be ranked with monastic institutions. One list mentions two hundred and seven of these Orders of Knighthood, comprising many varieties in theory and practice. The most important were three,—the Knights of the Hospital, or the Knights of St. John; the Knights Templars; and the Teutonic Knights. The Hospitalers wore black mantles with white crosses, the Templars white mantles with red crosses, and the Teutonic Knights white mantles with black crosses. The mantles were in fact the robe of the monk adorned with a cross. The whole system was really a marriage of monasticism and chivalry, as Gibbon says: 'The firmest bulwark of Jerusalem was founded in the Knights of the Hospital and of the Temple, that strange association of monastic and military life. The flower of the nobility of Europe aspired to wear the cross and profess the vows of these

orders; their spirit and discipline were immortal.' A passage in the *Alexiad* quoted in Walter Scott's 'Robert of Paris' reads: 'As for the multitude of those who advanced toward the great city let it be enough to say, that they were as the stars in the heaven or as the sand of the seashore. They were in the words of Homer, as many as the leaves and flowers of spring.' This figurative description is almost literally true. Europe poured her men and her wealth into the East. No one but an eye-witness can conceive of the vast amount of suffering endured by those fanatical multitudes as they roamed the streets of Jerusalem looking for shelter, or lay starving by the roadside on a bed of grass. . . . 'The horrible fate of the Templars,' says Allen, 'was taken by many as a beginning and omen of the destruction that would soon pass upon all the hated religious orders. And so this final burst of enthusiasm and splendor in the religious life was among the prognostics of a state of things in which monasticism must fade quite away.' Wondrous changes have taken place in those dark and troubled years since Benedict began his labors at Monte Cassino, in 529. The monk has prayed alone in the mountains, and converted the barbarian in the forest. He has preached the crusades in magnificent cathedrals, and crossed stormy seas in his frail bark. He has made the schools famous by his literary achievements, and taught children the alphabet in the woodland cell. He has been good and bad, proud and humble, rich and poor, arrogant and gentle. He has met the shock of lances on his prancing steed, and trudged barefoot from town to town. He has copied manuscripts in the lonely Scottish isle, and bathed the fevered brow of the pilgrim in the hospital at Jerusalem. He has dug ditches, and governed the world as the pope of the Church. He has held the plow in the furrow, and thwarted the devices of the king. He has befriended the poor, and imposed penance upon princes. He has imitated the poverty and purity of Jesus, and aped the pomp and vice of kings. He has dwelt solitary on cold mountains, subsisting on bread, roots and water, and he has surrounded himself with menials ready to gratify every luxurious wish, amid the splendor of palatial cloisters. Still there are new types and phases of monasticism yet to appear. The monk has other tasks to undertake, for the world is not yet sufficiently wearied of his presence to destroy his cloister and banish him from the land."—T. A. W. Wishart, *Short history of monks and monasteries*, pp. 197-199.

13th century.—Coming of friars.—Poverty and service.—Decay.—"With the opening years of the thirteenth century Monasticism, which had once more passed into a period of decay and death—the old fires burning out, the old usefulness gone—entered upon the greatest revolution it had as yet experienced. Without changing its basal principle of poverty, celibacy, and obedience it sought to work out its ideals, no longer by shunning men, but by seeking them, following, in this matter, but with greater completeness, the lead already given by the Austin canons, with their attention to education, parish duties, the care of the sick and needy, the building of bridges and the like. The coming of the friars, under the inspiration of St. Dominic and St. Francis, was the rise, in fact, of a new conception of Monasticism so completely different that friars were forbidden to enter within the walls of any monastery. Hitherto the highest religious life had identified itself with a retreat from the world, the retiring like St. Bruno to some Grande Chartreuse, where in a rarer air, far from its noise and

whirl, men could save their souls and rule into their characters the fine lines. But the friars were essentially an order of social labourers. . . . 'Live,' said the monk, 'as if you were alone in this world with God'; and it was from the following out of this advice that, as we have seen, the chief difficulties of Monasticism arose. 'Live,' said both St. Francis and St. Dominic, 'as if you only existed for the sake of others.' Their whole lives were illustrations of this doctrine. . . . The reader should note that, as usual, this revival of monastic piety was the reaction from the despair of the preceding age. . . . The coming of the friars was an effort to reform Monasticism on a democratic basis. For the moment it seemed as if democracy would accomplish what the saint and the statesman had failed to complete. The friars swept all before them; in bishopric, parish, and university, their ideal reigned supreme, while the uneasiness of the older monasteries at the rapid spread of their rival showed itself in many ways very early in their career. . . . The founding of this order . . . to-day far exceeding in its numbers every other fraternity, was the beginning of a social revolution, the depth of which was hidden from our older historians. For centuries the laity had had little place in the organization of the Church. Now Europe was filled with a host of earnest laymen, bound together in social service and church work, most of whom earned their own living, like St. Paul, by the labour of their hands. . . . For five hundred years that success, though not without its vicissitudes, has been continued. To-day the Franciscan order is still the most numerous in the world. But upon the history of the friars, their times of decay and reform, the civil war between the Franciscans over 'evangelical poverty,' we cannot dwell. We must content ourselves in conclusion, in accordance with our limits and aims, in pointing out the contradiction the success involved between the ideal and the real—a contradiction more striking, it is true, in the case of the Dominicans than the Franciscans, if only because of the greater nobility of St. Francis' ideal. . . . A movement which in its origin was anti-monastic added another to the long family of monkish orders."—H. B. Workman, *Evolution of the monastic ideal*, pp. 271-273, 298-299, 314.—"So the Franciscans were mendicants, and became preachers; the Dominicans were preachers and became mendicants. The two orders greatly resembled each other. Both were organized in the same way, with a general, who was directly obedient to the pope; but the Dominicans addressed themselves rather to the lords, while the Franciscans turned to the common people. Both spread with unheard of rapidity. About 1277 there were 417 convents of Dominicans; in 1260 there were 1808 convents of Franciscans, each convent had at least twelve members. As they relied on God, who was 'their granary and their cellar,' they could accept as many brothers as presented themselves. 'To those who came to them was given a gown and a cord, and for the rest, they were entrusted to the care of Providence.' The ancient monks had lived out of the world, the mendicant monks mingled in society. The people allowed them to preach, confess, and bury, and the faithful hastened to them, abandoning the ordinary priest. This was an important evolution, which strengthened still more the authority of the pope."—C. Seignobos, *History of mediæval and modern civilization*, p. 101.—See also DOMINICAN FRIARS; FRANCISCAN FRIARS; CAPUCHINS.

1279.—POWER of monasteries in England.—Statute of Mortmain. See ENGLAND: 1279.

16th-19th centuries.—Monasteries.—New religious orders.—Society of Jesus, 1540.—Its suppression.—During the Reformation, and the period immediately following, there was developed a new sort of religious order, called Regular Clerks. Of these, by far the most important is the Jesuit order, or Society of Jesus, founded in 1540. There are, besides, the Theatines, founded 1524, the Barnabites, founded 1530, and others less important. Besides the Regular Clerks there are "religious congregations," differing from the former chiefly in the matter of vows. Of these, the principal congregations are the Passionists, founded 1725, and the Redemptorists, founded 1740, both devoted to giving missions and retreats. In addition to the religious congregations there are a number of "secular congregations," groups of secular priests living together under temporary vows. During the period between the Reformation and the French Revolution, marked by the growth of new orders, the old orders continued, with many notable re-



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vivals and reforms among them. "As the Renaissance of the eleventh century had given rise to Cluny and Cîteaux, and that of the thirteenth to the mendicant friars, so this renaissance of piety produced a new religious order. This was the 'Society of Jesus,' founded by Ignatius Loyola, in order to combat the growing heresies of the Protestants. 'The world,' said the founder, 'must be represented as two armies in battle array, one serving under God, the other under Satan.' The Protestants are with Satan, the Society of Jesus is fighting in the army of God, for the greatest glory of God. It is organized like the ancient mendicant orders, in convents, apportioned into provinces, each under a superior; the general governs the whole society, and is in the service of the pope. But the organization is more severely ruled than are the other orders. The Jesuits, besides the three vows usually taken by the monks, take the vow of obedience to the pope. The great innovation, which has made the Jesuits so powerful, is the organization of a system of spiritual exercises, a method of training the soldier of Christ in the faith and in obedience. These exercises, 'by which they

learn how to vanquish self,' have in view the detachment from the things of this world, for the novice who is about to enter the Society, and to prepare him to become a good soldier of the faith. . . . Of all the means employed by the Jesuits in order to control the laity, the two most powerful were education and confession. In the towns where they had been able to establish themselves the Jesuits founded colleges, where they received the children of the nobles and of the rich bourgeoisie. These colleges which the Jesuits called the 'fortresses of the faith,' were to labor in training men of the world and Catholics. The pupils were accustomed to the exercises of devotion, especially 'those which impiety had sought to destroy' (that is, which the Protestants had set aside), processions, pilgrimages, the worship of relics. But they were also taught politeness and the fine manners unknown in the schools of the Middle Ages; it was desired that they should be able to appear and speak with elegance. The Jesuits taught their pupils as if they were to be gentlemen, who would never have to work in order to gain their daily bread; they were taught nothing but Latin and mathematics. The instruction was modelled on the famous plan of study (*ratio studiorum*), which for two centuries has prevailed in the education of youth. It was the Jesuits who thought of dividing pupils into classes, of giving prizes to the best pupils, of publishing special editions of the ancient authors for use in the classes (whence the name *classics*), of having Latin exercises, verses and orations written by the pupils. When Napoleon created the University of France, the Jesuit system had been adopted in all the French colleges, although the purpose of the instruction was quite different; Latin and mathematics were at that time, and have since remained, the foundation of a course of study. The Jesuits, being greatly sought after for confessors, have brought to perfection the art of confessing, and of directing the conscience. They had to continually decide upon the confessions made by their penitents, so as to suit the penance to the enormity of the offence. They have to study the cases, which may be presented, investigate what actions must be regarded as sins and in what measure, decide whether a sin belongs to the species of venial (pardonable) sins or of mortal sins. For example, a judge has to decide in a suit where the two parties appear to him to have equally just claims; one of the two parties gives him a sum of money, and the judge pronounces judgment in his favor; has the judge committed a sin? Those who studied cases of conscience were called *casuists*; the greater number were Spaniards. In this manner the science of *casuistry* was devised, for which the Jesuits have so often been upbraided by their enemies. The Jesuits were distinguished from the ancient orders of monks by their gentle and polished manners; they made themselves loved especially in the upper classes; and as they had the strongest organization and the most effective methods, they soon became, and have remained for three centuries, the most powerful religious order in the church, and the one most formidable to the Protestants."—C. Seignobos, *History of mediæval and modern civilization*, pp. 306, 308-311.—See also JESUITS; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation; Catholic reformation; PAPACY: 1534-1540; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: North America.

"Monasticism . . . was not judged and condemned at the Reformation period on its fundamental principles, or on account of the faults of its members, but because there was a wave of revolt against the ancient system of government in Church and State; because there was an outburst of mental

and spiritual liberalism; and because the rulers of the time lusted after the temporal possessions of the monasteries. . . . In 1523 Magdeburg, Weimar, Rostock, Stettin, Danzig, and Riga expelled the monks and nuns from their houses. In 1526 the Landgrave of Hesse confiscated all the monasteries in his dominions by the advice of Luther. . . . In 1527 Gustavus Vasa . . . confiscated the property of the Church, suppressing the religious corporations, and appropriating their property to the State, or bestowing it upon the nobility. . . . A similar course was adopted in Denmark in 1534; in Norway in 1537; and in Iceland in 1550. In England the lesser monasteries were seized in 1535 by Henry VIII.; and in 1539 the great abbeys were plundered and destroyed. [See ENGLAND: 1535-1539.] In Scotland in 1559 the preaching of John Knox stirred up the people, and a raid was made upon the monasteries in Perth, and those in other parts of the kingdom were soon after sacked and confiscated one after the other. In 1791 a decree of the Directory abolished all corporations civil and religious in France, and declared all their property to belong to the State. Eighty-two abbeys and 255 convents for women, besides colleges and other establishments, were suppressed, and their revenues, reckoned at 95,000,000 livres, were appropriated by the Government. In 1790 Joseph II. abolished the Mendicant Orders in the countries under his rule, and soon after, by his own autocratic will, and in opposition to the wishes of his people, he closed 624 monasteries. In 1830 after the Revolution in France, a fresh attack was made upon Monasticism, and it is said that 300 were suppressed in different parts of Europe between 1830 and 1835. In 1834 the Crown seized upon the possessions of 500 monasteries in Portugal, and a contemporary writer speaks of 'the tears of the people who had always found there succour in their illness and bread in their old age.' In 1835 the monasteries in Spain were confiscated. In 1847 many religious houses were abolished in Switzerland. In 1859 the revolutionary government of Mexico, under the presidency of Juarez, confiscated the whole of the Church property of the country, suppressing 150 monasteries and convents, and turning out 2000 nuns and 1700 monks. The value of the Church endowments thus secularized was estimated at £100,000,000, and was probably more; yet two years after this enormous sum had been appropriated by the State, the Public Treasury was absolutely empty. In 1875 Prussia decreed the suppression of all Orders except those devoted to sick-nursing. In 1887 this law was abrogated, as it had been found to be most unpopular, and Religious Orders of all kinds were sanctioned. In 1866 the Kingdom of Sardinia practically destroyed the monastic system in its dominions; and finally, in 1872, the Government of United Italy at Rome decreed the suppression of the convents throughout the whole country, without regard to the historical interest of many ancient foundations, the religious needs of some remote districts, and the cruel results that the step inflicted upon many helpless women; and in spite of the indignant protests of men of all shades of religious opinion, and of every civilized European nation."—F. C. Woodhouse, *Monasticism, ancient and modern*, pp. 265-269.—See also FRANCE: 1900-1904; CIVIL CONSTITUTION OF THE CLERGY IN FRANCE.

19th-20th centuries.—Survival in Roman church.—Revival in Church of England.—"Notwithstanding its wholesale suppression, Monasticism still exists. 'Monasticism increases most rapidly in France in spite of State opposition and the spread of atheism.' . . . There are in France at the present

time about 1200 male and female congregations, comprising about 160,000 'religious,' of whom 6000 only are of the 'contemplative' orders. As regards the missionary associations, M. Louvet, in *Les Missions Catholiques au XIX^e Siècle*, says that there are 13,300 missionary priests, 4500 brothers, and 42,000 sisters at work abroad, and about 10,000 native sisters. Mr. J. A. Froude says—"Among other strange phenomena of this waning century, we see once more rising among us, as if by enchantment, the religious orders of the Middle Ages: Benedictines, Carmelites, Dominicans, houses of monks and nuns, to which American and English ladies and gentlemen are once more gathering as of old, flying no longer from a world of violence or profligacy, but from a world of emptiness and spiritual death. . . . In England, where the past is obscured by sentimental passion; in America, where there is no past, and where the lessons of the old world are supposed to have no application; in France, where the entire nation is swimming in a sea of anarchy, and the vessel of the State is shattered, and the drowning wretches cling to each floating plank which the waves drift within their reach, conventual institutions are springing up as mushrooms after an autumn rain.' . . . In Italy, where the religious houses were ruthlessly suppressed by Victor Emmanuel's Government in 1871, there are still some that remain, being either too poor to tempt pillage, or too popular to be altogether destroyed, or which have been restored under another name. For instance, the Franciscans hought back their church and buildings at Tre Fontane, near Rome, and were recognized by the Government as an 'Agricultural Society.' The friars have planted eucalyptus in great numbers round their premises, and the result has been that the air and the soil are so purified that it is now possible for the brothers to sleep in their house, without fear of malarial fever, which no one had ventured to do for many years. 'There is still a body of nearly a score of friars at Camaldoli who have part of the convent buildings. The Government has taken all their vast possessions, but has allowed the Order to go on and to recruit itself, as far as they are able to maintain themselves by their own resources, which are said to be considerable, as they have many friends. . . . At La Verne, the Franciscans have been let alone, and are quite masters of the situation. . . . In Switzerland, Germany, and Austria, several of the religious orders are flourishing; and where monks are banished, Sisters of Mercy go about in their habits, and carry on the traditions of the religious life in one or more of its characteristics. A very large Carthusian convent has been huilt at Parkminster, in the Parish of Cowfold, Sussex, with a fine church, and was completed and opened in 1886. There are thirty-six monks. This was founded when the religious orders were for the most part driven from France, and when it was feared that the Grande Chartreuse would be confiscated, from which many relies were brought hither. The Grande Chartreuse was, however, spared, because the French revenue would have lost the profits derived from the manufacture and sale of the liqueur at the abbey. Most of the other Orders, both for men and women, are represented in different places in the United Kingdom, and are found to be adapted to the requirements of our own time, and are constantly supplied with applicants for admission. Some monasteries are said to have been secretly set up in England in the seventeenth century. James II. brought many monks to England. Mr. Wild established a branch of La Trappe at Lulworth in the eighteenth century, which received some orphans of the mur-

dered French nobility. In 1831 a Roman Catholic landowner gave some acres of barren ground for the establishment of a Cistercian monastery on his estates in Leicestershire. A few monks and lay brothers came from Ireland, and settled themselves in such poor hovels as they could build for themselves. Gradually the nave of the church has been erected, and considerable buildings for the monks, for guests, and for farm purposes. The Cistercian Rule is followed in all its strictness. . . . Among the modern forms of Monasticism that have flourished in the Roman Church . . . is . . . the Society of the 'Christian Brothers.' The founder of this most successful institution was Jean Baptiste de la Salle, who was horn of a family of ancient and honourable lineage at Rheims, in 1651. . . . In the United States of America the growth of Monasticism is rapid and extensive."—F. C. Woodhouse, *Monasticism, ancient and modern*, pp. 276, 281, 289. —In the United States "Mission work is . . . carried on by various orders, such as the Franciscan, Jesuit, Redemptorist, Vicentian, Dominican, Oblate, and Passionist Fathers. The Paulist Fathers have as their peculiar province the conduct of missions with the view of converting non-Catholics, but other orders carry on evangelistic or revival services which are called missions. . . . There are also certain orders of sisters or nuns who devote their entire time to work . . . among the Indians and Negroes. . . . Many of the religious orders, both men and women, do a great deal of foreign missionary work. . . . Among the orders especially interested in foreign work are the Franciscan and Jesuit Fathers. . . . Among [educational projects] conducted by the orders are certain institutions such as Georgetown University, at Washington; Fordham University in New York City; College of the Holy Cross, Worcester, Mass., under Jesuit supervision; St. John's University, at Collegeville, Minn.; St. Vincent's Seminary and College, near Pittsburgh; St. Benedict's College, Newark, N. J., and others under the care of the Benedictine Fathers; St. John's Theological Seminary and College, at Brooklyn; Niagara University, at Niagara Falls, N. Y., under the care of the Vicentian Fathers; Gethsemane College in Kentucky, under the care of the Trappist Fathers (Order of Reformed Cistercians). The schools of the Christian Brothers are for the most part identified with churches, rather than incorporated as separate institutions. They have, however, a number of colleges. . . . The sisterhoods are also active in educational work. Trinity College for Women at Washington, D. C., under the care of the Sisters of Notre Dame de Namur, ranks with the best colleges. There are also schools under the care of the Sisters of Charity of St. Vincent de Paul, the Franciscan, Benedictine and Dominican Sisters, Sisters of the Sacred Heart, Sisters of Mercy, the Ursuline and Visitation Nuns and others. . . . [Among philanthropic orders are] The Little Sisters of the Poor who provide homes for aged people of both sexes, regardless of creed or nationality, and at the end of 1916 were conducting 53 homes, with about 9,000 inmates, and the Alexian Brothers who make a specialty of conducting hospitals and insane asylums. The order of the Brothers of the Poor of St. Francis Seraphicus . . . and the Brothers of the Holy Infancy and Youth of Jesus . . . make a specialty of looking after boys. The chief work, however, is in the conduct of hospitals, sanitariums, infant asylums, orphan asylums, homes for the aged, homes for the deaf, homes for the blind, insane asylums, retreats for incurable, cancer, etc., in all parts of the country. There are also a considerable number of organizations engaged in specific

work; thus, the Daughters of Charity of St. Vincent de Paul conduct a Leper Home, at Carrville, La.; the Sisters of Our Lady of Charity of the Good Shepherd devote their entire time to the reformation of girls, and conduct industrial schools for girls exposed to dangers of various kinds; the Little Sisters of the Assumption, the Sisters of Notre Dame de Bon Secours, the Company of Mary, and others, nurse sick poor in their own homes, accepting no remuneration. Other orders of sisters conduct catechism classes in rural districts and immigrant settlements, visit the sick and poor in their homes, and give religious instruction to women and children in penal institutions and almshouses, etc."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, pt. 1, pp. 649, 651-652.—Protestant Episcopal Orders include "the Order of Christian Helpers, Order of the Sisters of Bethany, Order of the Holy Cross, the Society of the Mission Priests of St. John the Evangelist and many others."—*Ibid.*, p. 615.—"The attempt to trace . . . growing interest [of monasticism in the Church of England] begins with the suppression of the monasteries under Henry VIII. . . . The very Act which suppressed the lesser monasteries paid tribute to the greater. In its preamble it directed that the members of the smaller institutions be distributed among the 'great and honorable monasteries of the realm, where, thanks be to God, religion is right well kept and preserved.' These words must not be taken too seriously, but they do have a significance. Granted that they were intended to cajole Henry's future victims, they indicate also a popular sentiment in many quarters against the total abolition of the monasteries. Even Latimer desired to retain some of their practical features. . . . The Pilgrimage of Grace incorporated among other grievances a plea for a restoration of the monasteries. How effective the partition of the property of the abbeys proved in silencing the demand for the restoration of the religious houses is shown in the reaction under Mary. When this queen desired to restore the papal supremacy, Parliament made the confirmation of the titles of the occupants of monastic estates part of the Act. Mary, however, succeeded in restoring a number of convents and monastic orders. . . . The thoroughness with which Elizabeth suppressed monasticism is shown by the condition of the English Benedictines. After Feckenham's death only one monk of this Order was left in England. . . . There was no propaganda to restore monastic institutions in the reign of Elizabeth. Antiquaries might praise them in safety of the past, but it was left to the seventeenth century to attempt their revival in the Anglican Church. . . . Throughout the seventeenth century this sentiment in favor of monasticism found expression in the writings of antiquaries and church leaders. Moreover, actual attempts to revive the conventual life were made. . . . But in the religious chill and social activity of the eighteenth century, even the idea perished. In 1701 the English soil seemed less favorable to monasteries than at any time since their destruction. . . . From the close of the Napoleonic Wars to the beginning of the Oxford Movement, the revival of religious orders in England . . . aroused considerable interest. There was much opposition to celibacy, vows, asceticism, the distinctively monastic elements. But the social utility of modified orders had gained a rather wide recognition, especially among the High Church party. Perhaps most important of all was the great enthusiasm aroused in a few leaders, particularly Southey. Some progress is evident, when a man of his influence will say, 'It is not speaking too strongly to assert that the

establishment of Protestant nunneries, upon a wise plan and liberal scale, would be the greatest benefit that could possibly be conferred upon these kingdoms.' Not only did he desire them, he expected them within thirty years. It was very fitting, therefore, that the first Anglican Sisterhood should have been proposed as a memorial to Robert Southey after his death in 1843. . . . The social movements of the first thirty years of the nineteenth century prepared the soil; Pusey and the Tractarians set out the monastic plant. . . . The *British Critic*, Newman and Pusey may be said to represent fairly the advanced Tractarianism of this period. Hence it is seen that this party desired the revival of monasteries very similar to, if not identical with, the old Roman institutions. . . . In 1844 we have Southey's social arguments retained, but many of these purely monastic elements added. Moreover, these conventual communities were advocated not merely for women, as in Southey's articles, but for both sexes. This introduction of the purely monastic element and this extension of application to both men and women were the contribution of the Oxford party, or rather of the extremists of that group. The advocates of monasticism among the Oxford School desired religious orders of both sexes. If a comparison of emphases were to be made, the arguments of the last chapter seemed to aim more at monasteries than at nunneries. In fact the greatest of the Oxford leaders endeavored to establish a 'monastery' as early as 1840. Nevertheless religious orders of women were successfully started almost two decades before those of men. . . . In spite of the bitter attacks, these communities have grown at a remarkable rate. Some prominent church authorities have estimated that there are twice as many Sisters in Anglican Religious Orders to-day as there were before the suppression under Henry VIII. . . . With the broad social appeal, linked to the religious interest in the minds of the promoters, the Sisterhoods have become a great factor in the history of the English Church during the last century [19th]. . . . Before 1845 [male monastic orders] . . . rather than the Sisterhoods were emphasized; and in fact Newman actually put his ideas into practice [at Littlemore]. . . . This attempt was soon cut short by the secession of the members to the Roman faith. . . . For almost two decades after Newman left Littlemore for Rome, the Church of England heard little of monasteries. The sad memory of that event and the bright promises of the Sisterhood movement served to turn attention elsewhere. In the sixties, however, the Sisterhoods being firmly established, the minds of the High Church wing were turned again toward monastic orders of men. The arguments of Froude, Newman, Neale and other advocates of earlier years were echoed in substance if not in form; and to these some new reasons were added. . . . The mention of Pusey, Sellon, Neale, Ignatius, and others recalls the great opposition which the early Orders encountered. No such martyrdom, however, hallows the names of the recent monastic leaders. The purely contemplative life has not yet apparently won many supporters, but the revival of the 'active' and the 'mixed' types of Community life has long since passed through the period of bitter pamphleteering and violent abuse. Two issues have been prominent in the discussions of the communities since their revival. The first was the question of vows. Almost every prelate of England during the last fifty years has been forced to express himself as to his view of vows, their legality and advisability. . . . In some cases, the vows are solemn; in some they are simple; while in others, no explicit vow is taken

and only an 'intention' is expressed. But in all cases, the professing candidate at least feels that it is a service for life. . . . The other question of importance has been the relation of these monastic orders to the Church and the episcopacy. This subject was discussed at considerable length in the Canterbury Convocation of 1862, and the bishops commended the Sisterhoods to the prayers of the Church. In July, 1875, a committee of the Lower House of Canterbury Convocation was appointed to consider the rise and progress of Sisterhoods and Brotherhoods. The report, which was presented in May, 1878, called forth strong resolutions expressing thankfulness for their work and approval of the episcopal recognition accorded to them. The wide sympathy for this revival was shown again in the same Convocation of 1889. . . . Monasticism . . . now [written in 1917] . . . binds together in the conventual life more than thirty communities of men and women, with numerous branch Houses throughout England and the British Empire."—R. W. Sockman, *Revival of the conventual life in the church of England in the nineteenth century*, pp. 6-10, 24, 58, 59, 92, 103, 104, 154, 156, 157, 161, 198, 199.—See also CATHEDRAL: English, Scottish and Irish.

See also ABBEY; ABBOTT; ADVOCATUS; COSTUME: Survivals; EDUCATION: Medieval: 4th-15th centuries; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 6th-11th centuries; ETHICS: Christian; EUROPE: Middle Ages: Roman civilization inherited, etc.; LIBRARIES: Medieval: Monastic; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1600.

ALSO IN: T. W. Allies, *Monastic life*.—M. Archdall, *Monasticon Hibernicum*.—E. Butler, *Lausiac history of Palladius (Texts and studies VI)*.—Idem, *Monasticism (Cambridge medieval history, v. 1, pp. 521-542)*.—R. Curzon, *Monasteries of the Levant*.—F. Conybeare, *On the contemplative life*.—F. Dudden, *Gregory the Great*.—F. A. Gasquet, *English monastic life and monastic life in the Middle Ages*.—J. O. Hannay, *Spirit and origin of Christian monasticism*.—K. Lake, *Early days of monasticism on Mount Athos*.—J. Lanigan, *Ecclesiastical history of Ireland*.—J. H. Newman, *Benedictine centuries (Select essays)*.—F. C. Morison, *Life and times of*

St. Bernard.—J. B. O'Connor, *Monasticism and civilization*.—P. Sabatier, *Life of St. Francis of Assisi*.—D. G. Smith, *Christian monasticism from the fourth to the ninth centuries*.—H. B. Workman, *History of Christian thought in the reformation*.—F. D. Wackerbarth, *Revival of monastic institutions (Anglican church)*.

MONASTIR, or Bitolia, ancient Greek city of Heraclea Lyncestis, Serbia, in the Niji mountains and dominating the valley of the Upper Chirna. [See BALKAN STATES: Map.] As the nucleus for roads which lead to Adrianople, Uskubé, Saloniki, and Durazzo it has an important strategic position. In the fourteenth century the city was occupied by the Turks who began to use it as military headquarters early in the nineteenth century. Monastir figured in the Turkish revolution of 1908 [see TURKEY: 1908]; four years later it surrendered to the Serbians in the Balkan War and was ceded to Serbia in 1913 by the Treaties of London and Bucharest. In 1915 it was captured by the Bulgarians in the World War and a year later retaken by the Allied army.—See also SERBIA: 1909-1913.

Battle of (1912). See TURKEY: 1912-1913.

MONCHY-LE-PREUX, town in France, about seven miles southeast of Arras. It was occupied by the British in 1917. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: c, 6; c, 7.

MONCK, George, 1st Duke of Albemarle. See MONK, GEORGE.

MONÇON, or Monzon, Treaty of (1626). See FRANCE: 1624-1626.

MONCONTOUR, Battle of (1569). See FRANCE: 1563-1570.

MONET, Claude (1840-), French landscape painter of the Impressionistic school. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

MONETA, Ernesto Teodoro (1833-1918), Italian journalist and pacifist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Peace: 1907.

MONETA, Roman term for money. See MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient: Rome.

MONETARY SYSTEMS. See MONEY AND BANKING; STABILIZING THE DOLLAR.

MONEY AND BANKING

Nature and origin of money.—Essential qualities of good money.—Early use of gold and silver.—“When the division of labour has been once thoroughly established, it is but a very small part of a man's wants which the produce of his own labour can supply. He supplies the far greater part of them by exchanging that surplus part of the produce of his own labour, which is over and above his own consumption, for such parts of the produce of other men's labour as he has occasion for. Every man thus lives by exchanging, or becomes in some measure a merchant, and the society itself grows to be what is properly a commercial society. But when the division of labour first began to take place, this power of exchanging must frequently have been very much clogged and embarrassed in its operations. One man, we shall suppose, has more of a certain commodity than he himself has occasion for, while another has less. The former consequently would be glad to dispose of, and the latter to purchase, a part of this superfluity. But if this latter should chance to have nothing that the former stands in need of, no exchange can be made between them. The butcher has more meat in his shop than he himself can consume, and the brewer and the baker would each of them be

willing to purchase a part of it. But they have nothing to offer in exchange, except the different productions of their respective trades, and the butcher is already provided with all the bread and beer which he has immediate occasion for. No exchange can, in this case, be made between them. . . . In order to avoid the inconveniency of such situations, every prudent man in every period of society, after the first establishment of the division of labour, must naturally have endeavoured to manage his affairs in such a manner, as to have at all times by him, besides the peculiar produce of his own industry, a certain quantity of some one commodity or other, such as he imagined few people would be likely to refuse in exchange for the produce of their industry. Many different commodities, it is probable, were successively both thought of and employed for this purpose. In the rude ages of society, cattle are said to have been the common instrument of commerce; and, though they must have been a most inconvenient one, yet in old times we find things were frequently valued according to the number of cattle which had been given in exchange for them. The armour of Diomedes, says Homer, cost only nine oxen; but that of Glaucus cost an hundred oxen. Salt is said to be the common instrument of commerce

and exchange in Abyssinia; a species of shells in some parts of the coast of India; dried cod at Newfoundland; tobacco in Virginia; sugar in some of our West India colonies; hides or dressed leather in some other countries; and there is at this day [1775] a village in Scotland where it is not uncommon, I am told, for a workman to carry nails instead of money to the baker's shop or the alehouse. In all countries, however, men seem at last to have been determined by irresistible reasons to give the preference, for this employment, to metals above every other commodity."—A. Smith, *Wealth of nations*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 4.—"As a result of experiment, all civilised countries have now come to the use of the metals as money, and all of the more important commercial countries have fixed upon gold as their standard and relegated other metals to a subordinate position in their monetary systems. The reasons for the preference for gold become clear from a consideration of the qualities which should be possessed by a good money. Economists quite generally agree that the commodity selected to serve as money should have the following qualities (1) value, (2) durability, (3) portability, (4) homogeneity, (5) divisibility, (6) cognisability, and (7) stability of value. That the commodity which is to serve as the intermediary between valuable things must itself have value is obvious. Durability is important because after each exchange transaction the medium of exchange must remain for a longer or shorter time in the possession of the seller. Unless it is durable, it will depreciate during this interval to the seller's loss. This consideration precludes the use of perishable articles as money and accounts for the world's preference for the precious metals, which are as durable, when alloyed with copper, as anything known to man. Portability is indispensable to the convenience of a medium of exchange. Other things being equal, the commodity which compresses the greatest value in the smallest bulk is the most economical medium of exchange for large transactions. In this respect gold is superior to silver and this accounts in part for the preference for it of leading commercial nations. Homogeneity and divisibility are related qualities, since together they insure that the commodity used as money may be divided and subdivided without loss in value. These qualities also distinguish the metals. Cognisability is important as it renders difficult the circulation of counterfeit money. One objection to silver is the resemblance to it of the baser metals lead and tin. The last quality, stability of value, is essential in connection with the function which the monetary unit performs as a standard of deferred payments. In the absence of such stability creditors and debtors have no guarantee that the contract between them calling for the payment of a certain sum of money at a future date will involve the return of a value equivalent to that loaned. If the value of money rises in the interval the debtor will be injured, if it falls the creditor will receive less than he anticipated. Either event must discourage transactions involving such an uncertain element, and it is for this reason that the importance of stability of value in the commodity which is to serve as money can hardly be exaggerated. As regards this quality also the precious metals have a marked superiority over most other things. The demand for them is very elastic because they serve such a variety of different purposes. They are highly prized as ornaments, they are used in watch-cases, family plate, etc., as badges of social position; they serve important industrial uses in connection with dentistry, etc., and finally they are now so widely

used as money that the monetary demand for them is large. On the side of supply the conditions are equally favourable to stability of value. Because they are precious and at the same time durable, the greater part of the total quantity produced, at least in modern times, has been preserved and is still available to satisfy current needs. In proportion to the total stock (estimated in the case of gold at \$10,000,000,000) the addition to the supply due to production each year is insignificant. The supply is thus practically constant over short periods and is little affected by variations in the annual output of the world's mines. Elasticity of demand and constancy of supply, the conditions favourable to stability of value, are thus presented by the precious metals as by no other commodities. As regards these characteristics there is, perhaps, little to choose between gold and silver. The world's preference for the former must be explained chiefly by its higher value in proportion to its bulk and its readier cognisability."—H. R. Seager, *Introduction to economics*, pp. 305-306.—"That metals were used for the purpose of money much later than the commodities above mentioned, and the precious metals in turn later than the non-precious metals, cannot by any means be shown to be universally true. Rather is gold in some countries to be obtained by the exercise of so little skill, and both gold and silver satisfy a want so live and general, and one so early felt, that they are to be met with as an instrument of exchange in very early times. In the case of isolated races, much depends on the nature of the metals with which the geologic constitution of the country has furnished them. In general, however, the above law is found to prevail here. The higher the development of a people becomes, the more frequent is the occurrence of large payments; and to effect these, the more costly a metal is, the better, of course, it is adapted to effect such payments. Besides, only rich nations are able to possess the costly metals in a quantity absolutely great. Among the Jews, gold as money dates only from the time of David. King Pheidon, of Argos, it is said, introduced silver money into Greece, about the middle of the eighth century before Christ. Gold came into use at a much later period. The Romans struck silver money, for the first time, in 209 before Christ, and, in 207, the first gold coins. Among modern nations, Venice (1285) and Florence seem to have been the first to have coined gold in any quantity."—W. Roscher, *Principles of political economy*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 3, sect. 117-119.—See also COMMERCE: Primitive: Result of use of money.

ANCIENT

Egypt and Babylonia.—"Money seems to us now so obvious a convenience, and so much a necessity of commerce, that it appears almost inconceivable that a people who created the Sphinx and the Pyramids, the temples of Ipsamboul and Karnac, should have been entirely ignorant of coins. Yet it appears from the statements of Herodotus, and the evidence of the monuments themselves, that this was really the case. As regards the commercial and banking systems of ancient Egypt, we are almost entirely without information. Their standard of value seems to have been the 'outen' or 'ten' of copper (0.4-0.6 grammes), which circulated like the *æs rude* of the Romans by weight, and in the form of bricks, being measured by the balance. It was obtained from the mines of Mount Sinai, which were worked as early as the fourth dynasty. Gold and

silver appear to have been also used, though less frequently. Like copper, they were sometimes in the form of bricks, but generally in rings, resembling the ring money of the ancient Celts, which is said to have been employed in Ireland down to the 12th century, and still holds its own in the interior of Africa. This approximated very nearly to the possession of money, but it wanted what the Roman lawyers called 'the law' and 'the form.' Neither the weight nor the pureness was guaranteed by any public authority. Such a state of things seems to us very inconvenient, but after all it is not very different from that which prevails in China even at the present day. The first money struck in Egypt, and that for the use rather of the Greek and Phœnician merchants than of the natives, was by the Satrap Aryandes. In ancient Babylonia and Assyria, as in Egypt, the precious metals, and especially silver, circulated as uncoined ingots. They were readily taken indeed, but taken by weight and verified by the balance like any other merchandise. The excavations in Assyria and Babylon, which have thrown so much light upon ancient history, have afforded us some interesting information as to the commercial arrangements of these countries, and we now possess a considerable number of receipts, contracts, and other records relating to loans of silver on personal securities at fixed rates of interest; loans on landed or house property; sales of land, in one case with a plan; sales of slaves, &c. These were engraved on tablets of clay, which were then burnt. M. Lenormant divides these most interesting documents into five principal types:—1. Simple obligations. 2. Obligations with a penal clause in case of non-fulfilment. One he gives which had 79 days to run. 3. Obligations with the guarantee of a third party. 4. Obligations payable to a third person. 5. Drafts drawn upon one place, payable in another. . . . These Assyrian drafts were negotiable, but from the nature of things could not pass by endorsement, because, when the clay was once baked, nothing new could be added, and under these circumstances the name of the payee was frequently omitted. It seems to follow that they must have been regularly advised. It is certainly remarkable that such instruments, and especially letters of credit, should have preceded the use of coins. The earliest banking firm of which we have any account is said to be that of Egibi and Company, for our knowledge of whom we are indebted to Mr. Boscawen, Mr. Pinches, and Mr. Hilton Price. Several documents and records belonging to this family are in the British Museum. They are on clay tablets, and were discovered in an earthenware jar found in the neighbourhood of Hiffah, a few miles from Babylon. The house is said to have acted as a sort of national bank of Babylon: the founder of the house, Egibi, probably lived in the reign of Sennacherib, about 700 B.C. This family has been traced during a century and a half, and through five generations, down to the reign of Darius. At the same time, the tablets hitherto translated scarcely seem to me to prove that the firm acted as bankers, in our sense of the word."—J. Lubbock, *History of money (Nineteenth Century, Nov., 1879)*.—"We have an enormous number of the documents of this firm, beginning with Nebuchadnezzar the Great, and going on for some five generations or so to the time of Darius. The tablets are dated month after month and year after year, and thus they afford us a sure method of fixing the chronology of that very uncertain period of history. There is a small contract tablet in the Museum at Zürich, discovered by Dr. Op-

pert, dated in the 5th year of Pacorus, king of Persia, who reigned about the time of Domitian. There is a little doubt about the reading of one of the characters in the name, but if it is correct, it will prove that the use of cuneiform did not fall into disuse until after the Christian Era. . . . Some have tried to show that Egibi is the Babylonian form of Jacob, which would lead one to suspect the family to have been Jews; but this is not certain at present."—E. A. W. Budge, *Babylonian life and history, p. 115*.—"It is in the development of trade, and especially of banking, rather than in manufactures, that Babylonia and Chaldæa were in advance of all the rest of the world. The most cautious Assyriologists are the least confident in their renderings of the numerous contract tablets from which, if they were accurately interpreted, we should certainly be able to reconstruct the laws and usages of the world's first great market place. . . . The following account of Babylonian usages is derived from the text of M. Revillout's work. . . . It is confirmed in essentials by the later work of Meissner, who has translated over one hundred deeds of the age of Hammurabi and his successors. In Chaldæa every kind of commodity, from land to money, circulated with a freedom that is unknown to modern commerce; every value was negotiable, and there was no limit to the number and variety of the agreements that might be entered into. . . . Brick tablets did not lend themselves readily to 'bookkeeping,' as no further entry could be made after baking, while the first entry was not secure unless baked at once. Each brick recorded one transaction, and was kept by the party interested till the contract was completed, and the destruction of the tablet was equivalent to a receipt. Babylonian law allowed debts to be paid by assigning another person's debt to the creditor; a debt was property, and could be assigned without reference to the debtor, so that any formal acknowledgment of indebtedness could be treated like a negotiable bill—a fact which speaks volumes for the commercial honesty of the people. A separate tablet was, of course, required to record the original debt, or rather to say that So-and-so's debt to Such-an-one has been by him sold to a third party. Such third party could again either assign his claim to a bank for a consideration, or if the last debtor had a credit at the bank, the creditor could be paid out of that, a sort of forecast of the modern clearing-house system. The debtor who pays before the term agreed on has to receive a formal surrender of the creditor's claim, or a transfer of it to himself. The Babylonian regarded money and credit as synonymous, and the phrase, 'Money of Such-an-one upon So-and-so,' is used as equivalent to A's credit with B. . . . In ancient Babylonia, as in modern China, the normal effect of a loan was supposed to be beneficial to the borrower. In Egypt, judging from the form of the deeds, the idea was that the creditor asserted a claim upon the debtor, or the debtor acknowledged a liability to the man from whom he had borrowed. In Babylonia the personal question is scarcely considered; one person owes money to another—that is the commonest thing in the world—such loans are in a chronic state of being incurred and paid off; one man's debt is another man's credit, and credit being the soul of commerce, the loan is considered rather as a part of the floating negotiable capital of the country than as a burden on the shoulders of one particular debtor."—E. J. Simcox, *Primitive civilizations, v. 1, pp. 320-322*.—See also TALENT.

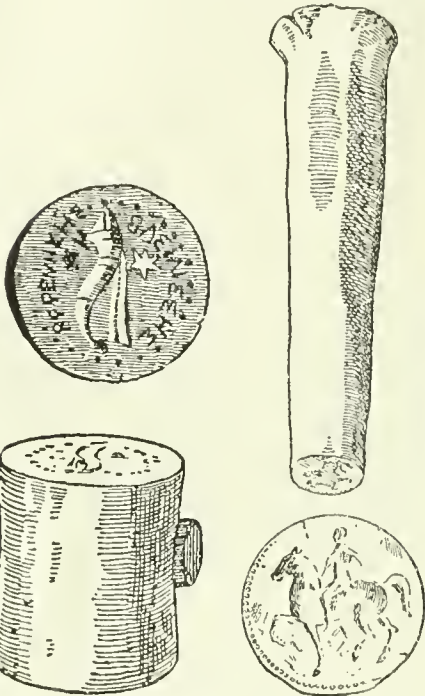
China.—"Not only did the Chinese possess coins

at a very early period, but they were also the inventors of bank notes. Some writers regard bank notes as having originated about 110 B. C., in the reign of the Emperor Ou-ti. At this time the Court was in want of money, and to raise it Klaproth tells us that the prime minister hit upon the following device. When any princess or courtiers entered the imperial presence, it was customary to cover the face with a piece of skin. It was first decreed then, that for this purpose the skin of certain white deer kept in one of the royal parks should alone be permitted, and then these pieces of skin were sold for a high price. But although they appear to have passed from one noble to another, they do not seem ever to have entered into general circulation. It was therefore very different from the Russian skin money. In

united to form a bank of issue which emitted paper money in series, some payable every three years. The earliest mention, in European literature, of paper, or rather cotton, money appears to be by Rubruquis, a monk, who was sent by St. Louis, in the year 1252, to the Court of the Mongol Prince Mangu-Khan, but he merely mentions the fact of its existence. Marco Polo, who resided from 1275 to 1284 at the court of Kublai-Khan, . . . gives us a longer and interesting account of the note system, which he greatly admired, and he concludes by saying, 'Now you have heard the ways and means whereby the great Khan may have, and, in fact, has, more treasure than all the kings in the world. You know all about it, and the reason why.' But this apparent facility of creating money led, in the East, as it has elsewhere, to great abuses. Sir John Mandeville, who was in Tartary shortly afterwards, in 1322, tells us that the 'Emperour may dispenden als moche as he wile with outen estymacioum. For he despendeth not, ne maketh no money, but of lether emprented, or of papyre. . . . For there and beyonde hem thei make no money, nouthur of gold nor of sylver. And therefore he may despende ynow and outrageously.' The great Khan seems to have been himself of the same opinion. He appears to have 'despent outrageously,' and the value of the paper money again fell to a very small fraction of its nominal amount, causing great discontent and misery, until about the middle of the sixteenth century, under the Mandchu dynasty, it was abolished, and appears to have been so completely forgotten, that the Jesuit father, Gabriel de Magaillans, who resided at Peking about 1668, observes that there is no recollection of paper money having ever existed in the manner described by Marco Polo; though two centuries later it was again in use. It must be observed, however, that these Chinese bank notes differed from ours in one essential—namely, they were not payable at sight. Western notes, even when not payable at all, have generally purported to be exchangeable at the will of the holder, but this principle the Chinese did not adopt, and their notes were only payable at certain specified periods."—J. Lubbock, *History of money (Nineteenth Century, Nov., 1879)*.

ALSO IN: W. Vissering, *Chinese currency*.

Coinage in its beginnings.—"Many centuries before the invention of the art of coining, gold and silver in the East, and bronze in the West, in bullion form, had already supplanted barter, the most primitive of all methods of buying and selling, when among pastoral peoples the ox and the sheep were the ordinary mediums of exchange. The very word 'pecunia' is an evidence of this practice in Italy at a period which is probably recent in comparison with the time when values were estimated in cattle in Greece and the East. 'So far as we have any knowledge,' says Herodotus, 'the Lydians were the first nation to introduce the use of gold and silver coin.' This statement of the father of history must not, however, be accepted as finally settling the vexed question as to who were the inventors of coined money, for Strabo, Aelian, and the Parian Chronicle, all agree in adopting the more commonly received tradition, that Pheidon, King of Argos, first struck silver coins in the island of Aegina. These two apparently contradictory assertions modern research tends to reconcile with one another. The one embodies the Asiatic, the other the European tradition; and the truth of the matter is that gold was first coined by the Lydians in Asia Minor, in the seventh century before our era; and that sil-

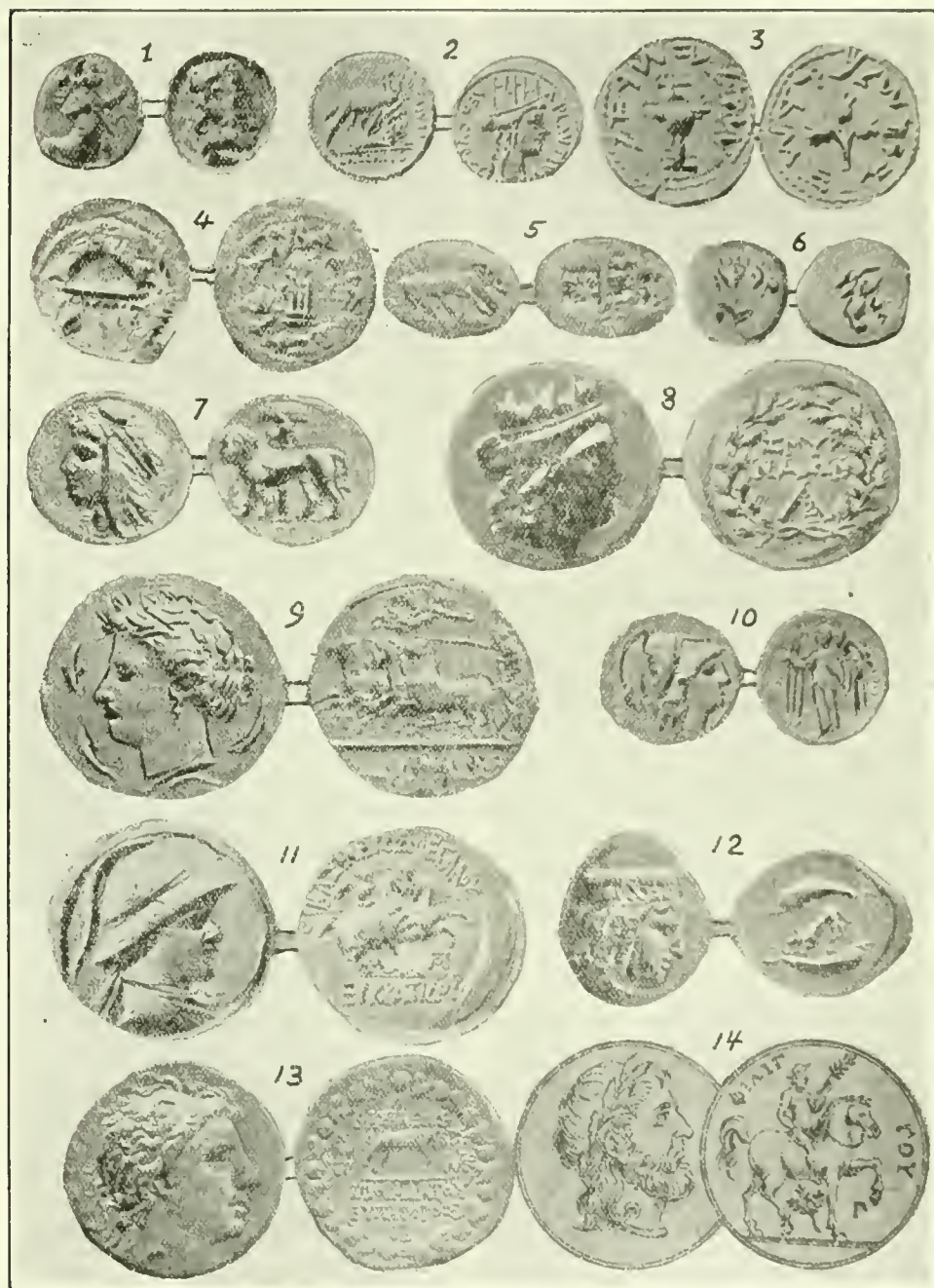


IMPLEMENTS FOR STRIKING ANCIENT COINS

Bérénician
coin

Coin of
Philip of Macedon

this case the notes were 'used instead of the skins from which they were cut, the skins themselves being too bulky and heavy to be constantly carried backward and forward. Only a little piece was cut off to figure as a token of possession of the whole skin. The ownership was proved when the piece fitted in the hole.' True bank notes are said to have been invented about 800 A. D., in the reign of Hiantsong, of the dynasty of Thang, and were called 'feytsien,' or flying money. It is curious, however, though not surprising, to find that the temptation to over-issue led to the same results in China as in the West. The value of the notes fell, until at length it took 11,000 min, or £3,000, to buy a cake of rice, and the use of notes appears to have been abandoned. Subsequently the issue was revived, and Tchang-yang (960-990 A. D.) seems to have been the first private person who issued notes. Somewhat later, under the Emperor Tching-tsong (907-1022), this invention was largely extended. Sixteen of the richest firms



ANCIENT COINS

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|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Persian gold daric | 6. Bronze coin of Pontius Pilate | 10. Coin of Selinus, 480 B.C. |
| 2. Denarius of Aulus Plautius | 7. Carthaginian stater, 400 B.C. | 11. Bactrian coin, 180 B.C. |
| 3. Shekel of year 1. | 8. Tetradrachm of Smyrna, 190 B.C. | 12. Coin of Argos, 400 B.C. |
| 4. Bronze coin of Herod | 9. Decadrachm of Syracuse, 400 B.C. | 13. Mithradatic coin |
| 5. Stater of Halcarnassus, 700 B.C. | | 14. Coin of Philip of Macedon |

ver was first struck in European Greece about the same time. The earliest coins are simply bullets of metal, oval or bean-shaped, bearing on one side the signet of the state or of the community responsible for the purity of the metal and the exactness of the weight. Coins were at first stamped on one side only, the reverse showing merely the impress of the square-headed spike or anvil on which, after being weighed, the bullet of hot metal was placed with a pair of tongs and there held while a second workman adjusted upon it the engraved die. This done, a third man with a heavy hammer would come down upon it with all his might, and the coin would be produced, bearing on its face or obverse the seal of the issuer, and on the reverse only the mark of the anvil spike, an incuse square. This simple process was after a time improved upon by adding a second engraved die beneath the metal bullet, so that a single blow of the sledge-hammer would provide the coin with a type, as it is called, in relief on both sides. The presence of the unengraved incuse square may therefore be accepted as an indication of high antiquity, and nearly all Greek coins which are later than the age of the Persian wars bear a type on both sides. . . . Greek coin-types may be divided into two distinct classes: (a) Mythological or religious representations, and (b) portraits of historical persons. From the earliest times down to the age of Alexander the Great the types of Greek coins are almost exclusively religious. However strange this may seem at first, it is not difficult to explain. It must be borne in mind that when the enterprising and commercial Lydians first lighted upon the happy idea of stamping metal for general circulation, a guarantee of just weight and purity of metal would be the one condition required. . . . What more binding guarantee could be found than the invocation of one or other of those divinities most honoured and most dreaded in the district in which the coin was intended to circulate? There is even good reason to think that the earliest coins were actually struck within the precincts of the temples, and under the direct auspices of the priests; for in times of general insecurity by sea and land, the temples alone remained sacred and inviolate."—B. V. Head, *Greek coins* (S. Lane-Poole, ed., *Coins and medals*, ch. 2).

Early banking.—"The banker's calling is both new and old. As a distinct branch of commerce, and a separate agent in the advancement of civilisation, its history hardly extends over 300 years; but, in a rude and undeveloped sort of way, it has existed during some dozens of centuries. It began almost with the beginning of society. No sooner had men learnt to adopt a portable and artificial equivalent for their commodities, and thus to buy and sell and get gain more easily, than the more careful of them began to gather up their money in little heaps, or in great heaps, if they were fortunate enough. These heaps were, by the Romans, called *montes*—mounds, or banks,—and henceforth every money-maker was a primitive banker. The prudent farmers and shopkeepers in the out-of-the-way villages, who now lock up their savings in strong boxes, or conceal them in places where they are least likely to be found by thieves, show us how the richest and most enterprising men of far-off times, whether in Anglo-Saxon or mediæval Britain, ancient Greece and Rome, China or Judæa, made banks for themselves before the great advantages of joint-stock heaping up of money were discovered. When and in what precise way that discovery was made antiquarians have yet to decide. . . . Perhaps

Jews and Greeks set the example to the modern world. Every rich Athenian had his treasurer or money-keeper, and whenever any particular treasurer proved himself a good accountant and safe banker, it is easy to understand how, from having one master, he came to have several, until he was able to change his condition of slavery for the humble rank of a freedman, and then to use his freedom to such good purpose that he became an influential member of the community. Having many people's money entrusted to his care, he received good payment for his responsible duty, and he quickly learned to increase his wealth by lending out his own savings, if not his employers' capital, at the highest rate of interest that he could obtain. The Greek bankers were chiefly famous as money-lenders, and interest at thirty-six per cent. per annum was not considered unusually exorbitant among them. For their charges they were often blamed by spendthrifts, satirists, and others. 'It is said,' complains Plutarch, 'that hares bring forth and nourish their young at the same time that they conceive again; but the debts of these scoundrels and savages bring forth before they conceive, for they give and immediately demand again; they take away their money at the same time as they put it out; they place at interest what they receive as interest. The Messenians have a proverb: "There is a Pylos before Pylos, and yet another Pylos still." So of the usurers it may be said, "There is a profit before profit, and yet another profit still;" and then, forsooth, they laugh at philosophers, who say that nothing can come out of nothing!' The Greek bankers and money-lenders, those of Delos and Delphi especially, are reported to have used the temples as treasure-houses, and to have taken the priests into partnership in their money-making. Some arrangement of that sort seems to have existed among the Jews, and to have aroused the anger of Jesus when he went into the Temple of Jerusalem, 'and overthrew the tables of the money-changers, and said unto them, It is written, My house shall be called the house of prayer; but ye have made it a den of thieves.' Bankers' or money-changers' tables were famous institutions all over the civilised world of the ancients. Livy tells how, in 308 B.C., if not before, they were to be found in the Roman Forum, and later Latin authors make frequent allusions to banking transactions of all sorts. They talk of deposits and securities, bills of exchange and drafts to order, cheques and bankers' books, as glibly as a modern merchant. But these things were nearly forgotten during the dark ages, until the Jews, true to the money-making propensities that characterised them while they still had a country of their own, set the fashion of money-making and of banking in all the countries of Europe through which they were dispersed."—H. R. F. Bourne, *Romance of trade*, ch. 4.

Greece.—"Oriental contact first stirred the 'auri sacra fames' in the Greek mind. That this was so the Greek language itself tells plainly. For 'chrusos,' gold, is a Semitic loan-word, closely related to the Hebrew 'charuz,' but taken immediately, there can be no reasonable doubt, from the Phœnician. The restless treasure-seekers from Tyre were, indeed, as the Græco-Semitic term metal intimates, the original subterranean explorers of the Balkan peninsula. As early, probably, as the 15th century B.C. they 'dugged out ribs of gold' on the islands of Thasos and Siphnos, and on the Thracian mainland at Mount Pangæum; and the fables of the Golden Fleece, and of Arimasian wars with gold-guarding griffins, prove

the hold won by the 'precious bane' over the popular imagination. Asia Minor was, however, the chief source of prehistoric supply, the native mines lying long neglected after the Phœnicians had been driven from the scene. Midas was a typical king in a land where the mountains were gold-granulated, and the rivers ran over sands of gold. And it was in fact from Phrygia that Pelops was traditionally reported to have brought the treasures which made Mycenæ the golden city of the Achæan world. The Epic affluence in gold was not wholly fictitious. From the sepulchres of Mycenæ alone about one hundred pounds Troy weight of the metal have been disinterred; freely at command even in the lowest stratum of the successive habitations at Hissarlik, it was lavishly stored, and highly wrought in the picturesquely-named 'treasure of Priam'; and has been found, in plates and pearls, beneath twenty metres of volcanic debris, in the Cycladic islands Thera and Therapia. This plentifulness contrasts strangely with the extreme scarcity of gold in historic Greece. It persisted, however, mainly owing to the vicinity of the auriferous Ural Mountains, in the Milesian colony of Panticapæum, near Kertch, where graves have been opened containing corpses shining 'like images' in a complete clothing of gold-leaf, and equipped with ample supplies of golden vessels and ornaments. Silver was, at the outset, a still rarer substance than gold. Not that there is really less of it. . . . But it occurs less obviously, and is less easy to obtain pure. Accordingly, in some very early Egyptian inscriptions, silver, by heading the list of metals, claims a supremacy over them which proved short-lived. It terminated for ever with the scarcity that had produced it, when the Phœnicians began to pour the flood of Spanish silver into the markets and treasure-chambers of the East. Armenia constituted another tolerably copious source of supply; and it was in this quarter that Homer located the 'birth-place of silver.'—A. M. Clerke, *Familiar studies in Homer*, ch. 10.—"Taken as a whole the Greek money is excellent; pure in metal and exact in weight, its real corresponding to its nominal value. Nothing better has been done in this way among the most civilized and best governed nations of modern times. There is, indeed, always a certain recognized limit, which keeps the actual weight of the money slightly below its theoretical weight; and this fact recurs with such regularity that it may be regarded as a rule. We must conclude, therefore, that it was under this form that Greek civilization allowed to the coiner of money the right of seigniorage, or the benefit legitimately due to him to cover the expenses of the coinage, and in exchange for the service rendered by him to the public in providing them with money, by which they were saved the trouble of perpetual weighing. This allowance, however, is always kept within very narrow limits, and is never more than the excess of the natural value of the coined money over that of metal in ingots. . . . Of course, the general and predominant fact of the excellence of the Greek money in the time of Hellenic independence is subject, like all human things, to some exceptions. There were a few cities which yielded to the delusive bait of an unlawful advantage, debasing the quality of their coins without foreseeing that the consequences of this unfair operation would react against themselves. But these exceptions are very rare."—F. Lenormant, *Money in ancient Greece and Rome* (*Contemporary Review*, Feb., 1870).—"The quantity, particularly of gold. . . . was, in the earlier historical periods, according to unexceptionable

testimony, extremely small. In the time of Cræsus, according to Theopompus, gold was not to be found for sale in any of the Greek States. The Spartans, needing some for a votive offering, wished to purchase a quantity from Cræsus; manifestly because he was the nearest person from whom it could be obtained. . . . Even during the period from the seventieth to the eightieth Olympiads, (B. C. 500-400,) pure gold was a rarity. When Hiero of Syracuse wished to send a tripod and a statue of the Goddess of Victory, made of pure gold, to the Delphian Apollo, he could not procure the requisite quantity of metal until his agents applied to the Corinthian Architiles, who, as was related by the above-mentioned Theopompus and Phanius of Eresus, had long been in the practice of purchasing gold in small quantities, and hoarding it. Greece proper itself did not possess many mines of precious metals. The most important of the few which it possessed were the Attic silver mines of Laurion. These were at first very productive. . . . Asia and Africa furnished incomparably a larger quantity of the precious metals than was procured in Greece and the other European countries. . . . Colchis, Lydia, and Phrygia, were distinguished for their abundance of gold. Some derive the tradition of the golden fleece from the gold washings in Colchis. Who has not heard of the riches of Midas, and Gyges, and Cræsus, the gold mines of the mountains Tmolus and Sipylus, the gold-sand of the Pactolus? . . . From the very productive gold mines of India, together with its rivers flowing with gold, among which in particular the Ganges may be classed, arose the fable of the gold-digging ants. From these annual revenues the royal treasure was formed. By this a great quantity of precious metal was kept from circulation. It was manifestly their principle to coin only as much gold and silver as was necessary for the purposes of trade, and for the expenditures of the State. In Greece, also, great quantities were kept from circulation, and accumulated in treasuries. There were locked up in the citadel of Athens 0,700 talents of coined silver, besides the gold and silver vessels and utensils. The Delphian god possessed a great number of the most valuable articles. . . . The magnificent expenditures of Pericles upon public edifices and structures, for works of the plastic arts, for theatrical exhibitions, and in carrying on wars, distributed what Athens had collected, into many hands. The temple-robbing Phocians coined from the treasures at Delphi ten thousand talents in gold and silver; and this large sum was consumed by war. Philip of Macedonia, in fine, carried on his wars as much with gold as with arms. Thus a large amount of money came into circulation in the period between the commencement of the Persian wars and the age of Demosthenes. The precious metals, therefore, must of necessity have depreciated in value, as they did at a later period, when Constantine the Great caused money to be coined from the precious articles found in the heathen temples. But what a quantity of gold and silver flowed through Alexander's conquest of Asia into the western countries! Allowing that his historians exaggerate, the main point, however, remains certain. . . . Alexander's successors not only collected immense sums, but by their wars again put them into circulation. . . . The enormous taxes which were raised in the Macedonian kingdoms, the revelry and extravagant liberality of the kings, which passed all bounds, indicate the existence of an immense amount of ready money."—A. Boeckh, *Public economy of the Athenians*, bk. 1, ch. 3.—See also

TALENT; CAPITALISM: In antiquity; ORACLES.

Phœnicia.—"Nearly all the silver in common use for trade throughout the East was brought into the market by the Phœnicians. The silver mines were few and distant; the trade was thus a monopoly, worth keeping so by the most savage treatment of suspected rivals, and, as a monopoly, so lucrative that, but for the long and costly voyage between Spain and Syria, the merchant would have seemed to get his profit for nothing. . . . The use of silver money, though it did not originate with the Phœnicians, was no doubt promoted by their widespread dealings. The coins were always of known weight, and standing in a well-known relation to the bars used for large transactions."—E. J. Simcox, *Primitive civilisations*, v. 1, p. 400.—"It is a curious fact that coinage in Phœnicia, one of the most commercial of ancient countries, should have been late in origin, and apparently not very plentiful. There are, in fact, no coins of earlier period than the third century which we can with certainty attribute to the great cities of Tyre and Sidon. Some modern writers, however, consider that many of the coins generally classed under Persia—notably those bearing the types of a chariot, a galley, and an owl respectively—were issued by those cities in the 5th and 4th centuries B. C. But it is certain, in any case, that the Phœnicians were far behind the Greeks in the art of moneying. With the invasion of Persia by Alexander the Great came a great change; and all the ancient landmarks of Asiatic government and order were swept away. During the life of Alexander the Great the coins bearing his name and his types circulated throughout Asia; and after his death the same range of currency was attained by the money of the early Seleucid Kings of Syria—Seleucus I., Antiochus I., and Antiochus II., who virtually succeeded to the dominions of the Persian Kings, and tried in many respects to carry on their policy. Of these monarchs we possess a splendid series of coins."—S. Lane-Poole, ed., *Coins and medals*, ch. 6.—See also PHŒNICIA: B. C. 850-538.

Jews.—"It would seem that, until the middle of the second century B. C., the Jews either weighed out gold and silver for the price of goods, or else used the money usually current in Syria, that of Persia, Phœnicia, Athens, and the Seleucidae. Simon the Maccabee was the first to issue the Jewish shekel as a coin, and we learn from the Book of Maccabees that the privilege of striking was expressly granted him by King Antiochus VII. of Syria. We possess shekels of years 1-5 of the deliverance of Zion; the types are a chalice and a triple flower. The kings who succeeded Simon, down to Antigonus, confined themselves to the issue of copper money, with Hebrew legends and with types calculated not to shock the susceptible feelings of their people, to whom the representation of a living thing was abominable—such types as a lily, a palm, a star, or an anchor. When the Herodian family came in, several violations of this rule appear."—S. Lane-Poole, ed., *Coins and medals*, ch. 6.

ALSO IN: G. C. Williamson, *Money of the Bible*.

Rome.—"In Rome the generic terms for money seem to have been successively, pecunia, as, nummus, and moneta. . . . Moneta . . . is derived from the name of the temple in which, or in a building to or next to which the money of Rome was coined after the defeat of Pyrrhus, B. C. 275, more probably after the capture of Tarentum by the Romans, B. C. 272. It probably did not come into use until after the era of Scipio, and then was

only used occasionally until the period of the Empire, when it and its derivatives became more common. Nummus, nevertheless, continued to hold its ground until towards the decline of the Empire, when it went entirely out of use, and moneta and its derivatives usurped its place, which it has continued to hold ever since. Moneta is therefore substantially a term of the Dark Ages. . . . The idea associated with moneta is coins, whose value was derived mainly from that of the material of which they were composed; whilst the idea associated with nummus is a system of symbols whose value was derived from legal limitation. From the fact that our language sprang from the Dark Ages, we have no generic word for money other than moneta, which only relates to one kind of money. For a similar reason, the comparative newness of the English tongue, we have no word for a piece of money except coin, which, properly speaking, only relates to one kind of piece, namely, that which is struck by the cuneus."—A. Del Mar, *History of money in ancient countries*, ch. 28.—The extent and energy of the Roman traffic, in the great age of the republic, during the third and second centuries before Christ, "may be traced most distinctly by means of coins and monetary relations. The Roman denarius kept pace with the Roman legions. . . . The Sicilian mints—last of all that of Syracuse in 542—were closed or at any rate restricted to small money in consequence of the Roman conquest; and . . . in Sicily and Sardinia the denarius obtained legal circulation at least side by side with the older silver currency and probably very soon became the exclusive legal tender. With equal if not greater rapidity the Roman silver coinage penetrated into Spain, where the great silver-mines existed and there was virtually no earlier national coinage; at a very early period the Spanish towns even began to coin after the Roman standard. On the whole, as Carthage coined only to a very limited extent, there existed not a single important mint in addition to that of Rome in the region of the western Mediterranean, with the exception of the mint of Massilia and perhaps also of those of the Illyrian Greeks at Apollonia and Epidamnus. Accordingly, when the Romans began to establish themselves in the region of the Po, these mints were [about 225] subjected to the Roman standard in such a way, that, while they retained the right of coining silver, they uniformly—and the Massiliots in particular—were led to adjust their drachma to the weight of the Roman three-quarter denarius, which the Roman government on its part began to coin, primarily for the use of upper Italy, under the name of the 'piece of Victory' (victoriatus). This new system, based on the Roman, prevailed throughout the Massiliot, Upper Italian, and Illyrian territories; and these coins even penetrated into the barbarian lands on the north, those of Massilia, for instance, into the Alpine districts along the whole basin of the Rhone, and those of Illyria as far as the modern Transylvania. The eastern half of the Mediterranean was not yet reached by the Roman money, as it had not yet fallen under the direct sovereignty of Rome; but its place was filled by gold, the true and natural medium for international and transmarine commerce. It is true that the Roman government, in conformity with its strictly conservative character, adhered—with the exception of a temporary coinage of gold occasioned by the financial embarrassment during the Hannibalic war—steadfastly to the rule of coining silver only in addition to the national-Italian copper; but commerce had already assumed such dimensions, that

it was able in the absence of money to conduct its transactions with gold by weight. Of the sum in cash, which lay in the Roman treasury in 597, scarcely a sixth was coined or uncoined silver, five-sixths consisted of gold in bars, and beyond doubt the precious metals were found in all the chests of the larger Roman capitalists in substantially similar proportions. Already therefore gold held the first place in great transactions; and, as may be inferred from this fact, the preponderance of traffic was maintained with foreign lands, and particularly with the East, which since the times of Philip and Alexander the Great had adopted a gold currency. The whole gain from these immense transactions of the Roman capitalists flowed in the long run to Rome. . . . The moneyed superiority of Rome as compared with the rest of the civilized world was, accordingly, quite as decided as its political and military ascendancy. Rome in this respect stood towards other countries somewhat as the England of the present day stands towards the continent."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 12.—In the later years of the Roman republic the coinage became debased and uncertain. "Cæsar restored the public credit by issuing good money, such as had not been seen in Rome for a length of time, money of pure metal and exact weight; with scarcely any admixture of plated pieces, money which could circulate for its real value, and this measure became one of the principal sources of his popularity. Augustus followed his example, but at the same time took away from the Senate the right of coining gold and silver, reserving this exclusively to the imperial authority, which was to exercise it absolutely without control. From this time we find the theory that the value of money is arbitrary, and depends solely on the will of the sovereign who issues it, more and more widely and tenaciously held. . . . The faith placed in the official impress fostered the temptation to abuse it. . . . In less than a century the change of the money of the State into imperial money, and the theory that its value arose from its bearing the effigy of the sovereign, produced a system of adulteration of specie, which went on growing to the very close of the Empire, and which the successors of Augustus utilized largely for the indulgence of their passions and their prodigality."—F. Lenormant, *Money in ancient Greece and Rome* (*Contemporary Review*, Feb., 1879).—"Into Italy banking had penetrated from Greece, and transmitted through the cities of Magna Græcia had become fairly implanted in Rome before the period of the Second Punic War. . . . But, even if a private person, a Roman banker was too important an individual to be free from governmental control. In imperial times the bankers of the capital were supervised by the city præfect, of the provinces by the governors; and they were very possibly required to take out some kind of a state license. Their original business was the exchange of foreign moneys, and until the imperial coinage had practically superseded every other in the Empire, there must have been good profit in exchanging Macedonian gold pieces for Roman denarii and the like. Close, however, on the heels of mere money-changing, came the writing of bills of exchange—a custom again borrowed from Greece; a banker in Rome would receive a sum to be paid in Athens, and would issue a bill to be paid by some Athenian banking correspondent—a process involving, of course, the changing into foreign money as well as the mere transfer of the sum. The *argentarius* also served as a general receiver of deposits, sometimes without in-

terest merely for the convenience and security of the owner, and payable against check, or, as was common, against interest, in which case the banker was permitted to invest it for his own advantage and make what profit he could. If he failed, the law protected the depositor, whose claims had to be satisfied before the other creditors of the bankrupt. In addition to these deposits and payments against check, bankers also did a general lending business, to whomsoever they thought solvent, and here, no doubt, came in the major part of their profits."—W. S. Davis, *Influence of wealth in imperial Rome*, pp. 73-74.—"The monetary system instituted by Augustus, comprising eight denominations . . . formed the basis of the Roman coinage down to the time of Gallienus. . . . We now pass on to notice the changes that occurred in the course of this period of over two and a half centuries and the various attempts, made from time to time, to readjust the coinage in order to stave off the inevitable disintegration of the system. These changes are mainly of three kinds: (1) the addition of new denominations or new forms of existing denominations, the duration of their currency being in some cases limited to a few years, while in others it is extended to nearly a century; (2) the temporary or permanent discontinuance of certain denominations; (3) the tendency towards depreciation, which is especially conspicuous in the third century, by the reduction in the weight of the gold and bronze and by the increase of the alloy in the silver. It may be stated generally that throughout this period gold and silver *quinarii* appear to have been issued somewhat irregularly and never in very large quantities. This also applies to some extent to the smaller denominations of orichalcum and copper. . . . During the first nine years of Nero's reign a somewhat unusual state of affairs prevailed in connexion with the Roman mint, inasmuch as the issue of gold and silver, which since the time of Augustus had belonged exclusively to the imperial mint, was now relegated to the senatorial. It seems probable, moreover, that no coins of orichalcum or copper were issued prior to the year 60 A. D.; and it is not until after the reform of 63 A. D. that the great Neronian coinage in these metals really begins. . . . Between 60 and 63 A. D. there appears to have been a limited output of copper *asses*, *semisses*, and *quadrantes* and possibly a few *dupondii*. But as time went on the need of a regular and more plentiful supply of orichalcum and copper became daily more pressing. Thus the senatorial mint was again confronted with the problem of how to deal with the fluctuating value of orichalcum in relation to the other metals without upsetting the traditional imperial system. The solution hit upon by Nero's mint-masters was to issue coins of all denominations, from the *sestertius* downwards, in orichalcum, adding to those already in common use the *as*, *semis*, and *quadrans*. . . . The monetary reform of 63 A. D. was an undertaking of a bold and elaborate character, and Nero's reformed coinage has been not inaptly described by M. Soutzo as the most important monetary system of antiquity. Certainly it presented the most complete gradation of denominational values ever current at the same time. In its practical result, however, it is impossible to regard it as other than an interesting experiment. Meritorious as it undoubtedly was in theory, it came to an abrupt termination at Nero's death, and no attempt to revive it in its entirety was made by any of his successors in the Principate. . . . The reign of Galba is remarkable amongst other things for the

prolific output of coins from the imperial and senatorial mints. . . . The elaborate brass and copper system, introduced in 63 A. D., disappears, and Galba's coinage returns to a modified form of the Augustan system, consisting of only three denominations, viz. *sestertius*, *dupondius*, and *as*. . . . Thus the coinage of the Empire settled down to the form that became stereotyped under the régime of the Flavians and Antonines, and, in spite of the growing corruption that eventually undermined both the fabric and credit of the currency, this form lasted in theory down to the time of Gallienus. . . . Never in the whole course of Roman history was the coinage plunged into so wild a state of confusion as during the disastrous reign of Gallienus. Thus the final collapse of the Augustan system was inevitable. The gold was issued regardless of any weight standard. The debased silver 'Antoninianus' degenerated into a mere apology of plated copper, in which form it lingered until the first year of Aurelian. The senatorial bronze, which constituted the basis of the Augustan system, after having lost almost every vestige of its former dignity, terminated abruptly, since the introduction of worthless plated coins made the continuance of bronze impossible. . . . The attempts at revival that occurred during the third century were . . . merely evanescent. However, Aurelian's unpretentious 'reform' . . . at any rate achieved a result of some importance by the institution of a new plated denomination of definitely fixed value, which . . . so far proved successful in arresting the tendency to further debasement of the coinage. Aurelian's scheme, however . . . proved altogether too inadequate, and so it fell to Diocletian to grapple seriously with the problem of the currency. . . . There is no question that Diocletian aimed at arbitrarily establishing a universal monetary standard; but although the two main factors of his system, namely the *folles* and *denarius*, were current throughout every province of the Empire, it by no means follows that the exchange value of the coins was uniform. Further, the appearance of coins of intermediate sizes affords unmistakable evidence that the prescribed coinage was either inadequate or unsuitable for local requirements. Hence it is not altogether surprising to find that, in order to bring the coinage more into harmony with traditional money values or local usages, certain alterations were made in Diocletian's symmetrical and highly artificial system, which inevitably reduced it to a state of confusion."—E. A. Sydenham, *Roman monetary system*, pt. 2 (*Numismatic Chronicle*, 4th series, v. 10, 1910).—See also CAPITALISM: In antiquity.

MEDIEVAL

Introductory.—Standard of currency.—Infrequent use of money.—"During the Middle Ages, gold became so scarce that silver was practically the only coinage, and so the European nations were on a silver standard. The fall in the value of silver about the fifteenth century and on created a demand for coins of greater value on small bulk, and as there was a greater production of gold at this time, the use of gold coins together with the silver became more common. . . . Under the feudal system society was organized on a basis on which was required very little exchange of products, and most of what exchange existed was done on a barter basis. Taxes and payments to the lord of the manor were made in produce. The royal court was maintained not from money taxes collected, but from the produce

of the crown lands which the king received as the lord of the manor. Wars were conducted without the use of money; the soldiers were equipped from their own resources and were sustained from the forage of the country traversed in campaigns."—E. D. Howard, *Money and banking*, pp. 49, 154-155.

Coinage and banking of early Middle Ages.—"As regards the monetary system of the Middle Ages, the precious metals, when uncoined, were weighed by the pound and half pound or mark, for which different standards were in use, the most generally recognised being those of Troyes and Cologne. Of coined money there existed a perplexing variety, which made it almost impossible to ascertain the relative value, not only of different coins, but of the same coin of different issues. This resulted from the emperor or king conferring the right of coinage upon various lords, spiritual and temporal, from whom it was ultimately acquired by individual towns. The management was in most cases entrusted to a company, temporary or permanent, inspected by an official, the coin-tester, originally appointed by the sovereign, but afterwards by the company, and confirmed by the king or bishop. The house where the process of coining was performed was called the mint, and the company who held the rights of coinage in fee was known as the Mint House Company, or simply the House Company. Very generally the office was held by the Corporation of Goldsmiths. The want of perfect supervision led to great debasement of the currency, especially in Germany and France; but in England and Italy the standard was tolerably well maintained. Payments in silver were much more common than in gold. Before the Crusades the only gold coins known in Europe were the Byzantine solides, the Italian tari, and Moorish maurabotini. The solidi, which were originally of 23 to 23½ carat gold, but subsequently very much deteriorated, were reckoned as equal to twelve silver denars. They passed current in Southern and Eastern Europe, Hungary, Germany, Poland, and Prussia. . . . Solde, sol, and sou are only repeated transformations of the name of the coin, which have been accompanied by still greater changes in its value. The tari or tarentini derived its name from the Italian town where it was originally struck. It was less generally known than the solides, and was equal to one-fourth the latter in value. The maurabotini or sarazens were only of 15 carats gold. The name survives in the Spanish maravedi, which, however, like the sou, is now made of copper instead of gold. In the thirteenth century augustals, florentines, and ducats, or zecchins (sequins), were coined in Italy. The first-mentioned, the weight of which was half an ounce, were named in honour of Frederick II., who was Roman Cæsar and Augustus in 1252. The florentines, also known as gigliati, or lilies, from the arms of Florence, which they bore on one side, with the effigy of John the Baptist on the reverse, were of fine gold and lighter than the solidi, about 64 being reckoned equal to the mark. The ducats or zecchins were of Venetian origin, receiving their first name from the Duca or Doge, and the other from the Zecca or Mint House. They were somewhat less in value than the florentines, 66 or 67 being counted to the fine mark. Nearly equivalent in value to these Italian coins were the gold guilders coined in the fourteenth century in Hungary and the Rhine regions. The Rhenish guilder was of 22½ or 23 carats fine, and in weight 1/66 of a mark of Cologne. The silver guilder was of later production, and the

name is now used as equivalent to florin. . . . In silver payments, the metal being usually nearly pure, it was common to compute by weight, coins and uncoined bullion being alike put into the scale, as is still the case in some Eastern countries. Hence the origin of the pound, livre, or mark. The most widely diffused silver coin was the denarius, which was, as in ancient Roman times, the $\frac{11}{240}$ of a pound. The name pending or pennig, by which the denarius was known among the old Teutonic nations, seems to be connected with pendere, to weigh out or pay; as the other ancient Teutonic coin, the sceat, was with sceoton, to pay, a word which is preserved in the modern phrases 'scot free,' 'pay your scot.' . . . Half-pennies and farthings were not known in the earliest times, but the penny was deeply indented by two cross lines, which enabled it to be broken into quarters or farthings (feordings or fourthings). From the indented cross the denarius was known in Germany as the kreutzer. . . . With such a diversity of coinage, it was necessary to settle any mercantile transaction in the currency of the place. Not only would sellers have refused to accept money whose value was unknown to them, but in many places they were forbidden to do so by law. Merchants attending foreign markets therefore brought with them a quantity of fine silver and gold in bars, which they exchanged on the spot for the current coin of the place, to be used in settling their transactions; the balance remaining on hand they re-exchanged for bullion before leaving. The business of money-changing, which thus arose, was a very lucrative one, and was originally mostly in the hands of Italian merchants, chiefly Lombards and Florentines. In Italy the money-changers formed a guild, members of which settled in the Netherlands, England, Cologne, and the Mediterranean ports. In these different towns and countries they kept up a close connection with each other and with Italy, and at an early period (before the thirteenth century) commenced the practice of assignments, i. e., receiving money in one place, to be paid by an order upon their correspondents in another, thus saving the merchant who travelled from country to country the expense and risk of transporting specie. In the thirteenth century this branch of business was in extensive use at Barcelona, and in 1307 the tribute of 'Peter's pence' was sent from England to the Pope through the Lombard exchangers. From 5 to 6 per cent., or more, was charged upon the transaction, and the profitable nature of the business soon led many wealthy and even noble Italian families to employ their money in this way. They established a member of their firm in each of the great centres of trade to receive and pay on their account. In Florence alone (about 1350) there are said to have been eighty such houses. Among these the Frescobaldi, Bardi, and Peruzzi are well-known names; but the chief place was taken by the famous Florentine house of the Medici, who had banking houses established in sixteen of the chief cities of Europe and the Levant. In the north of Europe, before long, similar arrangements were established by the merchants of the Hanseatic League. . . . Assignments of this kind were drawn out in the form of letters, requesting the person by whom the money was due to pay it over to another party, named in the bill, on account of the writer, specifying also the time within which and the firm in which the payment was to be made. They were thus known as letters, billets, or bills of exchange, and appear in Italy as early as the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Among the earliest examples

in existence are a letter of exchange, dated at Milan in 1325, payable within five months at Lucca; one dated at Bruges, 1304, and payable at Barcelona; and another, dated at Bologna, 1381, payable in Venice. . . . 'The first writers who treat of bills are Italians: the Italian language furnishes the technical terms for drafts, remittances, currency, sight, usance, and discount, used in most of the languages of Europe.' . . . Of other branches of banking the germs also appeared in the Middle Ages. Venice seems to have been the first city to possess something answering to a deposit bank. The merchants here united in forming a common treasury, where they deposited sums of money, upon which they gave assignments or orders for payment to their creditors, and to which similar assignments due to themselves were paid and added on to the amount at their credit. The taula di cambi (exchange counter) of Barcelona was a similar institution, as also the bank of St. George, at Genoa."—J. Yeats, *Growth and vicissitudes of commerce, appendix F.*—See also below: 12th-17th centuries; 14th-15th centuries. The name "Lombards" was frequently given, during the Middle Ages to all the Italian merchants and money-lenders—from Florence, Venice, Genoa, and elsewhere—who were engaged throughout Europe in banking and trade.—See also COMMERCE: Medieval: 7th-13th centuries; JEWS: England: 11th century.

12th-14th centuries.—Florentine banking.—"The business of money-changing seemed thoroughly at home here, and it is not surprising that the invention of bills of exchange, which we first meet with in 1100 in the relations between England and Italy, should be ascribed to Florence. The money trade seems to have flourished as early as the twelfth century, towards the end of which a Marquis of Ferrara raised money on his lands from the Florentines. In 1204 we find the money-changers as one of the corporations. In 1228, and probably from the beginning of the century, several Florentines were settled in London as changers to King Henry III.; and here, as in France, they conducted the money transactions of the Papal chair in conjunction with the Siennese. Their oldest known statute, which established rules for the whole conduct of trade (Statuto dell' Università della Mercatanzia) drawn up by a commission consisting of five members of the great guilds, is dated 1280. Their guild-hall was in the Via Calimaruza, opposite that of the Calimala, and was later included in the buildings of the post-office, on the site of which, after the post-office had been removed to what was formerly the mint, a building was lately erected, similar in architecture to the Palazzo of the Signoria, which stands opposite. Their coat of arms displayed gold coins laid one beside another on a red field. At the end of the thirteenth century their activity, especially in France and England, was extraordinarily great. But if wealth surpassing all previous conception was attained, it not seldom involved loss of repute, and those who pursued the calling ran the risk of immense losses from fiscal measures to the carrying out of which they themselves contributed, as well as those which were caused by insolvency or dishonesty. . . . The names of Tuscans and Lombards, and that of Cahorsiens in France, no longer indicated the origin, but the trade of the money-changers, who drew down the ancient hatred upon themselves. . . . France possessed at this time the greatest attraction for the Florentine money-makers, although they were sometimes severely oppressed, which is sufficient proof that their winnings were

still greater than their occasional losses. . . . The Florentine money market suffered the severest blow from England. At the end of the twelfth century there were already Florentine houses of exchange in London, and if Pisans, Genoese, and Venetians managed the trade by sea in the times of the Crusades, it was the Florentines mostly who looked after financial affairs in connection with the Papal chair, as we have seen. Numerous banks appeared about the middle of the thirteenth century, among which the Frescobaldi, a family of ancient nobility, and as such attainted by the prosecutions against it, took the lead, and were referred to the custom-house of the country for re-imbusement of the loans made to the kings Edward I. and II. Later, the two great trading companies of the Bardi and Peruzzi came into notice, and with their money Edward III. began the French war against Philip of Valois. But even in the first year of this war, which began with an unsuccessful attack upon Flanders, the king suspended the payments to the creditors of the State by a decree of May 6, 1339. The advances made by the Bardi amounted to 180,000 marks sterling, those of the Peruzzi to above 135,000, according to Giovanni Villani, who knew only too well about these things, since he was ruined by them himself to the extent of 'a sum of more than 1,355,000 gold florins, equivalent to the value of a kingdom.' Bonifazio Peruzzi, the head of the house, hastened to London, where he died of grief in the following year. The blow fell on the whole city. . . . Both houses began at once to liquidate, and the prevailing disturbance contributed not a little to the early success of the ambitious plans of the Duke of Athens. The real bankruptcy ensued, however, in January 1346, when new losses had occurred in Sicily. . . . The banks of the Acciaiuoli, Bonaccorsi, Cocchi, Antellesi, Corsini, da Uzzano, Perendoli, and many smaller ones, as well as numerous private persons, were involved in the ruin. 'The immense loans to foreign sovereigns,' adds Villani, 'drew down ruin upon our city, the like of which it had never known.' There was a complete lack of cash. Estates in the city found no purchasers at a third of their former value. . . . The famine and pestilence of 1347 and 1348, the oppressions of the mercenary bands and the heavy expenses caused by them, the cost of the war against Pope Gregory XI., and finally the tumult of the Ciompi, left Florence no peace for a long time. . . . At the beginning of the fifteenth century industry was again flourishing in all its branches in Florence, financial operations were extended, and foreign countries filled with Florentine banks and mercantile houses. . . . In London the most important firms had their representatives, Bruges was the chief place for Flanders, and we shall see how these connections lasted to the time of the greatest splendour of the Medici. France is frequently mentioned. The official representatives of the Florentine nation resided in the capital, while numerous houses established themselves in Lyons, in Avignon (since the removal of the Papal chair to this town), in Nismes, Narbonne, Carcassonne, Marseilles, &c. . . . The house of the Peruzzi alone had sixteen counting-houses in the fourteenth century, from London to Cyprus."—A. von Reumont, *Lorenzo de' Medici*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 4.—"The three principal branches of industry which enriched the Florentines were—banking, the manufacture of cloth, and the dyeing of it, and the manufacture of silk. The three most important guilds of the seven 'arti maggiori' were those which represented these three industries. Perhaps the most impor-

tant in the amount of its gains, as well as that which first rose to a high degree of importance, was the 'Arte del Cambio,' or banking. The earliest banking operations seem to have arisen from the need of the Roman court to find some means of causing the dues to which it laid claim in distant parts of Europe to be collected and transmitted to Rome. When the Papal Court was removed to Avignon, its residence there occasioned a greatly increased sending backwards and forwards of money between Italy and that city. And of all this banking business, the largest and most profitable portion was in the hands of Florentine citizens, whether resident in Florence or in the various commercial cities of Europe. We find Florentines engaged in lending money at interest to sovereign princes as early as the first quarter of the twelfth century."—T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 1. —See also CAPITALISM: 12th-16th centuries.

12th-17th centuries.—Bank of Venice.—Genoa.—Origin of Bank of St. George.—"In 1171 we find the foundation of the Bank of the Republic of Venice. Venice in those days was at war and needed money. The merchants of Venice were called upon to deposit their gold with the bank, and were given credit for gold so deposited on the books of the bank. These credits were transferable in the names of other people, both in full or in part, and soon a system of transferring credit was established which was used by all merchants in their business transactions. This continued for 500 years!"—A. O. Corbin *Golden horde*, pp. 75-76.—"The Bank of St. George, its constitution, its building, and its history, forms one of the most interesting relics of mediæval commercial activity. Those old grey walls, as seen still in Genoa, begrimed with dirt and fast falling into decay, are the cradle of modern commerce, modern banking schemes, and modern wealth. . . . This Bank of St. George is indeed a most singular political phenomenon. Elsewhere than in Genoa we search in vain for a parallel for the existence of a body of citizens distinct from the government—with their own laws, magistrates, and independent authority—a state within a state, a republic within a republic. All dealings with the government were voluntary on the part of the bank. . . . But, far from working without harmony, we always find the greatest unanimity of feeling between these two forms of republics within the same city walls. The government of Genoa always respected the liberties of the bank, and the bank always did its best to assist the government when in pecuniary distress. . . . To define an exact origin for the bank is difficult; it owed its existence to the natural development of commercial enterprise rather than to the genius of any one man, or the shrewdness of any particular period in Genoese history. The Crusades, and the necessary preparation of galleys, brought into Genoa the idea of advancing capital for a term of years as a loan to the government on the security of the taxes and public revenues; but in those cases the profits were quickly realized, and the debts soon cancelled by the monarchs who incurred them. However, the expeditions against the Saracens and the Moors were otherwise, and were undertaken at some risk to Genoa herself. . . . Now large sums of money were advanced, the profits on which were not spontaneous; it was more an investment of capital for a longer term of years, which was secured by the public revenues, but the profits of which depended on the success of the expedition. In 1148 was the first formal debt incurred by the government, and to meet the occasion the same system was adopted which continued in vogue,

subject only to regulations and improvements which were found necessary as time went on, until the days of the French Revolution. The creditors nominated from amongst themselves a council of administration to watch over the common interests, and to them the government conceded a certain number of the custom duties for a term of years until the debt should be extinguished. This council of administration elected their own consuls, after the fashion of the Republic governors. Every hundred francs was termed a share (*hogo*) and every creditor a shareholder (*luogatorio*). . . . Each separate loan was termed a 'compera,' and these loans were collectively known as the 'compere of St. George,' which in later years became the celebrated bank. Each loan generally took the name of the object for which it was raised, or the name of the saint on whose day the contract was signed; and when an advance of money was required, it was done by public auction in the streets, when the auctioneer sold the investment to the ever ready merchants, who collected outside the 'loggia,' or other prominent position chosen for the sale. In a loud voice was proclaimed the name and object of the loan, and the tax which was to be handed over to the purchasers to secure its repayment. So numerous did these loans become by 1252, that it was found necessary to unite them under one head, with a chancellor and other minor officials to watch over them. And as time went on, so great was the credit of Genoa, and so easy was this system found for raising money, that the people began to grow alarmed at the extent of the liabilities. So, in 1302, commissioners were appointed at a great assembly, two hundred and seventy-one articles and regulations were drawn up to give additional security to investors, and henceforth no future loan could be effected without the sanction of the consuls and the confirmation of the greater council of the shareholders. . . . During the days of the first doge, Simone Boccanegra, great changes were to be effected in the working system of the 'compere of St. George.' To this date many have assigned the origin of the Bank of St. George, but it will be seen only to be a further consolidation of the same system, which had already been at work two centuries. . . . In 1330 . . . at the popular revolution, all the old books were burnt, and a new commission appointed to regulate the 'compere.' . . . Instead . . . of being the origin of the bank, it was only another step in the growing wish for consolidation, which the expanding tendency of the 'compere' rendered necessary; which consolidation took final effect in 1407, when the Bank was thoroughly organized on the same footing which lasted till the end. Every year and every event tended towards this system of blending the loans together, to which fact is due the extensive power which the directors of the bank eventually wielded, when all interests and all petty disputes were merged together in one. . . . As time went on, and the French governor, Boucicault, weighed on the treasury the burden of fresh fortifications, and an expensive war; when Corsican troubles, and the Turks in the East, caused the advance of money to be frequent an assembly of all the shareholders in all the loans decided that an entire reorganization of the public debts should take place. Nine men were elected to draw up a new scheme, in 1407, and by their instrumentality all the shares were united; the interest for all was to be seven per cent., and fresh officials were appointed to superintend the now thoroughly constituted and re-named 'Bank of St. George.' And at length we behold this celebrated bank. Its credit never failed, and no anxiety was ever felt by any shareholder about his

annual income, until the days of the French Revolution. . . . This Bank of St. George was essentially one of the times, and not one which could have existed on modern ideas of credit; for it was a bank which would only issue paper for the coin in its actual possession, and would hardly suit the dictates of modern commerce. It was not a bank for borrowers but for capitalists, who required enormous security for immense sums until they could employ them themselves. . . . One of the most interesting features in connection with the dealings of the bank with the Genoese government, and a conclusive proof of the perfect accord which existed between them, was the cession from time to time of various colonies and provinces to the directors of the bank when the government felt itself too weak and too poor to maintain them. In this manner were the colonies in the Black Sea made over to the bank when the Turkish difficulties arose. Corsica and Cyprus, also towns on the Riviera, such as Sarzana, Ventimiglia, Levanto, found themselves at various times under the direct sovereignty of the bank."—J. T. Bent, *Genoa*, ch. 11.—See also GENOA: 1407-1448.

14th-15th centuries.—Barcelona.—Its claim to first bank of deposit.—"One of the most important cities on the Mediterranean in the Fourteenth Century was Barcelona in Spain. . . . Previous to the year 1349 the drapers of Barcelona, probably among its most opulent and substantial citizens, had evidently carried on the business of banking and exchanging money, very much as the rich merchants of Venice and Florence had done, and as the goldsmiths at a later period did in London; for, by an order of the King of Aragon, the Barcelonian drapers were in 1349 obliged to give security before being allowed to undertake such business. In 1401 the magistrates of Barcelona established a bank of exchange and deposit, called *Taula de cambi* (Table of exchange), secured by the funds of the city, with the intention of extending the accommodation afforded by it to foreigners as well as citizens. . . . It appears from records still extant that foreign bills of exchange were habitually negotiated at the Bank of Barcelona, and that assistance was given to manufacturers in the purchase of raw material, such as English wool, etc. By all accounts, therefore, the Bank of Barcelona financed and facilitated business much more in the manner of the bank of the present day than did any other public institution of the Renaissance period. Spanish writers claim that it was the very first establishment of its kind in Europe, while Hallam remarks that 'The earliest bank of deposit instituted for the accommodation of private merchants is said to have been that of Barcelona in 1401.' The creditors of Genoa were at that time not yet incorporated as a banking company."—W. H. Bayles and F. Allaben, *History of the origin and development of banks and banking and of banks and banking in the City of New York* (*Journal of American History*, July-Sept., 1920).

MODERN

16th-17th centuries.—Monetary effects of the discovery of America.—"From 1402, the year of the discovery of the New World, to 1500, it is doubtful whether [the mines of Mexico and Peru] . . . yielded on an average a prey of more than 1,500,000 francs (£60,000) a year. From 1500 to 1545, if we add to the treasure produced from the mines the amount of plunder found in the capital of the Montezumas, Tenochtitlan (now the city of Mexico), as well as in the temples and palaces of the kingdom of the Incas, the gold and silver drawn

from America did not exceed an average of sixteen million francs (£6,400,000) a year. From 1545, the scene changes. In one of the gloomiest deserts on the face of the globe, in the midst of the rugged and inhospitable mountain scenery of Upper Peru, chance revealed to a poor Indian, who was guarding a flock of llamas, a mine of silver of incomparable richness. A crowd of miners was instantly attracted by the report of the rich deposits of ore spread over the sides of this mountain of Potosi—a name which for euphony the European nations have since changed to Potosi. The exportation of the precious metals from America to Europe now rose rapidly to an amount which equalled, weight for weight, sixty millions of francs (£2,400,000) of our day, and it afterwards rose even to upwards of eighty millions. At that time such a mass of gold and silver represented a far greater amount of riches than at present. Under the influence of so extraordinary a supply, the value of these precious metals declined in Europe, in comparison with every other production of human industry, just as would be the case with iron or lead, if mines were discovered which yielded those metals in superabundance, as compared with their present consumption, and at a much less cost of labour than previously, just in fact as occurs in the case of manufactures of every kind, whenever, by improved processes, or from natural causes of a novel kind, they can be produced in unusual quantities, and at a great reduction of cost. This fall in the value of gold and silver, in comparison with all other productions, revealed itself by the increased quantity of coined metal which it was necessary to give in exchange for the generality of other articles. And it was thus that the working of the mines of America had necessarily for effect a general rise of prices, in other words, it made all other commodities dearer. The fall in the value of the precious metals, or that which means the same thing, the general rise of prices, does not appear to have been very great, out of Spain, till after the middle of the 16th century. Shortly after the commencement of the 17th century, the effects of the productiveness of the new mines and of the diminished cost of working them were realised in all parts of Europe. For the silver, which had been extracted in greater proportion than the gold, and on more favourable terms, the fall in value had been in the proportion of 1 to 3. In transactions where previously one pound of silver, or a coin containing a given quantity of this metal, had sufficed, henceforth three were required. . . . After having been arrested for awhile in this downward course, and even after having witnessed for a time a tendency to an upward movement, the fall in the value of the precious metals, and the corresponding rise in prices, resumed their course, under the influence of the same causes, until towards the end of the 18th century, without however manifesting their influence so widely or intensely as had been witnessed after the first development of the great American mines. We find, as the result, that during the first half of the 19th century, the value of silver fell to about the sixth of what it was before the discovery of America, when compared with the price of corn."—M. Chevalier, *On the probable fall in the value of gold* (tr. by Cobden), *sect. 1, ch. 1*.—See also EUROPE: Modern; Expansion, etc.

1558-1603.—England: Currency reforms under Elizabeth. See ENGLAND: 1558-1603: Age of Elizabeth: Industrial regulations, etc.

16th-19th centuries.—Banks of Amsterdam, Hamburg and Nuremberg.—"The Bank of Amsterdam was established in 1609 to meet the needs of the merchants of that city, which had become

the center of the international trade of Europe, and to correct the disorders of private banking, especially those growing out of the accumulation of promiscuous and light weight coins received in the extensive foreign trade of the Dutch. The Bank of Amsterdam accepted all kinds of specie on deposit, crediting the depositors with its real value in standard coin. These deposits could be withdrawn at will or transferred on the bank's books from one person to another. The credits given for these deposits of coin or bullion came to be known as 'bank money' and commanded a premium over the debased and mutilated coins in circulation. . . . For generations this bank money constituted the basis of the large foreign exchange of Amsterdam. With the establishment of 'giro' or transfer banks at Hamburg in 1619, and at Nuremberg in 1621, these written orders came to be used in much the same way as the modern check and were widely employed. These early transfer banks did not make loans or incur any liability beyond the coin and bullion deposits."—J. T. Holdsworth, *Money and banking*, pp. 123-124.—See also BANK OF AMSTERDAM.

17th century.—Indian money used in American colonies.—Sea shells, strung or embroidered on belts and garments, formed the "wampum" which was the money of the North American Indians (see WAMPUM). "Tradition gives to the Narragansetts the honor of inventing these valued articles, valuable both for use and exchange. This tribe was one of the most powerful, and it is asserted that their commercial use of wampum gave them their best opportunities of wealth. The Long Island Indians manufactured the beads in large quantities and then were forced to pay them away in tribute to the Mohawks and the fiercer tribes of the interior. Furs were readily exchanged for these trinkets, which carried a permanent value, through the constancy of the Indian desire for them. The holder of wampum always compelled trade to come to him. After the use of wampum was established in colonial life, contracts were made payable at will in wampum, beaver, or silver. . . . The use began in New England in 1627. It was a legal tender until 1661, and for more than three quarters of a century the wampum was current in small transactions. For more than a century, indeed, this currency entered into the intercourse of Indian and colonist. . . . Labor is a chief factor in civilized society and the labor of the Indian was made available through wampum. As Winthrop shows, 10,000 beaver skins annually came to the Dutch from the Great Lake. The chase was the primitive form of Indian industry and furs were the most conspicuous feature of foreign trade, as gold is to-day, but wampum played a much larger part in the vital trade of the time. Wampum, or the things it represented, carried deer meat and Indian corn to the New England men. Corn and pork went for fish; fish went for West India rum, molasses, and the silver which Europe coveted. West India products, or the direct exchange of fish with the Catholic countries of Europe, brought back the goods needed to replenish and extend colonial industries and trade. . . . As long as the natives were active and furs were plenty, there appears to have been no difficulty in passing any quantity of wampum in common with other currencies. The Bay annulled its statutes, making the beads a legal tender in 1661. Rhode Island and Connecticut followed this example soon after. . . . New York continued the beads in circulation longer than the regular use prevailed in New England. In 1693 they were recognized in the definite rates of the Brooklyn ferry. They continued to be circulated

in the more remote districts of New England through the century, and even into the beginning of the eighteenth."—W. B. Weeden, *Indian money as a factor in New England civilization*, pp. 5-30.—See also LOUISIANA: 1699-1763.

17th century.—Colonial coinage in America.—“The earliest coinage for America is said to have been executed in 1612, when the Virginia Company was endeavoring to establish a Colony on the Summer Islands (the Bermudas). This coin was of the denomination of a shilling and was struck in brass.” The “pine-tree” money of Massachusetts “was instituted by the Colonial Assembly in 1652, after the fall of Charles I. . . . This coinage was not discontinued until 1686; yet they appear to have continued the use of the same date, the shillings, sixpences, and threepences all bearing the date 1652, while the twopenny pieces are all dated 1662. . . . After the suppression of their mint, the Colony of Massachusetts issued no more coins until after the establishment of the Confederacy. . . . The silver coins of Lord Baltimore, Lord Proprietor of Maryland, were the shilling, sixpence, and fourpence, or groat.”—J. R. Snowden, *Description of ancient and modern coins*, pp. 85-87.—See PINE TREE MONEY.

17th-18th centuries.—Bank of Sweden (the Riksbank).—“The first bank of issue was the Bank of Sweden, founded as a private institution in 1656, but converted into a public bank in 1668.”—J. T. Holdsworth, *Money and banking*, p. 124.

17th-18th centuries.—Banking in Great Britain.—Origin and influence of Bank of England.—“In the reign of William old men were still living who could remember the days when there was not a single banking house in the city of London. So late as the time of the Restoration every trader had his own strong box in his own house, and, when an acceptance was presented to him, told down the crowns and Caroluses on his own counter. But the increase of wealth had produced its natural effect, the subdivision of labour. Before the end of the reign of Charles II. a new mode of paying and receiving money had come into fashion among the merchants of the capital. A class of agents arose, whose office was to keep the cash of the commercial houses. This new branch of business naturally fell into the hands of the goldsmiths, who were accustomed to traffic largely in the precious metals, and who had vaults in which great masses of bullion could lie secure from fire and from robbers. It was at the shops of the goldsmiths of Lombard Street that all the payments in coin were made. Other traders gave and received nothing but paper. This great change did not take place without much opposition and clamour. . . . No sooner had banking become a separate and important trade, than men began to discuss with earnestness the question whether it would be expedient to erect a national bank. . . . Two public banks had long been renowned throughout Europe, the Bank of Saint George at Genoa, and the Bank of Amsterdam. . . . Why should not the Bank of London be as great and as durable as the Banks of Genoa and Amsterdam? Before the end of the reign of Charles II. several plans were proposed, examined, attacked and defended. Some pamphleteers maintained that a national bank ought to be under the direction of the King. Others thought that the management ought to be entrusted to the Lord Mayor, Alderman and Common Council of the capital. After the Revolution the subject was discussed with an animation before unknown. . . . A crowd of plans, some of which resemble the fancies of a child or the dreams of a man in a fever, were pressed on

the government. Pre-eminently conspicuous among the political mountebanks, whose busy faces were seen every day in the lobby of the House of Commons, were John Briscoe and Hugh Chamberlayne, two projectors worthy to have been members of that Academy which Gulliver found at Lagado. These men affirmed that the one cure for every distemper of the State was a Land Bank. A Land Bank would work for England miracles such as had never been wrought for Israel. . . . These blessed effects the Land Bank was to produce simply by issuing enormous quantities of notes on landed security. The doctrine of the projectors was that every person who had real property ought to have, besides the property, paper money to the full value of that property. Thus, if his estate was worth two thousand pounds, he ought to have his estate and two thousand pounds in paper money. Both Briscoe and Chamberlayne treated with the greatest contempt the notion that there could be an over-issue of paper as long as there was, for every ten pound note, a piece of land in the country worth ten pounds. . . . All the projectors of this busy time, however, were not so absurd as Chamberlayne. One among them, William Paterson, was an ingenious, though not always a judicious speculator. Of his early life little is known except that he was a native of Scotland, and that he had been in the West Indies. . . . This man submitted to the government, in 1691, a plan of a national bank; and his plan was favourably received both by statesmen and by merchants. But years passed away; and nothing was done, till, in the spring of 1694, it became absolutely necessary to find some new mode of defraying the charges of the war. Then at length the scheme devised by the poor and obscure Scottish adventurer was taken up in earnest by Montague [Charles Montague, then one of the lords of the treasury and subsequently chancellor of the exchequer]. With Montague was closely allied Michael Godfrey. . . . Michael was one of the ablest, most upright and most opulent of the merchant princes of London. . . . By these two distinguished men Paterson's scheme was fathered. Montague undertook to manage the House of Commons, Godfrey to manage the City. An approving vote was obtained from the Committee of Ways and Means; and a bill, the title of which gave occasion to many sarcasms, was laid on the table. It was indeed not easy to guess that a bill, which purported only to impose a new duty on tonnage for the benefit of such persons as should advance money towards carrying on the war, was really a bill creating the greatest commercial institution that the world had ever seen. The plan was that £1,200,000 should be borrowed by the government on what was then considered as the moderate interest of eight per cent. In order to induce capitalists to advance the money promptly on terms so favourable to the public, the subscribers were to be incorporated by the name of the Governor and the Company of the Bank of England. The corporation was to have no exclusive privilege, and was to be restricted from trading in any thing but bills of exchange, bullion and forfeited pledges. As soon as the plan became generally known, a paper war broke out. . . . All the goldsmiths and pawnbrokers set up a howl of rage. Some discontented Tories predicted ruin to the monarchy. . . . Some discontented Whigs, on the other hand, predicted ruin to our liberties. . . . The power of the purse, the one great security for all the rights of Englishmen, will be transferred from the House of Commons to the Governor and Directors of the new Company. This last consideration was really of some weight, and was al-

lowed to be so by the authors of the bill. A clause was therefore most properly inserted which inhibited the Bank from advancing money to the Crown without authority from Parliament. Every infraction of this salutary rule was to be punished by forfeiture of three times the sum advanced; and it was provided that the King should not have power to remit any part of the penalty. The plan, thus amended, received the sanction of the Commons more easily than might have been expected from the violence of the adverse clamour. In truth, the Parliament was under duress. Money must be had, and could in no other way be had so easily. . . . The bill, however, was not safe when it had reached the Upper House," but it was passed, and received the royal assent. "In the City the success of Montague's plan was complete. It was then at

faults of the country, rendered an inestimable service to his party. During several generations the Bank of England was emphatically a Whig body. It was Whig, not accidentally, but necessarily. It must have instantly stopped payment if it had ceased to receive the interest on the sum which it had advanced to the government; and of that interest James would not have paid one farthing."—T. B. Macaulay, *History of England*, ch. 20.—"For a long time the Bank of England was the focus of London Liberalism, and in that capacity rendered to the States inestimable services. In return for these substantial benefits the Bank of England received from the Government, either at first or afterwards, three most important privileges First. The Bank of England had the exclusive possession of the Government balances. In its first



BANK OF ENGLAND, LONDON

Present building, 1923

In the Poultry, 1694-1734

Taylor's first extension, Threadneedle Street

least as difficult to raise a million at eight per cent. as it would now be to raise forty millions at four per cent. It had been supposed that contributions would drop in very slowly; and a considerable time had therefore been allowed by the Act. This indulgence was not needed. So popular was the new investment that on the day on which the books were opened £300,000 were subscribed; £300,000 more were subscribed during the next 48 hours; and, in ten days, to the delight of all the friends of the government, it was announced that the list was full. The whole sum which the Corporation was bound to lend to the State was paid into the Exchequer before the first instalment was due. Somers gladly put the Great Seal to a charter framed in conformity with the terms prescribed by Parliament; and the Bank of England commenced its operations in the house of the Company of Grocers. . . . It soon appeared that Montague had, by skilfully availing himself of the financial dif-

period . . . the Bank gave credit to the Government, but afterwards it derived credit from the Government. There is a natural tendency in men to follow the example of the Government under which they live. The Government is the largest, most important, and most conspicuous entity with which the mass of any people are acquainted; its range of knowledge must always be infinitely greater than the average of their knowledge, and therefore, unless there is a conspicuous warning to the contrary, most men are inclined to think their Government right, and, when they can, to do what it does. Especially in money matters a man might fairly reason—"If the Government is right in trusting the Bank of England with the great balance of the nation, I cannot be wrong in trusting it with my little balance." Second. The Bank of England had, till lately, the monopoly of limited liability in England. The common law of England knows nothing of any such principle. It is only

possible by Royal Charter or Statute Law. And by neither of these was any real bank . . . permitted with limited liability in England till within these few years. . . . Thirdly. The Bank of England had the privilege of being the sole joint stock company permitted to issue bank notes in England. Private London bankers did indeed issue notes down to the middle of the last century, but no joint stock company could do so. The explanatory clause of the Act of 1742 sounds most curiously to our modern ears. . . . 'It is the true intent and meaning of the said Act that no other bank shall be created, established, or allowed by Parliament, and that it shall not be lawful for any body politic or corporate whatsoever created or to be created, or for any other persons whatsoever united or to be united in covenants or partnership exceeding the number of six persons in that part of Great Britain called England, to borrow, owe, or take up any sum or sums of money on their bills or notes payable on demand or at any less time than six months from the borrowing thereof during the continuance of such said privilege to the said governor and company, who are hereby declared to be and remain a corporation with the privilege of exclusive banking, as before recited.' To our modern ears these words seem to mean more than they did. The term banking was then applied only to the issue of notes and the taking up of money on bills on demand. Our present system of deposit banking, in which no bills or promissory notes are issued, was not then known on a great scale, and was not called banking. But its effect was very important. It in time gave the Bank of England the monopoly of the note issue of the Metropolis. It had at that time no branches, and so it did not compete for the country circulation. But in the Metropolis, where it did compete, it was completely victorious. No company but the Bank of England could issue notes, and unincorporated individuals gradually gave way, and ceased to do so. Up to 1844 London private bankers might have issued notes if they pleased, but almost a hundred years ago they were forced out of the field. The Bank of England had so long had a practical monopoly of the circulation, that it is commonly believed always to have had a legal monopoly. And the practical effect of the clause went further: it was believed to make the Bank of England the only joint stock company that could receive deposits, as well as the only company that could issue notes. The gift of 'exclusive banking' to the Bank of England was read in its most natural modern sense: it was thought to prohibit any other banking company from carrying on our present system of banking. After joint stock banking was permitted in the country, people began to inquire why it should not exist in the Metropolis too? And then it was seen that the words I have quoted only forbid the issue of negotiable instruments, and not the receiving of money when no such instrument is given. Upon this construction, the London and Westminster Bank and all our older joint stock banks were founded. But till they began, the Bank of England had among companies not only the exclusive privilege of note issue, but that of deposit banking too. It was in every sense the only banking company in London. With so many advantages over all competitors, it is quite natural that the Bank of England should have far out-stripped them all. . . . All the other bankers grouped themselves round it, and lodged their reserve with it. Thus our one-reserve system of banking was not deliberately founded upon definite reasons; it was the gradual consequence of many singular events, and of an accumulation of legal privileges on a single bank

which has now been altered, and which no one would now defend. . . . For more than a century after its creation (notwithstanding occasional errors) the Bank of England, in the main, acted with judgment and with caution. Its business was but small as we should now reckon, but for the most part it conducted that business with prudence and discretion. In 1696, it had been involved in the most serious difficulties, and had been obliged to refuse to pay some of its notes. For a long period it was in wholesome dread of public opinion, and the necessity of retaining public confidence made it cautious. But the English Government removed that necessity. In 1797, Mr. Pitt feared that he might not be able to obtain sufficient specie for foreign payments, in consequence of the low state of the Bank reserve, and he therefore required the Bank not to pay in cash. He removed the preservative apprehension which is the best security of all Banks. For this reason the period under which the Bank of England did not pay gold for its notes—the period from 1797 to 1819—is always called the period of the Bank 'restriction.' As the Bank during that period did not perform, and was not compelled by law to perform, its contract of paying its notes in cash, it might apparently have been well called the period of Bank license. But the word 'restriction' was quite right, and was the only proper word as a description of the policy of 1797. [See ENGLAND: 1797.] Mr. Pitt did not say that the Bank of England need not pay its notes in specie; he 'restricted' them from doing so; he said that they must not. In consequence, from 1797 to 1844 (when a new era begins), there never was a proper caution on the part of the Bank directors. At heart they considered that the Bank of England had a kind of charmed life, and that it was above the ordinary banking anxiety to pay its way. And this feeling was very natural."—W. Bagehot, *Lombard street*, ch. 3-4.—See also BANK OF ENGLAND; BANK OF IRELAND; CAPITALISM: 18th century: England; NETHERLANDS: 1640-1665.

ALSO IN: J. W. Gilbert, *History and principles of banking*.—H. May, *Bank of England (Fortnightly Review, Mar., 1885)*.

17th-18th centuries.—Early paper issues and banks in American colonies.—"Previous to the Revolutionary War paper money was issued to a greater or less extent by each one of the thirteen colonies. The first issue was by Massachusetts in 1690, to aid in fitting out the expedition against Canada. Similar issues had been made by New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey, previous to the year 1711. South Carolina began to emit bills in 1712, Pennsylvania in 1723, Maryland in 1734, Delaware in 1730, Virginia in 1755, and Georgia in 1760. Originally the issues were authorized to meet the necessities of the colonial treasuries. In Massachusetts, in 1715, as a remedy for the prevailing embarrassment of trade, a land bank was proposed with the right to issue circulating notes secured by land. . . . The plan for the land bank was defeated, but the issue of paper money by the treasury was authorized to the extent of £50,000, to be loaned on good mortgages in sums of not more than £500, nor less than £50, to one person. The rate of interest was five per cent., payable with one-fifth of the principal annually. . . . In 1733 an issue of bills to the amount of £110,000 was made by the merchants of Boston, which were to be redeemed at the end of ten years, in silver, at the rate of 10 shillings per ounce. In 1730, the commercial and financial embarrassment still continuing, another land bank was started in Massachusetts. . . . A specie bank was also formed in 1739, by Edward Hutchinson and others, which

issued bills to the amount of £120,000, redeemable in fifteen years in silver, at 20 shillings per ounce, or gold pro rata. The payment of these notes was guaranteed by wealthy and responsible merchants. These notes, and those of a similar issue in 1733, were largely hoarded and did not pass generally into circulation. In 1740 Parliament passed a bill to extend the act of 1720, known as the bubble act, to the American colonies, with the intention of breaking up all companies formed for the purpose of issuing paper money. Under this act both the land bank and the specie bank were forced to liquidate their affairs, though not without some resistance on the part of the former. . . . The paper money of the colonies, whether issued by them or by the loan banks, depreciated almost without exception as the amounts in circulation increased. . . . The emission of bills by the colonies and the banks was not regarded with favor by the mother country, and the provincial governors were as a general thing opposed to these issues. They were consequently frequently embroiled with their legislatures."—J. J. Knox, *United States notes*, pp. 1-5.—See also U. S. A.: 1765: Stamp Act.

1703-1915.—Austria.—First bank.—Bank of the City of Vienna.—National bank of Austria.—Relations with the government.—Austro-Hungarian bank.—"The first important banking institution in Austria seems to have been created at Vienna by a decree of June 16, 1703, with a capital of 7,000,000 florins (\$3,500,000). It was created for the purpose of rescuing the government from the evils of a debased currency which even then existed, but was authorized to receive the deposits of individuals, like the similar establishments of Venice, Hamburg, and Amsterdam. It was essentially a governmental institution and was formed, like the Bank of Venice, for the funding of the public debt, which was to be accomplished by an annual levy upon the receipts of the Treasury for the security and retirement of the mandates or *asogni* which the new establishment was authorized to issue. The experiment was not successful. The government was unable in the involved state of the finances to make the annual payments to which it was pledged and the mandates issued by the bank were received very reluctantly into the monetary circulation. The government finally turned the institution over to the City of Vienna and it took the name of the Bank of the City of Vienna. The transformation did not save it. The bank suspended operations in drafts on private account in order to devote its entire resources to refunding, but the expected means for this work failed and the bank went into liquidation at the expense of its depositors and shareholders. No further attempt was made to establish a national bank for over a century. . . . The distrust and business paralysis caused by these repeated paper issues [of the Napoleonic period] and the necessity of raising money to carry on the government led to the creation of the National Bank of Austria. . . . A party of capitalists was formed after some delay and the statutes of the National Bank of Austria received the Imperial approval on July 15, 1817. The bank was accorded for twenty-five years the exclusive privilege of note issues, was exempted from the stamp taxes, and was authorized to accept deposits and discount commercial paper. . . . The uprising in Hungary in 1848, the Crimean War, and the Italian struggle which resulted in Austrian defeat at Magenta and Solferino, imposed new charges upon the Austrian government and did much to upset the work of the bank during the thirty years of peace from 1816 to 1846. The bank had proceeded so rapidly with the conversion

of the government paper money as to endanger its own security and alarming runs were threatened in 1831, and again in 1840, which were only averted by the help of the government and in the latter case by a loan of coin from the private banks of Vienna. The charter of the bank expired in 1842, but the Emperor signed a patent renewing its privileges, with some modifications, until December 31, 1866. . . . The bank at the end of the year 1847 possessed a metallic reserve of 70,240,000 florins (\$35,000,000) and maintained a circulation of 213,000 florins. The outbreak of the revolution in Hungary brought the bill-holders in crowds to the bank for the redemption of the notes and the coin reserve shrunk in a few days to 35,023,030 florins. The directors were seized with panic and secured from the government the decree of June 20, 1848, authorizing the bank to suspend specie payments and giving forced legal tender character to its notes. . . . The credit of the bank began to sink with that of the government and the depreciation of the bills in the middle of 1849 to about half their nominal value alarmed the administration and led to a solemn declaration that no more loans should be demanded from the bank and that the existing debt should be adjusted and consolidated. The history of the thirteen years from 1848 to 1861 is the history of the disregard of this pledge and of repeated loans negotiated through the bank in spite of continual efforts to refund the debt and reduce its proportions. . . . The attempt to resume specie payments seemed upon the eve of success in 1850. A monetary convention was concluded January 24, 1857, with the view to securing a uniform currency throughout Germany, by which the contracting parties, of which Austria was one, were to issue no more legal tender paper after January 1, 1859, which was not redeemable in coin on demand. An Imperial ordinance of April 30, 1858, prepared the way for resumption by providing that after November 1st of the same year one-third of the new bills should be covered by coin or bullion and that the other two-thirds should be represented in the assets of the bank by securities or commercial paper. An arrangement was also concluded between the government and the bank for the retirement of 100,000,000 florins in small notes by the pledge of the domains of the State. War with Italy upset these carefully laid plans and on April 29, 1859, the bank was again released from the obligation of coin redemption, and the government appealed to it for a loan of 200,000,000 florins. This was met, to two-thirds of its face value, by the issue of bank-notes entirely in denominations of five florins (\$2.50). . . . The approach of the termination of the privileges of the bank led to an earnest discussion, which resulted in the law of December 27, 1862, remodelling the charter of the institution and its relations with the government. The government proposed the renewal of the charter until 1890; the finance committee of the elective chamber proposed 1880. The subject was referred to a mixed committee of both chambers, which finally fixed the limit at December 31, 1876. The privileges of the bank were broadened from time to time until 1877, when the law of December 20th, terminating the commercial treaties, provided also that the ministry should conclude an arrangement with the bank extending its privileges until March 20, 1878. A subsequent act made the limit May 31, 1878, and one month later the National Bank of Austria was fused with the Austro-Hungarian Bank. . . . The officials of the bank regarded their interest as fully protected in both Austria and Hungary by the law of 1862, but the bank soon found its rights in Hungary called in

question and sought a new arrangement which would place them beyond attack. The Hungarian Diet passed a vote early in 1870, promising recognition to the bank until the expiration of its privileges in 1870, if the bank would consent to a payment to Hungary in the same proportion as that made to Austria, and if it would establish at Buda-Pesth an independent directorate for Hungary. The bank was willing to make a payment of 4,500,000 florins, but this was not acceptable to the Hungarian cabinet and the privileges of the bank approached expiration without an agreement. The Imperial government then brought forward a plan for terminating the existence of the National Bank of Austria and substituting in its place a new institution to be known as the Austro-Hungarian Bank [already referred to]. The proposition became law and the new institution was established for a term beginning July 1, 1878, and ending December 31, 1887. The charter was afterwards renewed for a period of ten years ending on December 31, 1897. The new bank succeeded to all the transactions of the old and a directorate was established at Buda-Pesth and a sum of 50,000,000 florins (\$25,000,000) set aside for discounts and advances in Hungary. . . . The number of branches of the Austro-Hungarian Bank had risen in 1907 to 46 in Austria and 33 in Hungary, outside the principal establishments at Vienna and Buda-Pesth. The bank at Buda-Pesth has been rapidly gaining in recent years [written in 1915] in volume of business over the bank at Vienna, and the development of Hungary from a purely agricultural to an industrial country has created a jealousy which is among the causes threatening to the perpetuation of the bank in its dual form."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, pp. 220, 223-229, 232-233, 248.

1768-1904.—Russia.—Attempts to reduce burden of paper money.—Bank of Russia.—"Paper money was introduced into Russia as early as 1768, and was welcomed at first because of its greater convenience than the copper money of which it was the representative. The pretext was maintained for a time that the paper was simply the coined certificate for the copper, and the notes, which were known as *assignats*, were at a slight premium. Bureaus were established at St. Petersburg, Moscow, and in the provinces for the redemption of the paper, which may be considered forerunners of the Bank of Russia. . . . The four most serious efforts to rescue the monetary system of the country from the mire of irredeemable paper were made in 1817, 1830, 1860, and 1881. The first attempt was made by means of loans placed both abroad and at home, of which a part of the proceeds was to be applied to the retirement of the paper circulation. . . . The government made the second effort to reduce the volume of paper money by a decree of July 1, 1830, that the paper roubles should be valued at three and a half to a rouble of silver and that a new form of paper should be substituted in this proportion. The new paper was to be known as bills of credit and was to be redeemable in silver and secured by the public domain. The exchange of the *assignats* for the new bills was ordered to take place on June 1, 1843, and a pledge was given to the business community for the credit of the new paper by depositing in the citadel of St. Petersburg in December, 1844, a metallic reserve of 70,464,245 roubles (\$54,000,000), which was to be under the control of twenty-four members of the stock exchange. . . . The third attempt to extricate the Empire from the evils of a debased monetary standard was connected with the estab-

lishment of the Bank of Russia in substantially the form in which it existed from 1860 to 1894. The statutes of the bank were established by a decree of May 26, 1860, and the reserves of several older banking establishments were turned into its coffers and it assumed their engagements. The original capital was 15,000,000 roubles (\$12,700,000) and the declared object of the bank was to consolidate the credit circulation and the floating debt of the Empire. . . . The bank was entrusted in 1862 with the mission of buying lands for the peasants and was aided by the deposit of the Treasury funds free of interest. . . . A supplementary issue of 96,000,000 roubles in 1879, with the famine and arrest of exports, caused a crisis in 1880 which reduced the revenues of the government and the railway receipts, in spite of high paper prices, and caused the rapid fall of the coin value of the rouble. The change of ministry which resulted from the crisis brought into power M. Abasa, who at once announced a plan for reimbursing the debt of the government to the bank. A ukase of January 1, 1881, ordered that the Treasury pay to the bank without delay a sum sufficient to reduce to 400,000,000 roubles the debt to the bank on account of disbursements for the government; that the remainder of the debt (400,000,000 roubles) be funded by annual payments of 50,000,000 roubles by the Treasury to the bank; that bills of credit be destroyed to the extent of their accumulation in the hands of the bank and with due regard to the needs of the circulation. . . . The statutes of the Bank of Russia were submitted to a complete revision in 1894 and an effort was made to make the bank of greater assistance than before in the promotion of industry and commerce. . . . A more serious test of the stability of the monetary system came with the Russo-Japanese War in 1904. . . . The Bank of Russia raised its discount rate early in 1904 from four and a half to five and a half per cent., but announced that, without encouraging speculation, it would extend generous accommodation to solvent borrowers and would re-discount freely for the private banks."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, pp. 251-257, 260, 271.—See also RUSSIA: 1017-1020: Bolshevik finance; RUSSIA, SOVIET CONSTITUTION OF.

1775-1780.—Continental currency of American Revolution.—"The colonies . . . went into the Revolutionary War, many of them with paper already in circulation, all of them making issues for the expenses of military preparations. The Continental Congress, having no power to tax, and its members being accustomed to paper issues as the ordinary form of public finance, began to issue bills on the faith of the 'Continent,' Franklin earnestly approving. The first issue was for 300,000 Spanish dollars, redeemable in gold or silver, in three years, ordered in May and issued in August, 1775. Paper for nine million dollars was issued before any depreciation began. The issues of the separate colonies must have affected it, but the popular enthusiasm went for something. Pelatiah Webster, almost alone as it seems, insisted on taxation, but a member of Congress indignantly asked if he was to help tax the people when they could go to the printing-office and get a cartload of money. In 1776, when the depreciation began, Congress took harsh measures to try to sustain the bills. Committees of safety also took measures to punish those who 'forestalled' or 'engrossed,' these being the terms for speculators who bought up for a rise."—W. G. Sumner, *History of American currency*, pp. 43-44.—"During the summer of

1780 this wretched 'Continental' currency fell into contempt. As Washington said, it took a wagon-load of money to buy a wagon-load of provisions. At the end of the year 1778, the paper dollar was worth sixteen cents in the northern states and twelve cents in the south. Early in 1780 its value had fallen to two cents, and before the end of the year it took ten paper dollars to make a cent. In October, Indian corn sold wholesale in Boston for \$150 a busbel, butter was \$12 a pound, tea \$90, sugar \$10, beef \$8, coffee \$12, and a barrel of flour cost \$1,575. Samuel Adams paid \$2,000 for a hat and suit of clothes. The money soon ceased to circulate, debts could not be collected, and there was a general prostration of credit. To say that a thing was 'worth a Continental' became the strongest possible expression of contempt."—J. Fiske, *American Revolution*, v. 2, ch. 13.—Before the close of the year 1780, the Continental currency had ceased to circulate. Attempts were subsequently made to have it funded or redeemed, but without success. "During the Revolutionary period metallic money remained in the confusion of the colonial period. Various foreign coins circulated side by side, as the English guinea, crown, and shilling; the French guinea, pistole, and crown; the Spanish pistole; and the johannes, half-johannes, and moidore; and unequal values were given in different parts of the Union to coins of the same intrinsic worth, thus affording opportunity for clipping and fraudulent change. Various units of account were employed in different sections of the country, which tended to obscure a clear understanding of the economic conditions of the several States. The Articles of Confederation when they went into effect in 1781 did not contribute much to remove the complications, for, though Congress had power to regulate the alloy and value of coins struck either by its authority or by that of the State, the right to coin money was still retained by the State."—D. R. Dewey, *Financial history of the United States*, p. 101.—See also U. S. A.: 1780 (January-April).

ALSO IN: H. Phillips, Jr., *Historical sketches of American paper currency*, 2nd series.

1780-1784.—**Pennsylvania Bank, Bank of North America and Bank of New York.**—"The Pennsylvania Bank, which was organized in Philadelphia during the Revolutionary War, was founded for the purpose of facilitating the operations of the Government in transporting supplies for the army. It began its useful work in 1780, and continued in existence until after the close of the war; finally closing its affairs toward the end of the year 1784. But the need was felt of a national bank which should not only aid the Government on a large scale by its money and credit, but should extend facilities to individuals, and thereby benefit the community as well as the state. Through the influence and exertion of Robert Morris, then Superintendent of Finance for the United States, the Bank of North America, at Philadelphia, was organized with a capital of \$400,000. [See also BANK OF NORTH AMERICA.] It was incorporated by Congress in December, 1781, and by the State of Pennsylvania a few months afterward. Its success was immediate and complete. It not only rendered valuable and timely aid to the United States Government and to the State of Pennsylvania, but it greatly assisted in restoring confidence and credit to the commercial community, and afforded facilities to private enterprise that were especially welcome. . . . The success of the Bank of North America, and the advantages which the citizens of Philadelphia enjoyed from the facilities it offered them, naturally suggested the founding

of a similar enterprise in the city of New York." The Bank of New York was accordingly founded in 1784.—H. W. Domett, *History of the Bank of New York*, ch. 1.—See also U. S. A.: 1784.

ALSO IN: W. G. Sumner, *Financier and the finances of the American Revolution*, v. 2, ch. 17. 1782-1792.—**Establishment of the United States mint.**—"Several reports had been made on the subject of coinage. The first was by Robert Morris, January 15, 1782. . . . The subject of coinage was exhaustively considered by Hamilton in a report submitted to Congress in May, 1791, in which he stood for a unit expressed in both gold and silver. While gold was to be preferred to silver for certain reasons, he held that it was not safe to abridge the quantity of circulating medium by annulling the use of silver. He recommended that the mint ratio between gold and silver be 1 to 15,—a proportion corresponding to the bullion values at that time,—and proposed that the monetary unit consist of 24¾ grains of pure or 37¼ grains of pure silver, the amount of silver corresponding as nearly as could be determined with that of the Spanish dollar in actual circulation, 'each answering to a dollar in the money of account.' In accordance with this plan Hamilton recommended the coinage of ten dollar and one dollar gold pieces, one dollar and ten cent silver pieces, and one cent and one-half cent copper pieces. There is nothing whatever in Hamilton's report which countenances silver monometallism; gold as well as silver was recognized as an actual standard of value at the time, and Hamilton's efforts were directed to determining a ratio between gold and silver which should bring uniformity out of disorder occasioned by the silver coinage then current. The Mint Act of April 2, 1792, substantially followed the suggestions of Hamilton, omitting, however, any provision for the coinage of a gold dollar. . . . Because there was no distinct provision for the coinage of a gold dollar, it has been hastily concluded by advocates of silver coinage that the original unit of value was the silver dollar. The error has resulted from not observing that there are different kinds of units. The word unit as employed in the Mint Act refers to a unit of numbers, and not, as crudely interpreted, to a unit of value. The act of 1792 has indeed been given greater prominence than it deserves, for the currency question at that time did not arouse much interest. There was more discussion in Congress over the expense of establishing and maintaining a mint than there was over the ratio or the choice of metals."—D. R. Dewey, *Financial history of the United States*, p. 103.—See also U. S. A.: 1789-1792; RHODE ISLAND: 1783-1790.

1782-1904.—**Spain.—Growth of Bank of Spain.**—**Effect of Spanish-American War.**—"Spain had banks of deposit during her period of prosperity in the Middle Ages, some of which, like that at Barcelona, attained considerable celebrity. These institutions disappeared with the decadence of Spanish commerce and it remained for the modern age to witness a new development of banking. An attempt was made in the eighteenth century to establish institutions of credit, and the Bank of San Carlos, which was founded in 1782 at Madrid, was still in operation when the monopoly of the issue of circulating notes was given to the Bank of Spain in 1874. The Bank of Spain was founded in 1820, under the name of the Bank of San Fernando, but did not enjoy any special privileges outside of Madrid and the places where it had branches until 1856. It was at first a government bank and its name was changed at the time of

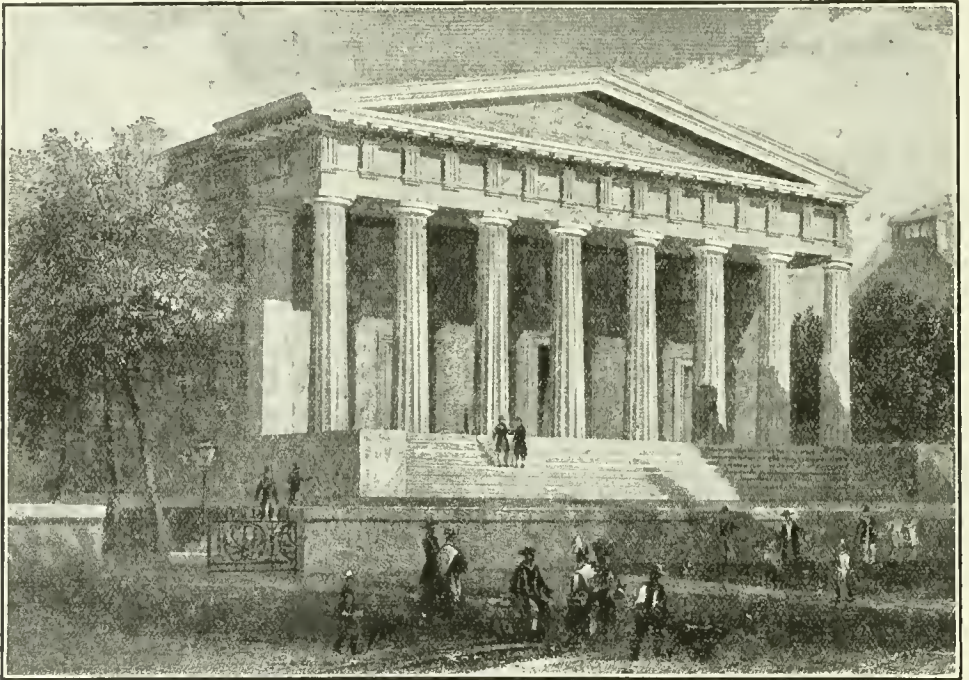
the new legislation to the Bank of Spain, but even after 1856 the right to incorporate other banks of issue remained in the hands of the government. Such banks had been established prior to 1856 by the consent of the public authorities in much the same manner as departmental banks might have been established in France before 1840. The legislation of January 8, 1856, was simply a first step in the direction of monopoly, like the similar legislation of France and Germany. This law prescribed that there should be not more than one bank of issue in any commercial city. The general provisions regarding the new banks limited their issues to three times their capital, obliged them to keep a coin reserve of at least one-third of their circulation, and fixed the minimum denomination of the notes at one hundred reals (\$5). The liberality of these provisions was impaired by leaving to the government the nomination of the governor of the Bank of Spain and of royal commissioners to manage the independent banks. The Bank of Spain had created up to 1863 only two branches, at Valencia and at Alicante, and there were independent banks at Cadiz, Barcelona, Seville, Malaga, Corunna, Santander, and Valladolid. The capital of the independent banks was not large, but in this respect it was commensurate with the volume of business in Spain. . . . The charter of the Bank of Spain was extended in 1856 for twenty-five years and was renewed in 1874 for thirty years. The law of March 10, 1874, conferred upon the bank the exclusive privilege of issuing notes and increased the capital from 132,000,000 reals (\$6,600,000) to 100,000,000 pesetas (\$20,000,000). All the existing provincial banks, then numbering eighteen, were ordered to liquidate their circulation and transfer it to the Bank of Spain. The bank is not a state institution and the state does not participate in its profits, but it had the authority, under the law of 1874, to require advances by the bank to the amount of 125,000,000 pesetas (\$25,000,000) upon the deposit of proper guarantees. The notes of the bank were made legal tender and limited to five times the capital. The capital was increased soon after the Act of 1874 to 150,000,000 pesetas (\$30,000,000), which carried the limit of circulation to 750,000,000 pesetas (\$150,000,000). The necessities of the Treasury led to a new revision of the charter by the law of July 14, 1891, and the extension of the privilege of the bank until December 31, 1921. The new charter authorizes the issue of notes to the amount of 1,500,000,000 pesetas (\$300,000,000) against a cash reserve of one-third, of which at least half is required to be kept in gold. . . . The fate of the bank has come to be bound up more and more with that of the state and it has been only by the bank's help that the Treasury was able to meet its engagements. The Treasury budget showed a persistent deficit, and a floating debt was incurred from 1885 to 1893 of 333,000,000 pesetas (\$66,000,000). . . . The commercial operations of the bank through its fifty-eight branches became subordinate to the issue of paper notes to cover advances to the state. . . . The recent history of the Bank of Spain is colored by the results of the war with the United States in 1898 and the efforts since made to restore order to Spanish finances. When war broke out, the Spanish government had already practically exhausted the credit of the country and of the bank. . . . Appeal was again made by the Treasury to the Bank of Spain, and the circulation was forced upward to 1,459,505,000 pesetas on February 11, 1899, after peace had been made with the United States, but while many war expenses were still

unpaid. During the war Paris exchange rose for a time above one hundred per cent.—a depreciation of fifty per cent. on the notes of the bank. . . . Contrary to the policy of other great state banks, the Bank of Spain did not co-operate heartily with the government in seeking to restore stability of exchange."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, pp. 312-315.

1789-1796.—*Assignats of French Revolution*.—"The financial embarrassments of the government in 1789 were extreme. Many taxes had ceased to be productive; the confiscated estates not only yielded no revenue but caused a large expense, and, as a measure of resource, the finance committee of the Assembly reported in favor of issues based upon the confiscated lands. But the bitter experience of France through the Mississippi schemes of John Law, 1719-21 [see FRANCE: 1717-1719; LOUISIANA: 1717-1718], made the Assembly and the nation hesitate. . . . Necker, the Minister, stood firm in his opposition to the issue of paper money, even as a measure of resource; but the steady pressure of fiscal exigencies, together with the influence of the fervid orators of the Assembly, gained a continually increasing support to the proposition of the committee. [See FRANCE: 1774-1788.] . . . The leaders of the Assembly were secretly actuated by a political purpose, viz., by widely distributing the titles to the confiscated lands (for such the paper money in effect was) to commit the thrifty middle class of France to the principles and measures of the revolution. . . . Oratory, the force of fiscal necessities, the half-confessed political design, prevailed at last over the warnings of experience; and a decree passed the Assembly authorizing an issue of notes to the value of four hundred million francs, on the security of the public lands. To emphasize this security the title of 'assignats' was applied to the paper. . . . The issue was made; the assignats went into circulation; and soon came the inevitable demand for more. . . . The decree for a further issue of eight hundred millions passed, September, 1790. Though the opponents of the issue had lost heart and voice, they still polled 423 votes against 508. To conciliate a minority still so large, contraction was provided for by requiring that the paper when paid into the Treasury should be burned, and the decree contained a solemn declaration that in no case should the amount exceed twelve hundred millions. June 10, 1791, the Assembly, against feeble resistance, violated this pledge and authorized a further issue of six hundred millions. Under the operation of Gresham's Law [see GRESHAM'S LAW], specie now began to disappear from circulation. . . . And now came the collapse of French industry. . . . 'Everything that tariffs and custom-houses could do was done. Still the great manufactories of Normandy were closed; those of the rest of the kingdom speedily followed, and vast numbers of workmen, in all parts of the country, were thrown out of employment. . . . In the spring of 1791 no one knew whether a piece of paper money, representing 100 francs, would, a month later, have a purchasing power of 100 francs, or 60 francs, or 80, or 60. The result was that capitalists declined to embark their means in business. Enterprise received a mortal blow. Demand for labor was still further diminished. The business of France dwindled into a mere living from hand to mouth.' . . . Towards the end of 1794 there had been issued 7,000 millions in assignats; by May, 1795, 10,000 millions; by the end of July, 16,000 millions; by the beginning of 1796, 45,000 millions, of which 36,000 millions were in actual circulation.

M. Bresson gives the following table of depreciation: 24 livres in coin were worth in assignats April 1, 1795, 238; May 1, 209; June 1, 439; July 1, 808; Aug. 1, 807; Sept. 1, 1,101; Oct. 1, 1,205; Nov. 1, 2,588; Dec. 1, 3,575; Jan. 1, 1796, 4,658; Feb. 1, 5,337. At the last 'an assignat professing to be worth 100 francs was commonly exchanged for 5 sous 6 deniers: in other words, a paper note professing to be worth £4 sterling passed current for less than 3d. in money.' The downward course of the assignats had unquestionably been accelerated by the extensive counterfeiting of the paper in Belgium, Switzerland, and England. . . . Now appears that last resort of finance under a depreciating paper: an issue under new names and new devices. . . . Territorial Mandates were ordered to be issued for assignats at 30:1, the mandates to be directly exchangeable for land,

minority, opposed the plan as unconstitutional, on the ground that the power of creating banks or any corporate body had not, been expressly delegated to Congress, and was therefore not possessed by it. Washington's cabinet was divided; Jefferson opposing the measure as not within the implied powers, because it was an expediency and not a paramount necessity. Later he used stronger language, and denounced the institution as 'one of the most deadly hostility existing against the principles and form of our Constitution,' nor did he ever abandon these views. There is the authority of Mr. Gallatin for saying that Jefferson 'died a decided enemy to our banking system generally, and specially to a bank of the United States.' But Hamilton's views prevailed. Washington, who in the weary years of war had seen the imperative necessity of some national organi-



FIRST BANK OF THE UNITED STATES, PHILADELPHIA

Chartered, 1791

at the will of the holder, on demand. . . . For a brief time after the first limited emission, the mandates rose as high as 80 per cent. of their nominal value; but soon additional issues sent them down even more rapidly than the assignats had fallen."—F. A. Walker, *Money*, pt. 2, ch. 16.

ALSO IN: A. D. White, *Paper-money inflation in France*.

1790-1816.—First Bank of the United States.—On the organization of the government of the United States, under its federal constitution, in 1789 and 1790, the lead in constructive statesmanship was taken, as is well known, by Alexander Hamilton. His plan "included a financial institution to develop the national resources, strengthen the public credit, aid the Treasury Department in its administration, and provide a secure and sound circulating medium for the people. On December 13, 1790, he sent into Congress a report on the subject of a national bank. [See U.S.A.: 1789-1792.] The Republican party, then in the

zation of the finances, after mature deliberation approved the plan, and on February 25, 1791, the Bank of the United States was incorporated. The capital stock was limited to twenty-five thousand shares of four hundred dollars each, or ten millions of dollars, payable one fourth in gold and silver, and three fourths in public securities bearing an interest of six and three per cent. The stock was immediately subscribed for, the government taking five thousand shares, two millions of dollars, under the right reserved in the charter. The subscription of the United States was paid in ten equal annual instalments. A large proportion of the stock was held abroad, and the shares soon rose above par. . . . Authority was given the bank to establish offices of discount and deposit within the United States. The chief bank was placed in Philadelphia and branches were established in eight cities, with capitals in proportion to their commercial importance. In 1800 the stockholders of the Bank of the United States me-

morialized the government for a renewal of their charter, which would expire on March 4, 1811; and on March 9, 1809, Mr. Gallatin sent in a report in which he reviewed the operations of the bank from its organization. Of the government shares, five million dollars at par, two thousand four hundred and ninety-three shares were sold in 1796 and 1797 at an advance of 25 per cent., two hundred and eighty-seven in 1797 at an advance of twenty per cent., and the remaining 2,220 shares in 1802, at an advance of 45 per cent., making together, exclusive of the dividends, a profit of \$671,080 to the United States. Eighteen thousand shares of the bank stock were held abroad, and seven thousand shares, or a little more than one fourth part of the capital, in the United States. A table of all the dividends made by the bank showed that they had on the average been at the rate of $8\frac{3}{8}$ (precisely $8\frac{3}{31}$) per cent. a year, which proved that the bank had not in any considerable degree used the public deposits for the purpose of extending its discounts. From a general view of the debits and credits, as presented, it appeared that the affairs of the Bank of the United States, considered as a moneyed institution, had been wisely and skilfully managed. The advantages derived by the government Mr. Gallatin stated to be, 1, safe-keeping of the public moneys; 2, transmission of the public moneys; 3, collection of the revenue; 4, loans. The strongest objection to the renewal of the charter lay in the great portion of the bank stock held by foreigners. Not on account of any influence over the institution, since they had no vote; but because of the high rate of interest payable by America to foreign countries. . . . Congress refused to prolong its existence and the institution was dissolved. Fortunately for the country, it wound up its affairs with such deliberation and prudence as to allow of the interposition of other bank credits in lieu of those withdrawn, and thus prevented a serious shock to the interests of the community. In the twenty years of its existence from 1791 to 1811 its management was irreproachable. The immediate effect of the refusal of Congress to recharter the Bank of the United States was to bring the Treasury to the verge of bankruptcy. The interference of Parish, Girard, and Astor alone saved the credit of the government. . . . Another immediate effect of the dissolution of the bank was the withdrawal from the country of the foreign capital invested in the bank, more than seven millions of dollars. This amount was remitted, in the twelve months preceding the war, in specie. Specie was at that time a product foreign to the United States, and by no means easy to obtain. . . . The notes of the Bank of the United States, payable on demand in gold and silver at the counters of the bank, or any of its branches, were, by its charter, receivable in all payments to the United States; but this quality was also stripped from them on March 19, 1812, by a repeal of the act according to it. To these disturbances of the financial equilibrium of the country was added the necessary withdrawal of fifteen millions of bank credit and its transfer to other institutions. This gave an extraordinary impulse to the establishment of local banks, each eager for a share of the profits. The capital of the country, instead of being concentrated, was dissipated. Between January 1, 1811, and 1815, one hundred and twenty new banks were chartered, and forty millions of dollars were added to the banking capital. To realize profits, the issues of paper were pushed to the extreme of possible circulation. Meanwhile New England kept aloof from the nation. The

specie in the vaults of the banks of Massachusetts rose from \$1,706,000 on June 1, 1811, to \$7,320,000 on June 1, 1814. . . . The suspension of the banks was precipitated by the capture of Washington. It began in Baltimore, which was threatened by the British, and was at once followed in Philadelphia and New York. Before the end of September all the banks south and west of New England had suspended specie payment. . . . The depression of the local currencies ranged from seven to twenty-five per cent. . . . In November the Treasury Department found itself involved in the common disaster. The refusal of the banks, in which the public moneys were deposited, to pay their notes or the drafts upon them in specie deprived the government of its gold and silver; and their refusal, likewise, of credit and circulation to the issues of banks in other States deprived the government also of the only means it possessed for transferring its funds to pay the dividends on the debt and discharge the treasury notes. . . . On October 14, 1814, Alexander J. Dallas, Mr. Gallatin's old friend, who had been appointed Secretary of the Treasury on the 6th of the same month, in a report of a plan to support the public credit, proposed the incorporation of a national bank. A bill was passed by Congress, but returned to it by Madison with his veto on January 15, 1815. . . . Mr. Dallas again, as a last resort, insisted on a bank as the only means by which the currency of the country could be restored to a sound condition. In December, 1815, Dallas reported to the Committee of the House of Representatives on the national currency, of which John C. Calhoun was chairman, a plan for a national bank, and on March 3, 1816, the second Bank of the United States was chartered by Congress. The capital was thirty-five millions, of which the government held seven millions in seventy thousand shares of one hundred dollars each. Mr. Madison approved the bill. . . . The second national bank of the United States was located at Philadelphia, and chartered for twenty years." —J. A. Stevens, *Albert Gallatin*, ch. 6.

1793-1920.—France.—Early banks of issue.—Bank of France.—Napoleon's influence.—Bank's growth in mid-century.—Franco-German War.—Extension of charter.—“From 1793 to the latter part of 1796, banking can hardly be said to have existed in France. The government tolerated no issue of paper except its own; the Caisse d'Escompte, which for many years before had been the only public bank, had been suppressed, and the times were too disturbed for private banking to flourish. With the disappearance from circulation of the *assignats*, and of their successors, the *mandats territoriaux*, the issue of notes appears to have become a matter of common right, to be undertaken by anybody who could gain the confidence of the public; and accordingly a bank of issue called the Caisse des Comptes Courants was organized in Paris in the last half of 1796, and began its operations with fair success. Two others of some importance were established by the year 1800, besides some smaller ones of which little is now known; and in Rouen a bank of discount and issue was in active business as early as 1798. It is clear that, with the return of orderly government and the revival of credit, the need of banks began to press. Under these circumstances the Bank of France was also established in Paris in 1800, with the encouragement of the government and even with the First Consul as one of its stockholders, but still upon a footing not essentially different from that of its neighbors. Its capital of 30,000,000 francs was the largest

yet proposed, and the difficulty of raising it led to a fusion with the Caisse des Comptes Courants, but no monopoly was created. One public bureau, holding a large amount of funds, was required to invest them in shares of the new bank, and large deposits were made in it by the government; still, although favored, the Bank of France stood legally upon an equality with the rest and nothing more. So far it might be said that the field was open in France for a wide and free diffusion of banking facilities, and that by the new establishment the government pointed out the way for its citizens. In 1803, however, Napoleon announced a complete change of policy, and the Bank of France was endowed with the exclusive privilege of issue in Paris until September 24, 1818, and its capital was raised to 45,000,000 francs. All other issues of notes were at once withdrawn, one of the rival banks in Paris was absorbed by the rising monopoly, and another assumed for a time the humble place of intermediary between the great bank and its less important customers. No provincial bank could thereafter be established except by authority of the government. Under this arrangement, and notwithstanding the provision that no notes should be issued in Paris for less than 500 francs, the circulation of the Bank rapidly increased with its expanding discounts. . . . Although the Bank of France still chose its own officers and enjoyed a nominal independence, it was now becoming involved in the bold operations of the French Treasury. Complications thus arising reduced the cash in the Bank, in the latter part of 1805, so far that it was found necessary to limit the redemption of notes to 600,000 francs daily, until such time as specie could be collected in sufficient quantity for complete resumption. The result of this crisis, however, was not to separate the Bank from the government, but to connect them still more closely; and in the spring of 1806 a measure was therefore adopted which definitely settled the character of the Bank as a public institution, but without any alteration in the essential principles of its organization as a bank. By the doubling of its capital and the extension of its privilege to 1843, (Note.—In 1840 the privilege was extended to 1867, in 1857 to 1897, and in 1897 to the end of 1920) not only its preëminence in the financial affairs of France, but its absolute importance in the European world, was assured, so far as depended on legislation. At the same time the direction of the Bank, hitherto confided to a board of regents chosen by the stockholders, was transferred to a governor and two sub-governors, to be nominated by the chief of the state. Under a government not inclined to use power for its own ends, this species of control might easily have become a mere trusteeship on the part of the state; under an emperor like Napoleon it made the bank an engine of the state,—a private corporation, indeed, as regards the legal ownership of its property, but a public office as regards the actual employment of the property. Successive governments in France have used this opportunity in different ways as the case has seemed to require; but such as Napoleon made the Bank, in pursuance of the law of 1806, it has remained ever since,—an institution subject to the control, and often available for the needs, of the government of the day. In the closing years of the Empire this subjection of the Bank to the government caused a great increase of transactions with the Treasury, which became more and more compromising and finally far exceeded in amount the advances made to the commercial public. When, therefore, France was invaded by

the allies in the winter of 1813-14, a run by the note-holders began, caused, it is probable, chiefly by the fact that the Bank appeared to have no independent existence of its own, and it again became necessary for three months to limit the amount of the daily redemption of notes to 500,000 francs. Full payment was resumed in April, 1814, but the settlement of the affairs of the Bank was pushed on both sides, until its loans were reduced to less than 3,000,000 francs and its circulation had fallen from 95,000,000 francs to 15,700,000. The enlarged capital of the Bank had been found, even in the latter years of Napoleon's reign, to be greater than could be used with profit, and the Bank had therefore, as early as 1812, made large purchases of its own stock. These were continued in 1816, until the capital was reduced to 67,900,000 francs, at which point it remained until 1848. By the decree of 1808 the Bank had been authorized to establish branches (*comptoirs d'escompte*), subject to approval by the government, plainly with the design of centralizing the banking interests of the Empire under the lead of the great Bank in Paris. Under this decree the establishment of branches in Lyons and Lille was undertaken, although with little success, and one was set in operation at Rouen. The Bourbon government in 1817 and 1818 closed these branches and established independent banks at Rouen, Nantes, and Bordeaux, giving to them the right of emission, and thus reversing the policy of Napoleon. The government of July, following a similar course for a time, established independent banks at Lyons, Marseilles, Lille, Havre, Toulouse, and Orleans, and also authorized the Bank of France to open branches in fifteen other provincial towns and cities, with the monopoly of issue for every place in which a branch was established. . . . The revolution of 1848 found in existence . . . the Bank of France, with its fifteen branches, and also nine independent banks of issue. No system of exchanges or of redemption at a common center had been adopted by the latter; even the branches of the great Bank redeemed each other's notes only at pleasure; so that France felt all the inconveniences of having many issues of notes with but local credit. The suspension of specie payment and the legal-tender power given to the notes of the Bank of France, and to those of the independent banks alike, added to the confusion, and in the spring of 1848 the provisional government finally cut the knot, by making all the independent banks branches of the Bank of France. Their shareholders, in exchange for their old stock, received shares in the Bank, and the capital of the latter was thus raised to 91,250,000 francs. At the same time the issue of notes of 100 francs was authorized and the total issue of the Bank was limited to 452,000,000 francs. Political and socialist agitation had destroyed all commercial confidence and a rapid liquidation went on; the discounts of the Bank fell off, specie flowed in, and in June specie payment was practically resumed, and the legal-tender provision might perhaps have been abrogated with safety, had the Bank been left to itself. The Treasury, however, was embarrassed, the Bank saw few opportunities of using its resources profitably, and advances to a considerable amount were therefore made by it to the government. Partly as a consequence of these advances the limit of the note circulation was raised in December, 1849, to 525,000,000 francs; and the suspension of specie payment was not ended and the legal-tender power of the notes destroyed, until August 6, 1850. By these means, aided by its

own great prudence, the Bank not only passed through the gloomy years from 1848 to 1852 without serious loss, but continued when affairs were at their worst to earn a modest profit for its stockholders. Moreover, its monopoly of note issue had been reestablished in practically the form in which it had been projected by Napoleon, and all subsequent legislation has tended to strengthen the existing system. A great expansion of the business of the Bank began in 1852. The *coup d'état*, which opened the way for a restoration of imperial government, at all events removed political uncertainty. Commercial confidence thereupon revived, and the discounts and advances made by the Bank rapidly increased, and in 1853 touched a higher point than was ever before known. In view of the general expansion it is not surprising that in 1857 the government determined to double the capital of the Bank, raising it to 182,500,000 francs, at which it now [1917] stands. In return for the extension of its charter to 1897 the Bank was required to make a permanent three per cent. loan of 100,000,000 francs to the government, the entire amount derived from the issue of new stock which was taken by the shareholders at a premium. Perhaps the most important of the new features of the charter was the provision made as to the rate of discount. For the greater part of its existence the Bank had striven to maintain the uniform rate of four per cent. The statutes of 1808 had fixed at three months the maximum length of the paper to be admitted to discount, but in periods of difficulty the Bank had sometimes lowered this limit to seventy-five, sixty, and even forty-five days. In 1854, however, and for some years after, it tried a variable rate of discount, but then found itself hampered by a law passed in 1807, which made six per cent. the limit of legally chargeable interest. The charter of 1857 freed the Bank by special exemption from this restriction, allowing it to charge such rate as it might find advisable, with the provision, however, that the profits earned by charging a rate above six per cent. should not be divided but carried to a permanent surplus. The charter of 1857 also authorized the issue of notes as small as fifty francs, and the government was empowered after 1867 to require the opening of a branch in every department [of France]. The Bank was reluctant, but before 1860 sixty-five branches had been authorized. The republican government in 1873 again applied the spur, and in 1880 all the required branches had been authorized, although a few were not brought into operation until as late as 1882. Since that time the number of communities directly served by the Bank has been further increased, in part upon the initiative of the Bank, but in some measure in response to requirements imposed when its charter was revised in 1807 and again in 1911. In 1911 there were 142 branches and a great number of auxiliary offices, making in all 583 '*places bancaires*.' . . . The first incorporated banks of discount and deposit were established during the period of rapid economic advance which marked the early years of the régime of the third Napoleon. The number of deposit banks in France has, however, at no time been large, and since the last decade of the nineteenth century four large credit institutions operating numerous branches have virtually monopolized the entire field. The considerable though declining number of private banking firms find it increasingly difficult to hold their own in competition with the credit banks. . . . With the opening of the Franco-German war in July, 1870, the Bank of France entered upon

the most remarkable period of its existence,—that in which its vicissitudes were most startling and critical, its services to the country most distinguished, and the success of its management most brilliant. Three weeks before the breaking out of hostilities the Bank of France had in its vaults a reserve of cash almost equal to its notes, and amounting to nearly two thirds of all its cash liabilities. The approach of war caused a heavy pressure upon the Bank for loans, and both notes and specie were drawn from it in large amounts, and began to find their way either into private boards or into foreign hands. . . . On the 12th of August, then, four weeks from the beginning of the war, a law was passed, as a government measure, and with but one dissenting vote in each house, authorizing the Bank to refuse payment of its notes in specie, and for the second time in its history making its notes a legal tender for debts public and private. . . . On the next day, August 13th, was passed the first of the measures establishing a moratorium which postponed all commercial debts for one month, and then, by successive extensions of time, until July, 1871, without other burden to the debtor than liability for interest until the final payment. And finally, on the 14th of August, the limit of issues by the Bank was raised to 2,400,000,000 francs, on the ground that for the Bank to continue its discounts it must have a wider margin than was allowed by the law of the 12th. This completed the series of measures under the authority of which the Bank was administered during the war. The state had at the outbreak of the war obtained a small advance from the Bank, and called for others soon after the suspension. During the siege of Paris the branch of the Bank of Tours became the agency by which considerable advances were made to the provisional government at Tours, while the Bank itself was in like manner aiding the government in Paris. When the war with the Commune succeeded that with Germany, these advances had risen in all to 761,000,000 francs, besides a loan of 210,000,000 francs to the city of Paris. The Bank resisted with great difficulty the efforts of the Commune to use its resources in defense of the city, and for several weeks escape from open pillage, or from demands not to be distinguished from it, seemed hopeless. The prudence of the managers, the devotion of their subordinates, and the steady support of one or two members of the revolutionary body itself, carried the Bank safely through the most dangerous episode of its history, and enabled it, upon the suppression of the Commune, once more to give its aid freely to the government. In July, 1871, the loans thus made to the state amounted in all to 1,425,000,000 francs, and the government now happily found itself in such a position that it could cease drawing from this source. . . . The term for which the law of 1857 continued the exclusive privileges of the Bank of France—or, to use the customary phrase, 'extended the charter'—ended with the year 1897. A bill providing for a further extension was presented by the government in 1880 and reported by a committee in the Chamber of Deputies in 1891. The complete change which thirty years had wrought in the political, social, and financial conditions of the question caused the debate to take a wide range, and the project was still before the Chamber at its dissolution in 1893. The measure returned with some modification in 1896, and finally became a law November 17, 1897, extending the charter to the close of 1920, but reserving to the legislature the power to terminate it with the year 1912

by a law to that effect adopted in 1911. The changes of 1897 and also of 1911 were mainly designed to secure for the government a large share in the profits of the Bank, and the wider diffusion of its branches and agencies throughout the country. No important alteration was made in the general structure of the Bank or in its administrative organization."—C. F. Dunbar, *Theory and history of banking*, pp. 167-181.—See also BANK OF FRANCE; FRANCE: 1774-1788; 1909-1910; 1918-1920.

19th century.—Rise of capitalism in the United States.—Origin of Wall Street banking houses.—New York Stock Exchange. See CAPITALISM: 19th century: United States; STOCK EXCHANGE: New York Stock Exchange.

1806-1910.—Italy.—Rise of Banca Nazionale.—Banks in Rome.—In Naples.—Forced currency.—Bank of Italy.—Codification of banking laws.—"The Sardinian Government in the year 1844 sanctioned the foundation in Genoa of a discount and deposit bank having the privilege of issuing notes, and a similar institution in Turin was chartered in 1847. Each was to have a capital of 4,000,000 lire. Royal decrees of 1849 and 1850 authorized the consolidation of the two banks into a single institution called the Banca Nazionale, with its seat in Genoa, with a capital of 8,000,000 lire, a monopoly of the issue of bank notes, and a chartered term of existence of thirty years. In 1852 the capital was increased to 32,000,000 lire and the bank proceeded to establish branches. In 1859 the institution extended its operations to the newly liberated Lombardy. A new bank act was sanctioned by royal decree of October 1, 1859, and the capital was increased to 40,000,000 lire. In 1861 two banks of issue, the Banca di Parma and the Banca di Bologna (or *Banca della Quattro Legazioni*) were incorporated with it. At the same time new branches and subbranches were opened in the Neapolitan and Sicilian provinces, and the institution assumed the title of Banca Nazionale nel Regno (National Bank in the Kingdom). In 1865 its capital was increased to 100,000,000 lire. A branch was at this time established in the new capital of Italy, Florence, and later subbranches were opened in other cities of Tuscany. The same thing was done in 1866-7 in the newly liberated Venetian provinces, and the institution absorbed another bank of issue, the Stabilimento Mercantile Veneto, at Venice. Finally, in 1871 headquarters were established at the new capital, Rome, and in 1872 the bank was authorized to increase its capital to 200,000,000 lire, of which only 150,000,000 lire was paid in. Thus the little Sardinian bank, by the absorption of all other banks of issue in upper Italy and the establishment of branches and subbranches in many important places throughout the country, rose to the position of the leading credit institution in the kingdom. From 1885 it carried on a great mortgage business, a feature of which was the issue of debentures. . . . A bank was established at Rome as early as 1833. After a rather inactive existence it was superseded in pursuance of a papal decree of 1850 by a larger institution, the Bank of the Pontifical States (*Banca dello Stato Pontificio*), which had branches at Bologna and Ancona. Its capital was to amount to 1,000,000 scudi (\$5,375,000 Italian lire), but only 600,000 scudi was paid in when it was opened. . . . Its charter was to terminate in 1881. The two branches were abolished in 1857 and were superseded by the Bank of the Four Legations (*Banca della Quattro Legazioni*, which was merged in 1861 in the Banca Nazionale nel

Regno. The administration of the Banca dello Stato Pontificio was anything but a model one, so that in 1866 the papal government was compelled to offer its security for the bank notes. At the close of 1869 the circulation was 30,700,000 Italian lire and the reserve 10,900,000 lire. When Rome became the capital of the Kingdom of Italy, in 1870, the notes of the bank were declared a legal tender in the province of Rome, and the institution was reconstituted under the name of the Roman Bank (*Banca Romana*). It renounced its monopoly in consideration of a payment of 2,000,000 lire, other banks being permitted to establish branches at Rome. In 1874 it was authorized to increase its capital to 15,000,000 lire, which was all paid in. The Government at the same time ceased to guarantee the security of the notes. This bank did not make use of the privilege of establishing branches. . . .

"From the second half of the sixteenth century there were large pawn banks in the Kingdom of Naples. At the time of the French Revolution the Bourbon Government seized their property in order to make use of the funds for carrying on the war against France. The French Government sought, by means of a law enacted in 1806, to retain one of the old banks—that of San Giacomo—for the service of the court and the Government and to establish a bank for the business of the people, and in 1808 it proceeded to create a single institution in place of the two—the Bank of the Two Sicilies. The necessary capital, however, was not forthcoming. Nothing came of a further attempt in 1809, but the restored Bourbon Government succeeded in bringing into existence, by decree of December 12, 1816, the Bank of the Two Sicilies. This was a dual establishment—a court bank for the service of the Government, and a people's bank, which took deposits and loaned money on pledges. . . . The characteristic business of the Bank of the Two Sicilies, the feature that made it popular, was the deposit business (*servizio apodissario*). . . . The Italian Government reorganized the Bank of the Two Sicilies, by a series of decrees between 1860 and 1866. The institution, which was renamed the Bank of Naples, was deprived of its character as a state bank and was transformed into an independent credit corporation, having its own administration under the supervision of the Government. . . . The act of April 30, 1874, conferred upon the Bank of Naples the character of an actual bank of issue, although it carried on the business also of a pawn office, a savings bank, and a mortgage bank. Subsequently an agricultural credit department was added. . . . In 1843 the Neapolitan Government had established a court bank at Palermo and another at Messina. They were dependencies of the Bank of Naples, which, at that time, as we have seen, was styled the Bank of the Two Sicilies. The revolution of 1848 severed the connection, and after the restoration of the Bourbon dynasty, in 1840, the separation of the Sicilian court banks from the Bank of the King's Domain in Sicily (*Banco Regio dei reali Domini al di là del Faro*). The institution was a bank of deposit for the Government and for the people. It had the same arrangements as the Bank of Naples in the matter of certificates or credit and cash orders, which were a legal tender. . . . In 1858 two newly established discount banks at Palermo and Messina were affiliated with the Banco Regio. The events of 1860 affected these institutions in a most serious manner, a large part of their property being taken for the purposes of war. The gradual restoration of the funds enabled them to resume banking

operations, and in 1867 they were transformed into the existing Bank of Sicily (*Banco di Sicilia*), which is a public corporation and no longer a state institution. In 1872 the bank was authorized to establish branches. In 1870 the Bank of Sicily began to issue actual bank notes in the shape of certificates of credit for a specific sum, drawn on the cashier and transferable without indorsement. The act of April 30, 1874, consummated the conversion of the institution into an actual bank of issue, and in the same year a fund of 12,000,000 lire was assigned to it for its bank-note circulation. In 1871 the bank instituted a realty credit department and in 1888 an agricultural credit department. . . .

"A royal decree of May 1, 1866, rendered the notes of the Banca Nazionale nel Regno a forced currency. This institution at the same time made a loan of 250,000,000 lire to the Government for the war that was to be waged against Austria. The other banks of issue (the Bank of Naples, the Bank of Sicily, and the two Tuscan banks) were authorized to continue the issue of certificates of credit, cash orders, cash certificates, and bank notes, and these instruments were to remain a legal tender. . . . They continued, however, to be redeemable in coin or the notes of the Banca Nazionale. Thus arose in the history of Italian banking the oft-recurring distinction between forced currency and legal-tender currency. The Banca Nazionale nel Regno had thus acquired an exceptional status, which it deserved to have, inasmuch as it had extended its network of branches and subbranches over the entire Kingdom. At the close of 1873 it had 790,000,000 lire in circulation on account of the Government (the indebtedness of the State to the bank having reached this sum) and 353,300,000 lire on its own account, and it had in addition loaned 30,500,000 lire to the other institutions, which had immobilized that amount of coin in their vaults. The aggregate amount of outstanding bank notes without forced circulation (including the notes of the Banca Romana, which had been incorporated in the Italian banking system in 1871), certificates of credit, and cash orders was at that time 733,300,000 lire. . . . The necessity of doing away with this abuse [a considerable volume of legally unauthorized small notes in circulation], a certain hostility in political and banking circles, as well as among business men, toward the privileges of the Banca Nazionale, and the need of regulating the issues of the Bank of Naples and of the Bank of Sicily on the same basis as the issues of the other institutions, brought about the legislation of April 30, 1874. This placed the Banca Nazionale and the five other banks on an equality as regards privileges and duties. All the six institutions were organized into an association (*consorzio*), which had to put at the disposal of the Government, in place of the previous advances of the Banca Nazionale, 1,000,000,000 lire in so-called 'association notes' issued in denominations ranging from 50 centesimi to 1,000 lire. . . . The legislation of 1881, with the provisions discontinuing forced currency, dissolved the association of the banks of issue. The coin obtained by means of a loan was used for withdrawing the association notes from circulation. . . . The forced currency was discontinued in 1883. The law of 1881 provided that the reserve against bank note circulation should consist exclusively of coin. In pursuance of a royal decree of 1883 at least two-thirds of it had to be in gold. As a matter of fact, the treasury notes were placed on a par with gold and silver, as they were re-

deemable in coin at any time on presentation at the main treasury of the Kingdom. The continuance of the legal-tender quality of the notes of the six banks of issue was extended by numerous successive enactments. The privilege of issuing notes which . . . was to terminate at the close of 1889, was prolonged by a law of 1891 to the close of 1892. . . . The Italian system of banks of issue [in 1893] was a curious mixture of monopoly and plurality, which had all the disadvantages and none of the advantages of these systems. The competition of the six banks that had the exclusive privilege of issuing notes—institutions representing every grade of economic capacity—had led to an excessive issue of paper currency for the promotion of building speculation in the large cities (especially in the capital and in Naples), for the support of industrial undertakings of an artificial nature and necessarily doomed to failure, as well as of ill-managed credit institutions, and for the purpose of influencing legislation by the lavish use of money. The institution which was economically and morally most corrupt was the Banca Romana, which, ill conducted under the papal administration, had not had a sound existence under the national Government, and was the veritable poison of Italian credit. Its rottenness was fully revealed at the beginning of 1893 by an inquiry instituted at the instance of the Chamber of Deputies. Its suppression was inevitable, and as the condition of the other institutions was not a favorable one, Parliament had to make up its mind to the discussion of a rather radical reform, which was embodied in the act of August 10, 1893. This act provided for the fusion of the Banca Nazionale Toscana and the Banca Toscana di credito with the Banca Nazionale. The institution thus constituted took the name of the Bank of Italy. The affairs of the Banca Romana were to be wound up, and so there were left but three banks of issue—the Bank of Italy, the Bank of Naples, and the Bank of Sicily. The laws of 1894 and 1895 declared the two latter banks to be public autonomous credit institutions under the supervision of the Government, intrusted the liquidation of the affairs of the Banca Romana to the Bank of Italy, and amended the law of 1893 in important respects. In spite, however, of further statutory enactments (1895-96), the banks were unable to improve their condition materially. . . . The principal aim of the fresh legislation of 1897 and 1898 was to remove the dangerous consequences of this untenable condition [due to bad assets] and to remedy it as fast and as far as possible. The previously initiated liquidation of the mortgage institutions connected with the three banks of issue was definitely sanctioned, and arrangements were made for effecting it with the least possible loss to the banks and the creditors. Every facility was afforded, also, for the liquidation, or, as it was termed, 'mobilization,' of the 'immobilized assets' that figured on the balance sheets, especially in the way of accommodations on the part of the fiscal administration and extensions in the matter of payments. In order to secure and facilitate the application of the new legislative injunctions, energetic men were placed at the head of the institutions. The Government undertook the task of codifying most of the laws relating to the banks of issue, and the result was the legal code bearing the date of October 6, 1900. The duration of the legal-tender quality of the bank notes was extended year by year, and the lawmaker made constant use of the opportunities thus afforded in order to furnish fresh facilities to the

banks for healing the wounds of the past. In the years 1899-1903 further improvements were made in the statutes of the Bank of Italy and the provisions relating to the other two banks. . . . In spite of the progress . . . made, the moment had not yet arrived, in the opinion of [the] . . . legislators, for removing the forced currency of the bank notes, and by the act of December 29, 1907, its duration was extended to the close of 1908. On the occasion of the enactment of this law important measures were framed (among them one raising the normal maximum of bank-note circulation) in order to make the legal provisions conform more closely to the present condition of the banks of issue and the economic and financial state of the country. These measures were embodied in the act of December 31, 1907. By the act of December 24, 1908, the duration of the forced currency of the bank notes was extended to the close of 1909, and by the act of December 26, 1909, to the close of 1910. A fresh revision of the statutes of the banks took place in 1908 and 1909; the act of July 15, 1909, embodied provisions regarding interest-bearing deposits, and finally all the laws on the banks of issue (with exception of the act of August 8, 1895, Appendix Q.T.) were codified by the act of February 3, 1910."—C. F. Ferraris, *Italian banks of issue*, pp. 207-209, 211-219, 221-225.—See also DEBTS, PUBLIC; Italy.

1813-1908.—Denmark.—State bank.—National Danish bank.—"The National Danish Bank was founded in 1818 and has a capital of 26,752,400 crowns (\$7,000,000). The bank was the successor of the State Bank (*Rigsbanken*), which had been created by the government in 1813 to restore order to the demoralized financial system of the country. A decree of July 4, 1818, transferred the privileges of the old bank to the new for a term of ninety years. The government was free at the end of this period, in 1908, to extend the privileges or revoke them. . . . The bank assumed the obligations of the State Bank and was unable to pay dividends until 1845. The dividends since that time have averaged about seven per cent. A decree of 1873 fixed the limit of circulation not fully covered by specie at 27,000,000 crowns, but this was increased by a decree of November 5, 1877, to 30,000,000 crowns. . . . By a decree of 1886 net balances in favor of the bank at the Bank of Norway and the Royal Bank of Sweden might be counted as a part of the legal reserve."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, p. 290.

1814-1919.—Netherlands.—Bank of the Netherlands.—"The Bank of the Netherlands (*de Nederlandsche Bank*) was authorized by the government in 1814, after it became evident that the Bank of Amsterdam could not be revived. The privilege of the Bank was twice renewed for twenty-five years, carrying its charter to March 31, 1880. The next renewal was nominally only for fifteen years, until March 31, 1904, but an extension of ten years was to be tacitly assumed unless the abrogation of the privilege was decreed by the state. A further extension to 1919 was made by a law of December 31, 1903, when some changes were made in the share of the state in the bank's profits. The law of December 22, 1863, left open the possibility of establishing other banks of issue by special law, but the Bank of the Netherlands has been in fact the only bank of issue in Holland since its establishment. The capital of the bank was originally 5,000,000 florins (\$2,000,000) and has been increased from time to time to 10,000,000, 15,000,000, and 20,000,000

florins (\$8,000,000). The bank is not a public institution, but the state subscribed in 1863 for one thousand shares at 115, which were sold on June 1, 1864, at 190."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, pp. 289-290.—In 1918 the charter of the Bank of the Netherlands was prolonged for an additional fifteen years.

1816-1918.—Norway.—Bank of Norway.—"The Bank of Norway (*Norges Bank*) was founded June 14, 1816, with its head office at Dronheim and branches in leading towns of the province. Its capital was raised by a tax upon landed property and the land-holders became shareholders in the bank according to their respective payments. . . . The attempt to float a paper currency upon land values resulted in failure and the notes of the bank in 1822 could be exchanged at Hamburg at the rate of only \$187.50 for \$100 in silver. The Storting was compelled to pass a law reducing the value of the notes by providing that 190 in paper should be redeemed in the proportion of 100 in silver. The value of the notes gradually rose and the bank was put upon a sounder basis."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, pp. 206-207.—The assets of the Bank of Norway for the year 1918 totaled 564,256,238 kroner. Its deposits amounted to 127,055,382 kroner.

1817-1833.—Second Bank of the United States and the war upon it.—"On the 1st of January, 1817, the bank opened for business, with the country on the brink of a great monetary crisis, but 'too late to prevent the crash which followed.' The management of the bank during the first two years of its existence was far from satisfactory. It aggravated the troubles of the financial situation instead of relieving them. Specie payments were nominally resumed in 1817, but the insidious canker of inflation had eaten its way into the arteries of business, and in the crisis of 1819 came another suspension that lasted for two years. . . . It was only by a desperate effort that the bank finally weathered the storm brought on by its own mismanagement and that of the State Banks. [See KENTUCKY: 1818-1829; MISSISSIPPI: 1818-1890.] After the recovery, a period of several years of prosperity followed, and the management of the bank was thoroughly reorganized and sound. From this time on until the great 'Bank War' its affairs seem to have been conducted with a view to performing its duty to the government as well as to its individual stockholders, and it rendered such aid to the public, directly, and indirectly, as entitled it to respect and fair treatment on the part of the servants of the people. . . . But the bank controversy was not yet over. It was about to be revived, and to become a prominent issue in a period of our national politics more distinguished for the bitterness of its personal animosities than perhaps any other in our annals. . . . As already said, the ten years following the revulsion of 1810-25 were years of almost unbroken prosperity. . . . The question of the continuance of the bank was not under discussion. In fact, scarcely any mention of the subject was made until President Jackson referred to it in his message of December, 1829. In this message he reopened the question of the constitutionality of the bank, but the committee to which this portion of the message was referred in the House of Representatives made a report favorable to the institution. There seems no reason to doubt the honesty of Jackson's opinion that [the charter of] the bank was unconstitutional, and at first he probably had no feeling in the matter except that which sprang from his

convictions on this point. Certain events, however, increased his hostility to the bank, and strengthened his resolution to destroy it."—D. Kinley, *Independent treasury of the United States*, ch. 1.—The question of the rechartering of the bank was made an issue in the presidential campaign of 1832, by Henry Clay. "Its disinterested friends in both parties strongly dissuaded Biddle [president of the bank] from allowing the question of recharter to be brought into the campaign. Clay's advisers tried to dissuade him. The bank, however, could not oppose the public man on whom it depended most, and the party leaders deferred at last to their chief. Jackson never was more dictatorial and obstinate than Clay was at this juncture." Pending the election, a bill to renew the charter of the bank was passed through both houses of Congress. The president promptly vetoed it. "The national republican convention met at Baltimore, December 12, 1831. It . . . issued an address, in which the bank question was put forward. It was declared that the President is fully and three times over pledged to the people to negative any bill that may be passed for rechartering the bank, and there is little doubt that the additional influence which he would acquire by a reelection would be employed to carry through Congress the extraordinary substitute which he has repeatedly proposed.' The appeal, therefore, was to defeat Jackson in order to save the bank. . . . Such a challenge as that could have but one effect on Jackson. It called every faculty he possessed into activity to compass the destruction of the bank. Instead of retiring from the position he had taken, the moment there was a fight to be fought, he did what he did at New Orleans. He moved his lines up to the last point he could command on the side towards the enemy. . . . The proceedings seemed to prove just what the anti-bank men had asserted: that the bank was a great monster, which aimed to control elections, and to set up and put down Presidents. The campaign of 1832 was a struggle between the popularity of the bank and the popularity of Jackson."—W. G. Sumner, *Andrew Jackson*, ch. 11.—Jackson was overwhelmingly elected, and, feeling convinced that his war upon the bank had received the approval of the people, he determined to remove the public deposits from its keeping on his own responsibility. "With this view he removed (in the spring of 1833) the Secretary of the Treasury, who would not consent to remove the deposits, and appointed William J. Duane, of Pennsylvania, in his place. He proved to be no more compliant than his predecessor. After many attempts to persuade him, the President announced to the Cabinet his final decision that the deposits must be removed. The reasons given were that the law gave the Secretary, not Congress, control of the deposits, that it was improper to leave them longer in a bank whose charter would so soon expire, that the Bank's funds had been largely used for political purposes, that its inability to pay all its depositors had been shown by its efforts to procure an extension of time from its creditors in Europe, and that its four government directors had been systematically kept from knowledge of its management. Secretary Duane refused either to remove the deposits or to resign his office, and pronounced the proposed removal unnecessary, unwise, vindictive, arbitrary, and unjust. He was at once removed from office, and Roger B. Taney, of Maryland, appointed in his place. The necessary Orders for Removal were given by Secretary Taney. It was not strictly a removal, for all previous deposits were left in the

Bank, to be drawn upon until exhausted. It was rather a cessation. The deposits were afterwards made in various State banks, and the Bank of the United States was compelled to call in its loans. The commercial distress which followed in consequence probably strengthened the President in the end by giving a convincing proof of the Bank's power as an antagonist to the Government."—A. Johnston, *History of American politics*, ch. 13.—See also U.S.A.: 1833-1836; 1835-1837.

1821-1915.—Portugal.—Bank of Portugal.—"Portugal has a single bank of issue, whose monopoly in this respect dates only from 1888, but whose origin goes back to the Bank of Lisbon in 1821. This institution was authorized by a decree of November 10, 1840, to unite with the National Surety Company (*Companhia Confianca Nacional*) to form the Bank of Portugal. The last extension of the charter continued the bank for forty years, from 1888 to 1928, and conferred upon it the monopoly of the issue of legal-tender notes in the realm of Portugal and the neighboring islands. Seven other banks,—five at Oporto, one at Braga, and one at Guimarães,—had the power to issue notes for circulation within their respective districts, which were not received by public depositaries. An arrangement of July 8, 1801, authorized the Bank of Portugal to unify the circulation and substitute its own notes for those of the other banks. The bank is managed [1915] by a governor appointed by the Treasury for three years and a board of ten directors chosen by the shareholders. The Bank of Portugal has been from the beginning little more than a gigantic paper-money machine for meeting the necessities of the state. This was the case with the Bank of Lisbon, which issued 20,000,000 milrêis (\$21,600,000) to take up the government notes."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, p. 320.

1822-1919.—Belgium.—Competing banks.—National Bank of Belgium.—Belgium and the Latin Union.—"Monopoly of note issue has existed in Belgium only since 1850. The oldest institution issuing bank-notes was the General Society for the Promotion of National Industry (*Société Générale pour favoriser l'industrie Nationale*). This society was founded in 1822 principally as a bank of circulation and discounts, but it became little by little a great institution of finance interested in promoting investments. . . . The Bank of Belgium was founded February 24, 1835, and the management of the public funds was taken away from the old institution and given to the new. The methods of the new bank had the same defects as those of the old, however, in attempting to make long time loans on commercial paper, while issuing circulating notes payable on demand. The result was a crisis in 1838, when confidence was impaired by the fear of war over the provinces of Limbourg and Luxembourg. There was a violent contraction of credit at Brussels, and the Bank of Belgium found itself without cash to meet its obligations. The older institution, which was somewhat stronger, and was not regarded as so largely a creature of the existing government, took advantage of the opportunity to crush its rival and on December 4, 1838, presented 1,000,000 francs (\$200,000) to the Bank of Belgium for redemption. They followed this up on December 10th. by the presentation of 1,200,000 francs and on December 15th. by the presentation of 300,000 francs more. The bank was forced to suspend and to appeal to the government for assistance. A loan of 4,000,000 francs (\$800,000) was voted, of which 2,000,000 francs

were applied to the payment of bills and commercial obligations of the bank, and 1,400,000 francs to meeting the demands of depositors in the savings branches which had been established. The manner in which the existing institutions mixed up the business of banks of issue and deposit with that of operations for long terms created a strong feeling in favor of a bank devoted exclusively to commercial banking. The Bank of Belgium was again embarrassed in 1842 and was compelled to surrender the privilege of keeping the public monies. . . . The year 1849 had hardly begun . . . when the President of the Council of Ministers, M. Frère-Orban, brought forward a plan for the National Bank of Belgium (*Banque Nationale de Belgique*). The charter of the bank was granted by the law of May 5, 1850, fixing the capital at 25,000,000 francs (\$5,000,000), divided into shares of 1,000 francs each, and giving the bank its franchise for twenty-five years. . . . The National Bank found itself face to face with strong competitors in the two older banking institutions, but gradually gained in strength and credit up to 1870, when it was subjected to one of the severest tests ever put upon a banking institution. It was not distrust of the bank, but the political events accompanying the Franco-Prussian War which caused the stress. . . . Belgium was led to propose the formation of the Latin Union in 1865 because of the difficulty of maintaining the double standard under the oscillations in the price of gold and silver. The French system of decimal coinage was adopted by the law of June 5, 1832, but silver was made the standard and no provision was made for gold coinage. . . . The fall in the value of silver after 1867 dragged Belgium into new difficulties, against which the convention of the Latin Union afforded her no protection. . . . The renewal of the charter of the National Bank which was enacted in 1872 extended the life of the institution to January 1, 1903, and the capital was increased to 50,000,000 francs (\$10,000,000). . . . In the revision of the charter in 1900 the tendencies toward State socialism which had become strong in Belgium had free play. The privileges of the bank were indeed extended to January 1, 1929, but only under provisions which turned over a large part of its profits to the public Treasury."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, pp. 277-279, 281-284.—On October 30, 1919, the National Bank had in reserve gold to the amount of £10,642,000; silver, £1,006,000; total bullion, £11,708,000.

1830-1917.—**Bank of England and private banks.**—"The peculiarities of this position, [close relation to the government], which sometimes lead to an erroneous classification of the Bank of England as a government bank, have been much emphasized by the manner in which the other constituents of the English banking system have developed in recent years. The private banking houses have steadily declined in number. The advantages of joint-stock organization and limited liability have led in many cases to their absorption or conversion into companies of larger capital, and have hindered the opening of new private banks, even if establishments of such a decaying type could any longer command the credit once given to them in the English financial world. On the other hand, the joint-stock and limited companies have grown rapidly in the last two generations, both in relative and in absolute importance. (Note.—In May, 1800, there were 104 joint-stock banks in England and Wales, with nearly two thousand branches. In May, 1917, there were only 35 joint-stock banks, but with

more than six thousand branches. . . .) They have felt the strong modern tendency to concentration and by consolidations have greatly diminished their number, but with a vast increase, not only of individual, but of aggregate importance. At the same time, by the establishment of branches they have everywhere brought themselves into close contact with the general commercial life of the country, so that most of the banking of English trade and commerce is now carried on by their agency. The Bank of England, on the other hand, having established eleven branches before the year 1830, has gone no farther in that direction. (Note.—The location of its branches has undergone some changes.)"—C. F. Dunbar, *Theory and history of banking*, pp. 162-163.—See also ENGLAND: 1820-1827.

1836-1907.—**Switzerland.—Cantonal and private banks.—Associated banks.—Swiss national bank.**—"Banking in Switzerland had its earliest development at Basle and Geneva, which were long noted for the skill and wealth of their bankers, but banks of issue were not established in either city until 1845. The first Swiss bank of issue was established at St. Gall in 1830. The cantonal bank of Vaud and the Bank of Basle were established in 1845, the Bank of Commerce at Geneva in 1846, and the Bank of Geneva in 1848. The incorporation of banks of issue rapidly spread among those cantons which contained a considerable number of merchants, and in 1863 eighteen banks had been established, with forty-two agencies or branches. The aggregate circulation of these banks on December 31, 1862, was 18,468,122 francs (\$3,600,000), the cash reserve was 19,380,922 francs and the current accounts, representing deposits 49,166,405 francs (\$9,800,000). Eleven of these eighteen banks were established with the help of the cantonal governments and the remainder were established by private funds. The Swiss banks preserved until 1875 a purely local existence and their operations and circulation rarely extended beyond the limits of the canton in which they were established, but the growing needs of commerce invited co-operation and the extension of banking facilities. Some of the banks began to extend their branches into other cantons and others made conventions with each other for the mutual acceptance of their bills. It was at this stage in the development of Swiss banking that the Federal constitution was revised and authority to legislate regarding banks confided to the Federal government. . . . The law of 1875 required the Swiss banks to maintain a cash reserve equal to forty per cent. of their notes in circulation and forbade any one bank to issue circulation in excess of 12,000,000 francs (\$2,400,000). Each bank was required to accept the notes of other banks and to redeem them in coin. The number of banks at the end of 1873 was twenty-eight and their circulation was 47,606,000 francs (\$9,400,000), against which there was a cash reserve of 14,892,796 francs. The Act of 1875 was superseded by that of March 8, 1881, which limited the circulation to double the paid-up and unimpaired capital (*capital versé et réellement existant*) of the banks and required banks of issue to have a capital of at least 500,000 francs. The requirement of a forty per cent. cash reserve was maintained, to be distinct and independent of the other reserves of the bank and kept in a separate account. . . . The Swiss banking system as embodied in the law of 1881 was a system of free banking under government supervision. The Federal Assembly reserved the right to fix the aggregate of the Swiss circulation and to apportion it

among the banks, but this right was exercised only for the purpose of compelling the banks to conform to certain uniform requirements. Twenty-six of the Swiss banks entered into a clearing arrangement by authority of a law of June 19, 1882, for the mutual exchange of notes. These banks were known as 'The Associated Banks' (*Banques Concordataires*), and their notes circulated throughout Switzerland and were received by public depositaries. . . . The law of 1881 was followed by a new series of agreements, which again worked well for a few years, only to again fall into disuse. . . . A new agreement was entered into by twenty-eight banks on June 3, 1893, 'with the end of protecting the metallic reserves of the country.' Under this agreement authority was given to a committee representing five leading banks to fix a uniform rate of discount, below which none of the contracting banks should discount paper having less than ten days to run. Even with the best of spirit on the part of the banks of issue, they could make head with difficulty against the competition of the private banks, and while some of the latter were drawn into an agreement in 1894, they soon denounced it or found means of evading its requirements. Modifications were made in the agreement at the general assembly of banks of issue October 9, 1900, but they were found too burdensome and were abolished the next year. In the meantime a special convention on June 9, 1900, gave to a central committee the power to reduce the volume of circulation when it judged that market conditions required it. . . . After various proposals to amend the law of 1881, an amendment was adopted to Article 39 of the constitution, October 28, 1891, authorizing the Confederation to create a central bank under its control. Out of this vote grew the project of 1896, which authorized a central bank with a capital of 25,000,000 francs, to be provided two-fifths by the cantons and the remainder by the Confederation. It was upon this provision, for creating a state-owned bank rather than a joint-stock bank with private ownership, that the campaign principally turned when the project was submitted to the people by the referendum. The French cantons opposed to the state socialism of the Germans rolled up immense majorities against the project and it was defeated by a vote of 255,984 against 193,764. . . . A project of law submitted by the Federal Council to the parliamentary committee on March 24, 1899, was abandoned June 28, 1901, because of disagreement over the location of the head office of the bank. But efforts to reach agreement were not relaxed and finally, after many delays, the law of October 6, 1905, created the Swiss National Bank. Efforts to secure a referendum failed to bring together more than 28,137 signatures out of 30,000 required, and on June 20, 1907, the bank entered upon its functions. The principal task of the Swiss National Bank was declared in its second article to be 'to serve in Switzerland as regulator of the money market, to facilitate operations of payment, and to provide for the employment of circulating capital.' . . . Although barely established when the crisis of 1907 in America reacted upon European markets, it weathered the storm with a rate of discount lower than the maximum of many other European banks."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, pp. 302-306, 308-309, 311.—See also SWITZERLAND: 1021.

1837-1841.—Wild cat banks of Michigan.—"Michigan became a State in January, 1837. Almost the first act of her State legislature was the passage of a general banking law under which any ten or more freeholders of any country might

organize themselves into a corporation for the transaction of banking business. Of the nominal capital of a bank only ten per cent. in specie was required to be paid when subscriptions to the stock were made, and twenty per cent. additional in specie when the bank began business. For the further security of the notes which were to be issued as currency, the stockholders were to give first mortgages upon real estate, to be estimated at its cash value by at least three county officers, the mortgages to be filed with the auditor-general of the State. A bank commissioner was appointed to superintend the organization of the banks, and to attest the legality of their proceedings to the auditor-general, who, upon receiving such attestation, was to deliver to the banks circulating notes amounting to two and a half times the capital certified to as having been paid in. This law was passed in obedience to a popular cry that the banking business had become an 'odious monopoly' that ought to be broken up. Its design was to 'introduce free competition into what was considered a profitable branch of business heretofore monopolized by a few favored corporations.' Anybody was to be given fair opportunities for entering the business on equal terms with everybody else. The act was passed in March, 1837, and the legislature adjourned till November 9 following. Before the latter date arrived, in fact before any banks had been organized under the law, a financial panic seized the whole country. An era of wild speculation reached a climax, the banks in all the principal cities of the country suspended specie payments, and State legislatures were called together to devise remedies to meet the situation. That of Michigan was convened in special session in June, and its remedy for the case of Michigan was to leave the general banking law in force, and to add to it full authority for banks organized under it to begin the business of issuing bills in a state of suspension—that is, to flood the State with an irredeemable currency, based upon thirty per cent. of specie and seventy per cent. of land mortgage bonds."—*Cheap-money experiments* (*Century Magazine*, Nov., 1891).—"Wild lands that had been recently bought of the government at one dollar and twenty-five cents an acre were now valued at ten or twenty times that amount, and lots in villages that still existed only on paper had a worth for banking purposes only limited by the conscience of the officer who was to take the securities. Any ten freeholders of a county must be poor indeed if they could not give sufficient security to answer the purpose of the general banking law. The requirement of the payment of thirty per cent. of the capital stock in specie was more difficult to be complied with. But as the payment was to be made to the bank itself, the difficulty was gotten over in various ingenious ways, which the author of the general banking law could hardly have anticipated. In some cases, stock notes in terms payable in specie, or the certificates of individuals which stated—untruly—that the maker held a specified sum of specie for the bank, were counted as specie itself; in others, a small sum of specie was paid in and taken out, and the process repeated over and over until the aggregate of payments equaled the sum required; in still others, the specie with which one bank was organized was passed from town to town and made to answer the purposes of several. By the first day of January, 1838, articles of association for twenty-one banks had been filed, making, with the banks before in existence, an average of one to less than five thousand people. Some of them were absolutely without capital, and some were

organized by scheming men in New York and elsewhere, who took the bills away with them to circulate abroad, putting out none at home. For some, locations as inaccessible as possible were selected, that the bills might not come back to plague the managers. The bank commissioners say in their report for 1838, of their journey for inspection: 'The singular spectacle was presented of the officers of the State seeking for banks in situations the most inaccessible and remote from trade, and finding at every step an increase of labor by the discovery of new and unknown organizations. Before they [the organizers] could be arrested the mischief was done: large issues were in circulation and no adequate remedy for the evil.' One bank was found housed in a saw-mill, and it was said with pardonable exaggeration in one of the public papers, 'Every village plat with a house, or even without a house, if it had a hollow stump to serve as a vault, was the site of a bank.' . . . The governor, when he delivered his annual message in January, 1838, still had confidence in the general banking law, which he said 'offered to all persons the privilege of banking under certain guards and restrictions,' and he declared that 'the principles upon which this law is based are certainly correct, destroying as they do the odious feature of a banking monopoly, and giving equal rights to all classes of the community.' . . . The aggregate amount of private indebtedness had by this time become enormous, and the pressure for payment was serious and disquieting. . . . The people must have relief; and what relief could be so certain or so speedy as more banks and more money? More banks therefore continued to be organized, and the paper current flowed out among the people in increasing volume. . . . At the beginning of 1839 the bank commissioners estimated that there were a million dollars of bills of insolvent banks in the hands of individuals and unavailable. Yet the governor, in his annual message delivered in January, found it a 'source of unfeigned gratification to be able to congratulate [the legislature] on the prosperous condition to which our rising commonwealth has attained.' . . . Then came stay laws, and laws to compel creditors to take lands at a valuation. They were doubtful in point of utility, and more than doubtful in point of morality and constitutionality. The federal bankrupt act of 1841 first brought substantial relief: it brought almost no dividends to creditors, but it relieved debtors from their crushing burdens and permitted them, sobered and in their right minds, to enter once more the fields of industry and activity. The extraordinary history of the attempt to break up an 'odious monopoly' in banking by making everybody a banker, and to create prosperity by unlimited issues of paper currency, was brought at length to a fit conclusion."—T. M. Cooley, *Michigan*, ch. 13.—See also WILD CAT BANKS.

1838.—Free banking law of New York.—"On April 18th, 1838, the monopoly of banking under special charters, was brought to a close in the State of New York, by the passage of the act 'to authorize the business of Banking.' Under this law Associations for Banking purposes and Individual Bankers, were authorized to carry on the business of Banking, by establishing offices of deposit, discount and circulation. Subsequently a separate Department was organized at Albany, called 'The Bank Department,' with a Superintendent, who was charged with the supervision of all the banks in the State. Under this law institutions could be organized simply as banks of 'discount and deposit,' and might also add the issu-

ing of a paper currency to circulate as money. At first the law provided that State and United States stocks for one-half, and bonds and mortgages for the other half, might be deposited as security for the circulating notes to be issued by Banks and individual Bankers. Upon a fair trial, however, it was found that when a bank failed, and the Bank Department was called upon to redeem the circulating notes of such bank, the mortgages could not be made available in time to meet the demand. . . . By an amendment of the law the receiving of mortgages as security for circulating notes was discontinued."—E. G. Spaulding, *One hundred years of progress in the business of banking*, p. 48.

1844.—English Bank Charter Act.—"By an act of parliament passed in 1838, conferring certain privileges on the Bank of England, it was provided that the charter granted to that body should expire in 1855, but the power was reserved to the legislature, on giving six months' notice, to revise the charter ten years earlier. Availing themselves of this option, the government proposed a measure for regulating the entire monetary system of the country."—W. C. Taylor, *Life and times of Sir Robert Peel*, v. 3, ch. 7.—"The growth of commerce, and in particular the establishment of numerous joint-stock banks had given a dangerous impulse to issues of paper money, which were not then restricted by law. Even the Bank of England did not observe any fixed proportion between the amount of notes which it issued and the amount of bullion which it kept in reserve. When introducing this subject to the House of Commons, Peel remarked that within the last twenty years there had been four periods when a contraction of issues had been necessary in order to maintain the convertibility of paper, and that in none of these had the Bank of England acted with vigour equal to the emergency. In the latest of these periods, from June of 1838 to June of 1839, the amount of bullion in the Bank had fallen to little more than £4,000,000, whilst the total of paper in circulation had risen to little less than £30,000,000. . . . Peel was not the first to devise the methods which he adopted. Mr. Jones Loyd, afterwards Lord Overstone, who impressed the learned with his tracts and the vulgar with his riches, had advised the principal changes in the law relating to the issue of paper money which Peel effected by the Bank Charter Act. These changes were three in number. The first was to separate totally the two departments of the Bank of England, the banking department and the issue department. The banking department was left to be managed as best the wisdom of the directors could devise for the profit of the shareholders. The issue department was placed under regulations which deprived the Bank of any discretion in its management, and may almost be said to have made it a department of the State. The second innovation was to limit the issue of paper by the Bank of England to an amount proportioned to the value of its assets. The Bank was allowed to issue notes to the amount of £14,000,000 against Government securities in its possession. The Government owed the Bank a debt of £11,000,000, besides which the Bank held Exchequer Bills. But the amount over £14,000,000 which the Bank could issue was not henceforward, to be more than the equivalent of the bullion in its possession. By this means it was made certain that the Bank would be able to give coin for any of its notes which might be presented to it. The third innovation was to limit the issues of the country banks. The power of issuing notes was denied to any private or

joint-stock banks founded after the date of the Act. It was recognized in those banks which already possessed it, but limited to a total sum of £8,500,000, the average quantity of such notes which had been in circulation during the years immediately preceding. It was provided that if any of the banks which retained this privilege should cease to exist or to issue notes, the Bank of England should be entitled to increase its note circulation by a sum equal to two-thirds of the amount of the former issues of the bank which ceased to issue paper. The Bank of England was required in this contingency to augment the reserve fund. By Acts passed in the succeeding year, the principles of the English Bank Charter Act were applied to Scotland and Ireland, with such modifications as the peculiar circumstances of those kingdoms required. The Bank Charter Act has ever since been the subject of voluminous and contradictory criticism, both by political economists and by men of business."—F. C. Montague, *Life of Sir Robert Peel*, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: Bonamy Price, *Bank Charter Act of 1844* (*Fraser's Magazine*, June, 1865).

1848-1893.—Production of the precious metals in the last half of the nineteenth century.—"The total (estimated) stock of gold in the world in 1848, was £560,000,000. As for the annual production, it had varied considerably since the beginning of the century [from £3,000,000 to £8,000,000]. Such was the state of things immediately preceding 1848. In that year the Californian discoveries took place, and these were followed by the discoveries in Australia in 1851. [See CALIFORNIA: 1848-1849; AUSTRALIA: 1830-1855.] For these three years the annual average production is set down by the Economist at £9,000,000, but from this date the production suddenly rose to, for 1852, £27,000,000, and continued to rise till 1856, when it attained its maximum of £32,250,000. At this stage a decline in the returns occurred, the lowest point reached being in 1860, when they fell to £18,683,000, but from this they rose again, and for the last ten years [before 1873] have maintained an average of about £20,500,000; the returns for the year 1871 being £20,811,000. The total amount of gold added to the world's stock by this twenty years' production has been about £500,000,000, an amount nearly equal to that existing in the world at the date of the discoveries: in other words, the stock of gold in the world has been nearly doubled since that time."—J. E. Cairnes, *Essays in political economy*, pp. 160-161.—"The yearly average of gold production in the twenty-five years from 1851-75, was \$127,000,000. The yearly average product of silver for the same period was \$51,000,000. The average annual product of gold for the fifteen years from 1876 to 1890 declined to \$108,000,000; a minus of 15 per cent. The average annual product of silver for the same period increased to \$116,000,000; a plus of 127 per cent. There is the whole silver question."—L. R. Ehrich, *Question of silver*, p. 21.—"We have heard a great deal in later years about the surreptitious demonetization of silver in 1873. There was, however, vastly too much criticism wasted on the act of 1873; for the real demonetization of silver in the United States was accomplished in 1853. It was not the result of accident; it was a carefully considered plan, deliberately carried into legislation in 1853, twenty years before its nominal demonetization by the act of 1873. . . . In 1853 the single standard was gold. This was a situation which no one rebelled against. Indeed, no one seemed to regard it as anything else than good fortune (except so far as the sub-

sidary coins had disappeared). . . . In the debates it was proposed that, as the cause of the change in the relative values of gold and silver was the increased product of gold, the proper remedy should be to increase the quantity of gold in the gold coins. . . . There was no discussion as to how a readjustment of the ratio between the two metals might be reached, for it was already decided that only one metal was to be retained. This decision, consequently, carried us to a point where the ratio between the two metals was not of the slightest concern. And so it remained. The United States had no thought about the ratios between gold and silver thereafter until the extraordinary fall in the value of silver in 1876. . . . In the provisions of the act of 1853 nothing whatever was said as to the silver dollar-piece. It had entirely disappeared from circulation years before, and acquiescence in its absence was everywhere found. No attempt whatever was thereafter made to change the legal ratio, in order that both metals might again be brought into concurrent circulation. Having enough gold, the country did not care for silver. . . . In 1873 we find a simple legal recognition of that which had been the immediate result of the act of 1853, and which had been an admitted fact in the history of our coinage during the preceding twenty years. In 1853 it had been agreed to accept the situation by which we had come to have gold for large payments, and to relegate silver to a limited service in the subsidiary coins. The act of 1873, however, dropped the dollar piece out of the list of silver coins. In discontinuing the coinage of the silver dollar, the act of 1873 thereby simply recognized a fact which had been obvious to everybody since 1849. It did not introduce anything new, or begin a new policy. Whatever is to be said about the demonetization of silver as a fact must center in the act of 1853. Silver was not driven out of circulation by the act of 1873, which omitted the dollar of 412½ grains, since it had not been in circulation for more than twenty-five years. . . . The act of February 12, 1873, is known as the act which demonetized the silver dollar. Important consequences have been attached to it, and it has even been absurdly charged that the law was the cause of the commercial crisis of September, 1873. As if a law which made no changes in the actual metallic standard in use, and which had been in use thus for more than twenty years, had produced a financial disaster in seven months! To any one who knows of the influence of credit and speculation, or who has followed the course of our foreign trade since the Civil War, such a theory is too absurd to receive more than passing mention. To the year 1873 there had been coined of 412½-grain dollars for purposes of circulation, only \$1,430,457, and these were coined before 1806."—J. L. Laughlin, *History of bimetalism in the United States*, pt. 1, pp. 80-82, 92-93.—See also BIMETALISM.—"The Coinage Act of 1873, by which the coinage of the silver dollar was discontinued, became a law on February 12th of that year. The act of February 28, 1878, which passed Congress by a two-thirds vote over the veto of President Hayes, again provided for the coinage of a silver dollar of 412.5 grains, the silver bullion to be purchased at the market price by the Government, and the amount so purchased and coined not to be less than two millions of dollars per month. During the debate on this bill the charge was repeatedly made, in and out of Congress, that the previous act of 1873, discontinuing the free coinage of the silver dollar, was passed surreptitiously. This statement has no

foundation in fact. The report of the writer, who was then Deputy Comptroller of the Currency, transmitted to Congress in 1870 by the Secretary, three times distinctly stated that the bill accompanying it proposed to discontinue the issue of the silver dollar-piece. Various experts, to whom it had been submitted, approved this feature of the bill, and their opinions were printed by order of Congress.—J. J. Knox, *United States notes, ch. 10*.—"The bill of 1878, generally spoken of as the 'Bland' bill, directed the secretary of the treasury to purchase not less than two million nor more than four million dollars' worth of silver bullion per month, to coin it into silver dollars, said silver dollars to be full legal tender at 'their nominal value.' Also, that the holder of ten or more of these silver dollars could exchange them for silver certificates, said certificates being 'receivable for customs, taxes, and all public dues.' The bill was pushed and passed by the efforts, principally, of the greenback inflationists and the representatives of the silver States. . . . Since 1878 [to 1891], 405,000,000 silver dollars have been coined. Of these 348,000,000 are still [1891] lying in the treasury vaults. No comment is needed. The Bland-Allison act did not hold up silver. In 1879 it was worth \$1.12 an ounce, in 1880 \$1.14, '81 \$1.13, '82 \$1.13, '83 \$1.11, '86 99 cents, until in '89 it reached 93½ cents an ounce. That is, in 1889 the commercial ratio was 22:1 and the coin value of the Bland-Allison silver dollar was 72 cents. In March, 1890, a bill was reported to the House by the committee of 'coinage, weights and measures,' based on a plan proposed by Secretary Windom. . . . The bill passed the House. The Senate passed it with an amendment making provision for free and unlimited coinage. It finally went to a conference committee which reported the bill that became a law, July 14, 1890. This bill directs the secretary of the treasury to purchase four and one-half million ounces of silver a month at the market price, to give legal tender treasury notes therefor, said notes being redeemable in gold or silver coin at the option of the government, 'it being the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other upon the present legal ratio.' It was believed that this bill would raise the price of silver."—L. R. Ehrich, *Question of silver*, pp. 21-25.—In December, 1891, the value of silver in the dollar was quoted to be actually 73 cents.—See also U. S. A.: 1873; 1878; 1890-1893.—In the summer of 1893, a financial crisis, produced in the judgment of the best informed by the operation of the silver-purchase law of 1890 (known commonly as the Sherman Act) became so serious that President Cleveland called a special session of Congress to deal with it. In his message to Congress, at the opening of its session, the President said: "With plenteous crops, with abundant promise of remunerative production and manufacture, with unusual invitation to safe investment, and with satisfactory assurance to business enterprise, suddenly financial fear and distrust have sprung up on every side. Numerous moneyed institutions have suspended because abundant assets were not immediately available to meet the demands of the frightened depositors. Surviving corporations and individuals are content to keep in hand the money they are usually anxious to loan, and those engaged in legitimate business are surprised to find that the securities they offer for loans, though heretofore satisfactory, are no longer accepted. Values supposed to be fixed are fast becoming conjectural, and loss and failure have involved every branch of business. I believe these things

are principally chargeable to congressional legislation touching the purchase and coinage of silver by the General Government. This legislation is embodied in a statute passed on the 14th day of July, 1890, which was the culmination of much agitation on the subject involved, and which may be considered a truce, after a long struggle between the advocates of free silver coinage and those intending to be more conservative." A bill to repeal the act of July 14, 1890 (the Sherman law, so called), was passed by both houses and received the president's signature, November 1, 1893.—See also U. S. A.: 1890-1893.

1853-1874.—Latin union and silver question.—"The gold discoveries of California and Australia were directly the cause of the Latin Union. . . . In 1853, when the subsidiary silver of the United States had disappeared before the cheapened gold, we reduced the quantity of silver in the small coins sufficiently to keep them dollar for dollar below the value of gold. Switzerland followed this example of the United States in her law of January 31, 1860; but, instead of distinctly reducing the weight of pure silver in her small coins, she accomplished the same end by lowering the fineness of standard for these coins to 800 thousandths fine. . . . Meanwhile France and Italy had a higher standard for their coins than Switzerland, and as the neighboring states, which had the franc system of coinage in common, found each other's coins in circulation within their own limits, it was clear that the cheaper Swiss coins, according to Gresham's law, must drive out the dearer French and Italian coins, which contained more pure silver, but which passed current at the same nominal value. The Swiss coins of 800 thousandths fine began to pass the French frontier and to displace the French coins of a similar denomination; and the French coins were exported, melted, and recoinced in Switzerland at a profit. This, of course, brought forth a decree in France (April 14, 1864), which prohibited the receipt of these Swiss coins at the public offices of France, the customs-offices, etc., and they were consequently refused in common trade among individuals. Belgium also, as well as Switzerland, began to think it necessary to deal with the questions affecting her silver small coins, which were leaving that country for the same reason that they were leaving Switzerland. Belgium then undertook to make overtures to France, in order that some concerted action might be undertaken by the four countries using the franc system—Italy, Belgium, France, and Switzerland—to remedy the evil to which all were exposed by the disappearance of their silver coin needed in every-day transactions. The discoveries of gold had forced a reconsideration of their coinage systems. In consequence of these overtures, a conference of delegates representing the Latin states just mentioned assembled in Paris, November 20, 1865. . . . Delegates from the countries of the Latin Union at Paris, January 30, 1874, . . . agreed to a treaty supplementary to that originally formed in 1865, and determined on withdrawing from individuals the full power of free coinage by limiting to a moderate sum the amount of silver five-franc pieces which should be coined by each state of the Union during the year 1874. The date of this suspension of coinage by the Latin Union is regarded by all authorities as of great import in regard to the value of silver."—J. L. Laughlin, *History of bimetalism in the United States*, pt. 2, pp. 146-148, 155-156.

1861-1864.—Legal-tender notes, or greenbacks, and national banking system, of American

Civil War.—"In January, 1861, the paper currency of the United States was furnished by 1,600 private corporations, organized under thirty-four different State laws. The circulation of the banks amounted to \$202,000,000, of which only about \$50,000,000 were issued in the States which in April, 1861, undertook to set up an independent government. About \$150,000,000 were in circulation in the loyal States, including West Virginia. When Congress met in extraordinary session on the 4th of July, the three-months volunteers, who had hastened to the defence of the capital, were confronting the rebel army on the line of the Potomac, and the first great battle at Bull Run was impending. President Lincoln called upon Congress to provide for the enlistment of 400,000 men, and Secretary Chase submitted estimates for probable expenditures amounting to \$318,000,000. The treasury was empty, and the expenses of the government were rapidly approaching a million dollars a day. The ordinary expenses of the government, during the year ending on the 30th of June, 1861, had been \$62,000,000, and even this sum had not been supplied by the revenue, which amounted to only \$41,000,000. The rest had been borrowed. It was now necessary to provide for an expenditure increased fivefold, and amounting to eight times the income of the country. Secretary Chase advised that \$80,000,000 be provided by taxation, and \$240,000,000 by loans; and that, in anticipation of revenue, provision be made for the issue of \$50,000,000 of treasury notes, redeemable on demand in coin. 'The greatest care will, however, be requisite,' he said, 'to prevent the degradation of such issues into an irredeemable paper currency, than which no more certainly fatal expedient for impoverishing the masses and discrediting the government of any country can well be devised.' The desired authority was granted by Congress. The Secretary was authorized to borrow, on the credit of the United States, not exceeding \$250,000,000, and, 'as a part of the above loan,' to issue an exchange for coin, or pay for salaries or other dues from the United States, not over \$50,000,000 of treasury notes, bearing no interest, but payable on demand at Philadelphia, New York, or Boston. The act does not say, 'payable in coin,' for nobody had then imagined that any other form of payment was possible. Congress adjourned on the 6th of August, after passing an act to provide an increased revenue from imports, and laying a direct tax of \$20,000,000 upon the States, and a tax of 3 per cent upon the excess of all private incomes above \$800. The Secretary immediately invited the banks of Philadelphia, New York, and Boston to assist in the negotiation of the proposed loans, and they loyally responded. On the 10th of August they took \$50,000,000 of three years 7-30 bonds at par; on the 1st of October, \$50,000,000 more of the same securities at par; and on the 16th of November, \$50,000,000 of twenty years 6 per cents., at a rate making the interest equivalent to 7 per cent. These advances relieved the temporary necessities of the treasury, and, when Congress reassembled in December, Secretary Chase was prepared to recommend a permanent financial policy. The solid basis of this policy was to be taxation. . . . It was estimated, a revenue of \$90,000,000 would be needed; and to secure that sum, the Secretary advised that the duties on tea, coffee, and sugar be increased; that a direct tax of \$20,000,000 be assessed on the States; that the income tax be modified so as to produce \$10,000,000, and that duties be laid on liquors, tobacco, carriages, legacies, bank-notes, bills payable, and conveyances. For the extraordinary expenses of

the war it was necessary to depend upon loans, and the authority to be granted for this purpose the Secretary left 'to the better judgment of Congress,' only suggesting that the rate of interest should be regulated by law, and that the time had come when the government might properly claim a part, at least, of the advantage of the paper circulation, then constituting a loan without interest from the people to the banks. There were two ways, Secretary Chase said, in which this advantage might be secured: 1. By increasing the issue of United States notes, and taxing the bank-notes out of existence. 2. By providing a national currency, to be issued by the banks but secured by the pledge of United States bonds. The former plan the Secretary did not recommend, regarding the hazard of a depreciating and finally worthless currency as far outweighing the probable benefits of the measure. . . . Congress had hardly begun to consider these recommendations, when the situation was completely changed by the suspension of specie payments, on the 28th of December, by the banks of New York, followed by the suspension of the other banks in the country, and compelling the treasury also to suspend. This suspension was the result of a panic occasioned by the shadow of war with England. . . . To provide for the pressing wants of the treasury, Congress, on the 12th of February, 1862, authorized the issue of \$10,000,000 more of demand notes. Before the end of the session further issues were provided for, making the aggregate of United States notes \$300,000,000, besides fractional currency. There was a long debate upon the propriety of making these notes a legal tender for private debts, and it seemed for a time that the measure would be defeated by this dispute. [The bill authorizing the issue of legal tender notes known afterwards as 'Greenbacks' was prepared by the Hon. E. G. Spaulding, who subsequently wrote the history of the measure.] Secretary Chase finally advised the concession of this point; nevertheless, 55 votes in the House of Representatives . . . were recorded against the provision making the notes a tender for private debts. Congress also empowered the Secretary to borrow \$500,000,000 on 5-20 year 6 per cent. bonds, besides a temporary loan of \$100,000,000, and provided that the interest on the bonds should be paid in coin, and that the customs should be collected in coin for that purpose. Nothing was said about the principal, for it was taken for granted that specie payments would be resumed before the payment of the principal of the debt would be undertaken. . . . Congress had thus adopted the plan which the Secretary of the Treasury did not recommend, and neglected the proposition which he preferred. . . . When Congress met in December, 1862, the magnitude of the war had become fully apparent. . . . The enormous demands upon the treasury . . . had exhausted the resources provided by Congress. The disbursements in November amounted to \$50,847,077—two millions a day. Unpaid requisitions had accumulated amounting to \$46,000,000. The total receipts for the year then current, ending June 30, 1863, were estimated at \$511,000,000; the expenditures at \$788,000,000; leaving \$277,000,000 to be provided for. There were only two ways to obtain this sum—by a fresh issue of United States notes, or by new interest-bearing loans. But the gold premium had advanced in October to 34; the notes were already at a discount of 25 per cent. The consequences of an addition of \$277,000,000 to the volume of currency, the Secretary said, would be 'inflation of prices, increase of expenditures, augmentation

of debt, and, ultimately, disastrous defeat of the very purposes sought to be obtained by it.' He therefore recommended an increase in the amount authorized to be borrowed on the 5-20 bonds. . . . In order to create a market for the bonds, he again recommended the creation of banking associations under a national law requiring them to secure their circulation by a deposit of government bonds. The suggestion thus renewed was not received with favor by Congress. . . . On the 7th of January Mr. Hooper offered again his bill to provide a national currency, secured by a pledge of United States bonds, but the next day Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, submitted the bill with an adverse report from the committee on ways and means. On the 14th of January Mr. Stevens reported a resolution authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to issue \$100,000,000 more of United States notes for the immediate payment of the army and navy. The resolution passed the House at once, and the Senate the next day. . . . On the 19th of January President Lincoln sent a special message to the House, announcing that he had signed the joint resolution authorizing a new issue of United States notes, but adding that he considered it his duty to express his sincere regret that it had been found necessary to add such a sum to an already redundant currency, while the suspended banks were still left free to increase their circulation at will. He warned Congress that such a policy must soon produce disastrous consequences, and the warning was effective. On the 25th of January Senator Sherman offered a bill to provide a national currency, differing in some respects from Mr. Hooper's in the House. The bill passed the Senate on the 12th of February, 23 to 21, and the House on the 20th, 78 to 64. . . . It was signed by the President on the 25th of February, 1863."—H. W. Richardson, *National banks, ch. 2*.—"One immediate effect of the Legal Tender Act was to destroy our credit abroad. Stocks were sent home for sale, and, as Bagehot shows, Lombard Street was closed to a nation which had adopted legal tender paper money. . . . By August all specie had disappeared from circulation, and postage-stamps and private note-issues took its place. In July a bill was passed for issuing stamps as fractional currency, but in March 1863, another act was passed providing for an issue of 50,000,000 in notes for fractional parts of a dollar—not legal tender. For many years the actual issue was only 30,000,000, the amount of silver fractional coins in circulation in the North, east of the Rocky Mountains, when the war broke out. . . . Gold rose to 200-220 or above, making the paper worth 45 or 50 cts., at which point the 5 per cent. ten-forties floated. The amount sold up to October 31st, 1865, was \$172,770,100. Mr. Spaulding reckons up the paper issues which acted more or less as currency, on January 30th, 1864, at \$1,125,877,034; 812,000,000 bore no interest."—W. G. Sumner, *History of American currency, pp. 204-208*

1863-1914.—Development of national banking system in the United States.—"The national banking system owes its existence to the Civil War. Although in the majority of the States the banks incorporated under State authority were badly organized and insecure, and although even such as were on a solid foundation could enjoy little more than local credit, the current of opinion before the war was by no means favorable to any consolidation of banking interests. . . . But in 1863 a system of national banks was established with widespread, although not unanimous, consent, and without solid opposition, except

for some existing interests threatened or alarmed by the change. For effecting the revolution thus brought about in little more than three years, the favoring conditions were the unusual assumption of powers by the United States government then becoming habitual under the pressure of a struggle for existence, and the imperious necessity of finding a market for United States bonds for the supply of a Treasury drained by war. In the great borrowing operations of 1861 the Secretary of the Treasury had sold a large amount of securities to the banks of the Eastern and Middle States, but the banks had found themselves embarrassed by the impossibility of using their own notes or their credit in any form in transactions with the government, and both banks and Treasury had been compelled to suspend specie payments at the end of the year. The Secretary had already laid before Congress his plan for the strengthening of bank circulation by a national system of secured bank issues, urging its adoption chiefly as a reformatory measure which might give to the country a solid currency, preferable, in his opinion, to an increase of government notes which must always involve 'the risk of a depreciated, depreciating, and finally worthless paper money.' Events moved rapidly, and the first resort to legal-tender government notes was authorized by Congress, with the acquiescence of the Secretary, in less than two months after the suspension. The bank proposition, which, considered simply as a reform, would then have had small prospect of success, began to gain ground as affording a possible escape from the final flood of legal-tender paper which seemed to threaten. When the Secretary again urged his plan upon the attention of Congress, it had acquired new significance in its bearing upon the finances of the government. Immediate relief to the Treasury by the sale of bonds to the banks to be used as security for their issues was not to be expected, for the organization of banks under the proposed system could not be effected without much delay, and many of the strong banks which the Secretary hoped to see converted into national banks already owned bonds in large amounts. Indeed the Secretary contented himself with saying that 'in a very few years' the proposed national banks would require bonds to the amount of \$250,000,000, and in fact the war was over before their deposits of bonds had risen much above \$100,000,000. But the banks were looked upon as important agencies for the government in placing new loans, and their circulation as a medium needed for use in default of specie and likely to facilitate the return to specie payments. In short as the national bank system slowly passed through its successive stages of development from 1863 to 1865, its importance as affording in itself a market for United States bonds pretty well disappeared, and its importance as a valuable part of the commercial organization and as the source of a paper currency of remarkable credit and security came to be more and more fully recognized. The act authorizing a system of national banks was passed in February, 1863, but in many points of detail it proved to be so unsatisfactory and incomplete that only 134 banks were organized under it in the next nine months, and the number had risen to [almost] . . . 450 in sixteen months. A revised act, making important changes, was therefore passed in June, 1864, and ample provision having been made, under which banks chartered by the States could be reorganized as national banks, the extension of the new system went on rapidly. Its adoption was further stimulated by an act laying a tax of ten per cent. on

all notes of State banks paid out by any bank after July 1, 1866. The certainty of the practical exclusion of all State banks from the field of circulation caused the speedy reorganization of the greater part of them as national banks; and thus the national system, numbering 1634 banks on July 1, 1866, at once assumed the preëminence which it has since maintained. . . . The fundamental defects in the banking system of the United States, in particular the absence of adequate lending power and inability to make effective use of the cash reserves of the banks, were disclosed not only during the serious crises of 1873, 1893, and 1907, but also on frequent occasions of more moderate financial strain. But the need of radical change in the banking arrangements of the country was not clearly recognized until after the crisis of 1907. The attention of bankers as well as of the public was for many years absorbed by the more urgent needs of monetary reform—after 1873, the resumption of specie payments, and after 1893, the repeal of the silver purchase law [see U.S.A.: 1800-1893] secured at once, and the establishment of the gold standard upon a firm basis which was finally accomplished with the passage of the Currency Act of 1900. Difficulties due to monetary causes were entirely absent in the crisis of 1907, and consequently the unsatisfactory state of the banking machinery and practice of the country at length became clearly evident. As a temporary measure, pending more thoroughgoing legislation, an act [Emergency Currency Act] was passed in 1908 empowering the banks to issue bank-notes secured by bonds other than United States bonds and by commercial paper, but subject to taxation sufficiently onerous to prevent issue except in emergencies and to insure speedy retirement. These notes proved of great service during the crisis which came in August, 1914, with the outbreak of the European War. Somewhat more than \$300,000,000 of the notes were issued and, although Clearing House loan certificates were also used, the suspension of currency payments was avoided. As a means of overcoming the most serious of the difficulties encountered in previous crises, the notes proved an effective device, but it was rightly believed that the banking legislation of the country was antiquated and that many and, in some directions, very fundamental changes must be made if the banks were to be placed in position to render the greatest possible service to the community in normal times as well as in emergencies. This view of the situation found expression in the Federal Reserve Act of December 23, 1913, a measure which gave the necessary legal authority for incomparably greater changes in the banking structure and practice of the country than followed the passage of the National Banking Act fifty years before."—C. F. Dunbar, *Theory and history of banking*, pp. 220-223, 247-248.—See also U.S.A.: 1895 (January-February); 1895-1896 (December-February); 1896 (June-November); 1896-1898; 1898 (July 1); 1900 (March-December).

1867-1893. — **International bimetallism.**—**Four conferences.**—"Four international conferences and a number of others of less importance have considered the questions involved in it [bimetallism]. . . . The first of these conferences was held in Paris in 1867 and was the result of a plan formulated by the delegates of the states of the Latin Union at their meeting in 1865 to promote international uniformity of action on monetary matters. The most significant fact connected with this conference was the declaration of all the states which participated, except Holland, in favour of the gold standard.

Other proposals aimed at the establishment of an international unit of value. In February, 1868, the English government appointed a commission to consider the proposals of this conference, but the outcome of its deliberations was unfavourable to any change in the English system, though it expressed a strong appreciation of the advantages to be derived from legislation looking towards uniformity of international action. . . . Germany adopted the gold standard in 1871-73, and her action was followed by the Scandinavian countries, Denmark, and Holland. France and the other states of the Latin Union discontinued the free coinage of five-franc pieces in 1874, and the United States dropped the silver dollar from the list of authorized coins in 1873. The next conference was the direct result of the fall in the value of silver which became so marked in 1876 and which affected important interests in most countries. In the United States the silver producers of the West saw their profits threatened; in England the exchanges with India were upset, the business of the cotton-manufacturers of Lancashire injured, and investments checked; in India the increased cost of making the annual payments due in England threatened a deficit in the finances; and in France and the other states of the Latin Union a gold famine was imminent. In March, 1876, the English government appointed a commission to investigate the situation, and the Congress of the United States took similar action in August of the same year. The former committee made no proposals by way of remedy, but presented a full statement of the situation, while the committee of Congress reported in favour of the rehabilitation of silver, and started the movement which culminated in the Bland Act. One clause of this authorized the President to invite the various nations to an international conference on the subject, and the outcome was a second meeting of delegates in Paris, August 10, 1878. The attitude of the representatives of the various states towards bimetallism indicated a considerable change of opinion since 1867, but a wide diversity of interests and the impossibility of an international agreement for the rehabilitation of silver at this time. The delegates of the United States strongly favoured the free coinage of silver by all the nations at a ratio to be agreed upon. Those of Belgium, Switzerland, and Norway strongly opposed such action, and the English delegate stated that England would not consent to a modification of her system. Germany was not represented at all, and France maintained a waiting attitude. The conference adjourned after declaring that in view of the wide differences of opinion expressed it was useless to discuss the question of an international ratio, and that each nation must be left free to treat silver as it might think best. The advocates of bimetallism were naturally encouraged over the trend of opinion in their direction since the conference of 1867, and carried on a vigorous agitation, especially in the United States, France, and Germany. This fact, together with the continuous decline in the value of silver, resulted in a third conference, called, on the joint invitation of France and the United States, April 19, 1881. This time the advocates of bimetallism were very much more numerous, including, besides the delegates of the United States, those of France, Italy, Austria, the Netherlands, and British India. The representatives of England and Germany, however, stated positively that the best that could be hoped from their governments was possible action with a view to increasing the use of silver as money, in case an international agreement for

free coinage were made by the other nations, and the delegates of Belgium, Switzerland, Greece, and the Scandinavian countries declared against bimetalism. Therefore, in spite of additions to the forces working for bimetalism, an international agreement seemed as far away as ever. This conference adjourned to meet again April 12, 1882, but it was not reassembled until 1893. Agitation in favour of bimetalism was continued during the eleven years, an international league having been formed for that purpose. A conference of bimetalists was held at Cologne in October, 1882, which advised Germany to retain the silver she already possessed, and to substitute it in her circulating medium for small gold coins and paper below the denomination of ten marks. It also urged the Bank of England to make use of its right to keep a part of its reserve in silver. A royal commission on the depression of trade, appointed in England in 1886, reported in 1888, one-half of its members favouring and the other half opposing bimetalism. In connection with the Paris Exposition of 1889 a monetary conference was held, which closed, however, without any practical recommendation. In this conference England was not represented. The Brussels Conference of 1893 was called on the invitation of the United States, and the opinions there expressed indicate that the cause of bimetalism had rapidly lost ground since the last meeting in 1881. Even the President's invitation was couched in language which was not hopeful. It declared the purpose of the conference to be a consideration of 'what measures, if any, could be taken to increase the use of silver in the currency system of nations.' Though the delegates of the United States presented a scheme of international bimetalism, they learned at the beginning that it would be useless to push it to the front, and accordingly most of the time of the conference was devoted to a discussion of two or three plans submitted for an increase in the use of silver for monetary purposes by substituting it for small gold coins and paper of low denominations at that time based on gold. Even these plans, however, were rejected. The delegates of Germany, Austria and Russia came to the conference instructed by their respective governments not to vote or to express an opinion, and, though uninstructed, those of Roumania, Portugal, Turkey, and Greece took the same attitude. The representatives of France declared that their government would not consent to the free coinage of silver unless the other nations would do likewise, and England's attitude was not materially changed. The conference, therefore, adjourned without any practical result so far as the purpose which called the delegates together was concerned, but not without leaving upon the minds of most people who watched its deliberations the conviction that the cause of international bimetalism was lost."—W. A. Scott, *Money and banking*, pp. 342-346.—See also BIMETALISM.

1869.—Black Friday.—"During the [Civil] war gold had swollen in value to 285, when the promise of the nation to pay a dollar on demand was only worth thirty-five cents. Thence it had gradually sunk. . . . All our purchases from foreign nations, all duties on those purchases, and all sales of domestic produce to other nations are payable in gold. There is therefore a large and legitimate business in the purchase and sale of gold, especially in New York, the financial centre of the nation. But a much larger business of a gambling nature had gradually grown up around that which was legitimate. . . . These gambling operations were based on the rise and fall of gold,

and these in turn depended on successful or unsuccessful battles, or on events in foreign nations that could be neither foreseen nor guarded against. The transactions were therefore essentially gambling. . . . So large was the amount of this speculative business, gathering up all the gold-betting of the nation in a single room, that it more than equalled the legitimate purchase and sale of gold. There were large and wealthy firms who made this their chief business; and prominent among them was the firm of Smith, Gould, Martin & Co., four gentlemen under one partnership name, all wealthy and all accustomed to this business for years. Their joint wealth and business skill made them a power in Wall street. The leading mind of the firm, though not the first named, was Mr. Jay Gould, President of the Erie Railway, joint owner, with Colonel James Fisk Jr., of two lines of steamboats, and largely interested in a number of railroads and other valuable properties. Mr. Gould looked upon gold, railroads, and steamboats as the gilded dice wherewith to gamble. . . . During the spring of 1869 he was a buyer of gold. There was perhaps fifteen millions of that rare currency in New York outside the Sub-Treasury; and he had bought half that amount, paying therefor a bonus of a little more than two millions of dollars. As fast as he had purchased the precious metal he had loaned it out to those who needed it for the payment of duties, and who hoped to repurchase it at a lower rate. And so, though the owner of seven millions, he had none of it in hand; he merely possessed the written acknowledgment of certain leading merchants and brokers that they owed him that amount of specie, which they would repay with interest on demand. Having this amount obtainable at any moment, Mr. Gould had the mercantile community at his mercy. But there was some hundred millions of gold in the Treasury, more or less, and the President of the United States or the Secretary of the Treasury might at any time throw it on the market. On this point it was very desirable to ascertain the opinion of President Grant; more desirable to have constant access to his private ear." In various ways, argumentative influences were brought to bear on President Grant and the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Boutwell, to persuade them that it was desirable for the country, while the crops were being moved, to hold up the price of gold. One important channel for such influences was supplied by the President's brother-in-law, a retired New York merchant, named Corbin, who was drawn into the speculation and given a share in Gould's gold purchases. By strenuous exertions, Gould and his associates pushed up the price till "in May it stood at 144 $\frac{7}{8}$; but as soon as they ceased to buy, the price began to recede until in the latter part of June it again stood at 136. The others were then frightened and sold out. 'All these other fellows deserted me like rats from a ship,' said Gould. But for him to sell out then would involve a heavy loss, and he preferred a gain. He therefore called upon his friend and partner Fisk to enter the financial arena. It is but justice to Mr. Fisk to say that for some time he declined; he clearly saw that the whole tendency of gold was downward. But when Gould made the proposition more palatable by suggesting corruption, Fisk immediately swallowed the bait. . . . He . . . entered the market and purchased twelve millions. There is an old adage that there is honor among thieves. This appears not to be true on the Gold Exchange. All Mr. Gould's statements to his own partner were false,

except those relating to Corbin and Butterfield. And Mr. Corbin did his best. He not only talked and wrote to the President himself; not only wrote for the New York 'Times,' but when General Grant visited him in New York, he sent Gould to see him so often that the President, unaware of the financial trap set for him, rebuked the door servant for giving Mr. Gould such ready access. But it is worthy of note that neither Corbin, Gould, nor Fisk ever spoke to the President of their personal interest in the matter. They were only patriots urging a certain course of conduct for the good of the country. These speculations as to the advantage to the country of a higher price of gold seem to have had some effect on the Presidential mind; for early in September he wrote to Mr. Boutwell, then at his Massachusetts home, giving his opinion of the financial condition of the country, and suggesting that it would not be wise to lower the price of gold by sales from the Treasury while the crops were moving to the seaboard. Mr. Boutwell therefore telegraphed to the Assistant Secretary at Washington only to sell gold sufficient to buy bonds for the sinking fund. Through Mr. Corbin or in some other way this letter came to the knowledge of the conspirators; for they at once began to purchase and the price began to rise. . . . On the 13th of September, gold, swelling and falling like the tide, stood at 135½. The clique then commenced their largest purchases, and within nine days had bought enough to hold sixty-six millions—nearly every cent of it fictitious, and only included in promises to pay. On the evening of Wednesday, September 22, the price was 140½; but it had taken the purchase of thirty or forty millions to put it up that five cents. Could it be forced five cents higher, and all sold, the profits would be over ten millions of dollars! It was a stake worth playing for. But the whole mercantile community was opposed to them; bountiful harvests were strong arguments against them; and more than all else, there stood the Sub-Treasury of the United States, with its hundred millions of dollars in its vaults, ready at any time to cast its plethora of wealth on their unfortunate heads. . . . Corbin, while assuring Gould that there was no danger of any Government sale, and yet himself greatly in trepidation, addressed a letter to General Grant urging him not to interfere with the warfare then raging between the bulls and the bears, nor to allow the Secretary of the Treasury to do so. . . . The letter would probably have had some effect, but unfortunately the ring overdid their business in the way in which they sent it." The letter was conveyed by a private messenger. The messenger, "Mr. Chapin, delivered his letter, asked General Grant if there was any reply, and being told there was none, started for his home, first telegraphing to his employer, 'Letter delivered all right.' It was a most unfortunate telegraphic message he sent back. He swears that his meaning was that the letter was delivered all right; and so the despatch reads. But the gold gamblers, blinded by the greatness of the stake at risk, interpreted the 'all right' of the message as an answer to the contents of Mr. Corbin's letter—that the President thought the letter all right; and on the strength of that reading Fisk rushed into the market and made numerous purchases of gold. But that very letter, which was intended to be their governmental safeguard, led to their ruin. Carried by special messenger for a day and a half, its urgency that the Administration should sell no gold, coupled with frequent assertions in the newspapers that Mr. Corbin was a great bull

in gold, excited General Grant's suspicions. He feared that Corbin was not actuated by patriotic motives alone in this secret correspondence. At the President's suggestion, therefore, Mrs. Grant wrote to her sister, Mrs. Corbin, telling her that rumors had reached them that Mr. Corbin was connected with speculators in New York, and that she hoped if this was so he would at once disengage himself from them; that the President was much distressed at such rumors. On the receipt of this letter, Mr. Corbin was greatly excited." Corbin showed the letter to Gould, and got himself let out of the game, so that he might be able to say to President Grant that he had no interest in gold; but Fisk was not told of the President's suspicions. "On the evening of Wednesday, September 21, it was determined to close the corner within two days." A desperate attack on the market began next morning. Gold opened that day at 139½; it closed at 144. The next day was "Friday, September 24, commonly called Black Friday, either from the black mark it caused on the characters of dealers in gold, or, as is more probable, from the ruin it brought to both sides. The Gold Room was crowded for two hours before the time of business. . . . Fisk was there, gloating over the prospect of great gains from others' ruin. His brokers were there, noisy and betting on the rapid rise of gold and the success of the corner. All alike were greatly excited, palpitating between hope and fear, and not knowing what an hour might bring forth. . . . Gold closed on Thursday at 144; Speyers [principal broker of the conspirators] commenced his work on Friday by offering 145, one per cent. higher than the last purchase. Receiving no response, he offered to buy at 146, 147, 148, and 149 respectively, but without takers. Then 150 was offered, and half a million was sold him by Mr. James Brown, who had quietly organized a band of prominent merchants who were determined to meet the gold gamblers on their own ground. . . . Amid the most tremendous confusion the voices of the excited brokers could be heard slowly bidding up the value of their artificial metal. Higher and higher rose the tide of speculation; from 156 to 159 there was no offer whatever; amid deep silence Speyers called out 'Any part of five millions for 160.' 'One million taken at 160,' was the quiet response of James Brown. Further offers were made by the brokers of the clique all the way from 160 to 163½. But Mr. Brown preferred to grapple the enemy by the throat, and he sold Speyers five millions more, making seven millions of gold sold that hour for which Speyers agreed to pay eleven millions in currency. Such figures almost stagger one to read of them! But Speyers continued to buy till before noon he had purchased nearly sixty millions. . . . As the price rose cent by cent, men's hearts were moved within them as the trees are shaken by the swelling of the wind. But when the first million was taken at 160 a great load was removed, and when the second million was sold there was such a burst of gladness, such a roar of multitudinous voices as that room. tumultuous as it had always been, never heard before. Everybody instantly began to sell, desiring to get rid of all their gold before it had tumbled too deep. And just as the precious metal was beginning to flow over the precipice, the news was flashed into the room that Government had telegraphed to sell four millions. Instantly the end was reached; gold fell to 140, and then down, down, down, to 133. There were no purchasers at any price. . . . The gold ring had that day bought sixty millions of gold, paying or

rather agreeing to pay therefor ninety-six millions of dollars in currency!" But Gould, Fisk & Co., who owned several venal New York judges, placed injunctions and other legal obstacles in the way of a settlement of claims against themselves. "Of course these judicious and judicial orders put an end to all business except that which was favorable to Fisk and Gould. They continued to settle with all parties who owed them money; they were judicially enjoined from settling with those to whom, if their own brokers may be believed, they were indebted, and they have not yet settled with them. . . . As the settlements between the brokers employed by the ring and their victims were all made in private, there is no means of knowing the total result. But it is the opinion of Mr. James B. Hodskin, Chairman of the Arbitration Committee of the Exchange, and therefore better acquainted with its business than any one else, that the two days' profits of the clique from the operations they acknowledged and settled for were not less than twelve millions of dollars; and that the losses on those transactions which they refused to acknowledge were not less than twenty millions. The New York 'Tribune' a day or two afterward put the gains of the clique at eleven million dollars. Some months after 'Black Friday' had passed away, Congress ordered an investigation into its causes. . . . For two or three days the whole business of New York stood still awaiting the result of the corner. . . . In good-will with all the world, with grand harvests, with full markets on both sides the Atlantic, came a panic that affected all business. Foreign trade came to a stand-still. The East would not send to Europe; the West could not ship to New York. Young men saw millions of dollars made in a few days by dishonesty; they beheld larger profits result from fraud than from long lives of honesty. Old men saw their best-laid plans frustrated by the operations of gamblers. Our national credit was affected by it. Europe was told that our principal places of business were nests of gamblers, and that it was possible for a small clique, aided by our banking institutions, to get possession of all the gold there was in the land; and that when one firm had gone through business transactions to the amount of over one hundred millions of dollars, the courts of the United States would compel the completion of those bargains which resulted in a profit, while those that ended in a loss were forbidden. For two or three months the sale of bonds in Europe was affected by the transactions of that day; and not until the present generation of business men has passed away will the evil influence of Black Friday be entirely lost."—W. R. Hooper, *Black Friday* (*Galaxy*, Dec., 1871).

1871-1914.—Currency and banking reforms in Germany.—Bank of Prussia made into bank of the empire.—Independent banks.—"When the . . . German Empire was established in 1871, the reform of the legislation upon currency and banking was felt to be a pressing necessity. In their coinage some German states had ranged themselves under the thaler system and others under the gulden, but in all there was a mass of old coin in circulation of obsolete denominations. The silver standard had been adhered to by all. Every member of the North German confederation, except the cities Hamburg, Lübeck, and Bremen, and the principality of Lippe, was issuing paper currency for the supply of its own wants. And finally thirty-three banks of issue, with capitals ranging from 1,200,000 marks to 35,000,000, had been established, each upon such basis as the state or city

establishing it found good, some holding perpetual charters, some incorporated for terms of years, and some holding only rights revocable at pleasure. These banks differed materially as to the limit of their authorized issues, and were under different obligations as to the holding of reserve. . . . The law of December 1871, provided for unity of coinage and prepared the way for the subsequent introduction of the gold standard by the act of July, 1873. Another law of April, 1874, provided for the extinction of the paper currency issued by the several German states, by creating a currency of imperial treasury notes (*Reichskassenscheine*), convertible into gold upon demand at the Treasury, but not a legal tender, and authorizing the distribution of the notes to the several states, to be used by them in taking up their local issues. Of the imperial paper 120,000,000 marks were distributed to the states in the ratio of population, and 55,000,000 more were advanced in amounts as required, and with this aid twenty local issues, amounting in the aggregate to rather more than 180,000,000 marks, were extinguished. And finally by a law of March, 1875, the banks of issue were brought under a common system, and the reform may be said to have been completed. The new system required the establishment of a central bank to be under the immediate supervision and direction of the imperial government, and the subjection of all other banks of issue to a uniform set of regulations and also to imperial supervision. To secure the first of these two objects, advantage was taken of the peculiar position of the Bank of Prussia. Originally established as a government bank, with a capital of 2,000,000 thalers supplied by the state, this bank had been enlarged by the admission of private stockholders until its capital had risen to 20,000,000 thalers, but without the surrender by the state of its power of control or of its disproportionate share of the profits. As a part of the new system, the Bank of Prussia now became the Bank of the Empire (*Reichsbank*). The Prussian government was paid for its share of the capital and surplus, and also received 15,000,000 marks for its interest in the goodwill of the establishment; and the capital was then raised by subscription to 120,000,000 marks, the whole of which was thus placed in private hands. The imperial government reserved to itself a direct power of control through the imperial chancellor and also by the appointment of the board of direction, giving to the shareholders the election of a committee charged with certain duties of consultation. Government control is therefore far greater than that exercised over the Reserve banks in the United States and somewhat more complete than in the case of the Bank of France. The Bank was required to receive and make payments, and to conduct other financial operations for the imperial treasury, without compensation, and also to manage free of cost the receipts and payments of the several states of the Empire. It was thus made in everything except its ownership a national bank on a large scale, although not the largest, and had its privileges secured to it for fifteen years. Certain general regulations adapted the thirty-two existing independent banks of issue to the new system. The exclusive right of issuing bank-notes was then given to them and to the Reichsbank, with a provision for transferring to the latter any right of issue which may be surrendered by any of the others. No limit was fixed for the aggregate circulation, but the possible aggregate of notes which could be issued without being covered by cash in hand was fixed at 385,000,000 marks. . . . Every bank is re-

quired to report its condition at four fixed dates in every month; and any excess of notes, shown by any such report, above the allowed limit and not covered by cash, is then taxed of one per cent. . . . In 1909 the limit on untaxed notes was raised to 550,000,000 marks and it was further provided that for the last week of each quarter the untaxed limit should be 750,000,000 marks. This interesting modification of the law was designed to enable the Bank to meet the heavy requirements for cash which came at the end of each quarter of the year when in Germany, to a greater extent than in most other countries, a great variety of obligations are payable. Under these new arrangements and also owing to some slackening in the activity of trade, the frequency and the amount of taxed issues of notes were greatly reduced though not entirely eliminated during the years immediately following the revision of the charter of the Reichsbank in 1909. The act of 1909 also made the notes of the Reichsbank a legal tender. . . . Upon the outbreak of the European War in 1914, the redemption of Reichsbank notes was immediately discontinued, and every effort was made to substitute the notes for the coin in circulation. The making the notes a legal tender in 1909 was unquestionably a wise measure paving the way for the monetary arrangements which were to be adopted if the country should engage in a great war. It was expected when the system was established in 1875 that the Reichsbank would ultimately absorb the issues of all the other banks, either through the relinquishment of these rights by the banks or in consequence of the intervention of the imperial government, but the seven independent banks which continued to exercise that privilege after 1893 did not appear likely to give up their issues. The Bank of Frankfort alone excepted, they were all outside Prussia, each in one of the other states of the Empire, (note—the banks of Saxony, Bavaria, Baden, South Germany [Hesse], Würtemberg, and Brunswick) holding a sort of territorial position, and sustained by the same influences which in so many other directions oppose the complete unification of the Empire. Their aggregate note-issue was small in comparison with that of the Reichsbank, amounting to less than 200,000,000 marks, and their operations did not affect seriously its leading position among German banks. At the renewal of the charter of the Reichsbank in 1899, however, these banks were subjected to an entirely novel measure of restriction which at once led three of them to relinquish the privilege of issue. They were forbidden to discount at a rate lower than that of the Reichsbank when its rate is as high as four per cent., and were allowed to discount but one fourth of one per cent. below its rate when it is under four per cent.”—C. F. Dunbar, *Theory and history of banking*, pp. 199-203, 211-213.—See also CAPITALISM: 18th-19th centuries; DEUTSCHE BANK; DRESDENER BANK; DISCONTO-GESELLSCHAFT.

1874-1890.—Resumption of specie payment in the United States.—“The political consequences of the panic [of 1873] were seen in the autumn of 1874, when the congressional elections, for the first time since 1860, went against the Republican party. Under the pressure of political necessity, [inspired in part by the vigorous tone of Grant’s veto and by the positive demands of Bristow, who succeeded Richardson as secretary of the treasury], a bill was enacted for the resumption of specie payments by the expiring Congress, January 14, 1876, while the Republicans still held power to rally to its support sufficient votes for its passage. The measure was loaded with a variety of pro-

visions: (1) A system of free banking; . . . (2) the retirement of greenbacks equal to 80 per cent. of the amount of new national bank-notes issued, until the greenback circulation should be reduced to \$300,000,000, after which no further reduction of the greenbacks was to take place. It was argued that this check would prevent either expansion or contraction of the currency, as nearly 20 per cent. of the notes were already held as bank reserves; (3) the withdrawal of paper fractional currency and substitution of silver coin; (4) removal of the charge for coinage of gold; (5) resumption of specie payments on January 1, 1879: for this purpose the treasury was authorized to use the surplus specie in the treasury; and, if necessary, to sell bonds, of the classes authorized under the act of July 14, 1870, in order to obtain additional gold. The legal-tender quality of both greenbacks and national bank-notes remained unchanged. . . . The act remained practically inoperative so far as the proposition for immediate resumption was concerned. Secretary Bristow in 1875-1876 did not favor the policy of accumulating gold in a reserve, as he deprecated the loss of interest on the specie so withdrawn; and he feared the serious opposition of the financial world, particularly of Germany, which was at that time abandoning silver for gold monometallism. . . . When Hayes became president, March, 1877, John Sherman of Ohio was appointed secretary of the treasury. . . . He had held an important part in framing the resumption act, and immediately upon taking office undertook more decided measures to carry it out. Sherman relied almost solely upon building up a gold reserve through the sale of bonds for coin. From Congress he realized that he would get no added support; rather there was danger that he would be prevented from doing anything at all, for in 1877 the inflationists were in control of both Houses of Congress, and again made a determined effort to repeal the resumption act. Such a measure was passed by the House of Representatives and failed in the Senate only through disagreement on details. The monetary system was also threatened with the free coinage of silver. Surrounded by embarrassments it was inevitable that Sherman should find difficulty in selling bonds: European financiers, alarmed by the greenback and silver coinage agitations, movements to be subsequently described, expected American finances to be deranged, and returned a considerable block of bonds which competed with the new issue. In spite of all obstacles, Sherman persisted in the policy of gold accumulation. He concluded that 40 per cent. of the notes was the smallest safe reserve of gold; on this basis \$138,000,000 in coin was necessary. On January 1, 1879, the treasury had gathered together \$133,000,000 of coin over and above all matured liabilities. To do this \$95,500,000 of bonds were sold, the balance being met from surplus revenue. Slowly but gradually the value of the notes approached parity with gold, and on December 17, 1878, a fortnight before the date set, paper currency was quoted at par. . . . In the actual carrying out of resumption, it is to be observed that there was no contraction whatever in the paper currency; no destruction of treasury notes took place; very little paper money was presented for gold, and whatever came in was paid out again by the treasury for immediate use. Under the original resumption act of 1875, authority was given for the cancellation of \$82,000,000 legal tender (dependent upon issue of new bank-notes), which would have reduced the total volume to \$300,000,000. Some contended that under the resumption

act of 1875 there could be no reissue of the greenbacks when once received into the treasury. The inflationist successes of 1877-1878 settled this uncertainty once for all, since Congress, May 31, 1878, ordered that there be no further destruction of greenbacks. The amount then outstanding was \$346,681,000, a slight reduction from the \$382,000,000 outstanding in January, 1875. . . . It was also enacted in 1878 that all notes when received into the treasury shall be 'reissued and paid out again and kept in circulation,' and the constitutional doubts as to the right to do this were . . . removed by the Supreme Court. The burden of redemption in gold was thus made perpetual, although no automatic process was devised which would promise an ever-ready stock of gold for exchange. Fortunately, on account of the commercial prosperity which was reflected in large treasury surpluses, the burden of keeping up the gold reserve was lightly felt during the next ten years. When, however, a new supply of treasury notes was added by the act of 1890, without any added provision for the gold reserve, and revenues showed a deficit instead of a surplus, the weakness of the arrangement was disclosed."—D. R. Dewey, *Financial history of the United States*, pp. 372-377. See also GREENBACK PARTY; U. S. A.: 1878; 1890-1893; SUPREME COURT: 1867-1884.

1896-1913.—Period of inflation in the United States.—"From 1896 to 1913 the United States, like all other gold standard countries, went through a period of inflation. In those 17 years the country's stock of monetary gold increased 212 per cent.; the amount of money in circulation, 123 per cent.; and bank deposits, subject to check, 201 per cent. There is evidence of substantial increase during the same period both in the rate of money and deposit turnover. . . . Here was an expansion of currency and circulating credit far in excess of the growth in the physical volume of business—an expansion due chiefly to the great increase in the world's gold production, an increase of which the United States received a continually growing share. Under such circumstances a great rise in the country's price level was to be expected. What took place is familiar to all. Our American wholesale price level rose about 50 per cent. during the 17 years from 1896 to 1913, representing an average annual increase of about 2.4 per cent., measured geometrically."—H. R. Seager, *Inflation and high prices (Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science, v. 9, pp. 1-2)*.

19th-20th centuries.—Financial development in various countries. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1906-1908; BOLIVIA: 1911-1914; CUBA: 1912-1914; EGYPT: 1911-1914; HONDURAS, BRITISH: 1862-1910; INDIA: 1893-1914; 1917-1919; JAMAICA: 1899; MEXICO: 1904-1905; NEWFOUNDLAND: 1811-1894; NICARAGUA: 1912-1913; SWITZERLAND: 1921.

19th-20th centuries.—State banking in the United States. See KENTUCKY: 1818-1820; LOUISIANA: 1843-1853; MISSISSIPPI: 1818-1890; 1908-1918; NORTH DAKOTA: 1919; WISCONSIN: 1905-1911.

20th century.—China.—Cash.—Silver.—Tael unit.—Foreign dollars.—Provincial silver coinage.—The currency of modern China cannot be called a system. It is a number of systems. There is cash coinage; the currency of silver bullion based on the tael unit; silver coins, the dollars of foreign and provincial mintage; and minor silver coins, fractional parts of the dollar circulating independently of the unit and with no limitations upon their legal-tender quality. The currency may be regarded as on a bimetallic basis, with the copper cash and the silver tael as the units, but

this is not to be understood as the bimetalism of the West requiring free coinage of two metals, gold and silver, both legal tender and with a fixed ratio between the units of coinage. The two metals in the Chinese currency are independent of each other and circulate without a fixed exchange ratio. The cash is a standard coin; the tael is an uncoined unit of weight. The standard weight of cash, according to one authority, should be 57 grains of the metal of which it is made,—copper, with as much spelter or zinc (sometimes lead) as the copper will take up. Counterfeiting practices are so common that they have been one of the chief causes of frequent price inflations in local markets and counterfeit coins are usually accepted without question. The lack of uniformity in weight and size of cash coins may be accounted for by concurrent circulation of issues of many reigns of the Manchu dynasty with the survivals of issues of preceding centuries; by the crude method of coining which rendered uniformity impossible, particularly when the cash mints were not under the control and management of one central authority; and by the circulating of counterfeit coins. Until recently the cash has always been cast in moulds which made counterfeiting quite easy. The establishment of the silver currency has been gradual. Even today in the interior regions cash is almost the sole currency. Silver was first introduced as currency in commerce during the paper currency régime, though without the sanction of the government. It is impossible to determine the date of this innovation even approximately. Since the establishment of the Manchu dynasty most large transactions and treasury operations have been conducted in silver. A great deal of the silver stock in China came from foreign commerce. Direct foreign trade with Western countries began at Canton in 1516, first with the Portuguese. During the early years the tea and silk trades brought into China a steady importation of silver. It is estimated (H. B. Morse) that during the 18th century the imports of goods never equalled the exports of tea and silk, but that instead the imports never amounted to one-fifth of the exports, the balance always being paid in silver. From statistical evidence it appears that China has been a regular silver-importing country and has exported a considerable amount of her gold. The tael, the silver currency, is decimally divided into mace, candareens, etc., and is a measure of weight as well as a money of account. Lack of government regulation has allowed the tael to become very irregular in weight and, also, the purity of silver bullion is liable to variation. Hence commercial usage recognises several degrees of fineness in the bullion in every important market, and the weighing and testing of bullion involves inaccuracy as well as loss of time. Only in recent years has the Chinese government attempted to coin silver. Coast trade first brought dollars to China, the Portuguese and Spaniards having brought them early in the 17th century, and later the East India Company imported them to buy tea and silk. Early trade relations were almost exclusively through Canton and, by edict issued in 1757, that port was made the sole trading-post, and remained so until after the Opium War. The Spanish dollar was the most popular one but after considerable circulation it was diminished by fraud, such as filing, paring and drilling the coin, and the circulation of these led to a precautionary measure in the "chopped dollar." The merchant into whose hands foreign coins came, having lost confidence in them, chopped them with an impressed idea-

gram thereby giving them his guarantee of genuineness. When this was repeated by succeeding bankers the coins became defaced and resembled a sort of disc. The coin most popular in later years has been the Mexican dollar. The American trade dollar was declared lawful money promptly on its appearance, but most of these went to the melting pot, being heavier than the Mexican coin. This was first begun and a mint established at Canton in 1887 not as part of a national currency system, but as a convenience for provincial trade. Before the close of the century several mints had been established in the province, all making coins of different weight and quality of silver, and all without direct control of the Board of Revenue. The addition of these provincial dollars to the circulation further confused currency conditions. Moreover, the silver mints, finding a popular demand for fractional coins, issued enormous quantities of these minor pieces, greatly disproportionate to the output of the dollar pieces, with the result that fractional silver coins depreciated in terms of the dollar unit and have since been fluctuating in local markets and circulating without reference to the standard coin. A system of coins adjusted to trade convenience, but with fixed relation to a unit of value, would encourage internal commerce and trade, stimulate foreign commerce and remove the confusion and inconvenience of the present hampering currency. Monetary reform in establishing one system would do away with the weighing and testing and calculating, and the conversion of one kind of currency for another, each of which stands in no definite ratio to the other but fluctuates just as the law of supply and demand or the speculators make it.—Based on W. P. Wei, *Currency problem in China (Studies in history, economics and public law)*, pp. 30-51.—See also U.S.A.: 1907-1917.

1901-1909.—United States.—Review of decade.—Phenomena from beginning of "the great trade boom" to collapse of 1907, and after.—Process of recovery.—On December 31, 1908, the *New York Evening Post* gave a review of the sequence of phenomena in financial and commercial affairs that could be traced through "the series of years since the great trade boom began which collapsed in 1907," and thence to the close of 1908. By permission of the proprietors of the *Evening Post* a considerable part of that review is quoted here. While it relates more especially to conditions and events in the United States, it affords substantially a summary of the financial history of the world from 1901 to 1908, both inclusive:

"1901.—This was preëminently the 'boom year'—much more legitimately so, as events have proved, than 1905 or 1906, when overstrained capital resources gave an atmosphere of unreality to what seemed altogether real in the days of abundant capital in 1901. It is first to be said of 1901 that a probably unexampled surplus of ready capital in the United States, and a certainly unprecedented foreign credit balance—due to our amazing surplus of exports over imports—happened to coincide with a period of European trade reaction which released foreign capital from foreign industries and left it free for use in America. Presuming the foregoing influences, the six main causes for the phenomena of 1901 were: (1) The series of enormous company amalgamations, beginning with the billion-dollar Steel incorporation, and culminating in the purchase of the British steamship lines at wildly extravagant prices; these operations being based on issues of securities in unprecedented quantity; (2) Formation of 'underwriting syndicates' to float these securities, one of

those syndicates receiving a bonus of \$50,000,000 for one year's use of \$25,000,000, and all of them using freely for their purposes the surpluses of life insurance companies and the deposits of trust companies; (3) Acquisition of control of great railway companies by powerful millionaires, through purchase of stock of these railways in the open market, often at extravagant prices; the purchase-money being obtained through issue of bonds by railways already under control of the purchasers; (4) Wild speculation by the public; (5) Sudden fright of Europe at our excesses, withdrawal of its capital, and consequent severe reaction in our markets; (6) The failure of the corn crop, which in the summer applied a further check to this speculation, but which was itself offset by a wheat crop larger than any harvested in this country before or since, and sold at the highest average price since 1897.

"1902.—This year was one both of reaction and of further expansion; it was both a legitimate sequel to 1901 and a legitimate forerunner of 1903. . . . Its salient phenomena were these: (1) Abundant harvests; (2) Overstraining of bank resources by financial 'deals' and Stock Exchange speculation, exhausting the bank surplus in September; (3) Enormous increase in imports and decrease in agricultural exports, along with Europe's withdrawal of its capital; (4) Rapid advance in cost of raw material and labor; (5) Struggle of capitalists to so entrench themselves in control of corporate enterprises that they could not be dislodged.

"1903.—The year which followed was an entirely logical sequel. Its controlling factors were: (1) Forced liquidation by individuals and syndicates who were tied up in new securities at a time when the investing public withdrew from the market; (2) Inability of great corporations to sell bonds, and their resort to notes at a high interest rate; (3) Abundant grain crops, but an inadequate cotton crop, with great speculation, and famine prices; (4) Rapid fall in the price of steel and iron; (5) Severe contraction in profits of industrial combinations, with reduced dividends in some, reorganization of capital in others, and bankruptcy in still others.

"1904.—For obvious reasons, 1904 is an interesting year to compare with 1908. Both were in a sense 'after-panic years,' though the strain of 1903, and the resultant financial and commercial reaction of 1904, were trifles compared with those of the past two years. It will be seen that 1904, which did in fact usher in another great boom in trade, paralleled closely in some respects the history of 1908, but in others diverged very widely from it. Its dominant influences were: (1) A huge surplus reserve at the New York banks, reaching in August a height only four times exceeded in the country's history, and as a result a 1 per cent call money market during two-thirds of the year; (2) The largest gold export movement in the history of the country; (3) A midsummer recovery on the Stock Exchange, with large investment buying; (4) A Presidential campaign, which hardly affected business; (5) Substantial, but not very rapid, trade revivals, without any of the extravagant optimism of 1908; (6) Famine prices for cotton during half the year, followed by a new crop unparalleled in history, and by a heavy fall in prices; (7) Virtual disappearance of our export trade in wheat, with the smallest harvest since 1900, the highest prices since 1808, and the smallest shipment to Europe since 1872. The Russian war, which began in February, affected our markets only indirectly.

"1905.—This year's history is better understood

to-day than it has been before. The testimony of the whole financial and commercial world now is, that the exploiting of capital in trade and speculation, which eventually brought about the recent panic, and the abnormal enhancement of cost of living, which lifted the average price of commodities as much in two years as it had risen in the eight preceding years, began in the middle of 1905. These were the salient incidents of the financial year: (1) Rapid and vigorous trade revival, with industry and production probably more active than at any previous period, and with profits and dividends enhanced; (2) Exposure of the use of life insurance funds by promoting and speculating millionaires, an exposure which ended in legislation preventing such use of them in future speculations; (3) World-wide money stringency, with the New York bank surplus twice exhausted, London's bank position the weakest since 1890, and Berlin's the weakest since 1897; (4) Excited stock speculation for the rise, in this country and in Germany, which in New York almost wholly disregarded the abnormal strain on money.

"1906.—Neither the \$400,000,000 loss at San Francisco in April, nor the Treasury's efforts to relieve an overstrained New York money market in September, was a fundamental cause for the events of 1906. They were a true sequel to 1905, and may be summarized as follows: (1) Enormous volume of trade, the whole world over, with rapid rise in price of goods, but equally rapid rise in cost of raw material and labor; (2) Grain harvests, as a whole, never paralleled in volume, and wheat crop second only to 1901; (3) Wild speculation by all classes of the community, particularly in land, mining shares, and Stock Exchange securities, but not as a rule in produce, the wealthiest capitalists in the country entering into stock speculation in the late summer, and using most unscrupulously their power over company finance to help along their purposes; (4) Overstrained bank resources as a result, with five deficits at New York, occurring in spring, autumn, and winter, two of these deficits being the largest since 1893; (5) Abnormally high money rates all the year, with the highest September rate for call loans ever reached in New York, and the highest rate for time loans and merchants' paper reached at that time of year since 1872; (6) Sudden decision by Europe that American credit was unlimited, and the consequent placing of foreign capital unrestrictedly at our disposal; (7) Struggle between London and New York for possession of new gold arriving in London, resulting in our import of \$40,000,000 gold from Europe in the spring, and \$45,000,000 in the autumn, and leading to a rise of the Bank of England rate to 6 per cent. for the first time since the Boer war panic, and to an energetic effort on the Bank's part to stop the wholesale equipping of the American speculation with London bank money.

"1907.—The panic year's story may be told without further introduction, summing up thus its characteristic events: (1) Withdrawal by Europe of the capital loaned to us in 1906, leading, early in the year, to \$32,000,000 gold exports to Europe, of which \$25,000,000 went to France; (2) Partial withdrawal of their capital from Wall Street by interior markets, which were said to have had \$400,000,000 outstanding in New York during 1906; (3) Distress of the immensely wealthy capitalists who had tied themselves up in the Wall Street speculation of 1906, their forced liquidation on an enormous scale, and consequent demoralized Stock Exchange markets in March

and August; (4) Very abnormal crop weather throughout the spring and over nearly all the world, with a resultant shortage of the whole world's wheat crop, the deficit of supplies below expected requirements being probably the largest since 1890; (5) Revelation of unsound banking practices at New York in October; leading to the failure of the Knickerbocker Trust, a formidable run on the banks, adoption of Clearing House certificates in all the larger cities and issue of emergency credit currency in many; to restriction of cash payments to depositors throughout the country, to a premium on currency, to complete demoralization of interior exchange, and to insolvency of several large industrial companies and numerous banks—neither, however, reaching the number which shortly followed the panic of 1893; (6) Import of \$100,000,000 gold from Europe during November and December, most of it bought at a premium and some of it engaged with sight sterling at 4.91; (7) As a result, large inroads on the Bank of England's gold reserve, rise in the bank rate from 4½ to 7 per cent., rapid advance of all continental bank rates, and loan of large sums of gold by the Bank of France to the Bank of England; (8) Precarious position of financial Germany throughout the year, important failures at Hamburg, minor financial panics in Holland, Egypt, Italy, and Chili, many of them before our own; (9) Intervention of our Treasury, which wisely placed all its surplus on deposit with the banks in October, and most unwisely undertook to issue \$150,000,000 bonds and notes in November to provide basis for new bank-note circulation; (10) Recovery in markets late in November, with slow return of the bank situation to normal, the currency premium at New York lasting longer than in either 1893 or 1873; (11) Discharge of laborers from employment all over the country, and the beginning of severe trade reaction—all this in spite of the largest annual gold output in the history of the world.

"1908.—Now comes the present remarkable after-panic year, of which the salient phenomena may be thus summed up: (1) Spasmodic and irregular recovery in trade activity, starting from a very low level, with merchants rushing in suddenly with orders—in February, in July, and in November—when their shelves were almost depleted, these buying impulses ceasing as suddenly as they had begun, leaving trade stagnation again; (2) Slow increase in consumption of merchandise, here and abroad, the ratio being below 30 per cent. of normal at the beginning of the year, and 60 to 75 per cent. on the average at its close; (3) Sudden shrinkage of our international commerce, merchandise trade in eleven months falling \$478,000,000 from 1907, a decline of 15 per cent., of which \$326,000,000 was imports and \$152,000,000 exports, experience of European nations being similar; (4) Enormous increase in the unemployed, leading, at the Atlantic ports, to an emigration 250,000 larger than immigration; (5) Severe contraction of railway earnings, resulting in twenty-four railway insolvencies, involving the largest capital of any receiverships since those of 1893, and causing many dividend reductions, but followed, after the middle of the year, by such enormous reduction in expenses that, in some cases, autumn net earnings actually increased over 1907; (6) Sudden rush of currency into the banks, as a result, first of removal of restrictions on depositors and next of idle trade, with resultant change from a \$20,000,000 New York bank deficit at the end of 1907 to a surplus of \$40,000,000 at the end of January and of \$66,000,000 on June 27—the lat-

ter being second only to the \$111,000,000 maximum of 1894; (7) As a consequence, abnormally low rates for money, call loans going at 2 per cent. before the end of January, at 1 per cent. in eighteen weeks of the present year, and at less than 1 per cent. in three weeks; (8) Export of \$73,000,000 gold, the largest (except for 1904) since 1895, and net export of \$45,000,000, the largest in thirteen years; (9) In spite of the above recited facts, a constant spirit of optimism throughout the year, expressing itself, first in the organization of 'Prosperity Leagues' which held conventions and proclaimed that if people would only decide to be prosperous, they would be prosperous, and second by a series of extravagant speculative movements on the Stock Exchange, in the course of which it was declared in February, in July, and in November, that we were not only destined to get back into the boom of 1906, but that we were there already; (10) A wheat harvest which in midsummer promised to be the second largest on record, but which turned out only of average volume, the quality and price for this and other cereals, however, being so good as to enhance very greatly the wealth of the agricultural West; (11) A Presidential election, the result of which the markets and all experienced people foresaw from the beginning, but of which it was alleged, for two weeks in November, that its outcome had totally changed for the better the entire aspect of American business affairs."—See also U.S.A.: 1908 (April-November).

1909.—The following, from the *New York Evening Post* of December 31, 1909, continues the review: The noteworthy characteristics of "the year which ends to-day, . . . so far as they can now be discerned, have been as follows: (1) Rapid industrial recovery, beginning with the steel trade's reduction of prices, leading in September to the largest monthly output of iron and steel in the history of the country, and to heavy demand from consumers, but contrasting singularly with the copper market, where signs of overproduction were visible throughout the year; (2) Very rapid increase in cost of necessaries of life, affecting chiefly food, clothing, and rent, leading in the autumn to bitter complaint and to numerous strikes for higher wages, notably on the railways; (3) Along with reviving trade, a speculation of great magnitude on the Stock Exchange, ascribed to the initiative of very powerful finance houses, and converging in a most peculiar way on United States Steel common shares, whose dividend was twice advanced, notwithstanding the fact that quarterly earnings had not recovered to the magnitude of 1906 or 1907, when the dividend had been maintained at the old rate; (4) Largely as a result of the tying-up of capital in this speculation, severe autumn strain on bank reserves, turning a New York surplus of \$34,000,000 on July 10 into one of only \$1,600,000 on October 2, driving Wall Street to probably unprecedented borrowings from interior banks and from London, which latter market, under the influence of the Bank of England, threw back great amounts of these New York loans during October; (5) Call money rates kept down by such expedients, 6 per cent. being the maximum up to the two closing days of December; (6) A wheat corner in June, in the course of which the New York cash price rose to \$1.51 in June, the highest price since the Leiter corner of 1898, followed by a new wheat crop unsurpassed in magnitude except for 1901, yet with high prices continued in later autumn, despite an abundant crop in Europe also; (7) A very short crop of cotton, driving the price from

9½ cents a pound, early in the year, to 16 cents in December, the latter being the highest December price since paper inflation days, and less than one cent below the highest price in the corner of 1904; (8) Import of foreign merchandise wholly unparalleled for magnitude in our history, causing, in June, July, and August, an excess of imports over exports for the first time since 1897, and resulting, in the eleven first months of the year, in a total excess of exports over imports \$340,000,000 less than in 1908, and very much the smallest of any year since 1897; (9) As a partial consequence, the largest export of gold of any year in the country's history, and the largest net export except for 1894, and the paper money days. The prolonged tariff debate in Congress, which high financial authority declared would hold back financial activity, but which gave no evidence of doing so, can hardly be classed as a fundamental influence of the year. Whether Mr. Harriman's death in September, with the resultant realignment of forces in high finance, deserves to be so classed, is a question which can hardly be passed upon as yet."

1907-1916.—Trust companies in the United States.—A special committee appointed in 1907 by Charles E. Hughes, then governor of New York, reported in December of that year their deliberations as to what changes, if any, are advisable in the law of the State relating to the incorporation, conduct and supervision of banks and trust companies, but it was not until 1911 that any agreements were reached between these institutions and the New York Clearing House. A satisfactory settlement was first definitely indicated at a dinner of six hundred bankers given at the Waldorf-Astoria Hotel, New York, May 6, 1911. Three days later the Clearing House almost unanimously voted to accept as a full member any trust company capitalized at \$1,000,000 or more, requiring that such company carry the 15 per cent. reserve required by law, and that it maintain a 10 per cent. deposit with a member bank. Twenty-nine trust companies out of a total forty-three were eligible under the capitalization requirement, and eighteen of these became members of the N. Y. Clearing House. The total deposits of the bank and trust company members of the New York Clearing House on June 30, 1916, was nearly \$3,500,000,000, of which approximately one-half represented the holdings of the trust companies. Mergers and absorptions from 1903 and 1916 reduced by concentration the number of trust companies in Greater New York from forty-seven to twenty-nine. Comptroller Knox reported a total of 42 trust companies in the United States in 1875; and 120 in 1889; the *American Bank Reporter* listed 569 trust companies with a total of \$662,000,000 resources in 1895; the *Bankers Encyclopedia* showed 509 trust companies in 1896; the United States Mortgage and Trust Company's annual publication, *Trust Companies of the United States*, shows the remarkable increase from 1903 to 1916, giving a total of 912 trust companies holding total resources of \$2,010,000,000 in 1903, and a total of 1777 trust companies with an aggregate of \$6,328,000,000 in 1915. These figures represent a constant and steady advance in growth with the exception of a very slight decline after the panic of 1907.—Based on E. T. B. Perine, *Story of the trust companies*, pp. 295-298.

1908.—United States Emergency Currency Act.—A temporary measure known as the Emergency Currency Act, providing for cases of currency stringency similar to the experience of 1907,

was passed by Congress in May, 1908. See above: 1863-1914.

1912-1913.—Federal reserve system.—Federal reserve districts.—Plan of organization.—Gold standard.—Foreign exchange.—“The federal reserve act of 1913 is one of the most important pieces of financial legislation enacted in modern times. . . . Our old American banking system had many substantial merits. It was reasonably safe, it yielded good profits, it was adaptable to the local needs of widely varying communities, and it developed the check and clearing system to a degree of perfection found in few if any other countries. Along with these meritorious features, however, it contained a number of very serious defects, the chief of [which were] . . . decentralization, . . . inelasticity of credit, . . . cumbersome exchange and transfer system, [and] . . . defective organization as regards relationship with the federal treasury.”—E. W. Kemmerer, *A B C of the federal reserve system*, pp. 1-8.—“The Aldrich Vreeland Act of 1908 was the cover under which preparations were made for a thorough revision of our currency system. . . . The preliminary draft of the Federal Reserve Act was formed by a subcommittee of the House Banking and Currency Committee, under the chairmanship of Carter Glass, in the winter of 1912-1913. The expert of this committee, and afterward Secretary of the Federal Reserve Board, H. Parker Willis, had probably more influence than any other man in shaping the measure in its formative legislative period. . . . The statesmanship by which President Wilson, with the aid of Democratic leaders, put their party behind an epoch-making constructive measure and passed it on December 23, 1913, is a monumental event in our political career.”—J. L. Laughlin, *Political history of federal reserve bank*, pp. 143-150.—See also U.S.A.: 1913 (April-December).—“The federal reserve act does not destroy our American system of small independent banks . . . [but] continues these thousands of independent banks with all their essential functions, [and] . . . federates them into a unified system, democratic in organization and nationwide in its field of operation. . . . There are twelve federal reserve banks, each of which operates in one of the federal reserve districts into which the country is divided. In determining the boundaries of these districts the authorities were required to have ‘regard to the convenience and customary course of business,’ to make each district large enough to provide the minimum capital of \$4,000,000 required by law, and to make none so large as to dominate the others, thereby endangering the federal principle which the law sought to establish. . . . The fact that the number of banks and the amount of banking capital in different sections of the country vary so widely explains the great differences in the geographic sizes of the federal reserve districts. . . . All national banks are required to be members of the system, and state banks and trust companies (which conform to certain standards as to size and character of business) are encouraged to join; . . . state institutions . . . have lately been joining in ever increasing numbers. Member banks are required to subscribe to the capital stock of the federal reserve bank in their district to an amount equal to six per cent of the member bank’s capital and surplus. . . . [Each of the federal reserve district groups was originally required to contain approximately the same number of banks, but by the amendment of September 26, 1918, this requirement was discontinued.] In order to prevent the large banks from dominating

the small ones . . . and to assure the small banks of representation on the board of directors, . . . all the member banks in a . . . district are [divided into three groups, big banks, little banks, and middle-sized banks]. . . . Each group elects two directors, one of whom, called a Class A director, is a banker and represents the stock-holding banks, while the other, called a Class B director, is a business man or farmer and represents the business community. . . . [Three Class C directors, one of whom is designated chairman of the board and is known as federal reserve agent, are appointed by the central authorities at Washington.] The board thus consists of nine directors, who hold office for three years (the term of office of one director of each class terminating each year). . . . [The whole system is under] the central board at Washington, known as the federal reserve board. This consists of seven members, including the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Comptroller of the Currency . . . and five members appointed by the President of the United States with the advice and consent of the Senate; . . . at least two of these five members . . . must be ‘experienced in banking or finance.’ . . . The board is assisted by a federal advisory council consisting of twelve members appointed respectively by the boards of directors of the twelve federal reserve banks. The advisory council meets with the federal reserve board at least four times each year, and oftener if called by the board. . . . In matters of general policy the federal reserve board is given large powers and is the directing head of the system.”—E. W. Kemmerer, *A B C of the federal reserve system*, pp. 28-34.—“No change is made in regard to any of the following forms of money: gold, gold certificates, silver, silver certificates, and United States notes. Indeed all past questions touching the standard were definitely settled by a remarkable amendment in the House, now embodied in Sec. 26 of the new act, which emphasized the maintenance of the gold standard. . . . It was the act of 1913 rather than the act of 1900 that practically established the gold standard. Likewise, the only provision affecting the greenbacks is that (Sec. 7) which devotes the net earnings from reserve banks accruing to the United States ‘to supplement the gold reserve held against outstanding United States notes,’ or to reduce the bonded indebtedness at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury. The direct purpose of the new act is to replace the national bank notes within a period of twenty years or more, by federal reserve notes.”—J. L. Laughlin, *Political history of federal reserve bank*, pp. 237-238.—See also below: 1913-1919.—“Under the new act ‘any member bank may accept drafts or bills of exchange upon it and growing out of transactions involving the importation or exportation of goods having not more than six months sight to run; but no bank shall accept such bills to an amount equal at any time in the aggregate to more than one-half its paid-up capital stock and surplus.’ (Sec. 13).”—*Ibid.*, p. 272.—Federal reserve banks have established agencies and branches abroad with the Bank of England, Banque de France, Bank of Italy, Bank of Japan, National Bank of Sweden, Bank of Norway and the National Bank of the Philippines.

1913-1919.—Federal reserve system.—District centralization of bank reserves.—Mobilization of reserves.—Gold settlement fund.—“The federal reserve act as originally passed provided for the gradual withdrawal of legal reserve money from deposit in the banks of reserve and central

reserve cities. All such deposited legal reserves were to be withdrawn by the end of a three-year period beginning with the date of the inauguration of the federal reserve system. Accordingly, after November 16, 1917, all legal reserve money of member banks, the law required to be held 'in the vaults of the member banks or in the federal reserve bank, or in both, at the option of the member bank' (section 19 of Act). In conformity with this requirement the percentage of the legal reserves of member banks kept on deposit in the banks of reserve and central reserve cities declined very much by the summer of 1917. On June 21, 1917, an amendment was passed to the federal reserve act requiring every bank, banking association or trust company belonging to the federal reserve system to maintain its entire legal reserve in the form of a deposit at the federal reserve bank of its district. . . . This divorcing of the legal reserves of nearly 8,000 commercial banks from the speculative and capital loans of the stock market—mainly that of Wall Street—is one of the big achievements of the federal reserve system. . . . On March 1, 1918, the twelve federal reserve banks held deposited reserves of other banks to the amount of \$1,442 millions. . . . The federal reserve banks, of course, do not keep on hand all the reserve money deposited by member banks. Like other banks, they invest it. The law, however, requires them to keep a reserve of thirty-five per cent against deposits, and it is their established policy to maintain reserves much larger than this normal legal minimum. A corollary to the district centralization of reserves is their mobilization. Reserve money must not only be piped into a few large reservoirs, but these large reservoirs must be piped together, and there must be a pumping engine of sufficient power to force the reserves promptly and in large quantities to any place desired. The federal reserve system creates this machinery."—E. W. Kemmerer, *A B C of the federal reserve system*, pp. 35-39.—"Unnoticed by the great mass of the people, the federal reserve banks have introduced a smoothness and simplicity in handling huge financial transactions that would have been incredible under the old system. [Witness the \$4,000,000,000 taxes collected by the federal government in a few weeks in the summer of 1918, also the handling of the various Liberty Loans.] . . . Under the federal reserve system these huge financial transactions have been largely accomplished by bookkeeping entries. Various officers of the federal reserve banks, and very specially the central office of the Federal Reserve Board at Washington, have developed a marvelous *finesse* in balancing debits and credits. This has involved a study in advance of the probable demands to be made on banks in various localities, the effort to route collection items through them in such a way as to give them funds which would break the shock of the heavy withdrawals, providing in advance to rediscount paper for them, and suggesting to the Treasury the best places where government deposits might be made to offset heavy drafts. It has also involved the policy of rediscounting on the part of one federal reserve bank for another in such a way as to keep their gold reserve ratios approximately equal. The Treasury systems of preceding great loans and heavy tax payments by marketing short term Treasury certificates maturing on dates when tax or liberty loan payments were due, and receivable by the Treasury for such payments, has in itself been a factor of the first magnitude for reducing financial friction."—B. M. Anderson, *Effects of the war on money, credit and banking in France*

and the United States, pp. 170-171.—See also U. S. A.: 1917-1919: Taxation and expenditures.—The gold settlement fund was planned early in 1914 and established in June, 1915. It was designed to lessen the necessity of the physical transfers of gold from one federal reserve bank to another. "Each federal reserve bank . . . [is required] to forward to the treasury or the nearest sub-treasury of the United States . . . \$1,000,000 in gold or gold certificates, and in addition an amount at least equal to its indebtedness to all federal reserve banks. . . . Each federal reserve bank is required to maintain a balance in the fund of not less than \$1,000,000. As a matter of fact all the banks carry balances very many times as large as this minimum. . . . By means of [the gold settlement] fund, . . . these banks are now enabled to make telegraphic transfers of funds to . . . [any member bank, without charge; and] to inaugurate a system of federal reserve exchange drafts, [according to which] . . . a member bank may draw special drafts on its federal reserve bank for amounts not exceeding \$5,000, which are receivable for immediate availability at any other federal reserve bank. [On September 12, 1919, the gold settlement fund amounted in round numbers to \$538,000,000.]"—E. W. Kemmerer, *A B C of the federal reserve system*, pp. 76-77.—"On July 1, 1918, daily settlements between the federal reserve banks were inaugurated, reducing the amount of gold that has to be transferred from one to another at any given date, and making it possible for the Federal Reserve Board at Washington to keep in constant touch with the reserve situation of each bank and to keep reserve percentages equalized by constant rediscounting. Daily settlements do not necessarily mean daily shipments of gold to and from Washington. 'Suspense accounts' kept by the various federal reserve banks with the gold settlement fund, obviate this. It would be hard to give too much praise to the efficiency and initiative of the men who have worked out this wonderful system of substituting book transfers for the large cash shipments which the old system involved."—B. M. Anderson, *Effects of the war on money, credit and banking in France and the United States*, p. 171.

See also INDEPENDENT TREASURY.

1913-1920.—World War and inflation.—Stability of American dollar.—Proposed legislation.—Question of England's return to gold standard.—"The forces that pushed up the price level during the period 1890 to 1913 were still operating when the European war broke out. They presumably would have continued to push up prices for some time had there been no war, and they exerted an upward pressure on the price level during the war itself. While the world's annual gold production declined somewhat during the later years of the war, the amounts produced none the less continued to be large, as compared with the average for any considerable number of previous years, and they were being poured into a reservoir of gold whose level had been for many years a rising one. . . . It is impossible to determine to what extent, if any, some of the organic changes made in our banking system during the last six years should be attributed to war causes. An important instance is the federal reserve amendment of June 21, 1917, providing for a further reduction in legal reserves of member banks and discounting entirely all cash-in-vault legal reserve requirements for these banks. . . . Important reductions in legal reserve requirements were made by our federal reserve legislation prior to the outbreak of the war in Europe and with no reference to such a contingency. Our banking sys-

tem had been cumbersome and our use of reserves exceedingly wasteful. . . . The remedying of these evils through the federal reserve system made possible and desirable the release from reserves of large quantities of money with corresponding reductions in reserve ratios. Under normal conditions this release would have resulted in heavy net exportations of gold. . . . In 1913 the most important item in our paper money circulation was the gold certificate which was backed dollar for dollar by gold and of which the circulation amounted to almost exactly one billion dollars. The new federal reserve note called for a legal minimum gold reserve of 40 per cent. Even before our entrance into the war, the federal reserve bank had adopted the policy of withholding gold certificates from circulation and putting in their places federal reserve notes. This policy strengthened the gold position of the federal reserve banks and put into circulation a more elastic form of paper money. It none the less was a cause of inflation; for it substituted in active circulation, a form of paper money requiring a 40 per cent. legal reserve for one requiring 100 per cent. . . . A billion dollars of gold certificates, if withdrawn from circulation and used as a 40 per cent. reserve for federal reserve notes, would permit a net currency expansion of \$1,500 millions. Under normal conditions the effect of such a policy on prices would have been small for the policy would have forced gold out of the country and thereby the resulting inflation would have been spread out rather thinly over the gold standard countries of the entire world. . . . Prior to our own entrance as a belligerent in the war, the largest flood of gold that has ever come to any country within the same length of time in the world's history, came to us. The four months, August to November, 1914, witnessed a net exportation of gold of 85.7 millions, chiefly in response to Europe's demands upon us for the liquidation of our floating indebtedness to her. In December, however, the tide turned and from August 1, 1914, to April 1, 1917, our total net importation of gold amounted to \$1,109 millions. During this same period exports exceeded our merchandise imports by \$6,053 millions—an average of \$189.3 millions a month, as compared with an average of \$46.5 millions a month for the fiscal years 1912, 1913 and 1914. The huge supplies of gold that we received during the first thirty-two months of the war were dammed up in the country by the gold embargo which the government maintained from September 7, 1917, to June 10, 1919. During the approximate period of the embargo the total authorized exports of gold were \$111.6 millions, but, as we have already seen, the gold exports were almost entirely offset by the gold imports of the same period. For approximately the period since the armistice, November 1, 1918, to March 10, 1920, we have had a net exportation of gold of 387 millions. Our stock of monetary gold decreased from \$3,080 millions on November 1, 1918, to \$2,721 millions on March 1, 1920. The war causes of inflation,—the increased supply of monetary gold in the United States, the reduction in legal reserve requirements of member banks in the federal reserve system, the slackening of production,—all created vast potentialities of currency and deposit credit expansion of which the country availed itself, largely to buy the bonds which the government floated for financing the war. Bond buyers usually did not curtail other expenditures; they consumed goods as before, banks loaned as before, but no more goods were thereby created. Under the pressure of the increased purchasing power in the forms of circulating bank deposits and federal reserve notes thus thrown on the mar-

ket to be used in competition for the pre-existing supply of goods, the price level was rapidly forced upward. . . . Our heavy net exportations of goods to Europe during the war resulted in large receipts of European securities. These securities in substantial quantities were hypothecated at our banks and served as a basis for further currency and credit expansion. It was some time before the potentialities for credit expansion which were being created in the manner above described made themselves felt in a rising price level. There was no appreciable increase in general prices from the outbreak of the war until the fall of 1916. From that time until the armistice the general tendency of the price level was strongly upward. There was a slight reaction at the time of the armistice, but since February, 1919, the upward movement has again been pronounced and is continuing to this day. At the present time [1920] our price level, as measured by the Bureau of Labor Statistics Index Numbers, is approximately 150 per cent. higher than it was in July, 1914, or in the fall of 1915. There is always a lag between the time of currency and credit expansion and the rise in the price level—a lag which is largely responsible for the scarcity of goods of nearly every kind at current prices. . . . We won our independence nearly a century and a half ago in a war financed predominantly by paper money inflation, we maintained the Union a half a century ago by a war financed extensively by paper money inflation, we have just preserved our political heritage by a war financed in the United States largely by deposit currency inflation.”—E. W. Kemmerer, *Causes and progress of inflation (Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science, June, 1920)*.—“Among the arguments which have been offered against the employment of loans and bank credit in financing the war has been the contention that such a policy, leading to an expansion of bank credit, would force up prices—an argument commonly cast in the mould of the quantity theory, though not necessarily involving quantity theory reasoning. To the astonishment of most adherents of the quantity theory, the period since the great expansion of bank credit growing out of liberty loans has not been the period of rapidly rising prices. . . . Commodity prices had their great rise between December 1916 and June 1917, . . . [since when] the average of commodity prices has been fairly stable in the United States. . . . From June 1917 to the middle of 1918 stock and bond prices have had on the whole a steadily downward course. . . . Those writers who see nothing but ‘inflation’ in expanding bank credit during periods of stress, emergency and rapid transition, fail wholly to take account of the essential functions of the bank credit. Bank credit expands when transitions are to be accomplished. An enormous volume of new bank credit has been required to finance the shifting of industry from peace occupations to war occupations, to finance the huge receipts and disbursements of the Treasury, to ease the tension of tax payments, to enable business men to liquidate slow assets while changing the character of their production and meeting the burden of taxes and loans. Expansion of bank credit is necessitated by the ‘hoarding’ of deposits by business men who feel the necessity of keeping an unusually liquid position in times of stress and uncertainty. It is hard to understand what the ‘inflationist’ theory would have banks do in a great emergency. It is certain that if banks refused to expand their credits in time of stress, we should have demoralization and chaos. . . . There is a school of economists who have seen the whole cause of rising prices in the policy of the govern-

ments in borrowing instead of taxing, and in the policy of the banks in lending to the governments or to the holders of government war securities. This process [is] called 'inflation,' . . . and to writers of this school, the terms 'rising prices' and 'depreciation of money' have been synonymous and the fundamental causation has been sought in monetary and banking phenomena. To the present writer it seems perfectly clear that the fundamental causation involved lies in the field of production and consumption and in the fields of public policy and social psychology, and that so far at least as the United States are concerned, the phenomena of money and banking have been largely secondary and derived, adjusting themselves to, rather than causing, the more fundamental factors. . . . The fundamental explanation lies on the surface. Fifty to sixty million men, an enormous proportion of the labor force of the civilized world, have been taken out of industry and put to work in the most destructive kind of consumption of the products of industry. Another and larger number of men have been divested from the production of goods for ordinary civilian consumption to the production of munitions and army supplies, to the production of shipping . . . etc. . . . In these facts we have an adequate explanation of the rise in commodity prices without ascribing it to the stupidity of the fiscal policy of the Treasury, without assigning it to the stupidity of the banks and without attributing it to monetary depreciation. Outside the United States monetary depreciation has been substantial in many countries and very great indeed in some. There has been a collapse in the volume of Russian money which has sent prices to unheard of heights. The same is true in Austria, Germany and Italy, in less degree and to no small extent in France. . . . In all of these countries the paper money has depreciated, to greater or less degree, below the value of its nominal gold equivalent. The extent to which money depreciation is a factor in Great Britain, however, can not be so great, while in Canada [it] . . . is probably very slight. . . . Before one can assert that there has been a general rise in prices, one must take account not only of commodity prices, but also of stocks and bonds, real estate and other long time income bonds. . . . Under ordinary conditions, a marked rise in commodity prices may be taken as an index of a fall in the value of money. . . . In the midst of these changes, gold has remained fairly stable. . . . Price changes in different parts of the world seem to have had no close connection with the actual movements of gold. Gold came to the United States and prices rose in the United States, but gold left England and France, and prices rose in those countries even more. The effort to work out any definite correlation between gold and prices on the basis of 'normal laws' in these wholly abnormal times appears to the present writer to be futile."—B. M. Anderson, *Effects of the war on money, credit and banking in France and United States*, pp. 184-185, 196-204.—"Summarizing the evidence as to inflation during the period 1913 to 1919, we find that for those six years the physical volume of business increased approximately 0.6 per cent., the monetary circulation 71 per cent., and bank deposits 120 per cent. The percentage of actual cash reserve held against deposits meanwhile declined from an average of 11.7 in 1913 to 6.6 in 1919. There was contemporaneously a large decline in the ratio of gold to the country's total cash and to its total supply of exchange media."—E. K. Kemmerer, *High prices and deflation*, p. 20.—In 1910 "the gold standard was generally accepted and was supposed to be in force. This was not true in

Europe, for gold had been abandoned through dire necessity; and the countries of Europe had to mortgage, not merely one hundred and twenty days, but many years for future production. Gold as a worldwide medium of exchange had ceased to function. Gold continued, however, to be the 'common denominator,' the standard while the gold price of currency was driven down. At the same time, the production of goods fell off, lowering the credit total; and demand for goods increased violently, raising prices in terms of gold. Of course a huge volume of cheap credit francs and credit pounds and credit lire appeared. . . . How, then, did we [United States] avoid a panic in 1920? Demand fell off, liquidation went ahead, all the symptoms of panic were there, but no panic. Because, blindly perhaps, we have set an automatic meter upon our credit dollar which keeps it at a steady price measure in gold."—K. C. McIntosh, *Everybody's money (Outlook, Dec. 13, 1922, pp. 681-683)*.—In view of inflation considerations everywhere "there has been introduced in the House of Representatives and referred to the Committee on Banking and Currency a bill which attempts to stabilize the purchasing power of money, having in view what is known as the quantity theory. This bill expresses the views of Professor Irving Fisher, of Yale University, one of the foremost economists of this country."—T. A. Goldsborough, *Proposed legislation to stabilize the dollar (Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science, Jan., 1923)*.—"The failure in the four years that have elapsed since the war to find any solution of the European problem is due to the persistent attempt to deal with essentially international financial problems by strict adherence to traditional national policies. The conclusion that is forced upon me, therefore, is that the first hundred years of attempted price stabilization are likely to prove the most difficult."—H. G. Moulton, *Prospects for stable money abroad (Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science, Jan., 1923)*.—"Discussing the approach of sterling to the par of exchange, and noting that London would be in a position to draw gold from the United States as soon as sterling should reach a point slightly above parity, the annual report of Barclay's Bank of London proceeds to discuss the resultant situation. It indicates that the real test would be, not the quotation of \$4.86½ for the pound sterling but the removal of all restrictions on trading in and export of gold from London. The bank's report goes on to say that 'before it would be safe for us to return to a free gold market, we should have to consider very carefully what would be the effect. So long as we continue to grant foreign loans—and it is, I think, admitted that it is desirable that we should do so—we are in effect in the position of giving long credit, while on the other hand, whatever we buy from abroad is more or less paid for in cash. Exports resulting from such loans would not provide the immediate resources needed to pay for the imports which they necessarily entail. There would therefore be a danger of our favorable trade balance being negated, and if a free gold market had been restored, the tendency would be for gold to leave this country. Such a position, if it is coupled with that of a free gold market, requires strong reserves. Otherwise we might soon lose that which we had gained. It seems to me that not only would it be necessary to strengthen our reserves against currency, but also possibly to create additional gold reserves to be held by the Treasury or by the Bank of England, before it would be safe for us to return to a free gold market. This strengthening of reserves

would serve to tide over a time of difficulty, such as might occur, and would help to make it certain that there never should be any question of our having to fall back upon prohibition of the export of gold, once we had resumed a free gold market, but even so, until our trade position is restored, and is again well balanced, there must be a great uncertainty as to our ability to return to free gold.”—*New York Times*, Feb. 14, 1923.

See also COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1914-1921; EUROPE: Modern: Far-reaching effects of the World War; DEBTS, PUBLIC; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: 1; INDIA: 1917-1919; POLAND, CONSTITUTION OF; SWITZERLAND: 1921.

ALSO IN: D. H. Robertson, *Money*, pp. 164-177.

1914-1916.—Immediate effects of World War on world finance and banking, particularly on the Bank of England.—CLOSING OF STOCK EXCHANGES.—“When Austria, on Thursday, July 23 [1914], sent her note to Serbia, making acceptance within forty-eight hours of every one of a series of insolent demands, an ultimatum, prices on the Vienna stock exchange, already very low, declined with something like panicky violence. . . . On Monday, the 27th, the Vienna stock exchange closed its doors. . . . It was not until Friday, July 31, that the German Government sent its ultimatum to Russia and France, followed by actual war next day. But on the 27th the Brussels stock exchange had formally suspended business; on the 28th the Paris Bourse shut down; on the 29th the exchanges at Saint Petersburg [Petrograd] and Amsterdam closed their doors; and on the same day Berlin itself forbade all further dealings on credit, limiting stock-market operations wholly to cash transactions. During all this seven-day period, sales of securities by Berlin on every foreign market (notably New York) seemed to be limited only by the supply available to sell and the capacity of brokers to execute the orders. Private cables told of the published recommendation, by some of the largest German banks, for their clients to sell at once what they could of their investments. British consols fell from 75 to 69½, and all other international securities fell with them. On August 5, the German army having in the meantime invaded Belgium, England declared a state of war with Germany. At London, the world’s financial centre, financial crisis did not wait for this action by the British Government. It was Germany’s ultimatums of July 31 which made the war inevitable. The first financial result at London was the closing of the stock exchange on that day for an indefinite period. The obvious reason for this sudden action was that markets of every belligerent state on the Continent, realizing the urgent need for ready capital in the coming economic crisis, were selling in London what foreign securities they held—in quantities running high up in the millions of sterling, and at any price obtainable. Government bonds of the South American states, of Russia, Japan, and China, railway stocks of the United States and Canada, were being thrown on London’s market by the Continent as declines running in many cases from 10 to 30 per cent within a very few days, the declines becoming more violent every day. On Lombard Street [London’s financial center] these securities are pledged in immense amounts as security against loans obtained from banks. Although probably less than usual was outstanding in these so-called ‘stock-exchange loans’ when the war began, the subsequent report of a Lombard Street bankers’ committee reckoned the total at \$400,000,000. Much longer continuance of such a decline in prices would have reduced the borrowers to bankruptcy, because they could not keep the

security up to the face value of their loans, and would have crippled the banks because they could not collect the loans. Back of this stood the further fact that London could not allow Berlin, whose own stock exchange had already virtually suspended operations, to accumulate sinews of war by raising cash on the English market. These various possible results could be averted only by closing the stock exchange entirely; for only through the machinery of such an organized exchange could the huge mass of securities thus offered find a market. London’s example was promptly followed by every other stock exchange in the world which had not already closed. New York’s shut down an hour after London’s, though most reluctantly and in spite of the previous night’s formal decision to the contrary. Nothing was more certain than that the closing at London, with New York still open for business, would converge on the American market the whole violence of the Continent’s forced sale of securities with equally heavy selling by London itself. This closing of the stock exchange was in its way a dramatic testimony to the magnitude of the financial crisis; for at London no such action had ever before been taken—not even during the Napoleonic wars. The Paris Bourse had closed down for several months during the Prussian invasion of 1870 and the New York Stock Exchange for ten days in the panic of 1873; but even with those markets it was a very temporary incident of bygone history, whose repetition no one had predicted. This unprecedented action at London, however, was only the beginning for a series of events which equally marked new precedent.”—A. D. Noyes, *Financial chapters of the war*, pp. 29-33.—See also STOCK EXCHANGE: 1914-1918.

RUN ON BANK OF ENGLAND.—FIRST REMEDIES.—“The two events which would probably have seemed to the financial world most inconceivable, only a week or two before, would have been a run on the Bank of England and a breakdown of public confidence in the English currency. It is true, the history of other countries had proved that when great wars break out, a run on the banks will usually be started by people who want to turn their bank-notes or government paper into gold, and hoard the gold. The teaching of experience, as well as instinct, warns holders of paper money that its value may be heavily depreciated through increased issues of such paper for war expenses, whether by the government or the banks. The run on the Bank of France in 1870, leading to its suspension of gold payments on the currency, and the concerted refusal of the New York banks in December, 1861, to pay out gold to customers any longer, were noteworthy modern instances. In 1797, when the long war between England and France began, the Bank of England itself suspended specie payments; that is to say, it ceased to guarantee redemption of its notes in gold, and did not resume such full and free redemption during the twenty-four succeeding years. In August, 1914, almost the first financial act by official Germany was a similar suspension of gold payments. *On Saturday, August 1, a run began on the Bank of England. . . . There were two traditional measures of protection for the Bank of England in such emergencies. . . . Both had been utilized in preceding London panics. The bank may advance its official rate for loans; an action which in ordinary times, by forcing up also the rate bid for money by the general London market, will cause a transfer of capital to London from other markets whose rate had remained unchanged, and, along with such transfer of capital, will start import of gold. The governors of the bank may also, with the British Government’s per-

mission, suspend the Bank Act which requires the bank to issue no new notes, unless specifically secured by the same amount of gold on hand in the institution's vaults. . . . Neither expedient could adequately have met the situation of 1914. Yet the bank supplied the first expedient at once. On July 30 its official discount rate was 3 per cent; it was raised to 4 that day, to 8 on the 31st, and to 10 on the 1st of August. The 10 per cent rate was the highest ever fixed by the Bank of England; it had never been approximated since the great London money panic of 1866. At the same time the government authorized suspension of the Bank Act—a step taken since the act was passed in 1844 only on two occasions, in the panics of 1857 and 1866. The bank did not make use of the government's authorization in August, 1914, nor did it retain for more than a few days its 10 per cent discount rate. That rate was reduced on August 6 to 6 per cent, and on August 8 to 5—at which it remained during practically the whole of the two succeeding years."—*Ibid.*, pp. 33-34, 37-38.—See also BANK OF ENGLAND.

FINANCIAL PROTECTIVE MEASURES IN ENGLAND.—“The protective measures taken by the banks and government in England were four in number. All of them were unprecedented in the history of English finance. Each of them amounted to confession that the existing credit system had broken down. None of them would have been considered, two or three weeks before, as a conceivable occurrence in London's financial history. First, the government declared the two days following ‘bank holiday,’ Monday, August 3, to be special legal holidays; which meant that depositors could not draw money from the banks during that three-day period, and that payment of maturing notes and bills could not be required until Thursday. For London this was a startling innovation. Its only precedent was the similar declaration of ‘special holidays,’ during our panic of 1907, by the legislatures of California, Nevada, and Oklahoma—an action taken to avert the threatened bank runs of the period, and discussed in Europe, at the time, as illustrating the primitive methods and impulsive action of our Western communities. But the London ‘special holidays’ of August, 1914, were designed not only to prevent a run on the banks, or to give the financial community as a whole a chance to recover its wits. The three-day respite was instantly utilized for the second protective measure; preparation of an ‘emergency currency’ to be issued under government auspices. This was something which had never been done before in English history. But a moment's reflection had convinced both statesmen and financiers that neither a 10 per cent Bank of England rate, nor permission for the bank to issue notes not ‘covered’ with gold in the institution's vaults, would meet the situation. No bid for money could be high enough to draw gold from foreign markets whose banks had already suspended gold payments. No additional issue of £5 notes, the lowest denomination permitted to the Bank of England, would prevent the drawing out of gold. We have seen how the people of England, during the three-day holiday, were unable to make small payments with Bank of England notes. The ‘change’ for such payments would have been gold, and gold was already being hoarded. What the treasury did, then, as the second of the protective expedients, was to issue, in denominations of 10 and 20 shillings, legal-tender paper currency. These so-called ‘currency notes’ were issued through the Bank of England to other banks, which pledged against the notes an equivalent amount of commercial paper, British Government securities, or credits with the

Bank of England. At the end of August, \$125,500,000 of this new currency was in circulation; at the end of 1914, \$192,300,000; at the end of 1915, \$515,600,000; and it increased more than \$134,000,000 in the next eight months. As for the economic character and economic results of this remarkable experiment, for the present it need only be said that the hurried issue of this currency in the ‘war panic’ ended the run on the banks, that it provided the requisite small money for the people, and that it apparently stopped the hoarding of gold. It is highly interesting to observe that these emergency paper issues, although an absolute innovation in English financial history, closely resembled in some respects our own old national bank currency secured by United States Government bonds, in others the so-called ‘Aldrich-Vreeland emergency currency,’ authorized by our law of 1908 and based on securities and commercial assets. It was an irony of circumstance that English financial opinion had heartily disapproved of both of these American systems; each of which has in fact been now superseded by the new Federal Reserve system. The menace of a general ‘bank run’ being thus averted, there arose the problem of dealing with a sudden and general demand of creditors for payment of money owing to them. When the Balkan War of 1912 broke out, the business communities of western Europe were interested and considerably annoyed by receiving, from the chambers of commerce in Bulgaria and Serbia, formal announcement that, since all the business men were at the front and since their earning capacity was therefore interrupted, a ‘moratorium’ on debts had therefore been proclaimed. The debts, whether owed to home or foreign creditors, were not repudiated; but, no matter when their payment properly fell due, they would not be paid until after the war. The great financial markets of the world looked upon that announcement much as it did on the news of the ‘special holidays’ in our Western States in November, 1907. But in the one case as in the other, London had to follow in 1914 the example of these other humble financial markets. This was the third expedient to meet the crisis. On Thursday, August 6, a royal proclamation declared that all payments due on August 4, or falling due on September 4 under a contract drawn before August 4, ‘shall be deemed to be due and payable on a day one calendar month after the day on which the payment originally became due.’ This ‘moratorium’ (the word now became familiar in European high finance) was expressly stated not to apply to wages and salaries, or to indebtedness below £5, or to rates and taxes, or to interest and dividends on securities, or to government payments, or to bank-notes, or to ocean freights, or to indebtedness due by individuals, firms, or institutions doing business outside the British Islands. With some alterations and amendments, the original proclamation was twice extended, carrying the date of the moratorium forward to November 4, 1914. By that time—and, indeed, in the case of most institutions by September—panic conditions had so far disappeared that business houses with maturing obligations relinquished the privileges of the proclamation voluntarily. Meantime, however, although the threatened chapter of bankruptcy was averted, the machinery of financial London, as of financial Europe generally and of financial America, came almost to a halt. When payment of indebtedness due to a business house is arbitrarily postponed by law, the creditor might protect himself by demanding similar postponement of what he owed to some one else. But such a condition of things would certainly not encourage him to em-

bark on other business undertakings. His eye would be fixed almost exclusively on the problem of disentangling himself from his embarrassing and humiliating position. It was instantly perceived that long continuance of that situation would very possibly cause paralysis to England's home trade and foreign commerce. Nor, indeed, was this the only danger. The moratorium, applying as it did to 'all payments due on August 4,' covered indebtedness of English firms to foreign creditors. It was a matter of far more serious concern to London's prestige as the money centre of the world that financial England should suspend payments to the foreign markets, than that payments of Englishmen to Englishmen should be deferred. We shall presently meet, in our narrative, some very tangible and very grave results of this international moratorium. As it stood it distinctly menaced London's economic position, and the next and fourth expedient adopted was directed to avert the imminent calamity. The problem was how to untie the hands of bankers and banking-houses who, unable to collect and use the huge sums owed to them in connection with their foreign business, could not stir. The moratorium had averted the immediate consequences, because the bankers were relieved from paying the equally great sums which they themselves owed at home. But this only shifted the burden to the shoulders of other houses; and moreover the moratorium, as we have seen, ran only for a month at first, and even its prolongations were known to be purely temporary. It could not be extended throughout the war; yet its final termination would leave these banking-houses with their home liabilities as pressing as on August 1, with the stock exchange still closed against sale of their securities and with their foreign assets equally beyond their reach. The result inevitably was that the great lending firms and institutions dared not increase their loans. They had their own position to fortify, and the market in which the drafts were discounted for the conducting of England's foreign trade began to shrink alarmingly. It was then, on August 13, that a very bold and remarkable step was taken. The government announced that the Bank of England was prepared to take over from these international bankers all the 'approved bills of exchange' for which they were liable on transactions prior to August 4. The bank would provide the funds requisite to pay off these bills at maturity. The bankers would still remain ultimately responsible for payment, and that liability may cut a figure in London's financial history after the war. Furthermore, to stimulate earlier repayment by the bankers, the rate of interest charged by the Bank of England for its services was to be 2 per cent above the official bank rate; and, although that official rate had been reduced from 10 per cent to 5, even that change left the rate for 'rediscount' very heavy. But the Bank of England agreed not to claim repayment from the bankers for a period of one year after the close of the war, and the government of Great Britain 'agreed to guarantee the Bank of England from any loss it may incur' in discounting such bills of exchange, 'either home or foreign, bank or trade, accepted prior to August 4, 1914.' The chancellor of the exchequer subsequently stated to Parliament that between \$1,500,000,000 and \$2,500,000,000 of such bills were believed to have been outstanding when the war began, and that of this total \$600,000,000 had been taken over by the Bank of England. As was to be expected, this arrangement had some extraordinary results in the operations of the Bank of England. Wholly apart from advances made by the bank to the government, its loan account rose from \$236,-

500,000 on July 30 to \$609,100,000 as early as September 3. On July 29, 1915, it reached its maximum of \$960,900,000. From that time forward, chiefly because the 'moratorium bills' were being so rapidly paid off from the accruing resources of the banking-houses, the Bank of England's huge loan account was gradually and progressively reduced. By the first week of June, 1916, it was down to the lowest total since the war began."—*Ibid.*, pp. 43-51. —See also ENGLAND: 1914-1918: Taxation policy.

ALSO IN: F. L. McVey, *Financial history of Great Britain, 1914-1918*.

MORATORIUMS IN OTHER COUNTRIES.—"The story of England's action in the war crisis sufficiently indicates the experience of the whole financial world. . . . No state other than England adopted the extraordinarily sweeping plan for assumption of bankers' non-collectible debts by the central banking institution. But almost every belligerent, and with them so financially powerful a neutral state as Holland, resorted in some way or another, temporarily or permanently, to an 'emergency currency.' Germany did not officially declare a moratorium on debts, though the government intervened to render the action of the courts sufficiently lenient to achieve the same ends. France extended its moratorium even to rents, with inevitable complications. Practically all of the moratoriums expired officially, early in 1915. But nothing could better illustrate the world-wide scope of the financial shock which came with the outbreak of the war, than the array of countries and markets which resorted to this postponement of payments through government decree. It was not only the European belligerents which had recourse to it. A formal moratorium was proclaimed at once in Denmark, in Italy, in Norway, in Egypt, in Greece, in Portugal, in Rumania, in Sweden (where it continued with certain limitations up to the autumn of 1915). Holland decreed special measures for extension of time to debtors. That Argentina, New Zealand, Paraguay, Nicaragua, Peru, and South Africa should have suspended such settlements from July, 1914, up to a date frequently fixed well into 1915, was a demonstration, partly, no doubt, of the enormous shock precipitated by the London panic, but chiefly of the extent to which the European War itself had deranged the entire economic system of the world."—*Ibid.*, pp. 51-52.

1915. — Pan-American financial conference. See PAN-AMERICAN FINANCIAL CONFERENCE.

1916-1922.—New developments in American banking.—Coöperative enterprises.—Farm Loan Act, 1916.—Labor banks.—"Although co-operation has made immense strides in agricultural America in recent years, the establishment of the 4,108 co-operative national farm loan associations, serving practically every farm community and section of the country, outstretches any previous achievement in this direction. . . . For many years prior to the establishment of the Federal Farm Loan system, it was apparent that, unless more means was provided to supply money for agricultural purposes, on a long-term, amortization plan, and at low interest, agricultural development in the United States would not only cease, but the whole industry would degenerate. . . . Practically alone of all industrial leaders, the farmer was the only one who did not control the money he produced, and was forced under the prevailing system of finance, which was in the hands of outside interests, to pay what was asked. With this mill-stone about his neck, the farmer struggled on for the generation after the Civil War, farming becoming less and less profitable, and more and more discouraging, until in 1916, after every conceivable plan had been con-

sidered, Congress borrowed from Europe a plan which had proven successful there, and attempted to so modify it as to meet the need of the American farmer. This plan, so modified, is known as the Federal Farm Loan Act, approved July 17, 1916. . . . Farmers of Europe, because of their superior loan organizations, have for a generation been able to borrow money upon the same basis as commerce, business and industry; during the same period our American farmers have paid nearly twice as much, and then have been only inadequately financed. . . . Of the 7,613 National Banks, book records of 1,247 showed extortionate rates charged farmers for loans. Those same banks, while charging the city merchant, manufacturer, store-keeper, railroad operator and promoter anywhere from 4 to 6 per cent interest, were at the same time charging the farmers they served anywhere from 18 to 60 per cent interest. The highest rates charged farmers were found in Texas, Oklahoma, North Dakota, Georgia and Alabama, although 12 per cent was considered very moderate in the Rocky Mountain section. . . . During the period of the war, when the government was selling war bonds, Farm Loan Bonds, bearing greater interest and enjoying greater confidence with investors, sold at higher prices, and Secretary McAdoo recommended in 1918 that Congress authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase \$200,000,000 of these farm bonds, to keep them out of the market, and give Liberty Bonds the right of way. This was authorized. . . . There is a small minority of politicians . . . who would have the government continue to dominate the farmers' banking system until these bonds have been completely repaid. As they are for a term of 20 years, this would mean the farmer would be deprived for a period of sixteen years of property rights on his banking system, since his bank directors would be selected for him by a politically-appointed board." —E. W. Gage, *Farmer as a banker* (*Forum*, Sept., 1922).—In November, 1920, the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers opened the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers' Coöperative National Bank in Cleveland, Ohio. Advocates of similar labor banks point out their feasibility as an aid to the building of homes and factories, the acquisition of land and the launching of business establishments. "Especially is it emphasized that small credit agencies are used in Italy, Czecho-Slovakia and Germany, joining together in central co-operative banks in the large cities. . . . Besides the Cleveland bank of the railroad Brotherhood and a branch (formerly known as the Nottingham Savings and Banking Company) in a working people's section of Cleveland, the Engineers' Coöperative Bank has a subsidiary called the People's Bank at Hammond, Ind., and labor unions have succeeded in establishing four other banks—the Mount Vernon Savings Bank in Washington, D. C., belonging to the machinists; the Trade Union Savings of Seattle; the Finnish Neutral Savings of Superior, Wis.; the Amalgamated Clothing Workers' Institution in Chicago. [The Amalgamated Bank of New York was opened on April 14, 1923.] Similar institutions are planned for St. Louis, Birmingham, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, Dallas, and other cities farther West. . . . While few of these have adopted the profit-sharing principles of the Cleveland Coöperative Bank, the idea of placing depositors on a partnership footing with stockholders, and distributing a share of profits made on use of their money to the depositors had already been widely discussed in banking circles. The National City Bank, of New York, in its monthly survey of business conditions issued August 1 [1922], says that

establishment of such banks is welcome because it will disabuse critics of capital and banking. 'If they encourage the practice of thrift, teach the value of private wealth to the community, and help to inculcate respect for property rights, as may be expected, bankers generally will rejoice in the progress of the movement.'—*Profit-sharing for bank depositors* (*Review of Reviews*, 1922, p. 324).

1917-1920.—Bolshevik finances in Russia. See RUSSIA: 1917-1920; RUSSIA, SOVIET CONSTITUTION OF.

1919-1922.—America's post-war financial supremacy. — Germany's exhaustion. — Debtor countries.—"The end of the war found the credit systems of the European nations undermined. America, because of her strong economic position, became a creditor nation—not only supplying materials, but also food to the starving people; New York became the financial center and the American dollar the arbiter of world money exchanges. For example: During the year 1919 the exports of the United States to Europe amounted to over \$5,187,000,000, while the off-setting imports were about \$750,000,000. The inevitable result of this coupled with enormous loans to some of the European governments as a result of the war, was a severe depreciation in foreign exchange measured with the American dollar. Britain's pound sterling, normally worth \$4.8665, fell in January, 1920, to the unprecedented low record of \$3.19, German marks, normally worth about 23.8 cents, fell as low as 1.05 cents, while French francs, normally worth about 5.18½ per \$1.00, suffered a sympathetic decline to the low record of 13.38 and 14 per dollar." —T. J. Kavanaugh, *Bank credit methods and practice*, pp. 21-22.—"Germany stands today on the verge of a precipice, and it is even doubtful whether any plan, however vigorously executed, can save her from going over. The country is exhausted economically, financially, physically, socially, and spiritually. During the war the nation lived on the fat of its ribs. Since the Armistice everything has been going out and nothing coming in. German business men do their actual trading in Germany, but their financial operations are conducted in foreign countries whenever possible. A German buys material in England, pays with a cheque on Zurich or Amsterdam, sells his goods for as many marks as he can, and buys foreign exchange that his money may remain in Germany no longer than is necessary. Sometimes, if a wholesale dealer, he is paid in foreign exchange, and in that case no part of the money transfer takes place in Germany. This is but an instance of what is going on, but it is illuminative. In 1921-22 Germany imported two billion gold marks' worth of food to feed the people. These imports in 1922-23 must amount to three billion, as there was a shortage of three million tons in the bread-stuffs harvest of 1922. . . . There is more involved in this matter than the stabilization of the mark; that is one very important factor in the situation, but it is only one. The international financiers are chiefly concerned with matters of exchange. They have large interests in Germany, and are large holders of German currency abroad. To restore to their holdings an element of tangible value is what they are striving for. . . . With marks as they are today statistics cease to have much value, and comparisons are impossible. If the total business of the German banks is calculated upon the purchasing value of the mark it will be found that the exchanges represent a turnover of about one-fourth the business done in 1913; which in itself is proof of the decreased amount of total trade done

by Germany, both domestic and foreign."—J. D. Whelpley, *Politics and realities* (*Fortnightly Review*, Dec., 1922, pp. 1043-1046).—See also GERMANY: 1922 (July-August).—"Government finance at the present time is characterized by the extraordinary complexity of the international obligations, and the enormous increase in the scale of Government spending. . . . It seems probable that in 1922-23 considerable international payments will have to be made. These payments will be a new factor adding to the instability of exchange rates and prices. They will add to the impoverishment and increase the revenue difficulties of the debtor states, and in the first instance it seems possible that they will add to the trading difficulties of the creditor countries. Until some settlement of the international payments is arrived at, any real solution of the exchange problem, or of the internal finances of the most heavily involved states, seems impossible. Even, however, if the international position were modified tomorrow by some such measure as an agreement to cancel interallied debts, the problem of enormously increased budgets would remain for most countries. Many governments have as yet made no serious attempt to meet expenditure out of taxation, and are financing post-war, as they financed war, expenses out of borrowing and inflation. The most extreme instance is probably Russia, where, in the four months, December, 1921, to April, 1922, the Bolshevik Government issued notes to six and a half times the volume of the previous currency, with the result that at the end of that period the value of the paper money had fallen to about one-twentieth of its value at the beginning of December. This extreme case shows the price chaos which results from great inflation, and shows further that such a policy must ultimately defeat its own ends as a method of getting revenue, for the value of the Russian paper money was decreasing progressively faster than the increase in its volume, and the Government had to issue more and more currency in order to get control of the same volume of purchasing power. Even where a more moderate policy is adopted, any borrowing must mean a postponement of a final settlement and an addition to future difficulties, while where it leads to any further inflation it is accompanied by the immediate disadvantages of fluctuating prices both at home and abroad. In Great Britain a more stringent attempt has been made since the war to balance the budget, meet current expenditures out of taxation, get back to a saner monetary policy and even to reduce the accumulations of debt. In the financial year, 1921-22, something like £88,000,000 was applied to the redemption of debt, and the country raised a revenue equal to five and a half times its last pre-war budget. The heavy rates of tax necessary to raise the revenue were a great burden, and in the budget of 1922 the Government abandoned the immediate attempt to reduce its capital liabilities and (with some economies in expenditure) the budget estimates were considerably reduced. As a result some reductions of taxation were made, the most important of which was the reduction of the Income Tax rates by a sixth. Even with these allowances the budget for 1922-23 was nearly four and a half times as large as the last pre-war budget."—M. E. Robinson, *Public finance*, pp. 157-159.—At the forty-eighth annual convention of the American Bankers' Association meeting in New York City, October 2-6, 1922, the British banker, Mr. Reginald McKenna, asked his American colleagues "to treat England's debt to the United States as certain to be provided for." His conclusions, presenting a comprehensive view of the

financial status of the world to-day and summarized by the New York World are reprinted by the Literary Digest: "First, that England can pay interest and sinking fund, because she still possesses foreign securities with which to pay. England can pay, she will pay. Second, that the other debtor countries, including France and Italy, do not have foreign securities with which to pay their debts. They could pay only by exporting more goods than they import; and since the world is not prepared to take a great surplus of French and Italian exports, hope of payment from these countries must be definitely postponed, and nothing expected ultimately, except what can be paid by the export of goods. Third, that Germany can pay now only with the foreign balances which she still possesses. But these balances could only be used for reparations if individual Germans would sell them to their Government. This consent can only be obtained by offering them a profit, which in turn can only be done by improving the mark."—*Allied debt as a peace club* (*Literary Digest*, Oct. 21, 1922, p. 13).

1921.—Financial situation in Switzerland after World War. See SWITZERLAND: 1921.

See also BIMETALISM; CAPITALISM; DEBTS, PUBLIC; INDEX NUMBERS; STABILIZING THE DOLLAR.

ALSO IN: E. E. Agger, *American experience with money heresies* (*Economic World*, Sept. 23, 1922).—G. Cassel, *Money and foreign exchange after 1914*.—H. A. E. Chandler, *Influence of public finance in world business* (*Economic World*, July 9, 1921).—H. Dalton, *Recent contributions to public finance* (*Economica*, May, 1921).—D. R. Dewey, *Financial history of the United States*.—H. J. Dodge, *Changing the fundamental structure of the federal reserve system* (*Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Sept., 1921).—H. E. Fisk, *French public finance: In the Great War and today*.—C. N. Fowler, *Fundamental defects of the federal reserve system and the necessary remedy*.—A. B. Hepburn, *History of currency in the United States*.—J. T. Holdsworth, *Money and banking*.—R. H. Howe, *Evolution of banking*.—S. S. Huebner, *Stock market*.—W. H. Kniffin, *American banking practice*.—J. L. Laughlin, *Banking progress*.—J. E. Meeker, *Work of the stock exchange*.—H. L. Reed, *Development of the federal reserve policy*.—H. P. Willis, *Federal reserve system* (*Political Science Quarterly*, Dec., 1922).

MONEY ORDERS. See POSTAL SYSTEMS: 1803-1914.

MONEY RENTS. See AGRICULTURE: Medieval: 14th-17th centuries.

MONFALCONE, village on the Adriatic, belonging to Italy, about twenty miles northwest of Trieste. It was a scene of fighting between the Austrians and Italians during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IX. Naval operations: b, 3; 1915: IV. Italy: d.

MONGE, Gaspard (1746-1818), French mathematician, founder of descriptive geometry. Elected to the Academy of Science at Paris, 1780; minister of marine, 1792-1793; appointed senator, 1805; one of the founders of the École Polytechnique; accompanied Napoleon on his Egyptian campaign, 1798. Some of his works are: "Traité élémentaire de la statique," 1788; "Géométrie descriptive," 1795; "Application de l'analyse à la géométrie des surfaces du premier et deuxième degré," 1795. See FRANCE: 1792 (August); (September-November).

MONGOLIA: Country and people.—Origin of name.—Earliest history.—From an obscure and uncertain beginning the word Mongol has gone on increasing in significance and spreading geographically during more than ten centuries until it has filled the whole earth with its presence. From

the time when men used it at first until our day this word has been known in three senses especially. In the first sense it refers to some small groups of hunters and herdsmen living north of the great Gobi desert; in the second it denotes certain peoples in Asia and Eastern Europe; in the third and most recent, a world wide extension has been given it. In this third and the broad sense the word Mongol has been made to include in one category all yellow skinned nations, or peoples, including those too with a reddish-brown or dark tinge in the yellow, having also straight hair, always black, and dark eyes of various degrees of intensity. [See INDIANS, AMERICAN; ORIGINS; PACIFIC OCEAN; PEOPLE; MALAY, MALAYSIAN, OR BROWN, RACE.] In this sense the word Mongol co-ordinates vast numbers of people, immense groups of men who are like one another in some traits, and widely dissimilar in others. It embraces the Chinese, the Koreans, the Japanese [see JAPAN: Inhabitants and their origin], the Manchus, the original Mongols with their near relatives the Tartar, or Turkish tribes which hold Central Asia, or most of it. Moving westward from China this term covers the Tibetans and with them all the non-Aryan nations and tribes until we reach India and Persia. In India whose most striking history in modern ages is Mongol, nearly all populations save Aryans and Semites are classified with Mongols. [See INDIA: People.] In Persia where the dynasty is Mongol that race is preponderant in places and important throughout the whole kingdom, though in a minority. In Asia Minor the Mongol is master, for the Turk is still sovereign, and will be till a great rearrangement is effected. Five groups of Mongols have made themselves famous in Europe: the Huns with their mighty chief Attila [see EUROPE: Roman civilization: 'Fall of Rome'], the Bulgars, the Magyars, the Turks or Osmanli, and the Mongol invaders of Russia. . . . In Africa there have been and are still Mongol people. The Mamelukes and their forces at Cairo were in their time remarkable, and Turkish dominion exists till the present, at least theoretically, in Egypt and west of it. Not restricted to the Eastern hemisphere the word Mongol is still further used to include aboriginal man in America. . . . In the first, that is the original and narrowest sense of the word it applies to those Mongols alone who during twelve centuries or longer have inhabited the country just south of Lake Baikal, and north of the great Gobi desert. It is from these Mongols proper that the name has at last been extended to the whole yellow race in both hemispheres."—J. Curtin, *Mongols: A history*, pp. 1-2. —"The name Mongol (according to Schmidt) is derived from the word Mong, meaning brave, daring, bold, an etymology which is acquiesced in by Dr. Schott. Ssanang Setzen says it was first given to the race in the time of Jingis Khan, but it is of much older date than his time, as we know from the Chinese accounts. . . . They point further, as the statements of Raschid do, to the Mongols having at first been merely one tribe of a great confederacy, whose name was probably extended to the whole when the prowess of the Imperial House which governed it gained the supremacy. We learn lastly from them that the generic name by which the race was known in early times to the Chinese was Shi wei, the Mongols having, in fact, been a tribe of the Shi wei. . . . The Shi wei were known to the Chinese from the 7th century; they then consisted of various detached hordes, subject to the Thu kiu, or Turks. . . . After the fall of the Yuan-Yuan, the Turks, by whom they were overthrown, acquired the supreme control of Eastern Asia. [See ASIA: Earliest history.] They had, under the name

of Hiong nu, been masters of the Mongolian desert and its border land from a very early period, and under their new name of Turks they merely reconquered a position from which they had been driven some centuries before. Everywhere in Mongol history we find evidence of their presence, the titles Khakan, Khan, Bigui or Beg, Terkhan, &c., are common to both races, while the same names occur among Mongol and Turkish chiefs. . . . This fact of the former predominance of Turkish influence in further Asia supports the traditions collected by Raschid, Abulghazi, &c., . . . which trace the race of Mongol Khans up to the old royal race of the Turks."—H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols*, pt. 1, pp. 27-32.—"Here [in the eastern portion of Asia known as the desert of Gobi], from time immemorial, the Mongols, a people nearly akin to the Turks in language and physiognomy, had made their home, leading a miserable nomadic life in the midst of a wild and barren country, unrecognised by their neighbours, and their very name unknown centuries after their kinsmen, the Turks, had been exercising an all-powerful influence over the destinies of Western Asia."—A. Vambéry, *History of Bokhara*, ch. 8.—"Mongolia extends for 1,500 miles along the northern frontier of China [see CHINA: Map], and as its eastern border is coterminous with Manchuria, a few words regarding the Mongols may not be out of place in these notes. The race is said to come with the Manchus from a common Tartar stock, but, except in colour and features, there is little resemblance between the two races. The Mongol is essentially a nomad, hating towns and houses. He prefers to wander about the steppes, pitching his 'yourt,' or felt tent, wherever water and pasture are for the time most plentiful. As the nature of the country they inhabit prohibits agriculture, the art is unknown among his people, who are entirely engaged in tending their flocks and herds, ponies, and camels. They are mere children in the hands of the Chinese, who can outwit them as easily as a member of the 'confidence trick' fraternity outwits a rustic from the shires. . . . A small portion of their territory is rented by the Chinese on the west of the Provinces of Kirin and Fêng-tien, of which it has now become an integral part. Kuan-cheng-tzu was originally in Mongolia, and so are all the towns and villages to the west of the palisade, of which the principal are Mai-mai-kai (Fêng-hua), Ch'ang-tu, and Cheng-chia-tun. Mongolia is the great breeding land for horses and cattle. At first sight when travelling through the country one is astonished at the enormous size of the troops of ponies; but when one considers that this territory supplies Siberia, China, and Manchuria with animals, it is easy to see that the supply is not greater than the demand. . . . The Mongols are governed by their hereditary Princes, Chinese authority being maintained by Imperial Residents at Ching-hai, in Western Mongolia (Ko-ko-nor), and at Urga, in the north."—*Notes of Colonel Browne* (Great Britain, *Parliamentary Publications*, China, 1800, No. 1, pp. 34-37).—"The representative of Chinese authority in Mongolia (before the secession of the country and the proclamation of its independence in 1011) resided at Urga, Uliassutai, and Knobdo. Courts for deciding disputes between Chinese were called *tsargucheya*. The *chisa* or council was another court to which were referred questions arising between Mongols belonging to different principalities. The declaration of independence and secession from China has led to the abolition of Chinese officials. The administrative organisation of the country has, however, in its main features remained the same. . . . It is very difficult to arrive at the exact number of people

living in Mongolia. The Mongols, being nomads, are constantly moving. The Government, however, estimates that the population of Outer Mongolia consists of 500,000 Mongols and 200,000 Chinese settlers. The Russian population in Outer Mongolia reaches 5000, and there are about 3000 settlers in the district of Altai. The population of Inner Mongolia is much higher. The Inner Mongolians are more developed, more virile, and more progressive. Some hundreds of families have recently fled to Outer Mongolia, fearing Chinese military measures. These fugitives, more especially the Chahars, who come from the district north of Kalgan, are not welcomed by their northern brothers. Mongolia is divided geographically and politically into two great sections, Inner and Outer Mongolia. The former skirts the northern boundary of China, and for the most part its princes own allegiance to the Chinese Republic. Outer Mongolia, or Halhar, on the other hand, is



JENGHIZ KHAN

the centre of the Hu-tuk-tu's sphere of influence. It consists of four big principalities:—Tse tsen Khan, subdivided into 23 petty principalities; Tu She tu Khan, subdivided into 19 petty principalities; Jassaktu Khan, subdivided into 23 petty principalities; [and] Sain Noin Khan, subdivided into 24 petty principalities,—making 89 petty principalities in all. In the Tse tsen Khan principality is a stretch of land called 'Daringangar,' formerly used as Imperial pastures for cattle. The latter were sent as tribute to the Manchu Royal Family in Peking. Since the passing of the Manchus, the Mongols have ceased to pay this tribute, and claim the land as belonging to Halhar. In the north-west extremity of Mongolia is the disputed district of Uriankhai, which the Mongols wish the Russians to recognise as forming part of Mongolia. On the east side of this territory is Lake Kossogol, where there is a commercial town, Darhait, the centre of the cattle trade between Irkutsk and Uriankhai, where many Russian settlers live. There is another Russian colony at Hathy, farther south. A Russian Frontier Com-

missioner resides at a town on the River Usu, a confluent of the Yenisei. The Mongols have asked for reciprocity in trade, and to be allowed to open Consulates in Siberia. . . . On the north-east of Mongolia is another district, that of Hulumbuiya or Barga, which forms part of the Chinese province of Heilung Kiang (N. W. Manchuria). This district is claimed by the Mongols to belong to Outer Mongolia, as they allege that the population inhabiting that area has always been Mongolian. Mongolia's boundary to the north reaches as far as Siberia; in the west it is hedged in by Russian Turkestan, Dzungaria, that home of Chinese exiles, and Sinkiang or Chinese Turkestan; to the east the great Khingan Mountains gradually sloping towards the sea divide Mongolia from Manchuria, and the north of China fills up the gap on her southern boundary. This great upland of Mongolia, averaging 3000 feet above sea-level, is girdled by snow-capped mountains; within are fertile valleys, large rivers, rich mineral-bearing tracts, grassy steppes and sandy wastes."—H. G. C. Perry-Ayscough and R. B. Otter-Barry, *With the Russians in Mongolia*, pp. 52-57.

Effect on climate of China. See CHINA: Climate.

Language and dialects.—Relation to Chinese. See PHONOLOGY: 20; CHINA: Languages and dialects of the country.

1153-1227.—Conquests of Jenghiz Khan.—“Jingiz-Khan [or Jenghiz, or Zingis], whose original name was Tamujin, the son of a Tatar chief, was born in the year 1153. In 1202, at the age of 40, he had defeated or propitiated all his enemies, and in 1205 was proclaimed, by a great assembly, Khakan or Emperor of Tartary. His capital, a vast assemblage of tents, was at Kara-Korum, in a distant part of Chinese Tartary; and from thence he sent forth mighty armies to conquer the world. This extraordinary man, who could neither read nor write, established laws for the regulation of social life and for the chase; and adopted a religion of pure Theism. His army was divided into Tumans of 10,000 men, Hazarehs of 1,000, Sedehs of 100, and Dehehs of 10, each under a Tatar officer, and they were armed with bows and arrows, swords, and iron maces. Having brought the whole of Tartary under his sway, he conquered China, while his sons, Oktai and Jagatai, were sent [1218] with a vast army against Khuwarizm [whose prince had provoked the attack by murdering a large number of merchants who were under the protection by Jenghiz]. The country was conquered, though bravely defended by the king's son, Jalalu-'d-Din; 100,000 people were put to the sword, the rest sold as slaves. . . . The sons of Jingiz-Khan then returned in triumph to their father; but the brave young prince, Jalalu-'d-Din, still held out against the conquerors of his country. This opposition roused Jengiz-Khan to fury; Balk was attacked for having harboured the fugitive prince in 1221, and, having surrendered, the people were all put to death. Nishapur shared the same fate, and a horrible massacre of all the inhabitants took place.” Jalalu-'d-Din, pursued to the banks of the Indus and defeated in a desperate battle fought there, swam the river on horseback, in the face of the enemy, and escaped into India. (See CHINA: 1205-1234.) “The Mongol hordes then overran Kandahar and Multan, Azerbaijan and Irak; Fars was only saved by the submission of its Ata-beg, and two Mongol generals marched round the Caspian Sea. Jengiz-Khan returned to Tartary in A. D. 1222, but in these terrible campaigns he lost no less than 200,000

men. As soon as the great conqueror had retired out of Persia, the indefatigable Jalalu'd-Din recrossed the Indus with 4,000 followers, and passing through Shiraz and Isfaham drove the Mongols out of Tabriz. But he was defeated by them in 1220; and though he kept up the war in Azerbaijan for a short time longer, he was at length utterly routed, and flying into Kurdistan was killed in the house of a friend there, four years afterwards. . . . Jingiz-Khan died in the year 1227."—C. R. Markham, *History of Persia*, ch. 7.—In 1224 Jenghiz "divided his gigantic empire amongst his sons as follows: China and Mongolia were given to Oktai, whom he nominated as his successor; Tchagbatai received a part of the Uiguric passes as far as Kharezmi, including Turkestan and Transoxania; Djudi had died in the meantime, so Batu was made lord of Kharezmi, Deshti-Kiptchak of the pass of Derbend and Tuli was placed over Khurasan, Persia, and India."—A. Vámbéry, *History of Bokhara*, ch. 8.—"Popularly he [Jenghiz Khan] is mentioned with Attila and with Timur as one of the 'Scourges of God.' . . . But he was far more than a conqueror. . . . In every detail of social and political economy he was a creator; his laws and his administrative rules are equally admirable and astounding to the student. . . . He may fairly claim to have conquered the greatest area of the world's surface that was ever subdued by one hand. . . . Jingis organised a system of intelligence and espionage by which he generally knew well the internal condition of the country he was about to attack. He intrigued with the discontented and seduced them by fair promises. . . . The Mongols ravaged and laid waste the country all round the bigger towns, and they generally tried to entice a portion of the garrison into an ambushade. They built regular siege-works armed with catapults; the captives and peasants were forced to take part in the assault; the attack never ceased night or day; relief of troops keeping the garrison in perpetual terror. They employed Chinese and Persians to make their war engines. . . . They rarely abandoned the siege of a place altogether, and would sometimes continue a blockade for years. They were bound by no oath, and, however solemn their promise to the inhabitants who would surrender, it was broken, and a general massacre ensued. It was their policy to leave behind them no body of people, however submissive, who might inconvenience their communications. . . . His [Jenghiz'] creed was to sweep away all cities, as the haunts of slaves and of luxury; that his herds might freely feed upon grass whose green was free from dusty feet. It does make one hide one's face in terror to read that from 1211 to 1223, 18,470,000 human beings perished in China and Tangut alone, at the hands of Jingis and his followers."—H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols*, pt. 1, pp. 49, 108-113.—"He [Jenghiz Khan] was . . . a military genius of the very first order, and it may be questioned whether either Cæsar or Napoleon can, as commanders, be placed on a par with him. The manner in which he moved large bodies of men over vast distances without an apparent effort, the judgment he showed in the conduct of several wars in countries far apart from each other, his strategy in unknown regions, always on the alert yet never allowing hesitation or over-caution to interfere with his enterprises, the sieges which he brought to a successful termination, his brilliant victories . . . all combined, make up the picture of a career to which Europe can offer nothing that will surpass, if indeed she has anything to bear comparison with it."—D. C. Boulger,

History of China, v. 1, ch. 21.—See also KHORASAN; BOKHARA: 1219; SAMARKHAND: 1221; MERV; BALKH; KHUAREZM.

1202.—Overthrow of the Keraït, or kingdom of Prester John. See PRESTER JOHN, KINGDOM OF.

1206-1500.—Final national unity.—Summarized account of events of period.—As we have seen "the history of the Mongols becomes of importance, in its effect on the world, at the beginning of the thirteenth century, between the years 1206 and 1227, when the son of a petty chieftain named Temuchin brought all the Mongol tribes under his authority, formed them into one nation, and proclaimed himself Grand Sovereign of Mongolia with the title of Jenghis Khan. . . . By the end of the thirteenth century, authority had been delegated to so many Khans that the empire itself broke up into several principalities. The Mongol yoke still remained over Russia until 1380, when the Golden Horde were defeated at the battle of Kalba by the Russians under the command of the Grand Duke Dimitri, surnamed Donskoi, in memory of this successful battle;—and so at last the Russians had freed themselves from these Mongols. About the end of the fourteenth century the Mongols were expelled from the throne of China by the Ming dynasty, and the Mongol tribes then occupied a large tract of country in what is now known as Mongolia, Siberia, and Russia. But these nomad tribes were now well on the wane. There was no cohesion amongst them, and each wandering tribe was ruled by its own Khan, only owning very nominal allegiance to the chief Khan. Constant internecine war had weakened them, and, although their country was large and formed the dividing country between Russia and China, neither China nor Russia had much to fear from them."—H. A. C. Perry-Ayscough and R. B. Otter-Barry, *With the Russians in Mongolia*, pp. 46-48.

1229-1294.—Conquests of the successors of Jenghiz Khan.—"Okkodai [or Ogotai or Oktai], the son and successor of Chinghiz, followed up the subjugation of China, extinguished the Kin finally in 1234 and consolidated with his empire all the provinces north of the Great Kiang. . . . After establishing his power over so much of China as we have said, Okkodai raised a vast army and set it in motion towards the west. One portion was directed against Armenia, Georgia [see ARMENIA: 908-1083; CAUCASUS: 1080-1303] and Asia Minor, whilst another great host under Batu, the nephew of the Great Khan, conquered the countries north of Caucasus, overran Russia making it tributary, and still continued to carry fire and slaughter westward. [See KIEV: 1240.] One great detachment under a lieutenant of Batu's entered Poland, burned Cracow, found Breslau in ashes and abandoned by its people, and defeated with great slaughter at Wahlstadt near Lignitz (April 9, 1241) the troops of Poland, Moravia and Silesia, who had gathered under Duke Henry of the latter province to make head against this astounding flood of heathen. [See LIGNITZ, BATTLE OF.] Batu himself [and his great general Subutai] with the main body of his army was ravaging Hungary [see HUNGARY: 1301; POLAND: 1241]. . . . Pesth was now taken and burnt and all its people put to the sword. The rumours of the Tartars and their frightful devastations had scattered fear through Europe, which the defeat at Lignitz raised to a climax. Indeed weak and disunited Christendom seemed to lie at the foot of the barbarians. The Pope to be sure proclaimed crusade, and wrote circular letters, but the enmity between him and the Emperor Frederic II. was

allowed to prevent any co-operation, and neither of them responded by anything better than words to the earnest calls for help which came from the King of Hungary. No human aid merited thanks when Europe was relieved by hearing that the Tartar host had suddenly retreated eastward. The Great Khan Okkodai was dead [1241] in the depths of Asia, and a courier had come to recall the army from Europe. In 1255 a new wave of conquest rolled westward from Mongolia, this time directed against the Ismaelians or 'Assassins' on the south of the Caspian, and then successively against the Khalif of Baghdad [see also BAGDAD: 1258] and Syria. The conclusion of this expedition under Hulagu may be considered to mark the climax of the Mongol power. Mangu Khan, the emperor then reigning, and who died on a campaign in China in 1259, was the last who exercised a sovereignty so nearly universal. His successor Kublai extended indeed largely the frontiers of the Mongol power in China [see CHINA: 1259-1264], which he brought entirely under the yoke, besides gaining conquests rather nominal than real on its southern and southeastern borders, but he ruled effectively only in the eastern regions of the great empire, which had now broken up into four: (1) The immediate Empire of the Great Khan, seated eventually at Khanbalik or Peking, embraced China, Corea, Mongolia, and Manchuria, Tibet, and claims at least over Tunking and countries on the Ava frontier; (2), the Chagatai Khanate, or Middle Empire of the Tartars, with its capital at Almalik, included the modern Dsungaria, part of Chinese Turkestan, Transoxiana, and Afghanistan; (3), the Empire of Kipchak, or the Northern Tartars, founded on the conquests of Batu, and with its chief seat at Sarai, on the Wolga, covered a large part of Russia, the country north of Caucasus, Khwarizm, and a part of the modern Siberia; (4), Persia, with its capital eventually at Tabriz, embraced Georgia, Armenia, Azerbaijan and part of Asia minor, all Persia, Arabian Irak, and Khorasan."—H. Yule, *Cathay and the way thither: Preliminary essay*, v. 1, sect. 92-94.

ALSO IN: H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols*, ch. 4-5.

1238-1391.—Kipchak empire.—Golden horde.—"It was under Touthi [or Juchi], son of Tschingis, that the great migration of the Monguls effected an abiding settlement in Russia. . . . Touthi, with half a million of Monguls, entered Europe close by the Sea of Azof. On the banks of the river Kalka he encountered the united forces of the Russian princes. The death of Touthi for awhile arrested the progress of the Tatar arms. But in 1236, Batu, the son of Touthi, took the command, and all the principalities and cities of Russia, with the exception of Novogorod, were desolated by fire and sword and occupied by the enemy. For two centuries Russia was held caged, cribbed, confined by this encampment or horde; the Golden Horde of the Deshti Kipzak, or Steppe of the Hollow Tree. Between the Wolga and the Don, and beyond the Wolga, spreads this limitless region the Deshti Kipzak. It was occupied in the first instance, most probably, by Hun-Turks, who first attracted and then were absorbed by fresh immigrants. From this region an empire took its name. By the river Akhtuba, a branch of the lower Wolga, at Great Serai, Batu erected his golden tent; and here it was he received the Russian princes whom he had reduced to vassalage. Here he entertained a king of Armenia; and here, too, he received the ambassadors of S. Louis. . . . With the exception of Novogorod, which had

joined the Hanseatic League in 1276, and rose rapidly in commercial prosperity, all Russia continued to endure, till the extinction of the house of Batu, a degrading and hopeless bondage. When the direct race came to an end, the collateral branches became involved in very serious conflicts; and in 1380, Temnik-Mami was overthrown near the river Don by Demetrius IV., who, with the victory, won a title of honour, Donski, which outlasted the benefits of the victory; although it is from this conflict that Russian writers date the commencement of their freedom. . . . After an existence of more than 250 years the Golden Horde was finally dissolved in 1480. Already, in 1468, the khanate of Kusan [or Kazan] was conquered and absorbed by the Grand Duke Ivan; and, after the extinction of the horde, Europeans for the first time exacted tribute of the Tatar, and ambassadors found their way unobstructed to Moscow. But the breaking up of the Golden Horde did not carry with it the collapse of all Tatar power in Russia. Rather the effect was to create a concentration of all their residuary resources in the Crimea."—C. I. Black, *Proselytes of Ishmael*, pt. 3, ch. 4.—"The Mongol word yurt meant originally the domestic fireplace, and, according to Von Hammer, the word is identical with the German herde and the English hearth, and thence came in a secondary sense to mean house or home, the chief's house being known as Ulugh Yurt or the Great House. An assemblage of several yurts formed an ordu or orda, equivalent to the German hort and the English horde, which really means a camp. The chief camp where the ruler of the nation lived was called the Sir Orda, i. e., the Golden Horde. . . . It came about that eventually the whole nation was known as the Golden Horde." The power of the Golden Horde was broken by the conquests of Timour (1389-1391). It was finally broken into several fragments, the chief of which, the Khanates of Kazan, of Astrakhan, and of Krim, or the Crimea, maintained a long struggle with Russia, and were successively overpowered and absorbed in the empire of the Muscovite.—H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols*, pt. 2, p. 1.—See also above: 1229-1264; KIPCHAKS; RUSSIA: 1237-1480.

1242.—Invasion of Bosnia. See SERBIA: 1200-1321.

1244.—Overthrow of Trebizond. See TREBIZOND: 1204-1461.

1257-1258.—Khulagu's overthrow of caliphate. See BAGDAD: 1258.

1258-1393.—Empire of Ilkhans. See PERSIA: 1258-1393.

1259-1294.—Empire of Kublai Khan. See CHINA: 1259-1264.

1260.—Destruction of Aleppo. See ALEPPO: 1260.

1274-1281.—Attempted invasion of Japan. See JAPAN: 1274-1281.

1299.—Invasion of Egypt. See CRUSADES: 1209.

1371-1405.—Conquests of Timur. See TIMUR: 1526-1605.—Founding of Mogul (Mongol) empire in India. See INDIA: 1399-1605.

1616-1691.—Ching dynasty.—Internecine wars.—"The Ming dynasty, in China, was driven out in 1616-43 by the Manchu Tartars. These Manchus founded the 'Ching dynasty,' which held sway over China and her three dominions, Tibet, Manchuria, and Mongolia, until recent times. After the Mongols' expulsion from China the nomad tribes were ruled by their individual Khans. They owed nominal allegiance to their chief Khan; and before the death of the last of these princes, Dayam Tsuen Khan in 1543, directions were left



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by him that Mongolia was to be divided into nine parts, according to the number of his sons. A period now ensued during which the country was split up, and suffered severely from internecine strife. The princes were at enmity with one another, and sought for support in China. Thus it came to pass that on the establishment of the Manchu dynasty the princes of Southern or Inner Mongolia acknowledged the suzerainty of China and became tributaries to the Son of Heaven. By the middle of the seventeenth century the whole of Southern Mongolia, the Ordos country, Alashan and Kokonor were in subjection to the Manchus. Northern Mongolia or Halhar alone remained independent, her four princes refusing to do obeisance to China. At this time Northern Mongolia was continually at war with the tribes of Dzungaria. Towards the end of the seventeenth century these tribes combined under the leadership of an ambitious and warlike Prince—Galdan Boshoktu Khan—and defeated the Halhar princes of Northern Mongolia. The latter were now forced to apply for help to the Manchu Government of China. In 1691, at a gathering of Mongol princes held at Dolonor, the Emperor of China, Kang Hsi, confirmed their internal privileges and their rights to hereditary authority, receiving in return an acknowledgment of the suzerainty of the Manchu dynasty. Having obtained this acknowledgment, the Manchu Government turned its attention to the enthralment of the Mongols. To this end they strengthened and developed the system of appanages, whereby controlling authorities were multiplied and subdivided to an enormous extent; dissension amongst the princes was also encouraged.”—H. G. C. Perry-Ayscough and R. B. Otter-Barry, *With the Russians in Mongolia*, pp. 40-50.—“During 1689 K'ang Hsi [one of the greatest of the Ching emperors] addressed several communications . . . to Galdan, asking him to evacuate the Khalkha country and to restore it to the rightful owners. This request only brought forth a counter demand from Galdan that China should surrender to him the Tshetu Khan. . . . To back up his demand Galdan even made inroads into Inner Mongolia, defeated the frontier guards, and clamoured for war at the very doors of China. . . . K'ang Hsi . . . promptly dispatched two armies to check the advance of the enemy; one led by Prince Yü. . . . A third army, led by the Emperor, King Kung, who engaged the enemy first, failed to check Galdan's advance. . . . The division of Prince Yü was next engaged, and on Sept. 3, 1690, a great battle was fought at Ulangputung. . . . Before nightfall, the rout of the enemy was complete.”—Li Ung Bing, *Outlines of Chinese history*, pp. 386-387.

1697-1724.—**Death of Galdan.—Chinese conquests.**—“In the beginning of 1697, the Emperor [K'ang Hsi] once more made a trip to the west. . . . Before his plans were carried out word came that Galdan, forsaken by all his friends, had ended his life by suicide. When his remains were produced by an agent of Ts'ewang . . . K'ang Hsi was ready to return to Peking, their enemy having disappeared. . . . [A few years previous, Galdan], having sufficiently recovered from the effects of his last defeat, was once more ready to measure his strength with K'ang Hsi. . . . Towards the fall of . . . [1694] he returned with a fresh army of 30,000 men and entrenched himself on the bank of the Kerulun River. . . . Since he was unwilling to come south to receive his punishment, K'ang Hsi was prepared to give it to him where he was. In the spring of 1695 a grand

army marched in three sections; the Emperor taking command in person of the central division. . . . It was then rumored that a regiment of Cossacks armed with rifles was coming to the aid of Galdan; but K'ang Hsi, undaunted by such reports, continued his advance in the direction of the Kerulum. . . . To his great surprise and disappointment, not a single tent was seen on the bank of the river where he had expected to meet his foe. Galdan had fled. . . . [After the death of Galdan] the Khalkhas . . . returned to their native country, which, as a result of the war, had been extended to the Altai Mountains. . . . The encounters with Galdan had terminated in the establishment of China's authority over the Khalkhas. . . . The remote cause of the third war with Dzungar was a rebellion that broke out in Kokonor in 1723. . . . The Kokonor Mongols had been permitted to retain their tribal government. . . . Now that the great Emperor K'ang Hsi was no more, Tantsin believed that he had nothing further to fear from China, and hastened to launch his ambitious plan of entirely extinguishing the authority of China and restoring the independence of Kokonor. He convened at Ghahan . . . a conference of his fellow Daijis, and told them to acknowledge him as their master instead of the Chinese Emperor. Two of them refused to do so and a civil strife ensued. Having been defeated, the dissenters left the country to announce the news to the Chinese Emperor. . . . In a few months the rebellion assumed . . . alarming proportions. General Yoh . . . with 5,000 men, made a bold move which broke up the centre of the trouble . . . in the neighborhood of the Chadam River. Thousands of the rebels . . . were glad to lay down their arms and submit.”—Li Ung Bing, *Outlines of Chinese history*, pp. 388, 389-390, 415-416.—See also CHINA: 1662-1838.

1750-1911.—**Spread and decay of Buddhism.**—After the death of the Mongolian chief, Tsenning, in 1745 “all the elements of disorder were let loose.” Upon the death of Tsenning's son Dardsha, disputes arose over the supremacy and they appealed to the Emperor at Peking, who sent an army to establish one of the disputants, Amursana, as ruler over the Mongols under the protection of the Chinese Empire (1750-1753). During this period the Mongolians had some well established schools, and a new university for the study of the teaching of Buddha. “The Manchus have . . . made intelligent use of Buddhism as a political lever, and the Emperor reserves to himself the right to sanction the transmigration of ‘Souls.’”—E. H. Parker, *China, past and present*, p. 92.—At the time when the Buddhist patriarchs first established themselves in Thibet, that country was in immediate contact with Christianity. Nothing was easier than to induce many of the various sects to admire and adopt the rights of the Christian religion. The strength of Buddhism in both China and Mongolia gradually has been sapped and undermined, not only by Confucianism, but by both Mohammedanism and Christianity, so that while Buddhism is far stronger in Mongolia and Japan, than in China, the Nestorian Christianity and Buddhism are probably the parents of the present Lamaism (1911).—Based on G. Huth, *Geschichte des Buddhismus in der Mongolei*, p. 330.—In 1011, Buddhism “appears to be too far gone to be resuscitated. Debased with popular superstition and loaded down with idol worshipers, even missionaries sent to China by Japanese Buddhists will fail to breathe into it the breath of life. Quite otherwise is it with Confucianism.”—E. A. Ross, *Changing Chinese*, p. 265.

ALSO IN: W. Gascogne-Cecil, *Changing China*, pp. 148-263.

1911.—Effects of Chinese revolution.—Mongolia remained a province of China until 1911, when she applied to Russia to assist in establishing her independence. At this time the revolution broke out in China and the Mongols took advantage of it to force the Chinese officials and troops to leave the Khalkhan district and return home. The Mongolian Hutuktu was proclaimed ruler.

1912-1913.—Convention and protocol.—The Russian envoy and the Cabinet of the Hutuktu signed a convention and protocol at Urga, November 3. The Russian government promised its assistance in the maintenance of Mongolian autonomy, the establishment of a national army, the prevention of Chinese colonization and the entrance of Chinese troops. The Mongolian sovereign and government assured to Russian subjects and commerce special rights and privileges.

1913.—Mongol-Tibetan agreement.—Russian-Chinese agreement.—In January the sovereigns of Tibet and of Mongolia each approved the independent state under the jurisdiction of the other, and agreed to the establishment of Buddhism. "In the autumn it was reported that, in consequence of China's failure to preserve order in West Mongolia, Russia had occupied Tchuguchak and Kobdo with Cossacks. In October fresh demands were made upon China, and in November the settlement of these was embodied in an Agreement and extending them by the recognition of the Russo-Mongol Convention of November, 1912, and by defining Urga, Uliasutai and Kobdo as the territories included in Outer Mongolia."—*Annual Register*, 1913, p. 114.—In the agreement between Russia and China, Russia recognized Outer Mongolia as part of Chinese territory under Chinese suzerainty, and China recognized the autonomy of Outer Mongolia. China agreed not to send troops into this region; Russia agreed to restrict her troops to consular guards, to refrain from colonization or intervention in administrative affairs, and to allow Chinese representatives in the state.

1914.—Railways and telegraphs.—Establishment of banking system.—In an agreement drawn up in September, Russia recognized Mongolia's right to build her own territorial railways, but all plans were to be decided upon in conference with Russia. The Russian government must be consulted before concessions could be granted, so that no railways might be established "prejudicial to Russian economic and strategic interests." Russia's cooperation was promised in finding the necessary capital. In September the Russian Administration of Posts and Telegraphs was granted a concession for the construction of a telegraph line in Mongolia. In the fall of 1913 Russia had granted Mongolia a war loan of two million rubles, the advance to be secured on revenues in certain districts near Kobdo. In December, 1914, a Mongolian bank was established with a capital fixed at one million rubles. It was arranged that the directorate should be in Petrograd, with branches at Urga, Uliarsutai and Kobdo; the Mongolian government is to receive 15 per cent of the net annual profits, with the right to purchase the bank fifty years from the date of commencement of operations.

1915.—Establishment of legal currency.—Japanese demands.—In March, the Russian government granted to the Siberian Trading Bank the right to issue, in Mongolia, money coined in the Russian mint. In the demands made upon China in 1915, Japan requested exclusive mining rights, the right to settle, cultivate, and purchase land, and partial control of railway building, all in eastern

Mongolia. The situation thus complicated is still (1921) in a transitory state.

1919.—Chinese cancellation of agreements.—In November, 1919, China declared the Russian-Chinese and Russian-Mongol agreements null and void, and cancelled the independence of Mongolia.

1921.—Independence proclaimed.—On February 25, 1921, Baron Ungern von Sternberg, heading the anti-Bolshevist invasion of the territory, forced the local ruler, or Hutuktu, to declare the independence of outer Mongolia. The Hutuktu was crowned king of Mongolia. "The new Chinese government in 1920 held the Living Buddha under arrest in his palace but at the beginning of 1921 Baron Ungern crossed the sacred Bogdo-Ol and approached the palace from the rear. Tibetan riders shot the Chinese sentries with bow and arrow and afterwards the Mongols penetrated into the palace and stole their 'God' who immediately stirred up all Mongolia and awakened the hopes of the Asiatic peoples and tribes."—F. Ossendowski, *Beasts, men and gods*, p. 294.—Since the capture and execution of Ungern by the Soviet authorities on September 15, 1921, China has instituted negotiations to restore the allegiance of Outer Mongolia.

1921.—Distribution of Slavo-Mongols in southeastern Europe. See BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities.

ALSO IN: *China Year Book*, 1920.—D. Carruthers, *Unknown Mongolia*.—J. Gilmour, *Among the Mongols*.—A. deC. Sowerby, *Sport and science on the Sino-Mongolian frontier*.

MONGOLO-DRAVIDIANS. See INDIA: People.

MONGOLS, term used specifically to designate the tribes inhabiting the northern part of Asia above the great Gobi desert. Used in a general sense it includes all people of yellow, brown or reddish-brown skin and straight black hair. See MONGOLIA: Country and people; SCYTHIANS; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Origin; PACIFIC OCEAN: People; MALAY; JAPAN: Inhabitants and their origin; INDIA: People.

MONITOR, first successful United States armored cruiser. It was built by John Ericsson in 1862. See WARSHIPS: 1856-1905.

MONITOR AND MERRIMAC, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (March); Battle of the Monitor and Merrimac.

MONITORIAL EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: England: Spread of popular education; United States: Evolution of public school system.

MONK, or Monck, George, 1st Duke of Albemarle (1608-1669), English general. Rose as military leader during the war in the Netherlands, 1629; subjugated Scotland, 1651; made admiral, 1652; governor of Scotland, 1654; aided in restoration of Charles II, 1660; received a grant of land in North Carolina, 1663; successfully directed naval battles against the Dutch, 1666-1667. See SCOTLAND: 1654 (August-September); NORTH CAROLINA: 1663-1670.

MONKS. See AUSTIN CANONS; BENEDICTINE ORDERS; CAPUCHINS; CARMELITE FRIARS; CARTHUSIAN ORDER; CISTERCIAN ORDER; CLAIRVAUX; CLUNY; DOMINICAN FRIARS; FRANCISCAN FRIARS; RECOLLECTS; SERVITES; THEATINES; TRAPPISTS; MONASTICISM; also EDUCATION, ART: Medieval and Renaissance.

MONMOUTH, James Scott, Duke of (1649-1685), English general. Reputed illegitimate son of Charles II; became general, 1670; commanded forces against the Scotch Covenanters, 1675; at the head of several unsuccessful plots against James II, and as a result executed, 1685. See ENGLAND:

1679-1681; 1681-1683; 1685 (May-July); SCOTLAND: 1679 (June); TAUNTON: 1685.

MONMOUTH, British cruiser. It was destroyed November 1, 1914, in the battle of Coronel. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914; IX. Naval operations: e.

MONMOUTH, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1778 (June).

MONOCACY, Battle of. (See U.S.A.: 1864 (July: Virginia-Maryland).)

MONOD, Gabriel (1844-1912), French historian and lecturer. President of *École des hautes études*; editor of *Revue critique*; founder of *Revue historique*, 1876, and author of several historical books. See **HISTORY**: 32.

MONODY, Florentine, style of musical composition in which one voice part carries the melody. It was developed about 1600 and is the forerunner of the modern operatic aria. See **MUSIC**: Modern: 1575-1676.

MONOMAKH, Vladimir (1113-1125), prince of Kiev. See **RUSSIA**: 1054-1169.

MONOMETALISM. See **STABILIZING THE DOLLAR**.

MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY. See **ABYSSINIAN CHURCH**; **CONSTANTINOPLE**: 511-512; **JACOBITE CHURCH**; **NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY**; **MONOTHELITE CONTROVERSY**.

MONOPLANE. See **AVIATION**: Development of airplanes and air service: 1910-1920.

MONOPOLIES. See **TRUSTS**; **CAPITALISM**; **GUILDS**: Modern times; **JAPAN**: 1918-1921.

MONOTHEISM. See **RELIGION**: Course of development, etc.; **BRAHMANISM**: Modern Hindu view.

MONOTHELITE CONTROVERSY.—"The Council of Chalcedon having decided that our Lord possessed two natures, united but not confused, the Eutychian error condemned by it is supposed to have been virtually reproduced by the Monothelites, who maintained that the two natures were so united as to have but one will. This heresy is ascribed to Heraclius, the Greek emperor, who adopted it as a political project for reconciling and reclaiming the Monophysites to the Church, and thus to the empire. The Armenians as a body had held, for a long time, the Monophysite (a form of the Eutychian) heresy, and were then in danger of breaking their allegiance to the emperor, as they had done to the Church; and it was chiefly to prevent the threatened rupture that Heraclius made a secret compromise with some of their principal men. . . . Neither . . . the strenuous efforts of the Greek emperors Heraclius and Constans, nor the concession of Honorius the Roman pontiff to the soundness of the Monothelite doctrine, could introduce it into the Church. Heraclius published in A. D. 630 an *Ethesis*, or a formula, in which Monothelitism was covertly introduced. The sixth general council, held in Constantinople A. D. 680, condemned both the heresy and Honorius, the Roman Pontiff who had countenanced it. 'The doctrine of the Monothelites, thus condemned and exploded by the Council of Constantinople, found a place of refuge among the Mardaites, a people who inhabited the mountains of Libanus and Anti-Libanus, and who, about the conclusion of this century, received the name of Maronites from John Maro, their first bishop—a name which they still retain.' . . . In the time of the Crusaders, the Maronites united with them in their wars against the Saracens, and subsequently (A. D. 1182) in their faith. After the evacuation of Syria by the Crusaders, the Maronites, as their former allies, had to bear the vengeance of the Saracenic kings; and for a long time they defended themselves as they could, sometimes inflicting serious injury on the Moslem army,

and at others suffering the revengeful fury of their enemies. They ultimately submitted to the rule of their Mohammedan masters. . . . The Maronites now . . . are entirely free from the Monothelite heresy, which they doubtless followed in their earlier history; nor, indeed, does there appear a single vestige of it in their histories, theological books, or liturgies. Their faith in the person of Christ and in all the articles of religion is now, as it has been for a long time past, in exact uniformity with the doctrines of the Roman Church."—J. Wortabet, *Researches into the religions of Syria*, pp. 103-111, with footnote.

ALSO IN: H. F. Tozer, *Church and the Eastern empire*, ch. 5.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 47.—P. Schaff, *History of the Christian church*, v. 4, ch. 11, sect. 109-111.

MONOUAS. See **SUSQUEHANNAS**.

MONRO, Sir Charles Carmichael (1860-), British general. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: VI. Turkey: a, 6.

MONROE, James (1758-1835), fifth president of the United States. Member of Congress under the Confederation, 1783-1786; delegate to the Virginia state convention, 1788; United States senator, 1790-1794; minister to France, 1794-1796; governor of Virginia, 1799-1802, 1811; one of the negotiators of the Louisiana Purchase, 1803; minister to England, 1803-1807; secretary of state, 1811-1817; secretary of war, 1814-1815; president of the United States, 1817-1825; promulgated the "Monroe Doctrine," 1823. See U.S.A.: 1816; 1816-1817; 1817-1825; 1820; 1823; **MONROE DOCTRINE**.

Raising of attorney-general to importance in government. See **ATTORNEY-GENERAL**.

Opposition and ratification of Federal constitution by Virginia state convention. See **VIRGINIA**: 1788; U.S.A.: 1787-1789.

Negotiations with England concerning impressment of American seamen and seizure of vessels. See U.S.A.: 1804-1809.

Recognition of independence of South American republics. See **LATIN AMERICA**: 1822-1830.

MONROE DOCTRINE: Text and comment on status.—Landmarks leading to declaration.—International situation in 1823.—"On the part of the United States, President Monroe, in his annual message to Congress of December 2, 1823, declared as follows: 'The American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by European powers. . . . We should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered and shall not interfere. But with the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them or controlling, in any other manner, their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States.' . . . This is the statement formally asserting what is now known as the Monroe Doctrine. Whatever may be said as to its extent in growth since its enunciation by Monroe, its present necessity, or the advisability of its geographical restriction, it must be said that its assertion by President Monroe as a policy was both timely and effective. The recognition of the Latin-American states by the United States had taken place the previous year and was

followed by Great Britain in 1825. It can be seen that the Monroe Doctrine, accepted and approved by Great Britain as a proper policy in its original wording, is not and never has been international law. It is also neither municipal nor constitutional law, but is a declaration of the national policy of the United States which has been adhered to and followed in the main with respect to European powers. It has varied greatly in its definition and interpretation in the relations of the United States with the other powers of the continent who are generally known as the Latin-American states."—C. H. Stockton, *Outline of international law*, pp. 46-47.—"The Doctrine proclaimed by James Monroe in his presidential Message of December 2, 1823, may be roughly described as a prohibition by the United States of European interference with the political arrangements of the New World. For such a prohibition it is easier to find analogy than exact parallel. Modern Europe, it may be maintained, has its Monroe Doctrine against the Turk, just as ancient Hellas had its Monroe Doctrine against the barbarian. Apart, however, from the fact that nations have been wont to condemn classes of acts as dangerous to themselves, it might at first sight seem that the principles of the Monroe Doctrine were independent of the past. In the sense that the words of 1823 were not the outcome of a series of approximations by the President of the United States to the doctrine which they express, this view indeed appears to be the true one. But we must not lose sight of the fact that for forty years the United States had been hastening towards the position that they assumed in 1823, while in their progress it is possible to distinguish several landmarks on the road to the Monroe Doctrine. . . . Standing midway between the achievement of independence by the United States and the swelling declaration of 1823, the acquisition of Louisiana forms a landmark on the road to the Monroe Doctrine. In common with the growth of internal communication, it promoted the national cohesion of the Federation suddenly called upon to rule an empire. Among its more tangible results were titles, though doubtful ones, to the Oregon district and to the western portion of Florida. The former, indeed, could present no immediate attractions to the United States, but the maritime value of the Floridas, now cut off from the great mass of Spanish dominions, had not failed to arouse their attention. The tide of circumstances ran strongly in their favour. In 1809, when the Presidency of Madison began, Spain found herself so paralyzed in Europe that she could hardly lift a finger to prevent her New World dominions from throwing off her yoke. Great Britain, whose representative at Washington could say to the Secretary of State with the approval of his Government, 'Such are the ties by which His Majesty is bound to Spain that he cannot see with indifference any attack upon her interest in America,' was forbidden by her strained relations with the United States from maintaining by diplomacy, and by her struggle with Napoleon from maintaining by force that guarantee of Spanish possessions to which Spain appealed. The United States, therefore, enjoyed perfect freedom of action in their dealings with West Florida, and a curious prototype of the Monroe Doctrine was the result. . . . In a confidential message recommending to Congress the policy of taking temporary possession of West Florida, the President had advised 'A declaration that the United States could not see, without serious iniquity, any part of a neighbouring territory in which they have, in different respects, so deep and just a concern, pass

from the hands of Spain into those of any other foreign power.' . . . The Floridas, burdensome to Spain, were in 1819 assigned by treaty to the Republic; and in 1821, after a thousand perils, the treaty received the ratification of King Ferdinand. The scale of political power in North America thus turned decisively in favour of the United States. Their increasing importance was attested by their relations with foreign powers. In deference rather to internal faction than to Spain, they renounced the unsubstantial claim to Texas, but Great Britain shrank from opposing their preparations to make settlements within the area drained by the Columbia River—a territory which she regarded as her own. While their northern neighbour showed herself thus little disposed to resist them, the provinces on their south-western frontier passed from the sway of Spain to a state of precarious and unaggressive independence. Thus potent in their own continent, therefore, the United States gained credit with the world outside. Cuba, the Ionian Islands, and even Greece, were ready to welcome their interference. Humoured, if not feared, by Great Britain, courted by Spain, by France, by the Holy Alliance, and by the South Americans, with unity at home and a generation of unprecedented progress to look back upon, their faith in their destiny increased, and the Monroe Doctrine expressed it. . . . Although an augmented territory and, still more, a swelling spirit of self-confidence were required before Americans could utter the words of 1823, it must not be supposed that the Monroe Doctrine was called forth by internal considerations alone. It must rather be regarded as the product of complex circumstances existing in America, North and South, and in Europe. To investigate its origin, then, we must define the national factors which were at work, and examine the contact between them by which the result in question was produced. The United States, indeed, gave the Doctrine birth, but writers and statesmen have often ascribed its paternity to Great Britain. The former opposed it chiefly to the Holy Alliance; the latter, it is probable, to France. Spain and Spanish America were the parties to the quarrel which it was designed to bring to a close. . . . The events of 1815 left France a monarchy, England pledged to its preservation, and the United States at peace with both. In the New World, Louis XVIII had few apparent interests. The ambition of his ministers, however, caused the United States some uneasiness, in particular lest Cuba might be ceded to France by Spain. . . . The presidential message of 1823, in so far as it warned France to go no farther, was a boon to the Old World devised in the interests of the New. Though the peril from the power actually under arms was perhaps more real, greater danger of an extension to the New World of the political system of the Old seemed to the United States to come from the Holy Alliance. This league of European sovereigns under the hegemony of the Czar, though less capable than France of determining a policy, seemed infinitely more capable of putting it into execution. Originally conceived of by Alexander, perhaps, as a society for the realisation of Christian principles of government, it had degenerated into an association of autocrats to stifle every aspiration after constitutional freedom. Of this association, to which the sovereigns of Russia, Austria, Prussia, France, Spain, Naples and Sardinia had fully pledged themselves, the Austrian Chancellor, Metternich, was the centre and the soul. Castlereagh he had esteemed his second self—devoted to him in heart and spirit. Canning he was bound to regard with more distrust, but he clung to the hope that England might be induced

to continue that policy of general acquiescence in the acts of the Holy Alliance which she had not yet finally abjured. The United States, on the other hand, had repulsed the persistent overtures of the Czar to accede to the Holy Alliance. Their government had come to regard it as 'a mere hypocritical fraud,' while they knew that Alexander and Metternich regarded the Republic as 'a standing refutation of their doctrines.' When it is added that Monroe and his advisers believed both that Great Britain might be induced to return to her allegiance, and that the object of the European league was the overthrow of liberty, first in South and then in North America, the relation of the Holy Alliance to the words of 1823 becomes clearer. The danger to America from the Holy Alliance, or from France, or from both powers seemed to be made imminent by the events of 1823 in the Peninsula. The intervention of France in Spain, opposed by Canning in Paris, London, and Madrid with an eloquence lacking nothing but success, was sanctioned, though not dictated, by the Holy Allies. . . . The fall of Cadiz seemed an ill omen for the liberties of America. . . . France, though Chateaubriand was anything but mercenary, might seek indemnity in the New World; and the state of the young republics promised her little difficulty in finding it. As the informal agent of the Holy Alliance, therefore, she had brought about a state of things in Spain which revived European interest in Spanish America. . . . Such was, in brief, the position of the United States, Great Britain, France, the Holy Alliance and Spain in the international situation out of which the Monroe Doctrine arose. To describe this situation is to become conscious of an influence which, though vague, was felt on all sides—the influence of Spanish America. . . . The policy pursued by Great Britain with regard to the revolted colonies during the period anterior to the Monroe Doctrine seems to have been opportunistic. The forces impelling her to action long rested in equilibrium. In South, as in North America, British commerce was the lode-star of the British statesman. . . . The United States, on the other hand, seemed to have pursued a more disinterested policy. They had in fact exposed themselves to the charge of being too hasty in recognizing some of the new communities. . . . Hence at the time when it becomes necessary to study in detail the actual composition of the President's message, the Administration had for six years pursued a policy of peace and patriotism. Standing absolutely aloof from the quarrels of the Old World, they had shown in the questions of Florida, of Cuba, of the north-west, and of America south of their own borders, that they would pursue their own interests regardless of European dictation. Their relations with Great Britain, relations which had improved into something approaching concert, had been governed by the same determination. While their intercourse with the individual powers of the European continent had been friendly, the collective principles of the Holy Alliance stood in marked contrast to their own. The battle-ground of conflicting opinions was South America, and the cry of the United States was the Message of Monroe."—W. F. Reddaway, *Monroe Doctrine*, pp. 3, 7-12, 17-21, 25, 43-44.—See also U.S.A.: 1823; LATIN AMERICA: 1823; ENTANGLING ALLIANCES.

1827-1867.—Early history of enforcement.—Relation to Cuba.—Polk doctrine.—Action of United States in Mexico.—As early as 1827, European powers were warned that the United States would not tolerate the acquisition of Cuba by any other nation. Van Buren, when secretary of state, repeated the warning. In 1840, it was rumored that

Great Britain was going to wrest Cuba from Spain and Forsyth explicitly stated that the United States would use her "military and naval resources" to prevent such actions. "In 1845, . . . President Polk declared that the United States would not permit any European intervention on the North American continent. This, as Professor Coolidge has brought out, pushed the theory further than it has been carried out in practise, although it restricted the original idea by leaving South America out of account. A few years later, while we [the United States] were engaged in civil war, Napoleon III attempted to set up a European monarch in Mexico. Scarcely had we recovered, however, from the throes of our conflict, when Mr. Seward took up with the French government the necessity for the withdrawal of the French troops [1866] from Maximilian's support. Here we were acting strongly in accordance with the best traditions of the Monroe Doctrine."—H. Bingham, *Monroe Doctrine*, pp. 7-8.

1870-1895.—Santo Domingo episode.—Venezuela dispute.—In 1870 President Grant made his contribution to the history of the Monroe Doctrine when in relation to the disposition of the island of Santo Domingo he declared that no territory on this continent should be subject to transfer to a European power. President Cleveland's bold declaration in 1895 during the Venezuelan boundary dispute with Great Britain, viz.: that it would be the "duty of the United States to resist by every means in its power, as a wilful aggression upon its rights and interests, the appropriation by Great Britain of any lands or the exercises of governmental jurisdiction over any territory which after investigation we have determined of right belongs to Venezuela," is another notable instance of recognition of the doctrine. The Venezuelan incident resulted in the adoption officially of the Monroe Doctrine by Congress when it endorsed the executive policy and in its acceptance by Great Britain. "According to the *London Times*, Great Britain admitted 'that in respect of South American Republics the United States may not only intervene in disputes, but may entirely supersede the original disputant and assume exclusive control of the negotiations.'"—P. L. Haworth, *United States in our own times*, p. 222.—See also U.S.A.: 1805 (December).

1898-1899.—Spanish-American War and imperialism.—Conditions in Cuba, in 1808, were, according to President McKinley, "a constant menace to our peace and . . . an enormous expense." This was the chief reason for the Spanish-American War (see U.S.A.: 1808, and after), although not the only one. The American people were determined to drive Spain from the West Indies. Cuba was only ninety miles off the coast of Florida. "The ultimate result of the Spanish-American war, together with the enormous advantages obtained by the United States through the treaty concluded with the government of Madrid, naturally produced a vivid impression throughout the American continent, and especially among the republics of Spanish origin. The public press of England, and of France, also did much toward the excitement of passions and ill will which became evident in Latin-America on all sides. Economists, statesmen, and writers, of every sort, systematically emphasized this giant step taken by the yankee mammoth in its policy of absorption and enslavement of all of the other weaker peoples of America."—D. de Abranches, *Brazil and the Monroe Doctrine*, p. 53.

1899.—Considered at first Hague peace conference.—"The entire plan for the tribunal and its use is voluntary, so far as sovereign States are con-

cerned. The only seeming exceptions to this rule are contained in Article 1, which provides that the Signatory Powers agree to employ their efforts for securing the pacific regulation of international differences; and Article 27, which says that the Signatory Powers consider it to be a duty, in the case where an acute conflict threatens to break out between two or more of them, to remind those latter that the permanent court is open to them. The obligation thus imposed is not legal or diplomatic in its nature. These articles merely express a general moral duty for the performance of which each State is accountable only to itself. In order, however, to make assurance doubly sure and to leave no doubt whatever of the meaning of the Convention, as affecting the United States of America, the Commission made the following declaration in the full session of the Conference, held July 25:—"The Delegation of the United States of America, in signing the Convention regulating the peaceful adjustment of international differences, as proposed by the International Peace Conference, make the following declaration:—Nothing contained in this Convention shall be so construed as to require the United States of America to depart from its traditional policy of not intruding upon, interfering with, or entangling itself in the political questions or policy of internal administration of any foreign State; nor shall anything contained in the said Convention be construed to imply a relinquishment by the United States of America of its traditional attitude toward purely American questions.' Under the reserve of this declaration the United States delegates signed the Arbitration Convention itself. Article 8 of the Convention, providing for a special form of Mediation, was proposed individually by Mr. Holls of the United States Commission. . . . It is hoped that in particular crises, when the other means provided by the Convention for keeping or restoring peace have failed, it may prove to have real and practical value. It is certain that, by the Continental States of Europe, it has been exceedingly well received."—*General Report of the American Commission.*

"Objection has been made to [the International Court of Arbitration] on the ground that submission to it is purely voluntary and that no executive authority has been provided to carry out its decrees. The answer to all such objections is simply that the power of enlightened public opinion is relied upon to be amply sufficient for the purpose of insuring obedience to every just mandate of this Court. In the case of the United States of America the judgments of the Court, according to the decisions now in force, will have a peculiarly binding force. An agreement to submit a case to the Court cannot be made by the United States, except by way of a treaty, which, when ratified by the Senate, becomes the supreme law of the land. In the case of *La Ninfa, Whitelaw v. The United States* (75 Fed. Rep., 513), it was decided by the United States Circuit Court of Appeals in California that by virtue of the treaty the judgment of the Court of Arbitration provided for by the terms of the treaty has all the force of a federal statute, and it is itself the supreme law of the land, binding upon every individual citizen of the United States, including all federal and State authorities. For us, at least, the International Court of Arbitration at The Hague will, if this view prevails, in reality be the highest possible tribunal, with an authority binding even on our own United States Supreme Court. Article 27 aims, in a measure, to supply the deficiency of the provision for obligatory arbitration, in that it declares it to be the duty of all Signatory powers to remind any one or more of them-

selves, in case of a threatened dispute, that the permanent Court of Arbitration is open to them. What particular effect this particular article will have must be left to the future. Without modification or reservation the article, when ratified by the United States, would have constituted a complete abandonment of the time-honored Monroe Doctrine. Accordingly the representatives of the United States declined to sign the treaty, except under a reservation or declaration, which was solemnly accepted by the Peace Conference, thus materially modifying the jurisdiction of the Court [see above]. . . . By this declaration the Monroe Doctrine was not only self-guarded, but it was stated and vindicated more emphatically than ever before in our history, and the people of this country are, therefore, in a position to cordially support the International Court of Arbitration, without the fear that the Court itself, or the fact of its establishment, may ever be used against this country, or to the embarrassment of its diplomacy and traditional policy."—F. W. Holls, *International court of arbitration at The Hague (Paper read before the New York State Bar Association, Jan. 15, 1901)*.—See also HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899.

20th century.—Expansion.—Economic character.—"The Monroe Doctrine continued in the twentieth century to be, speaking broadly, the cornerstone of American international policy. None the less, uncertainty concerning the Doctrine's meaning and scope steadily grew. Some writers and publicists urged that the Doctrine no longer squared with the facts of the international situation—that it was obsolete and should be deliberately abandoned. Some who took this view thought that prevention of European and Asiatic encroachment in the western hemisphere should be undertaken by the United States only in conjunction with three of the southern nations which had become strongest and most progressive, the 'A B C powers,' Argentina, Brazil, and Chile. But most people were unwilling to admit that the Doctrine was outgrown. The most common notion was rather that, while the pronouncement of President Monroe in 1823 had no bearing in the twentieth century, there was none the less a Doctrine of Permanent Interest which underlay American foreign policy from Washington to Wilson, that from this Doctrine the United States derived the self-imposed task of preventing foreign aggression in the western hemisphere; that the exact content and significance of the Doctrine were variable, taking color from new situations as they arose; and that the Doctrine might as well be labelled with the name of Monroe as any other. That the Doctrine was still alive was proved not alone by frequent allusions in speeches and state papers, but by forceful reassertions and by definite acts."—F. A. Ogg, *National progress (American Nation Series)*, pp. 279-280.—As its history suggests, "the principle laid down by Monroe has been elaborated and expanded to meet new conditions in the official utterances of later Presidents, including Polk, Grant, Hayes, Harrison, Cleveland and Roosevelt. In the words and actions of the last two Presidents mentioned, the Monroe Doctrine assumed a more positive and aggressive tone and, in the twentieth century, it came to be known as the policy of the 'Big Stick' or the exercise of international police power. Finally, President Wilson, in an address to the Senate on the terms of a possible cessation of the Great War proposed that "the nations should with one accord adopt the doctrine of President Monroe as the doctrine of the world.' The Monroe Doctrine . . . was thus the exclusive product of executive initiative in foreign policy and did not receive official recognition by

Congress until seventy-three years after its original promulgation by the President. . . . It is to be noted . . . that both Santo Domingo and Haiti have been transformed into quasi-protectorates of the United States through the positive and aggressive application of the Monroe Doctrine carried out on the initiative of the President during the administrations of Roosevelt and Wilson. . . . In going beyond a mere display of force to the actual exercise thereof the President usually conforms his action to the rules of international law, which recognize the right of a nation, under certain circumstances, to resort to non-amicable measures of redress short of war, such as reprisals, pacific blockade, and other forms of non-belligerent interposition. In the case of the *Paquette Habana*, the Supreme Court declared that 'international law is part of our law, and must be ascertained and administered by the courts of justice of appropriate jurisdiction, as often as questions of right depending upon it are duly presented for their determination. For this purpose, where there is no treaty, and no controlling executive or legislative act or judicial decision, resort must be had to the customs and usages of civilized nations.' This is the rule which must be regarded as applying when the President, as commander-in-chief, directs the movements of our forces in non-amicable measures short of war. Action of this kind has usually been taken in Latin-America rather than in Europe or Asia, and in recent years it has been so frequent as to have become a main factor in developing a new and more sweeping interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine. The explanation lies largely, of course, in our proximity to the Latin-American world, in the lack of order and stable government there, in our acquisition of islands in the Caribbean, and in our construction of and interest in the Panama Canal. . . . Where we have a treaty with a foreign country authorizing us to do so, the President, by virtue of his power to see that the laws (including treaties, which are a part of the supreme law of the land) are executed, may, as commander-in-chief, send military or naval forces to that country to maintain peace and order, irrespective of whether American interests are directly involved. This is not war, nor necessarily a preliminary of war; rather, it is intended as a measure for the prevention of war, as was notably true in a number of instances in which the United States landed forces in Latin-American countries. Such action has often been considered necessary in order to avoid armed intervention by European powers in the affairs of such countries in violation of the Monroe Doctrine. As we have seen, the peculiar relations with and interests in Latin America which are construed to give us a right of intervention, have now in several instances, e.g., Cuba, Panama, and Haiti, been regularized by treaty provision."—J. M. Mathews, *Conduct of American foreign relations*, pp. 5-6, 11-12, 274, 291-292.

1901-1903.—Interpretation relative to German claims against Venezuela.—Recognition by Germany. See VENEZUELA: 1901; U.S.A.: 1902-1903.

1904-1905.—Case of Santo Domingo. See SANTO DOMINGO: 1904-1907; DOLLAR DIPLOMACY.

1905.—Roosevelt's endorsement and interpretation of the doctrine.—"President Roosevelt, in 1905, undertook to maintain in Santo Domingo, by the use of our naval forces, a diplomatic situation pending action upon a treaty by the Senate, which, in fact, failed of ratification. In 1903 he maintained a naval force in the neighborhood of Panama pending the outcome of a successful revolution therein against Colombia, and the result was rati-

fied by the treaty of the following year with Panama in which the United States promised to guarantee and maintain the independence of that republic. This is an example of the use of the 'big stick.' The landing of forces in Latin-American countries was, in several instances, justified by President Roosevelt under the doctrine of an 'international police power,' which is a positive interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine."—J. M. Mathews, *Conduct of American foreign relations*, pp. 292-293.—President Roosevelt's theory of the Monroe Doctrine is embodied in his message to Congress in December, 1905: "One of the most effective instruments for peace is the Monroe Doctrine as it has been and is being gradually developed by this Nation and accepted by other nations. No other policy could have been as efficient in promoting peace in the Western Hemisphere and in giving to each nation thereon the chance to develop along its own lines. If we had refused to apply the Doctrine to changing conditions it would now be completely outworn, would not meet any of the needs of the present day, and indeed would probably by this time have sunk into complete oblivion. It is useful at home, and is meeting recognition abroad, because we have adapted our application of it to meet the growing and changing needs of the hemisphere. When we announce a policy, such as the Monroe Doctrine, we thereby commit ourselves to the consequences of the policy, and those consequences from time to time alter. It is out of the question to claim a right and yet shirk the responsibility for its exercise. Not only we, but all American Republics who are benefited by the existence of the Doctrine, must recognize the obligations each nation is under as regards foreign peoples no less than its duty to insist upon its own rights. That our rights and interests are deeply concerned in the maintenance of the Doctrine is so clear as hardly to need argument. This is especially true in view of the construction of the Panama Canal. As a mere matter of self-defence we must exercise a close watch over the approaches to this canal; and this means that we must be thoroughly alive to our interests in the Caribbean Sea. There are certain essential points which must never be forgotten as regards the Monroe Doctrine. In the first place, we must as a nation make it evident that we do not intend to treat it in any shape or way as an excuse for aggrandizement on our part at the expense of the republics to the south. We must recognize the fact that in some South American countries there has been much suspicion lest we should interpret the Monroe Doctrine as in some way inimical to their interests, and we must try to convince all the other nations of the continent once and for all that no just and orderly government has anything to fear from us. There are certain republics to the south of us which have already reached such a point of stability, order, and prosperity that they themselves, though as yet hardly consciously, are among the guarantors of this Doctrine. These republics we now meet not only on a basis of entire equality, but in a spirit of frank and respectful friendship, which we hope is mutual. If all the republics to the south of us will only grow as those to which I allude have already grown, all need for us to be the especial champions of the Doctrine will disappear, for no stable and growing American Republic wishes to see some great non-American military power acquire territory in its neighborhood. All that this country desires is that the other republics on this Continent shall be happy and prosperous; and they cannot be happy and prosperous unless they maintain order within their boundaries and behave with

a just regard for their obligations toward outsiders. It must be understood that under no circumstances will the United States use the Monroe Doctrine as a cloak for territorial aggression. We desire peace with all the world, but perhaps most of all with the other peoples of the American Continent. There are of course limits to the wrongs which any self-respecting nation can endure. It is always possible that wrong actions toward this Nation, or toward citizens of this Nation, in some State unable to keep order among its own people, unable to secure justice from outsiders, and unwilling to do justice to those outsiders who treat it well, may result in our having to take action to protect our rights; but such action will not be taken with a view to territorial aggression, and it will be taken at all only with extreme reluctance and when it has become evident that every other resource has been exhausted. Moreover, we must make it evident that we do not intend to permit the Monroe Doctrine to be used by any nation on this continent as a shield to protect it from the consequences of its own misdeeds against foreign nations. If a republic to the south of us commits a tort against a foreign nation, such as an outrage against a citizen of that nation, then the Monroe Doctrine does not force us to interfere to prevent punishment of the tort, save to see that the punishment does not assume the form of territorial occupation in any shape. The case is more difficult when it refers to a contractual obligation. Our own government has always refused to enforce such contractual obligations on behalf of its citizens by an appeal to arms. It is much to be wished that all foreign governments would take the same view. But they do not; and in consequence we are liable at any time to be brought face to face with disagreeable alternatives. On the one hand, this country would certainly decline to go to war to prevent a foreign government from collecting a just debt; on the other hand, it is very inadvisable to permit any foreign power to take possession, even temporarily, of the custom-houses of an American Republic in order to enforce the payment of its obligations; for such temporary occupation might turn into a permanent occupation. The only escape from these alternatives may at any time be that we must ourselves undertake to bring about some arrangement by which so much as possible of a just obligation shall be paid. It is far better that this country should put through such an arrangement, rather than allow any foreign country to undertake it. To do so insures the defaulting republic from having to pay debts of an improper character under duress, while it also insures honest creditors of the republic from being passed by in the interest of dishonest or grasping creditors. Moreover, for the United States to take such a position offers the only possible way of insuring us against a clash with some foreign power. The position is, therefore, in the interest of peace as well as in the interest of justice. It is of benefit to our people; it is of benefit to foreign peoples; and most of all it is really of benefit to the people of the country concerned. This brings me to what should be one of the fundamental objects of the Monroe Doctrine. We must ourselves in good faith try to help upward toward peace and order those of our sister republics which need such help. Just as there has been a gradual growth of the ethical element in the relations of one individual to another, so we are, even though slowly, more and more coming to recognize the duty of bearing one another's burdens, not only as individuals, but also as among nations."—T. Roosevelt, *Message at the beginning of the 1st session of the 59th Congress, Dec. 5, 1905 (Presiden-*

tial Addresses and State Papers, v. 4, Collier edition, pp. 602-606).

1906.—Stated as an all-America doctrine by Secretary Root, at the Third International Conference of American Republics, at Rio de Janeiro, in 1906. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

1911-1914.—Application to foreign investments.—"In 1911 the creditors of an American company holding a tract of land on the Mexican coast, in the vicinity of Magdalena Bay, sought from the Taft Administration permission to sell their rights to a Japanese fishing company. There was no evidence that the Tokio government was in any way concerned; but assent was withheld, and on August 2, 1912, the Senate passed, by a vote of 51 to 4, a resolution introduced by Senator Lodge, as follows: 'That when any harbor or other place in the American continents is so situated that the occupation thereof for naval or military purposes might threaten the communication or the safety of the United States, the government of the United States could not see, without grave concern, the possession of such harbor or other place by any corporation or association which has such a relation to another government, not American, as to give that government practical power of control for naval or military purposes.' [See U.S.A.: 1912 (July).] There could be no doubt that one branch of Congress, at all events, believed in the Doctrine of Permanent Interest. Furthermore, when in 1913 an English house, S. Pearson and Son, Ltd., which had vast holdings of oil-producing lands in Mexico, sought an extensive oil concession in Colombia, it was turned from its purpose chiefly by adverse opinion in the United States. In both cases the fear was that alien business interests might prove an entering wedge for political interference or domination. These two episodes very well illustrate the principal change which the so-called Monroe Doctrine underwent in the first decade and a half of the century. Previously, the Doctrine was wholly political. It aimed to prevent foreign interference with the American governmental systems and the extension of foreign sovereignty to American soil. Purely economic engagements and operations were unknown to it. But the United States was gradually forced to recognize that the investment of foreign capital in a backward country may easily lead to economic absorption, and that economic absorption is likely to result in open or disguised political control. Latin America bristles with opportunities for such manipulation. Hence the new Doctrine is economic as well as political. Concretely applied, it means two things: (1) European and Asiatic peoples are to be discouraged from acquiring lands and other vested interests in America on such a scale as to suggest political control; (2) weaker states whose financial looseness might tempt creditor nations to intervene in their affairs are to be brought under American protection and put in a position to meet their obligations fully and promptly."—F. A. Ogg, *National progress (American Nation Series, v. 27, pp. 280-283, 279-282).*

Relation to World War.—American neutrality.—"The outbreak of the World War in 1914 left America shocked, incredulous, and impatient. With our traditional ignorance and indifference regarding world affairs, we had come to regard a great European conflict as no longer probable. We resented the war as a wicked and unwarranted interference with the peace and happiness of the world. As a people we denounced the invasion of Belgium, anathematized Germany for her part in the beginning of the struggle, clung tenaciously to

our theory of isolation, and accepted the government's traditional policy of neutrality. President Wilson's proclamation (of neutrality) was received with widespread approval. It is true it was subsequently made the subject of much *ex post facto* criticism by those upon whom hind sight had conferred superior vision. But at the time the policy of neutrality was the inevitable product of our American policy, our customary attitude toward European conflicts, our peace-loving traditions, and our blind, naive confidence in the safety and permanence of our isolation. Any other policy would have been almost inconceivable and at that time would have encountered tremendous opposition. . . . The wanton violation of American rights was the immediate and legal cause for our abandonment of neutrality and isolation and our entering the world conflict. But back of these matters were more fundamental considerations that were slowly taking form in the American mind. While we had honestly and effectively observed the legal obligations of our neutrality, our sympathy was increasingly for the allies. The sinister character of German diplomacy, her worship of brutal, arbitrary power, her savage methods of warfare, her absolute disdain of every consideration of honor, decency, and law, together with her gigantic military power, began to impress the American mind, that despite our 'splendid isolation,' such a power, if victorious, would menace not only the freedom of Europe but the democracies of the world. For there was dawning in American consciousness the understanding that the war was not merely a conflict between the contending nations but a life and death struggle between the democracies of Europe and the forces of autocratic power. At last America realized that her isolation had disappeared, that she was a part of the civilization of the world, and that she dared not evade its obligations. As our statesmen of 1823 realized that the independence and security of the newly founded republics of this hemisphere were essential to our 'peace and safety,' so today America has found that her future is inseparably linked with the destinies of democracy and the civilization of the world. Inventive genius has annihilated space and time and the Atlantic no longer affords to the democracy of the Americas effective barriers against the wars, intrigues, and autocracies of Europe. We clung desperately to the idea of isolation, but we found it a delusive hope. We found ourselves merged into a new world order where aloofness was neither possible nor worthy. We found ourselves confronted with new world problems that challenged our statesmanship and tested our devotion to the cause of liberty."—A. B. Hall, *Monroe Doctrine and the Great War*, pp. 127-130.

Relation to Covenant of League of Nations.—**New world conditions.**—"This proposed covenant [of the League of Nations] encountered much hostile opposition based, among other things, upon its alleged conflict with the Monroe Doctrine. . . . These critics contend that our adherence to the League of Nations would involve the impairment or abandonment of the Monroe Doctrine in two respects. In the first place it would violate our policy of isolation and involve us in an entangling alliance. In the second place it would sacrifice the Monroe Doctrine itself or at least our freedom of action in its enforcement. In considering the first objection it should be observed that the Doctrine of Isolation with its opposition to entangling alliances cannot properly be said to be a part of the Monroe Doctrine. [See ENTANGLING ALLIANCES.] It received its most authoritative expression in Washington's *Farewell*

Address, but those who now rely upon it seem to ignore that Washington did not regard it as an eternal maxim but rather a temporary measure 'to gain time to our country to settle and mature its yet recent institutions, and to progress without interruption to that degree of strength and consistency which is necessary to give it, humanly speaking, the command of its own fortunes.' The Doctrine of Isolation was adopted as the best means, under the then existing circumstances, to safeguard the young republic during the period of its infancy. While Monroe sought to gain strength for his doctrine by emphasizing our policy of isolation, the two policies were independent both in their origin and nature. Nevertheless we may well inquire if our becoming a member of the League of Nations would involve a dangerous or unwarranted departure from our policy of isolation. When that policy was formulated we were a weak and struggling republic, with a long and undefended coast line. The isolation of the New World from autocracies and conflicts of the Old was an undisputed fact. Engrossed in the conquest and development of a great continent, we had little cause for conflict with the interests of Europe. The Atlantic seemed a sufficient barrier against European powers. Our isolation seemed complete. But today the conditions that made the policy of isolation essential to our defense have disappeared. Modern science has annihilated space and time. America has long since passed the stage of self-sufficiency. Our commerce is found upon every sea. Our competition is felt in every market. Our politicians still render lip service to the policy, but our statesmen, in dealing with actual problems, have ignored it. It is considerably over half a century since Perry's expedition to Japan announced to the world American aggressive interest in the Eastern Hemisphere. We have participated in many European conferences dealing with non-American affairs. We have acquired islands in the Far Pacific. When European powers contemplated interference with Chinese integrity, America played a conspicuous part because her interests were involved. We have played a worthy part in the two Hague conferences. When the peace of Europe was threatened over the Moroccan question we sent representatives to the conference at Algeciras, and there is authority for the statement that America played more than a passing rôle, although the question at issue was largely the maintenance of the European balance. It is true that the Senate attached to its ratification of the treaty there adopted, a declaration that the sole purpose of America's participation was the protection of our citizens and commerce, the desire to aid in the removal of friction that might menace the peace between the powers concerned and 'without purpose to depart from the traditional American foreign policy which forbids participation by the United States in the settlement of political questions which are entirely European in their scope.' There can be little doubt, however, that the motives of President Roosevelt and Secretary of State Root were essentially political, that they recognized that our isolation had disappeared, that a general European war would affect the most fundamental interests of America, and that it was the part of vision, courage, and common sense to recognize the patent facts, and to grapple with the European problem in order that America might be spared the menace of a European war. The absolute soundness of this view has been amply demonstrated in the World War. In spite of our vaunted isolation, the peaceful aspirations of our people, and the marvelous patience

of our President, our most sacred interests were vitally affected and our entrance into the tragic conflict became inevitable. America should now know that she can no longer view with idle equanimity the devastating quarrels of Europe, for great European wars have now become our own. With these facts in mind, the American proponents of the League of Nations contend that they are merely following the vital interests of America, wherever they may lead, in the hope that at least some wars may be averted and that America may be spared the repetition of the recent tragedy. They have ample precedent in the examples cited above, and the same spirit of national self-defense that prompted Washington to take advantage of the facts of isolation to safeguard, temporarily, the interest of America, would seem to demand, with equal force, the departure from that doctrine when the facts of isolation have disappeared and our vital interests have become so intimately concerned with the quarrels of Europe. Washington wanted isolation to spare America the scourge of war. Because of modern conditions, the same object can only be attained by international organization. . . . It is true that under Article X, it [would become] . . . the duty of the United States to respect and preserve the integrity of the members of the league, she being the sole judge of the nature and extent of the obligation. The difference, however, between this mutual undertaking for self-protection and an entangling alliance would appear obvious. It would seem therefore that so much of the case against the League of Nations as rests upon the Doctrine of Isolation is not persuasive or convincing. . . . As former President Taft has so wisely observed, the recent war has demonstrated that the 'so-called policy against entangling alliances' is 'inconsistent with the needs of this nation and the needs of the world to secure the peaceful future of both.'—A. B. Hall, *Monroe Doctrine and the Great War*, pp. 135-142.—See also U. S. A.: 1919 (July-September): Discussion over League of Nations; DOLLAR DIPLOMACY.

Application by Japan to Asia.—“With the outbreak of the European war in 1914, Japan, as one of the allies, prepared to besiege Tsing-tao, capital of Kiao-Chau, a province leased by Germany, official notice being given to the United States that the province would be returned to China. This was not done and it was soon learned that Japan was pushing an unfavorable treaty upon the Chinese. The proposed treaty included twenty-one demands, so sweeping in extent, that, if granted, it meant vassalage for China. They provided for a thorough domination of China's economic and political affairs. The proposal, finally backed up by an ultimatum, aroused the indignation of China and caused grave concern to the United States as well as to Japan's allies. China was forced to accept the treaty, being powerless to resist. Defenders of Japan's policy relied much upon Japan's Monroe Doctrine for Asia, which it was asserted, was the mere application of the same principles to Asia that the United States had applied to the Americas. Japan did not cease all of this time to insist that she did not propose to interfere with Chinese integrity, the 'Open-Door' or the treaty rights of any other power. It was argued that since Japan respected the Monroe Doctrine of America, that we should respect the Monroe Doctrine of Japan. The argument did not find popular response in America, where Japan's attitude created undisguised suspicion and hostility. It has been argued that it is to American advantage to support the policy of

Japan and thus drive from China the competition of Europe, for it is with the latter that we have the strongest contest for Oriental trade. Furthermore, such an attitude would make for harmony and understanding between the two peoples. To this it is answered that if we drive European powers from China and gain the friendship of Japan, we force these powers to seek their markets in Latin America, thus increasing the strain upon the Monroe Doctrine and gaining the ill-will of European friends. Moreover, it is argued that Japan's attempt to defend her policy by the analogy to the Monroe Doctrine is not accurate or fair. It is a policy of aggression and not defense; it tends to destroy the integrity of China rather than to preserve it; and finally, despite assertions to the contrary, it seeks exclusive rights for Japan rather than equal opportunities for all. When these things are considered together with the relative size and population of Japan and China, it is not surprising that the new Monroe Doctrine for Asia has aroused suspicion and resentment in America and in the world. Late in 1917 there was an exchange of identical notes between the representatives of Japan and the United States, commonly referred to as the Ishii-Lansing agreement, by which the spirit of suspicion and hostility between the two countries was sought to be removed and a basis of mutual sympathy and understanding achieved. The notes recognized the special interest of Japan in China, 'particularly in the part to which her possessions are contiguous,' but also declared for the preservation of Chinese integrity and independence, and stated their adherence 'to the principle of the so-called "Open Door" or equal opportunity for commerce and industry in China.' This agreement, on its face, seems to accord with the traditional ideals and principles of American policy, and if carried out in that spirit will be a source of helpfulness for China and afford a sound basis for mutual understanding between America and Japan."—A. B. Hall, *Monroe Doctrine and the Great War*, pp. 92-94.

Latin American doctrines.—Calvo.—Drago.—Comparison with Monroe Doctrine.—Views for and against American practice.—“Attempts of European powers to collect by force debts from Venezuela, and also Roosevelt's statements that the coercion of a Latin-American state was not contrary to the Monroe Doctrine provided that such punishment did not result in the acquisition of territory by a non-American power, evoked a significant response from Argentina's secretary of foreign affairs, Luis M. Drago. As the view which he then expressed was largely a re-statement of the Calvo Doctrine, that doctrine should . . . be described. Many years earlier [1867] Carlos Calvo, a noted Argentine publicist, had in his work on international law declared that the recovery of debts and the collection of private claims did not justify armed intervention by governments. He also denied the responsibility of states for injuries that had been suffered by aliens during internal dissensions or revolts. Calvo accordingly protested against the use of force by European nations to collect private claims or debts in Latin America. On December 29, 1902, in a note to Martin Garcia Mérou, the Argentine minister in Washington, Secretary Drago enunciated his doctrines . . . Drago's note was . . . a protest of the Argentine government against forcible intervention by European powers to collect debts that had been incurred by a Latin-American nation."—W. S. Robertson, *History of Latin-American nations*, p. 552. “If the Calvo Doctrine is sound, it binds the United States; but our government

has never committed itself to this principle. In the Pan-American Congress of 1800 all the representatives, except those of the United States, voted for a declaration that foreigners should have the same status as citizens and the same legal protection for life and property, and no more. The United States delegates argued that it was the practice of governments to back up claims for unpaid public bonds and for forced loans and other oppressive acts of actual governments. The Latin-American states naturally favor Calvo's Doctrine, and at the Pan-American Congress of 1906 at Rio unanimously voted to—'Consider the point of inviting the Second Peace Conference at The Hague, to consider the question of the compulsory collection of public debts, and, in general, tending to diminish among nations conflicts having an exclusively pecuniary origin.' . . . The Drago Doctrine differs in many respects from the Calvo Doctrine. It is not simply the opinion of a text writer but an official proposal from one of the most responsible Latin-American States. It does not object to diplomatic action, but to the use of forcible measures, such as were at that moment in preparation against a Latin-American State. Another difference is that the Calvo Doctrine remains to this day a suggestion, while the Drago Doctrine has been approved by the United States and by the Hague Convention as a general principle of international law. After the Venezuelan trouble was all over President Roosevelt (February 15, 1905) said to the Senate: 'Except for arbitrary wrong, done or sanctioned by superior authority, to persons or to vested property rights, the United States government, following its traditional usage in such cases, aims to go no further than the mere use of its good offices, a measure which frequently proves ineffective. On the other hand, there are governments which do sometimes take energetic action for the protection of their subjects in the enforcement of merely contractual claims, and thereupon American concessionaires, supported by powerful influences, make loud appeal to the United States government in similar cases for similar action. . . . Thus the attempted solution of the complex problem by the ordinary methods of diplomacy reacts injuriously upon the United States Government itself, and in a measure paralyzes the action of the Executive in the direction of a sound and consistent policy.' At the Pan-American Conference at Rio in 1906, the United States delegates were instructed in favor of the Drago Doctrine by Secretary Root: 'It has long been the established policy of the United States not to use its armed forces for the collection of ordinary contract debts due to its citizens by other governments. We have not considered the use of force for such a purpose consistent with that respect for the independent sovereignty of other members of the family of nations which is the most important principle of international law and the chief protection of weak nations against the oppression of the strong. It seems to us that the practice is injurious in its general effect upon the relations of nations and upon the welfare of weak and disordered States, whose development ought to be encouraged in the interest of civilization; that it offers frequent temptation to bullying and oppression and to unnecessary and unjustifiable warfare.' The delegates were further instructed however, to push for a reference of the whole question to the Second Hague Convention, where it was presented and defended by the representatives of the United States. The Drago Doctrine if strictly interpreted might lead to the same results as the Calvo Doctrine; for if a delinquent power

could not be coerced it might indefinitely refuse any kind of settlement. In the Hague Convention, therefore, a way was sought which would at least compel debtor States to show cause for refusing to pay their creditors. Dr. Drago was himself present and took part in the discussion, and the conference finally came together (by a vote of 30 in favor and 5 absentions) in the following statement, which became a part of the Hague Conventions of 1907: 'The contracting Powers agree not to have recourse to armed force for the recovery of contract debts claimed from the Government of one country by the Government of another country as being due to its nationals. This undertaking is, however, not applicable when the debtor State refuses or neglects to reply to an offer of arbitration, or, after accepting the offer, prevents any "Compromise" from being agreed on, or, after the arbitration, fails to submit to the award.' The Hague Convention hoped by its action to make the Drago Doctrine a part of international law which would apply at all times all over the world; and it set up an international arbitration tribunal to which disputes could be submitted so as to carry out the second of the votes.

To test the new arbitral machinery and to lead the Latin-American States into the way of peaceful adjustment of their debts, the United States in 1902 brought before the Hague Tribunal the 'Pious Fund' case, which was a long-standing controversy with Mexico over a beneficiary fund for use in California. There was no danger of an invasion of Mexico on that issue, but it was a convenience to have the court decide in favor of the United States. In 1910, a less artificial case was made—the claim of the Orinoco Steamship Company against Venezuela. The point was that this American corporation had been deprived of its concession for exclusive trade in certain rivers, for which damages it claimed \$1,200,000 and eventually the court awarded \$92,000. The difficulty with the Drago Doctrine is that it settles nothing except that military expeditions shall not be undertaken for small reasons. As the Doctrine was finally stated in the Hague Conference, any European power has a right to demand arbitration of disputes over contract debts. It may also use diplomatic pressure; may combine with other powers to remonstrate and to threaten; and then, if arbitration is not forthcoming, it may still,—for all of Drago or the Hague Conference,—send ships, land troops, and hold a piece of territory until it gets satisfaction. The Drago Doctrine is only a lightning rod which carries off the electricity which may happen to strike within a limited area. It does nothing to prevent thunder-storms. The real protection of Latin-American states from being assailed for comparatively light causes which do not involve the life and limb of aliens, is still outside of international law. Is the American Doctrine, as interpreted by Roosevelt in his messages on the Venezuela affair of 1902, such a protector? So long as there is no agreement between the Latin-American states that they will stand by each other in such controversies, their hope must be in the sincerity and good will of the United States; still further, they are dependent on our power to carry out the promises contained in the declarations of Presidents and Secretaries of State. Further, the Calvo-Drago-Monroe Doctrine, when all dovetailed together, covers only a small portion of the possible sources of trouble. It does not offer a solution of revolutionary conditions such as those of Mexico. It does not affect the vast field of

international difficulties caused by the presence of aliens in such revolutionary countries. The principle that a regular government shall not be responsible for the acts of a revolutionary body is a good one; people who deliberately place themselves in a revolution area must expect troubles. Yet what is to be done where there is a succession of revolutions and dictators?"—A. B. Hart, *Monroe Doctrine: An interpretation*, pp. 264-268.—See also DRAGO DOCTRINE.—"No doubt one of the chief impediments to the development and preservation of relations of amity and intimacy between the United States and the other independent nations of this hemisphere is the want of information as to the conditions which actually exist in the various countries and the consequent prevalence of erroneous impressions in regard to those conditions. As a result of the fact that the countries to the south of the United States have not all a common origin, and that, while all but one formerly belonged to Spain, the largest of them all, Brazil, was once a colony of Portugal, it has become the fashion to group them indiscriminately as 'Latin America.' The employment of this phrase, although it may be necessary, has tended to confirm two radically erroneous impressions, one being that all the countries called Latin are really Latin; and the other, that all the countries called Latin are alike. . . . They exhibit as between themselves differences more pronounced than those that exist between the United States and some of them. . . . As a result of the misapprehensions . . . little has been understood in the United States of the causes of the internal disorders by which some of the American republics have been afflicted. Regarding all Latin-American countries as one, a tendency has existed to assume that government in all of them is equally unstable. . . . [To illustrate the attitude which Brazil, for instance, took toward accepting the American doctrine one might note that] the Third International American Conference, which sat at Rio de Janeiro [July 23 to August 27, 1906] was held in what is known as the Monroe Palace, named in honor of the enunciator of the famous American policy. Brazil was one of the first, perhaps the first, of the American nations to applaud that doctrine [Monroe Doctrine]. . . . So far as the Monroe Doctrine is held to guard the political system of this hemisphere against external subversion or attack, the American nations cordially accept it and look to the United States as its author and mainstay. In this sense it is eulogized by the statesmen of Latin America. In closing the Fourth International American Conference in 1910, one of Argentina's great orators, who, as Minister of Foreign Affairs, presided as honorary president at the final session, paid an eloquent tribute to American solidarity and to the United States as the proponent of the Monroe Doctrine. 'In this year,' said Dr. Rodriguez Larreta, 'the majority of our republics complete a century of independent life. We can now say, with Washington, "America for humanity," because we are sovereign nations and the place we occupy in the world we owe to the strength of our own arms and our blood heroically shed. But let my last words be to send a message of acknowledgment to the great nation which initiated these conferences, which preceded us in the struggle for independence, which afforded us the example of a fruitful people organized as a republican nation, which, on a day memorable in history, declared "America for Americans," and covered as with a shield our hard-won independence.' In this sense the Monroe Doctrine is received in South America with

sentiments of the most friendly and cordial concurrence. But there is another sense in which the other independent nations, and especially such powerful states as Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, find themselves unable to accept it. This sense, which is said to represent the view of the 'man in the street,' has been editorially expressed in these terms: 'Whatever its interest at stake or wrong suffered in Latin America, we sternly enjoin every European power to keep its hands off of what we make our international business and what we decree must be the business of nobody else.' In other words, the United States is said in effect to have decreed that other American countries are so far subject to its control that non-American powers cannot even demand from them the redress of grievances. Of this view it is to be observed that it must, in the first place, arouse resentment in the independent countries of America, since it places them all in the subordinate position of protectorates, subject to external dictation. And it must, in the second place, provoke the opposition of non-American powers, since they find it difficult to admit that they cannot conduct their affairs directly with states which are professedly, and in law and in fact, independent. Considered in its practical aspects the conception appears to be equally superficial and extravagant. The area of the United States embraces less than three million square miles; and within these limits the national and local governments combined often have difficulty in preserving order and insuring the protection of foreigners, although the territory is within their exclusive legal control. The countries of Latin America comprise an area of more than eight million square miles, or almost three times as much; and over these more than eight million square miles the United States exercises no governmental control. And yet, within the vast area, it is asserted that the protection of aliens and the redress of their grievances is a matter that concerns the United States alone, to the exclusion of any and all of the governments on whose diplomatic protection such aliens would normally rely. The responsibility thus proposed to be thrust upon the United States is unexampled. Examined historically, the assumption that the American nations are in effect protectorates, with which non-American powers have been denied the right to conduct relations directly, is equally unjustified."—J. B. Moore, *Principles of American diplomacy*, pp. 408-410, 415-417.—"All the American republics are in accord as to the necessity of maintaining the essential articles of the Monroe Doctrine and although the United States has thus far been its sole defender, there could now be found Latin American States powerful enough to maintain it if the United States should refuse to do so. The Monroe Doctrine is, then, not simply a North American doctrine: it is, in so far as President Monroe's declaration is concerned, an all-American pronouncement and the Three Americas would vigorously protest any violation of its precepts."—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America*, p. 151.—"On the other hand, to save themselves from Yankee imperialism the American democracies would almost accept a German alliance, or the aid of Japanese arms; everywhere the Americans of the North are feared. In the Antilles and in Central America hostility against the Anglo-Saxon invaders assumes the character of a Latin crusade. Do the United States deserve this hatred? . . . The Monroe doctrine has undergone an essential transformation; it has passed successively from the defensive to intervention and thence to the offensive. From a theory which condemned any change of political

régime among the new democracies under European pressure, and which forbade all acquisitions of territory, or the transfer of power from a weak to a strong nation, there arose the Polk doctrine, which, in 1845, decreed the annexation of Texas for fear of foreign intervention. In 1870 President Grant demanded the seizure of San Domingo as a measure of national protection, a new corollary of the Monroe doctrine. President Johnson was anxious to see his country in possession of Cuba in the name of the 'laws of political gravitation which throw small States into the gullets of the great powers.' In 1895 Secretary of State Olney, at the time of the trouble between England and Venezuela, declared that the United States were in fact sovereign in America. From Monroe to Olney the defensive doctrine has gradually changed to a moral tutelage. If theories change, frontiers change no less. The northern Republic has been the beneficiary of an incessant territorial expansion: . . . in 1845 and 1850, [it acquired] Texas; the Mexican provinces in 1848 and 1852. . . . In the same year Porto Rico, the Philippines, Guam, and one of the Marianne Islands, passed, by the Treaty of Paris, into the hands of the United States. They obtained the Samoan Islands in 1800, wished to buy the Danish West Indies in 1002, and planted their imperialistic standard at Panama in 1903. Interventions have become more frequent with the expansion of frontiers. The United States have recently intervened in the territory of Acre, there to found a republic of rubber gatherers; at Panama, there to develop a province and construct a canal; in Cuba, under cover of the Platt amendment, to maintain order in the interior; in San Domingo, to support the civilising revolutions and overthrow the tyrants; in Venezuela, and in Central America, to enforce upon these nations, torn by intestine disorders, the political and financial tutelage of the imperial democracy. In Guatemala and Honduras the loans concluded with the monarchs of North American finance have reduced the people to a new slavery. Supervision of the customs and the dispatch of pacificatory squadrons to defend the interests of the Anglo-Saxons have enforced peace and tranquillity: such are the means employed. . . . Chicago merchants and Wall Street financiers created the Meat Trust in the Argentine. The United States offer millions for the purpose of converting into Yankee loans the moneys raised in London during the last century by the Latin American States; they wish to obtain a monopoly of credit. It has even been announced, although the news hardly appears probable, that a North American syndicate wished to buy enormous belts of land in Guatemala, where the English tongue is the obligatory language. The fortification of the Panama Canal, and the possible acquisition of the Galapagos Islands in the Pacific, are fresh manifestations of imperialistic progress. The Monroe doctrine takes an aggressive form with Mr. Roosevelt, the politician of the 'big stick,' an intervention *à outrance*."—F. G. Calderon, *Latin America*, pp. 298, 302-304.—"Naturally a patriotic Latin American, reading these lines [see above quotation from F. Garcia Calderon], is filled with fear and foreboding, and treats Senor Calderon's deduction that 'The Monroe Doctrine has undergone an essential transformation; it has passed successively from the defensive to intervention and thence to the offensive' as an irrefragable logical sequence. The intention of President Wilson to expand the Monroe Doctrine to Pan American Doctrine in which Latin America should have equal privileges and an equal responsibility with the United States

is regarded as the well-meaning but futile attempt of a large-minded American statesman to counteract, like King Canute, an irresistible current. The action of the U.S. in the recent Panama-Costa Rica controversy and President Harding's reaffirmation of the Monroe Doctrine are taken as far more typical of our true attitude toward Latin America."—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America*, p. 138.

Also in: A. C. Coolidge, *United States as a world power*, ch. 7, 16, 17.—C. R. Fish, *American diplomacy*, ch. 12, 17, 20, 23, 27, 28, 31.—J. W. Foster, *Century of American diplomacy*, pp. 438-478.—J. H. Latané, *Diplomatic relations of United States and Spanish America*, ch. 1-2.—F. J. Turner, *Rise of the new west, 1819-1829*, ch. 12.—D. I. Calderon, *Pan-American union and Monroe Doctrine* (*Journal of International Relations*, Oct., 1919).—A. C. McLaughlin, *America and Britain*, pp. 97-173.—E. S. Creasy, *First platform of international law*, pp. 120-124.—S. E. Baldwin, *Modern political institutions*, pp. 359-367.—J. A. R. Marriott, *Foreign policy of United States* (*Edinburgh Review*, Apr., 1919, pp. 345-362).—H. G. Plum, *Monroe Doctrine and the war*.—C. Tower, *Origin, meaning and international force of Monroe Doctrine* (*American Journal of International Law*, Jan.-Apr., 1920, pp. 1-25).—R. Harrison, *Monroe Doctrine, its origin, meaning and application* (*American Law Review*, May-June, 1921).—L. A. Lawson, *Relation of British policy to the declaration of the Monroe Doctrine*.

MONROE PALACE, building in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. It was the meeting place of the third international American congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

MONROVIA, capital of Liberia. In 1922 the population was about 6,000. See LIBERIA: 1824-1847.

Treaties of (1887). See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.

MONS, capital of the province of Hainault, Belgium, on the Trouille. It was originally built on the site of a Roman camp. (See NETHERLANDS: Map.) The present town was founded in the eighth century by the Countess Waudru, or Waltrudis, afterwards made its patron saint. As the residence of the counts of Hainault, Mons was strongly fortified and was several times the object of attack and capture in the wars of the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Its fortifications were removed in the nineteenth century, and it was as an open town that it was taken by the Germans in 1914, and held until the last day of the World War when it was retaken by the Allies.

1572.—Capture by Louis of Nassau.—Recovery by Spaniards. See NETHERLANDS: 1572-1573.

1691.—Besieged by the French. See FRANCE: 1680-1691.

1697.—Yielded to Spain. See FRANCE: 1697.

1706-1709.—Taken by Marlborough. See NETHERLANDS: 1706-1707; 1708-1700.

1713.—Given to United Provinces by Treaty of Utrecht. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1746.—Taken by French. See BELGIUM: 1746-1747.

1830.—Demands separation of Holland and Belgium. See BELGIUM: 1830-1832.

1914-1918.—In World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: k; l; 1, 1; 1016: X. German rule, etc.: b, 1; 1018: 11. Western front: m; w, 2.

MONS GRAUPIUS, Battle of (84 A. D.). See GRAMPIANS.

MONS MATRONA, Roman route over the Alps. See ALPS: AS barriers.

MONS SACER, or Sacred Mount. See ROME: Ancient kingdom: B. C. 494-492.

MONS SATURNIUS (Mons Tarpeius), ancient names for Capitoline hill. See CAPITOLINE HILL AT ROME.

MONS-EN-PUELLE, Battle of (1304). See FLANDERS: 1290-1304.

MONSIEUR, Peace of (1576). See FRANCE: 1573-1576.

MONT ST. JEAN, Battle of. The battle of Waterloo is sometimes so called by the French. See FRANCE: 1815 (June).

MONT ST. QUENTIN, hill in France, about one mile north of Peronne. During the World War it was taken and retaken by the Allies. See WORLD WAR: 1916; II. Western front: e, 8; 1918: II. Western front: k, 3.

MONTAGNAIS, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; ATHAPASCAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Mackenzie area

MONTAGNARDS, or The Mountain, political group in France. See GIRONDIS; FRANCE: 1791 (October); 1792 (September-November), to 1794-1795 (July-April).

MONTAGNE NOIRE, Battle of (1794). See FRANCE: 1794-1795 (October-May).

MONTAGU, Edward. See MANCHESTER, EDWARD MONTAGU, 2ND EARL OF.

MONTAGU, Edwin Samuel (1870-), British statesman. Financial secretary of treasury, 1914-1916; minister of munitions and member of War Committee, 1916; secretary of state for India, 1917-1922; represented British India at the Paris peace conference, 1919. See ENGLAND: 1922 (February-April); INDIA: 1918-1920; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

MONTAGU-CHELMSFORD PROPOSALS FOR INDIA. See INDIA: 1918-1920.

MONTAGUE, Andrew Jackson (1863-), American statesman. Governor of Virginia, 1902-1906; delegate to the International Conference of American Republics, 1906; and to the International Conference of Maritime Law, 1909-1910; member of the House of Representatives, 1913-1923.

MONTAGUE, Charles, Earl of Halifax (1661-1715), English statesman and financier. Became lord of the treasury, 1692; chancellor of the exchequer, 1694; carried through the plan for a Bank of England, and was instrumental in reforming the currency. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 17th-18th centuries: Banking in Great Britain.

MONTAGUE HOUSE. See BRITISH MUSEUM.

MONTAIGNE, Michel Eyquem de (1533-1592), French author. Mayor of Bordeaux, 1581-1588. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1552-1610; EDUCATION: Modern: 16th century: Montaigne, etc.

MONTALIVET, Marthe-Camille Bachasson, Comte de (1801-1880), French statesman. See FRANCE: 1830-1840.

MONTANA: Geographical location.—Origin of the name.—"Montana lies between the 104th and the 110th meridians of longitude west of Greenwich and between the 45th and 49th parallels of north latitude. The western boundary follows the Coeur d'Alene and Bitter Root mountains and is irregular; in the southwest corner the line dips below the 45th parallel and follows the main range of the Rocky Mountains; the northern boundary is along the 49th parallel and the eastern boundary the 104th degree of longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Canadian provinces of Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia; on the south

by Wyoming and Idaho; on the west by Idaho and on the east by North Dakota and South Dakota."—*Resources and opportunities of Montana* (Department of Agriculture and Publicity).—The name Montana is said to be derived through the Spanish from the Latin "montanus," meaning mountainous.

Resources. See U. S. A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See FLATHEADS; HIDATSA; SHOSHONEAN FAMILY.

1743.—**Exploration by Verendrye**.—In 1731 Sieur de la Verendrye, a French soldier and adventurer, secured aid from Charles de Beaulharnois, then governor of Canada, in equipping an expedition for exploration in the far western country. Verendrye was accompanied by his two sons, the younger of whom carried on the work of the expedition after the death of his father and the murder of his brother by hostile Sioux Indians. Following along Lake Superior, the Lake of the Woods, the Assiniboine and Missouri rivers, the explorers after years of hardship reached the Rockies. "It was on the first of January, 1743, when Verendrye reached the Shining Mountains. The point at which the ascent was made was near the present city of Helena, where the party discovered Prickly Pear River, and learned of the Bitterroot. They described Bear's Tooth Mountain near Helena, and in other ways left ample evidence of their visit."—H. H. Bancroft, *Works*, v. 21, p. 600.

1803.—**Embraced in the Louisiana Purchase**. See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.

1804-1806.—**Lewis and Clark expedition**.—About sixty years after Verendrye's discoveries the party commanded by Lewis and Clark, which had been sent to explore the Louisiana Purchase, reached the territory of the present state of Montana. During 1805 they were guided across the state to the head waters of the Columbia river by the Snake Indian woman, Sacajaweah.—See also U. S. A.: 1804-1805; Expedition of Lewis and Clark.

1809-1852.—**Trading Posts on the upper Yellowstone**.—**Missions among Indians**.—**American Fur Company fort**.—Further exploration of the territory was carried on by American fur traders, who established their posts for trade with the Indians along the upper branches of the Yellowstone river. The celebrated trader, Manuel Lisa, was one of the earliest explorers of the region. He was joined by men like John Colter, the first white man to set foot within the territory of Yellowstone National Park, who had been a soldier in the expedition of Lewis and Clark. By 1830 the individual trader and trapper was largely superseded by the agents of the great fur companies. The American Fur Company, organized by John Jacob Astor in 1816, established posts in Montana between 1820 and 1840. The Rocky Mountain Fur company, founded in 1822 by Gen. W. H. Ashley, also entered the region. Father Peter John de Smet, the eminent Jesuit, established missions among the Flathead Indians in the valley of the Bitterroot, 1840-1841. Five years later the American Fur company erected Fort Benton in order to protect its scattered trading posts in the vicinity of the Teton river.

1848.—**Partly in the Oregon Territory**. See OREGON: 1846-1855.

1852-1864.—**Discovery of gold**.—**Early gold rush**.—"The presence of gold in the mountains of Montana was first noticed as far back as 1852. Later, in 1858, the Stuart Brothers, James and Granville, founders of Montana, discovered gold in the Deer Lodge Valley; but they were destitute of equipments, and so constantly exposed to the hostility of the Blackfeet, that they went to Fort Bridger in the southwest corner of Wyoming, and

did not return until late in 1860. It was in 1860 and 1861 that the rich mines on the Salmon and Boise Rivers were discovered. In 1862 the tide of discovery swept across the mountains into Montana. The rich mines on Pioneer Creek, the Big Prickly Pear, the Big Hole River, North Boulder Creek, and at Bannock, and other points, became known. Although there were scarcely a thousand people in Montana in the winter of 1862-3 the news of the great discoveries marshaled a host of immigrants ready to enter the territory in the following spring. These were largely re-enforced by adventurers from both the Northern and Southern States, who sought in these remote regions exemption from the tributes and levies of war. The immigrants were welcomed in the spring of 1863 by the news of the discovery of Alder Gulch, the richest of all gold placers. The work of prospecting, already being pushed with vigor, was stimulated to an extraordinary degree by this magnificent discovery. Prospecting parties scoured the country in all directions, often with loss of life through the Indians, but rarely, after the first two or three years, with any substantial success. . . . The most important of them occurred in August and September, 1863. It was led by Walter W. DeLacy, an engineer and surveyor of some distinction in the early history of Montana. The party at one time numbered forty-two men, although this number did not continue constant throughout the expedition. Its sole object was to 'prospect' the country. Evidently nothing in the line of topographical reconnaissance was thought of, for Captain DeLacy says 'there was not a telescope, and hardly a watch in the whole party.' . . . In 1864, a party of seventy-three men, under James Stuart, passed from Deer Lodge, Montana, to the Yellowstone Valley, and thence around the east base of the Absaroka range into the valley of the Shoshone river. The object of this expedition was to punish the Indians for outrages of the previous year, and also to prospect the country for gold. At the Shoshone Stuart was compelled to return home. The party then separated into groups that gradually worked their way back to the Montana settlements. One of these small parties went as far south as the Sweetwater River, then crossed to the Green and Snake Rivers, and re-crossed the Continental Divide at Two-Ocean Pass."—H. M. Chittenden, *Yellowstone National Park*, pp. 62-63, 67.

1864-1876.—Territorial government created.—Capital changed to Helena.—Yellowstone National Park.—In 1864 Montana, which in 1863 had been a part of Idaho Territory, received its territorial organization. (See DAKOTA TERRITORY: 1862-1865.) Virginia city was made the capital of the territory and continued so until 1874, when a change was made in favor of Helena. During this period in the territory's history numerous bands of gold seekers traversed the region now included in Yellowstone National Park. The wonders of nature were not entirely appreciated by expeditions intent on discovering gold, nevertheless it was clear to many that steps should be taken to protect the beauties of the district from private greed and mercenary vandalism. The origin of the project of a nationally controlled park seems to have been the Washburn expedition of 1870. "The subject was discussed by the party at the first camp after leaving the geyser regions near the junctions of the Firehold and Gibbon Rivers. The date was September 10, 1870. The members of the party were sitting around the camp-fire after supper, conversing about what they had seen, and picturing to themselves the important pleasure resort which so

wonderful a region must soon become. The natural impulse to turn the fruits of discovery to the personal profit of the discoverer made its appearance, and it was suggested that it would be a 'profitable speculation' to take up land around the various objects of interest. The conversation had not proceeded far on these lines when one of the party, Cornelius Hedges, interposed and said that private ownership of that region or any part of it, ought never to be countenanced; but that it ought to be set apart by the government and forever held to the unrestricted use of the people. This higher view of the subject found immediate acceptance with the other members of the party. It was agreed that the project should be at once set afoot and pushed vigorously to a finish. As soon as the party reached Helena, a series of articles appeared in the daily papers of that City describing the late expedition, and in one of them, written by Mr Hedges and published in the *Helena Herald* November 8, 1870, occurs what is believed to be the first public reference to the Park project."—H. M. Chittenden, *Yellowstone National Park*, pp. 89-90. On March 1, 1872, President Grant signed the bill which set aside a tract of land near the headwaters of the Yellowstone river as a public park. Most of the reservation was situated in Wyoming, but the great interest in the district had centered in Montana.

1876.—Sioux War.—Custer's last battle.—Crushing of Sioux and Cheyennes.—In 1876 the United States government determined to compel the war-like Dakotas, Sioux and Cheyennes to settle down upon reservations allotted to them and remain under control of Indian agents. The effort of the army to enforce this policy against certain wild and recalcitrant tribes in Montana and Wyoming led to the Sioux War. "Sitting Bull (Tatanka-e-Yotanka) in North Dakota and Montana, and Crazy Horse (Tashunka-Uitco) on Powder river, Wyoming, were the principal leaders of the hostile and renegade bands of Sioux who roamed over what General Sherman then termed 'an almost totally unknown region, comprising an area of 90,000 square miles.' The hostile camps contained eight or ten separate bands, each having a chief of its own. Authority was exercised by a council of chiefs. No one chief was endowed with supreme authority, but Sitting Bull, an Uncapapa Sioux, was accepted as the leader of all his bands. He was a shrewd 'medicine man,' a prophet, seer and statesman among the tribes of the Sioux, but never in any sense a war chief—he never appeared on the field of battle during the Sioux war of 1876, nor at any other time. In the spring of that year, General Sheridan sent three widely separated columns of troops against the hostiles. The first column, under General George Crook, consisted of fifteen companies of cavalry and five companies of infantry (total, 1,040) and marched from the south. The second column, under General Alfred H. Terry, was composed of the famous 7th Regiment of U. S. Cavalry, twelve companies or 'troops' (about 600 men), six companies of infantry, a battery of gatling guns, and forty Indian scouts. This column moved westward from Fort Abraham Lincoln, North Dakota. The third column, under General John Gibbon, consisted of four companies of cavalry and six companies of infantry (450 men in all), and marched eastward down the Yellowstone from Fort Ellis, Montana, and united with General Terry's column on the Yellowstone at the mouth of the Big Horn river, June 21, 1876. All commanders in the field, including General Sheridan himself, believed the hostiles numbered not to exceed 1,000 warriors.

General Sheridan in his official report says: 'Up to the moment of Custer's attack no information was had, public or private, to justify the belief that there were in Sitting Bull's camp more than 500 to 800 warriors.' But hundreds upon hundreds of available fighting men from the various reservations were daily slipping away and stealthily joining the big village of Tatonka-e-Yotanka, until there were opposed to the troops between 4,000 and 5,000 well armed warriors. These were armed with the best and latest models of breech-loading and magazine rifles, most of them Winchesters, and with plenty of ammunition. . . . It is a grave misnomer to call it 'The Custer Massacre.' Its place in real history is far more important. It was the last great stand of the hostile Indians of North America against advancing civilization. After this battle their power was forever broken, and the Indians knew it. Custer and his men died not in vain. Never again were the war-like Sioux and Cheyennes able to gather together such a for-



GEORGE ARMSTRONG CUSTER

midable force as fought Custer on the Little Big Horn. The assembled tribes of hostiles then saw it was useless to further resist the white man's westward advance, and broke up into small bands, which soon after surrendered. Custer's costly work and sacrifice were well rendered, and have been of lasting benefit to American civilization."—W. S. Brackett, *Custer's last battle (Historical Society of Montana Contributions, v. 4)*.—See also U.S.A.: 1866-1876.

1883-1888.—Growth in population.—Northern Pacific railroad.—Constitutional Convention.—The gold seekers of the sixties and the cattle-men of the seventies contributed greatly to the increase in population which the territory experienced. This was further augmented when the Northern Pacific railroad was completed in 1883 and the territory possessed transcontinental service. Such was the prosperity of the region that in 1880 Congress authorized the election of a convention to draw up a constitution preparatory to admission into the union.

1889.—Admission as a state. See U.S.A.: 1889-1890.

1890-1900.—Agricultural and industrial prosperity.—Mining production.—The census reports for 1900 revealed the unusual prosperity of the state

during the preceding decade. The acreage under cultivation was increased six-fold and the value of farm property rose from \$48,000,000 to \$117,000,000. A well-equipped agricultural college and experimental station at Bozeman caused a noticeable improvement in horticultural and agricultural methods. The chief industry in the state during the period was mining and metallurgic treatment of copper, lead, gold and silver ores. In all that related to the industry, including pumping and hoisting machinery, blast furnace and reverberatory smelting converter and electrolytic work, the discovery and application of new methods, the state was in advance of most others. The annual mineral production of Montana in 1900 was \$60,000,000. This output included gold, silver and lead as well as copper.

1895.—Industrial arbitration board created. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920.

1906.—Initiative and referendum adopted. See INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States.

1907-1917.—Labor disturbances.—Railway construction.—Legislative activities.—Labor disturbances in the Butte copper district came to a climax in 1914, when a group of "insurgent" union miners attacked a parade of 500 miners belonging to the same union, Butte Local No. 1, Western Federation of Miners. While the trouble was ostensibly between two factions in the same union, the insurgents claimed that it arose out of the domination of the union's policy by officials of the Anaconda Copper Company. It was claimed that the company had acquiesced in the closed-shop principle, but had secured complete control of the miner's union. The outbreak on June 13, 1914, resulted in the dynamiting of the union hall and the organization of a new union, known as the Butte Mine Worker's Union. (See also INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD: Recent tendencies.) The new organization only succeeded in disrupting the old and in the ensuing helplessness of the Western Federation of Miners the company succeeded in forcing the open-shop principle. The mines operated on a non-union basis until June 11, 1917, when a general strike occurred in the Butte district. The immediate occasion was a disaster in one of the mines in which 150 miners lost their lives. The real cause of the walk-out, however, was the grievance against the "rustling" card system then used by the Anaconda company. Coming as it did during the opening months of America's participation in the World War, the strike threatened seriously to disrupt industry. The gravity of the situation compelled a compromise which enabled production to continue on a normal basis. Two events in 1909 and 1910 contributed to the further economic development of Montana. In the former year the Chicago, Milwaukee and Puget Sound railway completed its mileage across the state and opened up new means of transportation to the middle west. In 1910 the Flathead reservation was thrown open by executive proclamation to settlement and all available lands were quickly taken up. The year 1911 stands out prominently in the legislative history of the state. The legislature of that year passed the following significant measures: a drastic white slave law, an act establishing juvenile courts, and an act granting permission to cities to establish the commission form of government. On January 31, 1911, the legislature ratified the Sixteenth Federal Amendment. Two years later, February 7, 1913, the Seventeenth Amendment was ratified by a legislature which enacted a primary election law and a blue sky law regulating the sale of securities. In 1914

Montana voters approved an amendment to the state constitution providing for woman suffrage. (See **SUFFRAGE, WOMAN**: United States: 1851-1920.) The state won the distinction in 1916 of sending the first woman representative to Congress. Miss Jeanette Rankin took her seat in the Congress which was called upon to declare war against Germany. Her influence and vote were exerted against entering the war. Women secured further recognition in the state in 1917 when an eight hour law was passed to apply to the labor of women in numerous occupations.

1917-1918.—Part played in World War.—**Legislation**.—Montana's response to the military needs of the country resulted in her furnishing 36,293 men or almost 1 per cent of the whole force. During the war it was found necessary to pass certain emergency legislation regulating the purchase and sale of foodstuffs. The law aimed to prevent monopoly in any commodity and attempted to regulate prices so as to prevent exorbitant profiteering. In 1918 the Non-partisan League invaded the state, and obtained sufficient influence to elect a number of members to the state legislature.

1918.—**General strike at Billings**. See **LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS**: 1917-1918: General strike.

1918.—**Reclamation of lands by irrigation**.—**Yellowstone project**. See **CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES**: United States: 1918.

1918-1920.—**Mineral production**.—**Importance of mineral wealth**.—During 1918 the amount of silver mined in Montana amounted to 15,341,000 ounces which was the largest produced in any of the states. Her nearest competitors were Nevada and Utah. Besides silver the state produced, in 1917, according to the report on mineral resources of the United States geological survey, \$3,517,253 worth of gold, \$74,028,283 of copper, \$18,720,716 worth of zinc, and \$1,887,805 worth of lead. The total mineral production of the state was valued at \$123,733,415, which comprised about three per cent of the total production of the United States. For the calendar year 1917 the state ranked second among the several states in the production of silver and copper, and third in the production of zinc.

MONTANI, citizens of the ancient Palatine city. See **QUIRINAL**.

MONTANISTS.—A name given to the followers of Montanus, who appeared in the second century, among the Christians of Phrygia, claiming that the Holy Spirit, the Paraclete, "had, by divine appointment, descended upon him for the purpose of foretelling things of the greatest moment that were about to happen, and promulgating a better and more perfect discipline of life and morals. . . . This sect continued to flourish down to the 5th century."—J. L. von Mosheim, *Historical commentaries, 2nd century, sect. 66*.

MONTANUS (fl. 2nd century), Christian heretic, founder of the Montanist sect. See **MONTANISTS**.

MONTAPERTI, Battle of (1260). See **FLORENCE**: 1248-1278.

MONTARGIS, Battle of (1587). See **FRANCE**: 1584-1580.

MONTAUBAN, town in France, ten miles northeast of Peronne.

1621.—Siege of. See **FRANCE**: 1620-1622.

1916.—Taken by Allies. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: II. Western front: d, 5.

MONTAUKS, North American Indian tribe. See **ALGONQUIAN FAMILY**.

MONTBELIARD, Battle of (1871). See **FRANCE**: 1870-1871.

MONTCALM DE SAINT VERAN, Louis Joseph, Marquis de (1712-1759), French general.

Commanded French troops in the French and Indian War; fell in defense of Quebec, September 16, 1759. See **CANADA**: 1756; 1759 (July-September); **OSWEGO**: 1728-1830.

MONTDIDIER, town in northern France, twenty-three miles southeast of Amiens. It was captured by the Germans, March, 1918, and recaptured by the Allies, August, 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: c, 27; c, 33; d, 3; f; g, 7; i; j, 2.

MONTE CASEROS, Battle of (1852). See **ARGENTINA**: 1810-1874.

MONTE CASSINO, Benedictine monastery in the Alps. See **BENEDICTINE ORDERS**; **LIBRARIES**: Modern: Italy.

MONTE ROTUNDO, Battle of (1867). See **ITALY**: 1867-1870.

MONTE SAN GIOVANNI, Battle and Massacre of (1495). See **ITALY**: 1494-1496.

MONTE TOMBA, height on the Asiago plateau, northern Italy. In December, 1917, the lower of its two summits was captured by the Austro-German troops.—See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: d, 5.

MONTEBELLO, Jean Lannes, Duke of. See **LANNES, JEAN**.

MONTEBELLO, Battles of (1800, 1859). See **FRANCE**: 1800-1801 (May-February); **ITALY**: 1856-1859.

Treaty of. See **FRANCE**: 1797 (May-October).

MONTECUCULLI, Raimondo, Count of (1609-1680), Austrian general, and prince of the Holy Roman empire. See **HUNGARY**: 1660-1664; **NETHERLANDS**: 1674-1678.

MONTEFELTRO, Guido da (d. 1298), lord of Pisa and Urbino. See **PISA**: 1063-1203.

MONTEFIORE, Sir Moses Haim (1784-1885), Jewish philanthropist. See **JEW**: 18th-19th centuries.

MONTEJO, Francisco de (c. 1484-c. 1550), Spanish soldier and explorer. See **YUCATAN**: Geographical description.

MONTELLO, military position in the middle course of the Piave, Italy, during the World War. See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: b; 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: b, 3; b, 4.

MONTENEGRIN VESPERS (1703). See **MONTENEGRO**: 1389-1868.

MONTENEGRO: Geographical description.—"Montenegro lies between latitudes 41° 50' and 43° 35' north and between longitudes 18° 20' and 20° 45' east, and has an approximate area of 5,600 square miles. The neighbouring states are Serbia on the northeast and east, Albania on the south, and the Austro-Hungarian territories of Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Dalmatia on the north and west. Montenegro has an Adriatic seaboard of about 28 miles. The boundary, which is intricate and in parts artificial, was fixed by the Treaty of Bucarest (1913). The mountain of Lovchen (5,771 ft.), which is included in Montenegro, overlooks the Bocche di Cattaro and completely commands Cattaro and its harbour, the frontier approaching within a mile of the town. The additions of 1913 include a substantial portion of the Sanjak of Novibazar, the long-disputed districts of Plava and Gusinye, the Metoya plain as far east as the White Drin, and the district northwest of the Hotit inlet on the lake of Scutari. The heart of Montenegro is the Black Mountain, which gives its name to the whole country. This is the Plateau east of the Gulf of Cattaro, on which stands the capital Tzetyne (Cetinje)."—*Montenegro (Handbook prepared under the direction of the Historical Section of the [British] Foreign Office, no. 10, p. 1)*.—See also **BALKAN**

STATES: Geographical position; also Map.—“Montenegro is an extremely curious instance of the way in which favourable geographical conditions may aid a small people to achieve a fame and a place in the world quite out of proportion to their numbers. The Black Mountain is the one place where a South Slavonic community maintained themselves in independence, sometimes seeing their territory overrun by the Turks, but never acknowledging Turkish authority *de jure* from the time of the Turkish Conquest of the 15th century down to the Treaty of Berlin. Montenegro could not have done that but for her geographical structure. She is a high mass of limestone; you cannot call it a plateau, because it is seamed by many valleys, and rises into many sharp mountain-peaks. Still, it is a mountain mass, the average height of which is rather more than 2,000 feet above the sea, with summits reaching 5,000. It is bare limestone, so that there is hardly anything grown on it, only grass—and very good grass—in spots, with little patches of corn and potatoes, and it has scarcely any water. Its upland is covered with snow in winter, while in summer the invaders have to carry their water with them, a serious difficulty when there were no roads, and active mountaineers fired from behind every rock, a difficulty which becomes more serious the larger the invading force. Consequently it is one of the most impracticable regions imaginable for an invading army. It is owing to those circumstances that this handful of people—because the Montenegrins of the 17th century did not number more than 40,000 or 50,000—have maintained their independence. That they did maintain it is a fact most important in the history of the Balkan Peninsula.”—J. Bryce, *Relations of history and geography (Contemporary Review, Mar., 1886)*.

B. C. 3rd century—A. D. 1356.—Early history.—“The district which corresponds most nearly to Montenegro of the present day comes first into notice when the Romans attacked Queen Teuta and drove her back beyond the modern Podgorica in the third century B. C. From this time onwards Roman influence made itself felt strongly in the Prævalitana, an outlying province of Illyria, and the city of Dioclea—whose ruins still exist in the neighbourhood of Podgorica, and which was to play such an important part in the germ state of Crnagora, or the ‘Land of the Black Mountain’—rose into being. Diocletian, the famous divider of the Roman Empire, was born there, and the city became the capital of the district to which it gave the name. The triumvirs placed the border-line of the Eastern and Western divisions at Skodra, or Scutari, as the Europeans call it. Under the early empire, the land was perpetually changing from East to West, but when the Western division fell under the weight of barbarian invasions in 476 A. D., it was finally incorporated in the East. This was a momentous decision, for the manners and habits of the people still remain tinged with Eastern life, and in the ninth century it secured their adhesion to the Eastern Church, which influences their policy to the present time. The principality of Dioclea, or Zeta, as it soon became called, was one of the confederate Serb states formed by Heraclius in 622 A. D., to act as a buffer state against the inroads of the Avars. Each state was ruled by a Zupan or Prince who owed allegiance to the Grand Zupan, the head of the heptarchy. But the confederation was very loose, the rival chieftains fighting amongst one another for the supremacy, for the Serb race has ever been noted for its lack of unity and corresponding love of freedom. The famous Bulgarian Czar

Samuel, *circa* 980, . . . found that he was powerless to conquer the warlike John Vladimir of the Zeta; and again, nearly a century later, in 1050, we find the Zeta Zupa so powerful that their Prince assumes the title of King of Serbia, and is confirmed in his right by Gregory VII. . . . Dissensions then broke out again, and for the next hundred years the land owned the sway of the Greek Empire. The two most celebrated Serb kings—Stefan Nemanja (1143) and Stefan Dusan (1330-1350)—both ascended to the head of the confederation from the principality of the Zeta. . . . Montenegro had all this time been steadily growing, and on the accession of Dusan to Serbia, the district of the Zeta fell to the Balsic, who proved themselves to be a strong and competent race of rulers. They increased their territories to such an extent that, at the time of the battle of Kossovo, they could boast to ruling over all the land from Ragusa to the mouth of the Drin, including the present West Montenegro and Southern Hercegovina, with Skodra as the capital.”—R. Wyon and G. Prance, *Land of the Black Mountain*, pp. 15-17.

1389-1868.—Independence.—Prince bishops.—Congress of Paris.—War with Turkey.—Accession of Nicholas.—“After the overthrow of the great Servian Empire on the field of Kossovo, Montenegro became entirely independent of outside suzerainty, and from the year 1389 . . . [was] the only Balkan state which . . . successfully defied the invasions of the Turk. The Balsic engaged themselves in several fruitless wars with Venice, by which they lost Skodra, so that, when their line died out and the succession fell to Stefan Crnoievic (the name Crnoievic, Black Prince, is supposed by some to be the origin of the name Crnagora or Black Mountain), a new capital must perforce be built, at the northern end of the lake, called Zabljak. Stefan Crnoievic allied himself with Skenderbeg, the King of Albania, and within twelve years is said to have fought over fifty battles with the Turks who, in their impotent rage, poured army after army into the land, but entirely failed to break the courage of this brave little people. His people gave him the title of Voivoda of the Zeta, but the limits of his principality seem to have been very undefined. The position of his son Ivan was, however, of greater danger, . . . [for after the kingdom of Hungary fell before the Turk, in 1444, the Balkan states] were overrun in quick succession. In 1484 Ivan found himself obliged to burn his capital of Zabljak, and retire into the more inaccessible mountain fastnesses of the Katunska, the district round Cetinje. Cetinje itself was chosen by Ivan as his new centre, and though hardly pressed, he inflicted many severe defeats upon the Turks. Arrived in his new capital, he called his braves together, . . . [and in answer to his appeal] this little band of warriors, and they could not have numbered more than eight thousand fighting men, swore to resist this almighty foe to death—not to attack, but to resist. . . . Later history bears out fully how nobly the descendants of these mountain warriors have kept to their oath. . . . In their need they applied to Venice for help, quoting the great assistance that they were rendering her in occupying the Turks; but the Queen of Cities, who was at that moment occupied in patching up a treaty with the Sultan, turned a deaf ear to their entreaties. . . . Ivan, after several great victories, was left to end his days in peace. He spent his years well in strengthening the land, both in the arts of war and peace. In Obod, which is close to Rijeka, he erected a printing press, some twenty

years after Caxton had set up his in Westminster, and though it was afterwards burnt by the Turks, still the remembrance of it remains right glorious in Montenegrin memory. [In 1510] the last Crnoievic relinquished his home for Venice. . . . But before leaving he laid down the lines for a powerful régime. A Prince-Bishop, or Vladika, was placed at the head of affairs, but, to help him in his difficult task, there was created a second office, that of Civil Governor, who was to hold a subordinate position. This office was abolished in 1832 by Peter II., on the treachery of the Civil Governor Radonic, who was found to have intrigued with the Austrians. From 1616 to 1696 the Vladikas were elective, . . . but as time went on it became necessary for political reasons to change the system of government from election to heredity. [As the prince-bishop could not marry], the succession went from uncle to nephew and the choice fell on the Lord of Njegusi Danilo Petrovic, whose reign (1690-1735) is chiefly memorable for the Montenegrin Vespers of the Turks and Turkish renegades who had rendered so much assistance to Kiuprili Pasha in one of his terrible invasions. [In reprisal Danilo Petrovic, on Christmas Eve of 1703 ordered the slaughter of every Mussulman who refused to become a Christian, and this massacre is known as the Montenegrin Vespers.] But a crushing defeat of the Turks in 1706 gave the land peace for thirty years. In 1767 an adventurer named Stefan Mali sprang himself upon the land. He claimed to be the murdered Peter III of Russia, and easily imposed himself upon the gullible Montenegrins. But he had the interests of Montenegro sincerely at heart, and proved an excellent ruler. His imposture was exposed by Catherine II., but owing to the weakness of the Petrovic heir, the people determined to keep him as their ruler. He fell a victim to the assassin's knife at the instigation of the Pasha of Scutari. His successor, Peter Petrovic, the famous St. Peter of Montenegrin history, was a firm and courageous ruler, who made his influence felt throughout the courts of Europe. Austria, Russia, and England did not scruple to avail themselves of his help and then, as seems to be the Montenegrin fate, left him in the lurch. He defied the armies of the great Napoleon, who came to fear him and his warlike clan inasmuch that he was even offered terms of friendship. But the proud mountaineer would have none of it. He now turned his hand, under the influence of Russia, which was then very real, to the consolidation of the land, and slept in peace with his fathers. His successor, Peter II., [1833] carried on the struggle with the Turks, who proposed an increase of territory and a Turkish title in return for the acknowledgment of suzerainty. 'As long as my people defend me,' was the proud answer, 'I need no Turkish title to my throne; if they desert me, such a title would avail me little.' War was the effect of this retort, but the Turks gained nothing by it, and peace was soon made. The danger of the power of Austria came now to be fully recognised. After the Napoleonic wars, Austria had retained Cattaro and Spizza, and trouble now broke out over some land near Budua. The Montenegrins fell upon the Austrians, and fierce conflicts ensued, but Peter, who had gained an extraordinary hold over his subjects, forbade them to continue. Hostilities, however, continued in a desultory fashion for some time. Peter was followed by Danilo II., [1851] a weak ruler, but his reign is famous for two events—the cessation of the spiritual authority of the Prince-Bishop to an Archbishop and the 'Great Charter' of Montenegro. Danilo's reforms, however, led

the Turk again to attack his invincible foe, only again to end in great disaster."—R. Wyon and G. Prance, *Land of the Black mountain*, pp. 17-22. —"When the Sultan's representative declared to the plenipotentiaries of the powers in the Paris conference (March 26, 1856) that the Porte regarded Montenegro as an integral part of the Ottoman empire, the Montenegrin ruler exhibited solicitous surprise and mild indignation. Prince Danilo at once protested to the powers, that the claim set forth by the Sultan's government was indefensible, and that Montenegro had a better claim to half of Albania and all of Herzegovina than Turkey had to Montenegro. At the same time he addressed a note to the European powers calling attention to the successful struggles of the Montenegrin people during four hundred and sixty-six years to hold their territory and maintain their liberty. He also asked for the diplomatic recognition of the independence of Montenegro, the extension of the frontiers toward Albania and Herzegovina, the definite settlement of the boundary towards Turkey and the annexation to the principality of the port of Antivari. Early the next year Prince Danilo visited Paris and presented his case to Emperor Napoleon III; but on his return to Montenegro he received a proposition from the ambassadors of the great powers at Constantinople that as an offset for access to the sea, and some other unimportant concessions from the Sultan, Montenegro should recognize the supremacy of the Porte. The prince was ready to follow the advice of the powers, but the Montenegrins refused to acknowledge the suzerainty of the Sultan. Meanwhile a Turkish force, which was sent ostensibly to restore order on the frontier of Herzegovina, undertook to occupy the valley of Grahovo ("the Marathon of Montenegro"), which was then in the possession of the Montenegrins. The Turks were at once attacked and those of their number who escaped from the valley left behind them fourteen guns, their war supplies, and several thousand dead. The presence of Turkish troops in territory held by Montenegro at the time of the Congress of Paris (1856) placed the Porte in a very unfavorable position, considering the virtual promise by the Turkish government at that time to maintain the *status quo* in that province. With a view of preventing future conflicts such as that in the valley of Grahovo, France invited the powers to join in a conference for the purpose of considering the whole situation in relation to Montenegro. The result was that the ambassadors at Constantinople of Austria, France, Great Britain, Prussia and Russia held a meeting with the Turkish authorities (November, 1858), and it was agreed to send, in the following spring, a boundary commission of engineers to assist in placing posts that should fix the territorial limits of Albania, Herzegovina and Montenegro. The boundaries were to be fixed in strict accordance with the lines on a map previously prepared by the representatives of these powers. Despite the protests of Turkey, a Montenegrin was made a member of this international boundary commission soon after its work had begun. This commission reported the outcome of its labors in March, 1860, and the Constantinople ambassadors, who originated this international body, then held another conference at the Turkish capital and agreed that if any further controversies likely to trouble the peace of the Montenegrin frontier should arise, the questions at issue must be referred to the consuls of these powers at Scutari (Albania). It was also agreed that the Montenegrin prince was authorized to send a representa-

tive, in case the consuls at Scutari should have occasion to consider such questions. During the summer of 1860 Prince Danilo went down to the hamlet of Persano for the baths, and while walking on the promenade at Cattaro with Princess Darinka, he was shot by an exiled Montenegrin. Without delay, and in conformity with a decree of the Assembly passed in 1855, Princess Darinka proclaimed Nicholas Petrovic, a nephew of Danilo, the prince of Montenegro (Nicholas I). . . . The next year (1861), an insurrection in the sister Servian province of Herzegovina called to the neighborhood of Montenegro a large Turkish force under Omer Pasha. The success of the insurgents during the fall of 1861 so awakened the enthusiasm and quickened the sympathies of the Montenegrins, that the Turkish general professed to be alarmed, and proclaimed the blockade of their country. In keeping with the urgent request of the powers, Prince Nicholas assumed a neutral attitude, and even allowed the Ottomans to pass through his province with provisions for a needy Turkish garrison in Herzegovina. During the winter reinforcements were sent to Omer Pasha. When spring opened, Turkey (March, 1862) informed the other parties to the treaty of Paris (1856) that Montenegro was in a state of revolt, and then sent to the Montenegrin capital a declaration of war. The Montenegrins made a valiant resistance against the invading Ottomans, but this time they were no match for the Turkish force sent against them. Realizing after a time that their capital was in danger, they bowed to the inevitable and promised to comply with the demands of the Turkish ultimatum, which was issued from Scutari (August 31, 1862). The internal administration of Montenegro was left as it had been before the invasion. But the prince was obliged to agree that his warrior-father—Mirko—[who had commanded at Grahovo] should be exiled, and that the road from Herzegovina to Scutari passing through the interior of his country should be kept open to commerce by Turkish troops. . . . [All] dignitaries in Montenegro, it was likewise agreed, would enter into a written agreement that the people of the conquered province would not make hostile excursions beyond their frontiers, and that in case of an uprising in neighboring districts, they would not afford either moral or material assistance. Furthermore, without a Turkish passport, no family was to be allowed to enter Montenegro; but the right of leasing land outside the province for agricultural purposes was accorded to the Montenegrins. Moreover, while the importation of war supplies was strictly prohibited, the port of Antivari was opened to them for the export and import of merchandise, free of duty. Russia earnestly advised intervention in order to prevent the above conditions being imposed upon Montenegro. England, however, contended that the guaranteeing powers could not show any possible justification for intervening. Turkey had been admitted, it was contended, as an independent state to participate in the advantages and duties of the European System (Concert), and Lord Russell argued that therefore the Sultan had the right to impose upon the prince of Montenegro such conditions of peace as would be likely to deter that people from future aggressions. There was no formal intervention in this connection by the treaty powers. Nevertheless, the most offensive stipulations in the terms of peace were never enforced against Montenegro. The Porte soon withdrew the demand for the exile of Mirko and eventually abandoned the idea of establishing guard-houses along the route through the interior of the province. During their fourteen years of

peace, following the war of 1862, the Montenegrins entered upon a new life in the matter of schools and military organization. Up to this time, almost no attention had been given there to education, and the soldier's preparation had consisted in unbounded patriotism and the art of shooting, supplemented now and then by experience on the field of battle. In connection with Prince Nicholas' visit to Paris, St. Petersburg, Berlin and Vienna (1868-9), a new start was made in Montenegro in establishing schools for elementary instruction, and in providing the male population between the ages of seventeen and sixty with modern guns and with some military training. In 1868 Prince Nicholas promulgated a new constitution, which, at least, made it convenient for him when he so desired, to leave with the senate the care of a considerable part of the internal affairs. Three years later, under the direction of a professor from Odessa, there was a laudable effort also to bring the laws of the principality more into harmony with other European systems."—W. S. Murray *Making of the Balkan states*, pp. 40, 86-90.

1874-1880.—**Turkish War and the Treaty of Berlin.**—"In the summer of 1874, a scuffle had taken place at Podgoritsa between Turks and Montenegrins, and an investigation having been decided on, Prince Nicholas of Montenegro demanded that it should be held on Montenegrin territory instead of Turkish, in order to affirm the independence of the principality with regard to Turkey. The Ambassadors of the Powers at Constantinople had, on the instigation of General Ignatieff, the Russian Ambassador, interviewed the Grand Vizier in order to hasten the solution of the difficulty. General Ignatieff, who needed little urging, had received most energetic instructions from the Emperor, who was personally interested in the cause of the Montenegrin prince. . . . During the month of July, 1875, troubles broke out in Herzegovina. The Orthodox and Slavonic populations were of opinion that the hour had struck for their deliverance and that they should now force the hand of their great chief, friend and protector, the White Czar. Pan-Slavonic committees began to take decisive steps."—G. Hanotaux, *Contemporary France*, v. 4, pp. 59, 62.—"The Montenegrins could not be restrained at the outbreak of the Hercegovinian revolt, and flocked to the standards of their brothers. The Porte's remonstrances were met with a curt demand for the cession of Hercegovina, and Prince Nicolas published at the same time an offensive and defensive alliance with Servia. Immediately after this (1876) he declared war. Success followed his arms everywhere. A short armistice was concluded, but nothing further came of it, and the war proceeded. The Prince in person stormed the town of Niksic. Podgorica and its fertile plain fell into the hands of the conquerors, and then in quick succession Antivari and Dulcigno were forced to yield. He was about to commence the siege of Scutari when news came of the armistice between Russia and Turkey."—R. Wyon and G. France, *Land of the Black mountain*, p. 24.—See also BALKAN STATES: 1878; BERLIN, CONGRESS OF; TURKEY: 1878.—"In accordance with the decisions arrived at by the Congress of Berlin, Prince Nicholas . . . evacuated Dulcigno and the region of the Bojana, and was preparing to receive the districts of Plava and Gusinje, which had been added to his dominions, when they were occupied by the forces of the [Balkan] League. In consequence of the remonstrances addressed to the Porte by Montenegro, and urged by Russia, Mehemed Ali Pasha was sent to restore order; but his assassination by the Albanians fur-

nished the Turkish government with a pretext for refusing to yield up the debatable land (April 18th, 1880). Meanwhile, . . . it was decided that Montenegro should forego its claim to Plava and to the smaller, but more fertile and strategically more important part of Gusinje, and should obtain, instead, the region which derives its name from the river Sem—the Serbian Cijevna—and which includes Podgorica, as well as Fundina, Zabliak, and Spuz. . . . Not long after, the terms of the treaty were modified so as to include Dulcigno, the inhabitants of which, though they belonged mainly to the Albanian race, were desirous of being united with the principality, within the Montenegrin territory. . . . [But] it was only after a special ambassador had been sent by the British government to Constantinople, and a naval demonstration had been made by the Great Powers, that Dulcigno was surrendered by Dervish Pasha, on the 27th of November. . . . Some of the districts that have been added are rich in the products of the soil, and have contributed towards augmenting the wealth of the country, which was previously at a very low ebb.”—F. S. Stevenson, *History of Montenegro*, pp. 201-203

1898-1916. — Principality modernized. — The changed aspect of Montenegro by the close of the nineteenth century is brought out in the following contemporary account. “The accession of territory obtained under the Berlin Treaty has already begun to alter the character of the country. The area of the Principality has been almost doubled, and fertile valleys, tracts of rich woodland and a strip of sea-coast have been added to the realm of Prince Nikolas. Montenegro is now something more than the rocky eyrie of a warlike clan, and the problem of its commercial development constantly occupies the mind of its ruler. The state of transition is reflected in the aspect of the capital. A tiny hamlet in 1878, Tzetzinye now bears witness to the growth of civilisation and to the beneficent influence of a paternal despotism. . . . Nikolas I., ‘Prince and Gospodar of free Tzrnogora and the Berda,’ is the most picturesque and remarkable figure in the South Slavonic world. . . . Any attempt to describe Prince Nikolas’ work as an administrator and a reformer would lead me too far. . . . The suppression of the vendetta is one of the greatest of the Prince’s achievements. . . . Crime is now rare in the Principality, except in the frontier districts, where acts of homicide are regarded as justifiable, and indeed laudable, if perpetrated in payment of old scores, or if the victim is an Albanian from over the border. . . . The construction of roads is viewed with some apprehension by the more conservative Montenegrins, who fear that their mountain stronghold may lose its inaccessible character. But the Prince is determined to keep abreast of the march of civilisation. Nine post-offices and thirteen telegraph stations have been established. The latter, which are much used by the people, will play an important part in the next mobilization of the Montenegrin army. Hitherto the forces of the Principality have been called together by stentorian couriers who shouted from the tops of the mountains.”—J. D. Bouchier, *Montenegro and her prince* (*Fortnightly Review*, Dec., 1898).—“The history of Montenegro . . . [from] the completion of her territory in 1880 . . . [to 1910 was] very different from that of the other two Slav States. Prince Nicholas . . . had to solve the problem of converting an Homeric society of fighters into a modern commercial and agricultural community. With the exception of an occasional brush upon the Albanian frontier, his warriors . . . kept the

peace. From Turkey he . . . had nothing more to fear; indeed his relations with the Sultan became excellent; while Austria-Hungary he . . . wisely . . . abstained from attacking. None the less, he . . . instituted for defence a standing army based on compulsory service. Admirable roads now traverse and connect the old with the new and more fertile Montenegro, which was the result of the Berlin Treaty and the subsequent arrangements. . . . Socially and politically alike, . . . [Prince Nicholas] gained importance by the splendid marriages of his daughters, notably by that of Princess Elena in 1896 with the Prince of Naples, now King Victor Emmanuel III. This Italian connexion, though not popular in Italy, . . . made Montenegro much better known in Europe and . . . stimulated Italian commercial enterprise on the eastern shore of the Adriatic. A series of picturesque anniversaries—the 400th of



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the foundation of the first Slavonic printing-press, the bicentenary of the Petrovich dynasty, and the Jubilee of the battle of Grahovo . . . [drew] attention to the stirring annals of ‘the smallest among peoples,’ while in August, 1910, the Prince celebrated his fifty years of rule. Nor has Prince Nicholas, while active as a diplomatist and statesman, ceased to enrich Servian literature. One of his two dramas, the ‘Empress of the Balkans,’ possesses special interest, since, under the thin disguise of an historical play, it contains his opinions on Balkan politics.”—W. Miller, *Ottoman empire and the Balkan peninsula* (*Cambridge modern history*, v. 12, ch. 14, pp. 413-414).—In 1904 a customs tariff was established by law. The measure, however, reserved to the Prince the right of monopoly in any article. The law was amended and simplified in 1905. Since 1906 it has had its own coinage, based on the silver unit, called a perper. As a natural corollary, a bank was founded. “As the older men have not enjoyed in their youth the advantages of an education which is

now placed within the reach of all, lecturers are sent round the country, and on Sundays, in wild and cut-off districts, a man can be seen lecturing to a group of rough mountaineers who are listening intently. Government lecturers [who are sent around the country] teach the shepherds how to safeguard their sheep and cattle from disease; the lowland peasants are initiated into the mysteries of vine-growing (every Montenegrin family must plant a vine and attend to it) and tobacco-planting, and general information is given to all. . . . Law is administered by district courts for the more serious cases, with a Supreme Court of Appeal at Cetinje. There are no lawyers or costs; each man brings his own case and witnesses in civil matters, and criminals are dealt with summarily—that is to say, his district captain sends him in chains to Podgorica, where he receives his final sentence. The smaller district captains and 'kmets,' or mayors, have a limited amount of jurisdiction, and can inflict punishments, either in fines or short terms of imprisonment. They also settle all minor cases of dispute. . . . Against only one class of offender . . . [did] Prince Nicolas exercise his autocratic powers, *i.e.* the political offender, with whom he . . . [was] relentless. Such men . . . [were] thrown into prison, interred in dark cells without trial, and . . . [might] languish till death set them free. In this respect the Prince . . . [was] harsh, and according to Western ideas barbaric. . . . The smallness of the prison at Podgorica shows more forcibly than anything else the remarkable lack of crime in the land. . . . The government . . . [was] autocratic. A senate, composed of the different ministers, . . . [existed] in Cetinje, but all powers . . . [were] jealously held by the Prince."—R. Wyon and G. Prance, *Land of the Black mountain*, pp. 27-29.

1899.—At first Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1890; Constitution.

1905-1908.—Constitution granted by Nicholas.—Cabinet crisis.—Effect of Austrian annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina.—"In 1905 [Prince Nicholas] issued two edicts, announcing the grant of parliamentary institutions and liberty of the press. The example of Russia, the growing desire of those young Montenegrins who had been educated at Belgrade to have a share in the government of their country, and the reflection that the change, if inevitable, had better been made in his own lifetime . . . doubtless influenced so shrewd a ruler as Prince Nicholas in his decision. . . . The Constitution of 1905 . . . was borrowed from Serbian sources, especially the Serbian constitution of 1880. The prince continued to represent the State in all its foreign relations; primogeniture in the male line was declared to be the law of the succession to the throne; the Senate was preserved; the country was divided into departments . . . districts . . . and communes; . . . the Orthodox Church was proclaimed autocephalous, and all other cults free; a free press and free compulsory education, a Council of State of six, and a Court of Accounts of three members formed parts of the charter. A National Assembly (*Narodna Skupština*), partly elected by universal suffrage, and partly composed of *ex officio* nominees of the Prince, was to meet annually on October 31. This body, the term of which was four years, was composed of sixty-two members elected by the fifty-six districts and the six towns, and of fourteen nominated or *ex officio* members, viz. the Metropolitan, the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Antivari, the Mohammedan Mufti, the six Councillors of State, the presidents of the Grand Tribunal and of the Court of Accounts,

and the three brigadiers. . . . The first general election under the new constitution was held in November, 1905. On December 19, the first Montenegrin Parliament met; the old ministers who had so long executed their master's edicts resigned, and a Ministry of younger men took their places."—*Montenegro (Handbook prepared under the direction of the historical section of the [British] Foreign Office, no. 19, pp. 30, 38, 30-31)*.—"Until the appointment of M. Tomanovich as Premier in 1907 Cabinet crises were frequent; a group of socialists has made its appearance; the country has been divided into factions; and an overcentralized bureaucracy, which became unpopular, was created in place of the Prince's personal government. Already, at the general election of 1907, feeling ran so high that the office of a Radical journal was wrecked; the Radicals refused to take part in the voting, and all the deputies elected were consequently Conservatives. Then came the discovery of bombs alleged to have come from Serbia. Montenegrin ex-Ministers were prosecuted; the Democratic ex-Premier, M. Radovich, was sent to prison at Podgoritz; and accusations were made against the Serbian Government of complicity in a plot against Prince Nicholas, probably hatched by Austria. These events led to a rupture between the two sister-States. . . . The annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1908 aroused violent resentment in Montenegro, which was eager for a fight. Prince Nicholas announced that, if the Austrian annexation were allowed, he would consider himself released from the restrictions imposed by Article 29 of the Berlin Treaty upon the Bay of Antivari. Early in 1909, however, as the reward of his acquiescence in the annexation, that article was considerably modified. The clause prohibiting Montenegro from having either ships or flag of war was suppressed; the port of Antivari was no longer closed to the war-ships of other nations, although it was to retain its purely commercial character; and the rest of this article was entirely cancelled. Thus Montenegro might thenceforth erect fortifications between the lake of Scutari and the coast; her maritime and sanitary police was no longer entrusted to Austrian boats, nor was she forced to adopt the Dalmatian maritime code. Still the Bay of Antivari was dominated by the guns of Spizza; and an Austrian fleet could enter it."—*Ibid.*, pp. 31-32.

1907.—At second Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

1910.—Principality proclaimed a kingdom.—State of the nation.—Communications.—Schools.—Journalism.—"In 1910, in accordance with a petition from the Skupshtina . . . the Principality was erected into a Kingdom. King Nicholas was the first ruler of Serbian race to occupy the throne for half a century. The jubilee of the fiftieth anniversary of his reign took place on August 15, 16, and 17, 1910. Delegates from all parts of Europe joined in the festivities, and all the Slav countries were represented. At the same time, the complete freedom of the port of Antivari and of the littoral of Montenegro [was celebrated], the restrictions contained in the Treaty of Berlin having been abolished in 1908, as a consequence of the crisis of Bosnia-Herzegovina. . . . The lack of modern means of communication was a hindrance to the development of industry. Accordingly, a railway was constructed—from Antivari to Virpazar (38 kilometres)—which joined the littoral of Montenegro to the interior, and in 1906 a Convention was signed, on June 13/26, between the Montenegrin Government and an Italo-Montenegrin Syndicate, with a view to extending this rail-

way to the ports of Virpazar, Plavnitz, Rjeka, and Scutari. This Convention contemplated the construction and use of the open port of Antivari, . . . together with the free zone annexed to it, which was created in order to develop those branches of industry likely to increase the revenue of the port and country, [and also] . . . the construction of a narrow-gauge railway from Antivari to the Lake of Scutari, and the establishment there of a steamship company. . . . In the interior of the country, on the most important roads, the postal service was carried on by means of motor-cars: [or mail coaches]. . . . A road practicable for carriages was completed between Sentari and Medua (50 kilometres).”—A. Devine, *Montenegro in history, politics and war*, pp. 46-47.—“There is now no district, however wild and cut off it may be, without its school, attendance at which is purely voluntary. Right well have the people availed themselves of this chance of education, and a sliding scale of school fees permits even the poorest peasant to send his son as well as his more wealthy brother. The teachers have a seminary, at Cetinje, which they must first attend, and a gymnasium on the German and Austrian system can be visited, for those boys who wish to extend their education to an European standard. The same boys usually visit some Russian University, occasionally Vienna or Belgrade, and return to their native land as doctors, engineers, or lawyers, and supply the learned professions.”—R. Wyon and G. Prance, *Land of the Black mountain*, pp. 25-26.—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Serbia.

1912-1913.—Balkan wars.—“The incidents which led up to the . . . [first Balkan] war are too fresh in men's minds to require more than a passing notice. An intolerable situation had been created for Montenegro by the Turkish repression of the revolt in Northern Albania, and especially of the Malissori rising, with the result that the little kingdom was compelled to harbour refugees, to resist raids, and to incur, in time of nominal peace, the risks and expenditure usually associated with hostile operations. Although the actual declaration of war was not promulgated by King Nicholas until October, 1912, the whole of the Southern and Eastern borderland had been for nearly two years in a condition hardly distinguishable from a state of warfare.”—F. S. Stevenson, *History of Montenegro*, pp. 211-212.—See also BALKAN STATES: 1912: War, etc.; 1912: First Balkan War; 1912: Balkan League; 1913; SERBIA: 1909-1913; TURKEY: 1912-1913.

1913.—Treaty of Bucharest.—Sandjak of Novi-Bazar divided with Serbia. See SERBIA: 1909-1913.

1914.—Map showing extent of territory as compared with that of 1878. See BALKAN STATES: 1913.

1914-1915.—State of education.—“In the academic year 1914-15 the total number of elementary schools was 211, with 366 teachers. The number of scholars was 18,195, of whom 15,796 were boys and 2,380 girls. The pupils in the various towns numbered 4,675 boys and 1,381 girls; in the villages they were 12,231 boys and 1,010 girls. . . . There was also a ‘Normal School’ and a Lycée; the former being a school for young men wishing to become schoolmasters or priests, and the latter a school on the same lines as our English public schools. The first classes of the Lycée were opened in 1880, and since then the French language has been taught. German was not taught. Four secondary schools were es-

tablished at Podgoritz, Niksitch, Berane, and Plevlia respectively, and a second ‘Normal School’ was founded at Petch.”—A. Devine, *Montenegro in history, politics and war*, p. 50.—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Serbia.

1914-1918.—World War.—Austrian invasion.—“On July 11, 1914, M. Pachitch, the Serbian Premier, asked the Montenegrin Government for its opinion concerning the Austrian ultimatum, and the answer ran as follows: ‘It is difficult to decide what answer must be given to Austria. Our judgment would be to follow the advice of Russia, but, in any case Montenegro, on this occasion as in the past, shares with Serbia the good or the evil. Serbia's fate is also our fate.’ [supplemented by the assurance, that] . . . Serbia may rely on the brotherly and unconditional support of Montenegro, in this moment, on which depends the fate of the Serbian nation, as well as on any other occasion.’ On the following day, July 12, 1914, . . . the Crown Prince Alexander of Serbia wired to his grandfather, King Nicholas, thanking him ‘for Montenegro's espousal of the cause of Serbia in defence of the Serbian nation.’ King Nicholas answered: ‘My Montenegrins and myself are already on the frontiers, ready to die in the defence of our national independence.’ . . . It is, of course, quite clear that Montenegro was anything but ready for war. All things were lacking—food-stuffs, guns, and munitions; but the country put her dignity and her sentiment of solidarity before all else.”—A. Devine, *Montenegro in history, politics and war*, pp. 64-66.—“Montenegro did not hesitate one moment to help the Serbian people, although she was quite exhausted and deprived of all supplies after two horrible Balkan wars. For one year and a half she fought in this war against Austro-Germans, and several times she had splendid successes; especially in the Autumn of 1915 she protected the retreat of the Serbian Army through her own land and Albania to the shore of the Adriatic Sea, rendering thereby a great service to Serbia and the Allies. Meanwhile after the Balkan catastrophe and the invasion of Serbian territory by the enemy, Montenegrin troops remained in a desperate situation, and, finding it impossible to effect a retreat, they were encircled and overwhelmed from all sides by much stronger forces of Austro-Germans. In such circumstances they were captured, when help from the Allies could not reach them.”—P. Dobretchitch, *Manifesto (New York Times Current History, Mar., 1919)*.—See also ALBANIA: 1915-1917; WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: b, 4.

1915.—Claims to Adriatic coast recognized by Treaty of London. See LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF.

1915-1916 (October-January).—Occupation by Austrians.—“Austria's capture of Mt. Lion was one of the miracles of the war. Do you know its precipitous, almost over-hanging cliffs? Have you seen this bastion of Montenegro? It rises perpendicularly for 7,000 feet from the sea. Yet one winter day, on January 10, 1916, it was captured almost without casualties. The Austro-Hungarian Reserve Division, which made the frontal attack, lost altogether seventy old men.”—R. Roda, *King “Nikita” of Montenegro (Living Age, Apr. 23, 1921)*.—See also WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: a.—“Italy did not go to Montenegro's aid in time to save this key to Adriatic power from falling into Francis Joseph's hands because by doing so Russia's ends would alone have been served. To rescue King Nicholas from Austria would have thrown him back into his

long-accustomed place upon the bosom of Russia, although one of his lovely daughters is the Queen of Italy. And Russia's rivalry in the Adriatic is no more welcome to Italy than is Austria's. . . . Rome was rudely shaken in its 'maladie de grandeur' as it recognized that its Adriatic dream might never more return, since that enemy mountain fortress at Mount Lovchen, frowning down upon Austria's Cattaro fleet, was the one necessary link in the whole chain which tied Austria's men-of-war to their harbor of safety, leaving Italy free to roam the Adriatic at will, to fortify Avlona, protect Durazzo from the Serbians, equally an enemy there, and close the path into the Mediterranean to every ship but her own."—R. Insley-Casper (*New York World*, Jan. 23, 1916).—When the country was occupied by the Austrians, Nicholas fled to France, and left one of his sons to capitulate to Austria. Another son was sent to Vienna, an action which brought Nicholas into great disfavor with his people, who supposed that by so doing he was seeking favor with the enemy. (See *WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: e.*) A movement had already been started for the union of Serbia and Montenegro, and the party which sought unification, under the leadership of A. Radovich, the premier, now openly attempted to force King Nicholas to abdicate. The original proposals called for the abdication of both Nicholas and Peter of Serbia, his son-in-law, so that the two realms might unite under the rule of their grandson, Prince Alexander of Serbia.

1916.—Peace notes.—Reply of Allies to President Wilson. See *WORLD WAR: 1916: XI. Peace proposals: b, 2; b, 3.*

1918.—Statement of British war aims.—President Wilson's peace program. See *WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: a; b.*

1918.—Property loss during World War. See *WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 4.*

1918-1921.—Deposition of King Nicholas.—Montenegro merged in Jugo-Slav kingdom.—Death of Nicholas.—“For the first time Montenegro, that had withstood Napoleon's arms, was conquered by the overwhelming German invasion of the Great War. When that devastating tide ebbed back, the country was torn by confused party strife with a result puzzling to Europe, which had understood King Nicholas to be a most popular prince. But it appears that a party of young Liberals had been growing up dissatisfied with his paternal government; there were suspicions against him, or his heir, Danilo, of being too willing to compromise with the enemy, and of having too well feathered the family nest. The rival parties, White and Green, . . . [would have come] to bloodshed but for the intervention of a French detachment garrisoning their country, when at the end of 1918 the Skupchina, assembled at Podgoritz, voted the deposition of their aged king and unconditional incorporation of Montenegro with Serbia.”—A. R. H. Moncrieff, *New world of to-day*, v. 2, pp. 80-81.—“In the closing stages of the war two elements claimed to speak for the Montenegrins: King Nicholas and the Montenegrin Committee. The King professed enthusiasm for united Yugo-slavia, but insisted that it should take the form of a confederation, in which his own kingdom should retain its separate identity under his own dynasty, and he consistently demanded separate representation for his Government at the Inter-Allied preliminary Conference and at the Peace Conference. The Montenegrin Committee, which was organized by M. Andrija Radovic, ex-Premier of Montenegro,

claimed that Montenegro's historic rôle as the refuge of those Serbs who would not submit to foreign government, was now wholly unnecessary, and that Montenegrin feeling was already swallowed in a wider Serbian patriotism. They stood for the Manifesto of Cortu, with its absorption of Montenegro in the new kingdom. They also represented King Nicholas as having played a double game, himself apparently adhering to the Entente, while his son, Prince Mirko, lived at Vienna with a view to preserving the dynasty if the Central Empires proved victorious. When the Montenegrins rose against the Austrian occupation in September and October 1918, a temporary national Government, hostile to King Nicholas, was set up. The arrival of small detachments of the Serbian Army (chiefly Yugo-slavs and Montenegrins) strengthened the authority of this Government. Two members of the Montenegrin Committee, MM. Radovic and Spassojevic, arrived in November and proceeded at once to organize a response to the Geneva Conference's invitation for an expression of opinion from Montenegro. On the 26th November a 'National Assembly' met at Podgorica and voted the union of the country with Serbia and the deposition of King Nicholas and the Petrovic dynasty. . . . The Prince Regent, . . . on the 16th December, . . . signified his acceptance, which was embodied by the Assembly in an Act passed on that day. . . . It is probable that the Assembly at Podgorica was most irregularly elected, and contained only partisans of union. On the other hand, if any considerable particularist opposition had existed in Montenegro, the fact that only unionist opinion was articulate cannot be explained by the pressure of the very small Serbian military forces. There seems to be no doubt that the Montenegrins, as a whole, desire to form part of united Yugo-slavia, but that they cannot in a moment forget their particularist tradition. . . . Theoretically the Allied and Associated Powers had not recognized the deposition of King Nicholas. France and Great Britain both stopped paying their subsidies to him in November 1920, the latter's diplomatic representation ceasing at his court after the 24th August. . . . In Great Britain a number of parliamentary representatives took up the case of Montenegro. . . . Lord Crawford on the 29th November 1920 stated that independent reports had already been presented on the condition of Montenegro since the Armistice by two British officials who had visited the country. 'His Majesty's Government were reluctant to accept the decision of the Podgorica Assembly as definite and decided to await the result of the elections to the Constituent Assembly.' A third official, the Assistant Commissioner at the Klagenfurt plebiscite, was then despatched 'to visit Montenegro in order that he might be present while the people are actually voting,' and 'judge properly as to the correctness of the official returns.' The result was that out of ten deputies in Old Montenegro 4 voted Communist and 1 Republican, the other 5 were Democrat or Radical but all favoured some form of union in the Yugo-slav state. King Nicholas's partisans could not agree on a candidate. Over 67 per cent. of the electors voted. This election was considered decisive, and on the 30th December 1920 France withdrew her diplomatic representative from King Nicholas (who died 1st March 1921); Great Britain cancelled the exequaturs of Montenegrin consuls (17th March). The future of Montenegro, therefore, was to lie in Yugo-slavia.”—A. W. V. Temperley, *History of the peace conference of Paris*, v. 4, pp. 201-204.

—See also BALKAN STATES: 1921: Montenegro; JUGO-SLAVIA: 1918: Formation, etc.

ALSO IN: F. Schevill, *History of the Balkan peninsula*, pp. 50, 311-313, 389-390, 395-398.

1920.—Bureaucratic government.—Improved communication.—Influence of emigration.—“In Montenegro, theory and practice are far apart, and the chief result of the Constitution so far has been to create a very highly centralized bureaucracy, and to foment party strife. Before 1914, the whole of the north and the new district of the east, which includes the important towns of Ipek and Jakova, were without motor roads, and almost entirely without carriage and cart roads. Podgoritsa alone was well supplied with motor roads, which connected it with the sea through Cattaro and Antivari, and with the interior of the country as far as Nikshich and Kolashin. Improvements undertaken with the support of the Government loan of 1910 were resumed after the Balkan War, and communications were pushed forward between Jakova and Ipek, and between Ipek and Old Montenegro. . . . [After] the outbreak of the European War the work . . . [was] taken in hand by the Austrian Government, and the roads are now kept in good repair and much used by motor traffic. . . . Another influence which tended to modernize Montenegro was that of the emigrants who returned from the United States. This was a comparatively new feature in the social life of the Black Mountain, whose sons, if they emigrated, usually went, till recently, to some other part of the Near East. It was calculated that there were before the war some 30,000 Montenegrins in America; and their country was thus drained of its young men. These emigrants, on their return, like the ‘intellectuals’ whom the Government sent to study abroad, were apt to become discontented with their highland home. . . . Commercially Montenegro became almost an Italian colony, run by one man of business. Italians managed the tobacco monopoly; they conducted, under the Montenegrin flag, the navigation on the lake of Scutari; they controlled the Marconi station at the haven of Antivari.”—*Montenegro (Handbook prepared under the direction of the historical section of the [British] Foreign Office, no. 19, pp. 38-39, 31).*

MONTENOTTE, Battles at (1796). See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October).

MONTREAU, town in France, fifty-one miles southeast of Paris. John, duke of Burgundy, was assassinated here in 1419. See FRANCE: 1415-1419.

MONTREY, California, town about 125 miles south of San Francisco. It was settled by the Spaniards, and by Franciscan friars during the Spanish occupation of California. In 1846 the American fleet took possession of it. See CALIFORNIA: 1769-1770; 1846-1847.

MONTREY, Mexico, capital of Nuevo Leon and about 50 miles northeast of Saltillo. (See MEXICO: Map.) In 1846 it was besieged by the Americans. See MEXICO: 1846-1847.

Battle of (1846). See MEXICO: 1846-1847.

MONTREY, Pennsylvania, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1863 (June-July: Pennsylvania).

MONTES, Ismael (1861-), Bolivian statesman. President of Bolivia, representative at the Paris peace conference, 1910. See ACRE DISPUTES; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

MONTESQUIEU, Charles de Secondat, Baron de la Brede et de (1689-1755), French author and political philosopher. Councilor of the Parlement of Bordeaux, 1714, and president, 1716-1728; elected to the French Academy, 1728.

Influence on French Revolution. See FRANCE: 1789: Survey of France, etc.: Literary forerunners.

Declaration of rights of man. See ADMINISTRATIVE LAW: Definition.

As philosopher and historian. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1700-1800; HISTORY: 25.

MONTESSORI, Marie (1870-), Italian educator. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: New ideas, etc.

MONTVERDE, or Montverdi, Claudio (1567-1643), Italian composer. Most important representative of the *stile rappresentativo*, pioneer in the movement that led to modern opera, and a rebel against the limited and arbitrary musical rules of his day; *maestro di cappella* to the duke of Mantua, 1601-1612; engaged in a similar capacity at St. Marks, Venice, 1613-1643. See MUSIC: Modern: 1607-1734.

MONTVIDEO, capital of Uruguay, on the estuary of the Rio de la Plata. (See LATIN AMERICA: Map.) The population in 1920 was 361,050. The shallow estuary on which it is situated has been sheltered by break-waters and deepened, and now provides a good harbor. Meat packing is the chief industry of the city.

Founding of city. See ARGENTINA: 1580-1777.

1807.—Siege and capture by British.—Abandoned. See URUGUAY: 1806-1815.

1868.—Insurrection.—Death of Flores. See URUGUAY: 1821-1905.

MONTEZ, Lola (1818-1861), assumed name of Maria Dolores Eliza Rosanna Gilbert, an adventuress. Created countess of Landsfield by King Louis I of Bavaria, 1847; forced to flee the country during the Revolution of 1848. See GERMANY: 1848 (March).

MONTEZUMA II, or Motecuhzoma (1469-1520), Aztec emperor of Mexico. Conquered by Cortés, 1519-1520. See MEXICO: 1325-1502; 1510 (February-April); (October); 1510-1520; 1520 (June-July); 1325-1502.

MONTFAUCON, Bernard de (1655-1741), French scholar and antiquary. See HISTORY: 25.

MONTFAUCON, village about twelve miles northwest of Verdun, France. It was taken by the Germans in August, 1914, and re-taken by the Americans in their Meuse-Argonne offensive, September, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: u.

MONTFERRAT, Boniface, Marquis of (d. 1207), Italian soldier and crusader. See CRUSADES: 1201-1203; ATHENS: 1205-1308; BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1204-1205.

MONTFERRAT, former duchy in northern Italy. It was allied against Florence and Milan from 1451-1454, and was ceded to Savoy in 1703. See MILAN: 1447-1454; ITALY: 1701-1713.

MONTFORT, Amauri, Count of (1102-1241), French soldier. See ALBIGENES: 1217-1220.

MONTFORT, John, Count of, French soldier. See BRITANNY: 1341-1365.

MONTFORT, Simon IV, Count of (c. 1160-1218), French crusader. See ALBIGENES: 1200, to 1217-1220; ARAGON.

MONTFORT, Simon de, Earl of Leicester (c. 1208-1265), English general and statesman. Son of Simon IV of Montfort. See ENGLAND: 1210-1272; OXFORD, PROVISIONS OF; PARLIAMENT, ENGLISH: 1215-1343; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 500-1205.

MONTGOLFIER, Étienne Jacques (1743-1700), French inventor. See AVIATION: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1783-1784.

MONTGOLFIER, Joseph Michel (1740-1810), French inventor. See AVIATION: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1783-1784.

MONTGOMERY, Richard (1736-1775), American general of Irish birth. Served in British army, 1756-1772; entered the Continental army, 1775; commanded the assault on the city of Quebec and was killed, 1775. See CANADA: 1775-1776; U.S.A.: 1775 (May-August); SOUTH CAROLINA: 1759-1761.

MONTGOMERY ACT (1770). See SCOTLAND: 1750-1021.

MONTGOMERY CHARTER (1730). See NEW YORK CITY: 1686-1844; 1730.

MONTGOMERY CONSTITUTION FOR CONFEDERATE STATES. See U.S.A.: 1861 (February): Adoption of a constitution, etc.

MONTI, Vincenzo (1754-1820), Italian poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1750-1873.

MONTI OF SIENA, factions of Siena. See SIENA: 12th-16th centuries.

MONTIGNY, town in Belgium, northwest of Charleroi. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: a, 5.

MONTISTI, purchasers of papal offices. See ROME: Modern city: 1550-1650.

MONTLEHERY, Battle of (1465). See FRANCE: 1461-1468.

MONTMARTRE, northern section of Paris. In 1814 it was captured by the Allied forces. See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March).

MONTMÉDY, town in France, twenty-three miles southeast of Sedan, near the German frontier.

1657.—Siege and capture by French and English. See FRANCE: 1655-1658.

1659.—Return to France. See FRANCE: 1659-1661.

MONTMORENCY, Anne, Duc de (1493-1567), French soldier. See FRANCE: 1532-1547.

MONTPELLIER, town in France, seventy-six miles west of Marseilles. In 1902 it was the meeting place of the labor congress. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1867-1912.

Treaties of (1622, 1626). See FRANCE: 1620-1622; 1624-1626.

MONTPELLIER UNIVERSITY. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval: 12th-15th centuries; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1231-1339.

MONTPENSIER, Anne Marie Louise d'Orléans, Duchess of (1627-1693), French political leader. See FRANCE: 1651-1653.

MONTPENSIER, Antoine Marie Philippe, Louis d'Orléans, Duke of (1824-1890), fifth son of Louis Philippe. See FRANCE: 1842-1848.

MONTREAL, largest city in Canada, on the island of Montreal, at the junction of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence rivers, a thousand miles from the open sea. The population in 1921 was 607,063. Originally, Montreal grew up on the river bank, but has gradually stretched backward across broad, flat terraces to the foot, and round the sides of Mount Royal which towers above it to a height of 760 feet. The summit of this mountain has been turned into a park of great beauty. The city has many large factories, and the largest import and export trade in Canada, and is the chief port of entry for the Dominion during the months when navigation is open. The widening of the river channel enables ships of thirty foot draught to come up to the harbor but the limitations of the canals prevent vessels of more than fourteen foot draught from passing farther up the stream.

1535.—Discovery.—Naming of island. See AMERICA: 1534-1535.

1542-1648.—Jesuit missions. See JESUITS: 1542-1649.

1611.—Founding of city by Champlain. See CANADA: 1611.

1642-1657.—Foundation of mission by company of Notre Dame of Montreal.—Seminary of St. Sulpice.—“Nearly thirty years after, [Champlain's attempt to make a settlement at Montreal] the Company of Notre Dame of Montreal was formed in France, and a large sum of money contributed in order to establish a religious settlement in place of a mere trading-post. The idea arose simultaneously in the minds of a tax-collector in Anjou, named de la Dauversière, and one Jean Jacques Olier, a young priest, afterwards known as founder of the Seminary of St. Sulpice. The story of how these two men found each other out and together developed the plan is surrounded by the semi-mysterious, semi-miraculous details peculiar to the times. Their plans, however, matured sufficiently to send out to Canada an expedition of some forty men and four women, including amongst them that devout young nun Jeanne Mance. . . . The expedition was placed under the command of Paul de Chomedey, Sieur de Maisonneuve, and arrived at Quebec in 1641. Montreal at this time belonged to Lauzon, one of the Company of the Hundred Associates. . . . who had been induced to transfer his title to the new Company, subject to certain conditions anent the fur trade. The little band was received at Quebec with a studious courtesy that barely covered, however, a persistent antagonism on the part of the Jesuits. . . . In spite of opposition from both the Church and the Governor, Montmagny, who looked on Maisonneuve as a rival, Maisonneuve and his followers started up the river on May 8th, and on the 18th landed. . . . A year after the landing, a reinforcement arrived that brought news of the magnificent gift of 42,000 livres from Madame de Bullion (a wealthy French lady), for the erection and maintenance of a hospital. All work on clearing and tilling the land was neglected until this hospital was built, and, although apparently unneeded at the time, it proved more than useful during long years of struggles with the Indians. Jeanne Mance took charge of it, and devoted her life, not only to nursing the sick Frenchmen, but also to nursing and converting the sick Indians. In 1657 the Seminary of St. Sulpice was founded [see also CANADA: 1637-1657], and six years later became virtual proprietors of the island, the remnant of the Company of Notre Dame de Montréal being so reduced in both zeal and purse that they begged the priests of the Seminary to take their charge off their hands. So valuable did this charge become in after years that to-day the Seminary is the wealthiest religious institution on the continent.”—N. M. Hinshelwood, *Montreal and vicinity*, pp. 7-10.

1657-1689.—Indian attacks.—Heroes of the Long Sault.—Growth of the town.—Regulation of prices.—Importance of colony.—The early opposition to the mission had been partly due to the recognition of the hazardous nature of the attempt to establish such an institution in the wilderness, a thousand miles from assistance. Fortunately, for a short time, the Indians were ignorant of what was afoot. But, as soon as they learned of the existence of the settlement they commenced a series of assaults upon the fort. For twenty years it was never free from fear of attack, and its inhabitants had so many hair-breath escapes that they seemed to bear charmed lives. “On one occasion, when the savages had made elaborate plans for a combined effort to sweep down and totally destroy the white population, the bravery of a few devoted Montreal men, under Dollard, saved the country, although at the cost of all their lives. Adam Daulac, or Dol-

lard, was a young French officer, aged twenty-five. . . . [This youth invited sixteen other young men to join him in an attack on the Iroquois, who had wintered in the forests of the Ottawa valley with the intention of attacking as soon as the spring was advanced. Dollard and his band (who before they set out received the last sacrament of the church as men who went to their death), traveled through the woods probably as far as the Long Sault, and there successfully held off a force of Iroquois and Mohawks, estimated at about 800 men. The friendly Indians who had been with them deserted; but the French kept the Indians at bay for eight days. Then, weak with hunger and watching, they fell before a massed attack. Not one returned alive; but their work was well done. The Iroquois did not need much imagination to foresee the result of an attack against a people, seventeen of whom had inflicted such punishment on eight hundred of their best warriors, and slipped away through the woods the way they came.] Several streets were now being laid out and substantial stone houses erected, the town proper lying between the river and what is now Notre Dame street. The character of the town was rapidly changing, and, later on, when Maisonneuve was removed by Mézy (the governor-general of New France) and immediately reappointed, the autocracy of the Seminary was largely curtailed, as by this step the governor of Montreal took his appointment from the State instead of the seigneurs. . . . In 1667 there was a population of seven hundred and sixty-six; a police force was organized at the head of which were five of the principal inhabitants; many new houses were erected, notably the large stone warehouse 'Le Hangard' built by the inhabitants at their own expense. . . . Here the public market was established; market-days which have remained unaltered ever since, being Tuesdays and Fridays. . . . Prices were constantly fixed by the Governor or intendant; and speculation, particularly in wheat, was absolutely forbidden. When the intendant learned in 1670 that certain unscrupulous persons had bought up the crop with a view of cornering the scanty market, an ordinance was forthwith issued that no one should buy wheat save for his own consumption; and the price was fixed at three livres, two sous the minot (bushel). In order to further the importance of Quebec, an attempt was made by de Lauzon, the Governor, and repeated later by de Mezy, to prevent Montreal from trading directly with France and to confine her trade to the channel of Quebec; but in each case it was successfully opposed. All trade and even intercourse with foreigners was strictly prohibited, but it was impossible to carry out the ordinances, and Dutch and English goods were common throughout Canada, where they were highly prized by both French and Indians. In 1672 the streets of Montreal were regularly laid out. . . . A few years later, the town was surrounded by a wooden palisade fifteen feet in height pierced by four gates. . . . These defences were erected in 1685; and in 1689 the population had increased to two thousand souls, and Montreal had become an important factor in the colony. . . . Perhaps at no time in its history was Montreal in a more prosperous condition than just after it had completed its fiftieth year. . . . The great annual fair was then an established institution, and among other measures taken to insure just competition and exclude foreign interference we find the inhabitants passing the following resolutions in 1675:—1. That all foreign merchants are prohibited from trading in Mon-

treal. . . 2. That during the fair no one should have barter with the Indians save in open market, nor should any one understanding their language speak to them save through an interpreter, nor attempt to draw any Indian aside for the purpose of trading, under pain of punishment."—*Official guide to Montreal (Twelfth International Geological Congress, July and August, 1913, pp. 10, 12, 13, 19, 22, 27, 29).*

1689.—Destructive attack by the Iroquois. See CANADA: 1640-1700.

1690.—Threatened by English colonists. See CANADA: 1689-1690.

1700-1722.—Trade regulations.—Trade with English colonies.—Establishment of exchange.—Postal service.—Growth of population.—Fortifications.—"Cultivation was beginning to make headway, but it was hazardous to attempt innovations; thus in 1700 when grapes were grown about Montreal, and a wine produced of such tolerable quality, that it was fast becoming popular, and it was feared the export from the Mother Country might be interfered with, orders were at once issued by the King to root up the vines. Wheat, however, was successfully grown and sent over to France in small quantities. About this time an attempt was made by certain merchants in the West Indies to open up a trade with Canada, sending sugar, brandy, spices, etc., in return for timber, fish and salt beef, provided the King would allow them to touch at Boston in order to exchange their products for horses, of which there was a great need in the Islands; but, although the King was quite willing that their trade should be carried on with New France, he could not approve of any intercourse with the English plantations, and so the matter was dropped. A trade with the West Indies was, however, slowly carried on and in 1776 about 30,000 minots of wheat were exported. In 1717 an important concession was made by the King in the establishment of a Bourse or Exchange, both in Quebec and Montreal, a favor long desired by the inhabitants and prayed for with an earnestness which evidences their appreciation of so great a concession. . . . Soon after the establishment of the public Exchange, we find a regular postal service was formed between Quebec and Montreal (1721).—a monopoly, as a matter of course, and that for twenty years. . . . The population of Montreal had now increased to about three thousand souls, and in order to accommodate the present and provide for future inhabitants, the defences of wood were about this time replaced by a stone wall."—*Official guide to Montreal (Twelfth International Geological Congress, July and August, 1913, pp. 31-33).*—"A great peace was concluded at Montreal, in the year 1700-1701, between the Iroquois on the one side and the Hurons, Ottawas, Abenakis and Algonquins on the other. The fortifications were, however, continued, and, by 1722, the city was surrounded by a stone wall, with bastions and regular works."—*Illustrated Montreal—Metropolis of Canada, p. 32.*

1717-1765.—Montreal fair.—Loss of prosperity.—Grievances of citizens.—First English governor.—"Early in the eighteenth century the manufacture of coarse wool and linen was started, and cloth for the priests and pupils was woven fully equal to the French goods. A certain quantity of timber and wheat was exported, but the staple trade was in fur. A great annual fair was established in Montreal, partly to prevent . . . [the] wholesale taking to the woods by the young men [which had already begun]. . . . In the market-place, between St. Paul street and the river, booths were

set up, and merchants from Quebec and the whole of Montreal would turn out to get a share of the profits that were to be made. . . . Several causes were now at work that were conspiring to impair Montreal's prosperity. Louis the Fourteenth, in his prodigal generosity to his colony, would never refuse a request for help, and, in addition to giving money to churches, missions, hospitals, etc., he established funds for helping poor people and subsidized nearly every branch of trade. In consequence, the colonists instead of depending on themselves, looked to him for support on every occasion. The fisheries—at which the New England colonies were coining money—were neglected, and the population, from the Intendant downward, developed into a class of deceitful mendicants. Then the Church festivals were so numerous that less than ninety working-days were left during the entire season, and, as a climax, a paper currency was put into circulation by successive governors and intendants that proved valueless. . . . Another grievance the merchants had, and that was the prohibition of meeting together for discussing their affairs. The first bourse or exchange was only permitted in Montreal in 1717. The beaver trade helped along the ruin, the wholesale slaughter of the animal so glutting the market that the skins were unsaleable to the dealers in France; consequently, bills of exchange given in Montreal for the purchases were unpaid, with attendant loss and confusion throughout the town. . . . In 1758 came the news of the departure from England of a great expedition for the conquest of Canada. . . . [The city, however, was spared the horrors of a siege.] . . . After the capitulation by Vaudreuil, General Amherst, as commander-in-chief, appointed General Thomas Gage first Governor of the district of Montreal. Although it would have been difficult to find a more arduous position, he appears to have given satisfaction to all sections of the population. . . . The following year saw the final deportation of the French military, accompanied by many of the Canadian noblesse and merchants, who refused to swear allegiance to King George. . . . The population at this time was about five thousand, and the people quickly realized that the exchange of the ruling power was all to their advantage. The Church was glad to welcome any change by which order was enforced and the old system of corruption abolished; their religious hold on the colony being too strong to occasion any anxiety from an influx of Protestants. (In 1765 the Protestants in Montreal only numbered one hundred and thirty-six.)—N. M. Hinshelwood, *Montreal and vicinity*, pp. 14-15, 19, 23-24.

1759.—Surrender of city and of all Canada to the English. See CANADA: 1759: Passing of New France.

1775-1776.—Taken by Americans and recovered by the British. See CANADA: 1775-1776.

1776-1809.—American occupation.—Franklin's mission.—First newspaper.—Steam navigation on the St. Lawrence.—“During the brief period that Montreal remained under Continental domination, it was the centre of an active propaganda undertaken with a view of inducing all classes of Canadians to throw in their lot with the revolted colonies. . . . A garrison was left in the town by the Continentals, and on April 20th, 1776, Benjamin Franklin, Samuel Chase and the Rev. Charles Carroll, a Jesuit priest, arrived . . . to try and induce the Canadians to send delegates to Congress. . . . June 3rd, 1778, saw the issue of the first newspaper printed in Montreal, the ‘Gazette,’ its publisher being Joseph Fleury de Mesplet, the

printer brought to Montreal by Benjamin Franklin to assist in the circulation of revolutionary literature. . . . The year 1809 stands out conspicuously in the history of Montreal, as witnessing the inauguration of steam navigation on the St. Lawrence by the ‘Accommodation,’ built in Montreal by Mr. John Molson [the second steamboat built in America], and which on November 3, 1809, started on her maiden voyage to Quebec.”—E. J. Chambers, ed., *Book of Montreal*, pp. 38-39.

1812-1813.—Expeditions of American forces against the city.—“November, 1812, was one of the most exciting months that the city and district of Montreal has ever passed through. The United States army, destined for the capture of the city, under the command of General Dearborn, was concentrated in the northern part of New York State, its advanced outposts less than fifty miles away”—*Illustrated Montreal*, p. 40.—It was compelled to fall back, and a double attack, made in the following October was also repulsed. See U. S. A.: 1813 (October-November).

1817-1821.—Foundation of Bank of Montreal and McGill University.—“In 1817, the Bank of Montreal was founded with a capital of £87,000, by a number of merchants. . . . An institution that has grown to be almost of a national character was established in 1821. Eight years previous to that date there died in Montreal an old Scotch fur-trader—James McGill. By his will he bequeathed, in trust, sixty-four acres of land and ten thousand pounds to the Royal Institution for the advancement of Learning. The famous McGill University was the result.”—N. M. Hinshelwood, *Montreal and vicinity*, p. 28.

1825.—Lachine canal opened. See CANALS: American: Lachine.

1825-1852.—Incorporation of city.—City government.—Election riot.—Cholera epidemic.—Political agitation.—Board of Trade.—Destruction by fire.—“In 1825 Montreal was visited by a serious fire . . . [which burned a large section of the town]. The year 1832 marks an important event in the municipal history of the city—its incorporation. . . . Up to 1832 the provincial authorities levied and distributed the taxes in the cities as well as in the rural districts, leaving the minor details of administration in the hands of the local justices. In 1832 Acts were passed to temporarily incorporate the cities of Quebec and Montreal. These charters expired naturally in 1836, and were not renewed until 1840, when, considerably amended, they were proclaimed as permanent charters. The offices of mayor and aldermen were not made elective until 1842, being filled previous to that date by the Governor General. . . . This was altogether a strenuous period in the history of Montreal. Public spirit was developing in a somewhat crude and violent form, and one of the events of 1832 was an election riot, which the troops were called out to quell, and which resulted in the killing of three rioters and the wounding of two. The same year Montreal was ravaged by the Asiatic cholera, 4,500 people being attacked with the disease between the tenth of June and the end of September, and 2,000 of these cases terminating fatally. There was a second, and the last, visitation of the same dreaded disease in 1834. Meantime the discontent of the population over the paternal—despotic—irresponsible system of government was rapidly drifting towards open rebellion.” L. J. Papineau, the great tribune of the French Canadian people, and his chief lieutenants in the campaign against the officialdom of the day, made Montreal, by their residence in the city, the head centre of the agita-



ENTRY OF MOHAMMED INTO MECCA
(After painting by Andreas Müller)

tion in the Lower Province. . . . A period of keen political agitation, which developed very ugly racial strife in the district of Montreal, succeeded the suppression of the rebellion; but gradually the spirit of commercialism asserted itself, and business began once more to expand. In 1841 the bill was passed incorporating the Montreal Board of Trade, which was organized in 1840. . . . [In 1850] two disastrous conflagrations occurred. . . . After a lapse of two years the city . . . [was again visited by fire]. June 7, 1852, the St. Paul Street district, from St. Sulpice to St. Peter Street, was swept by the flames, [and] the most . . . [destructive] of all the fires which have visited Montreal occurred in July the same year. . . . By this conflagration no less than 1,100 buildings were destroyed. These fires drew attention to the absolute necessity of regulating the class of buildings allowed in the city. The result was the drafting of a very stringent by-law, which has contributed largely to the substantial appearance of the city from an architectural point of view.—E. J. Chambers, *Book of Montreal*, pp. 44, 46-47, 49.

1849.—Burning of Parliament buildings.—Annexation manifesto. — “When the Rebellion Losses Bill was passed, in 1840, by which those who had taken part in the rebellion of '37 were to be compensated for the losses they had sustained, the more loyal citizens were so enraged that they arose in a mob and burnt the Parliament House. . . . Some lives were lost, and the removal of the seat of government from Montreal followed.”—N. M. Hinshelwood, *Montreal and vicinity*, p. 32.—The outburst was owing, in great part, to depression caused by losses due to the repeal of the British corn laws, and the consequent abolition of the preferential tariff on grain in favor of Canada. The prosperity of the city seemed to be passing away, and in this same year of 1840 nearly 1,000 “Montreal merchants of both political parties issued a manifesto urging . . . ‘a friendly and peaceful separation from British connection, and a union upon equitable terms with the great North American confederacy of Sovereign states.’”—W. L. Grant, *History of Canada*, p. 234.—The manifesto excited little interest outside of Montreal, and, with returning prosperity, the feeling died away.

1860-1901.—Victoria Bridge.—St. Albans raiders.—Street railway.—Great fire.—Throughout the early history of the province of Quebec there was no communication between the northern and southern sections, except by boat. This drawback was remedied, however, by the opening of the Victoria tubular bridge “across the St. Lawrence on August 25th, 1860. The bridge held first place amongst the engineering works of the world for many years. . . . [But] as traffic increased and new districts were opened up, the single track that crossed the river proved insufficient for the demands made upon it, and, in 1898, the old tube was replaced by a modern open-work steel bridge, with double tracks and roadways. . . . In the latter part of 1864 Montreal was greatly interested in the trial of the St. Albans raiders. A certain Bennet H. Young, who had come to Canada as a political refugee from the States, where he had taken active part in the civil war between the Confederate States and the North, organized a band of men, and, on the 10th October, raided the town of St. Albans, Vermont. . . . After ‘commandeering’ over two hundred thousand dollars from the latter and firing a number of shots in the streets, the band took horses and rode for the Canadian frontier again. Their arrest followed, and extradition was demanded by the

United States. . . . After long arguments, the raiders were discharged, it being decided that they had acted as belligerents in a foreign state, and consequently the laws of a neutral country had no jurisdiction to order their extradition. . . . This same year [1864] the first street car appeared in Montreal, the City Passenger Railway instituting a service of cars over about ten miles of track. Horse traction was the motive power, and the company continued operations until 1892, when it was taken over by the Montreal Street Railway, who, after obtaining a thirty years’ franchise from the city, inaugurated the electric trolley system. . . . It will be many years before the memory of the great fire in January, 1901, fades from the minds of those who fought it or looked on. The damage amounted to nearly five million dollars, and included the total destruction of the Board of Trade building and several blocks of offices and warehouses.”—N. M. Hinshelwood, *Montreal and vicinity*, pp. 33, 35-36, 41.

MONTROSE, James Graham, 1st Marquess of (1612-1650), Scottish statesman and soldier. One of the signers of the Scottish Covenant, 1638; first opposed and later upheld the royal cause in the civil war; aided Charles II during the Scottish rising and was defeated, 1650; surrendered by the McLeods to the Parliamentary party and executed, March, 1650. See SCOTLAND: 1638-1640; 1644-1645; 1650 (March-July).

MONTS, Pierre du Guast, Comte de (1560-1611), French colonist. See CANADA: 1603-1605; NOVA SCOTIA: 1604.

MONTSERRAT, one of the group of the Leeward islands, in the West Indies. “This island, discovered by Columbus in 1493, was named by him after a famous mountain in Spain where is situated the monastery in which Ignatius Loyola conceived the project of founding the Society of Jesus. It is situated 27 miles from Antigua . . . and is about eleven miles in length and seven in the broadest part. Its total area is 32½ square miles. [In 1911, the population was 12,106.] It is of volcanic formation and very rugged and mountainous. . . . The history of Montserrat is less eventful than that of several of its neighbours. It was settled by colonists—most of whom were Irish and Roman Catholics—from St. Kitts under Sir Thomas Warner. In 1664 the island was captured by the French; but it was restored four years later to England, in whose possession it remained until 1782, when it was again taken by the French. It was, however, ceded to England in the following year by the Treaty of Versailles.”—A. E. Aspinwall, *British West Indies*, p. 30.

MONTT, Jorge (1846-), Chilean statesman. President of Chile, 1891-1896. See CHILE: 1885-1891; 1891-1892.

MONTT, Pedro (1846-1910), Chilean statesman. President of Chile, 1906-1910. See CHILE: 1906; 1910.

MONZA, Battle of (1412). See ITALY: 1412-1447.

MONZON, or Monçon, Treaty of (1626). See FRANCE: 1624-1626.

MOODKI, Battle of (1845). See INDIA: 1845-1849.

MOODY, William Henry (1853-1917), American jurist. See U.S.A.: 1901-1905; 1905-1909.

MOODY, William Vaughan (1860-1910), American poet and dramatist. See DRAMA: 1865-1913.

MOOKERHYDE, Battle of (1574). See NETHERLANDS: 1573-1574.

MOOLTAN, or Multan, capital of the district of the same name, in the Punjab, British India.

In 1848-1849 it was besieged by the English. See INDIA: 1845-1849.

MOON, William (1818-1804), English clergyman and philanthropist. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind, and feeble minded: Blind.

MOON SOUND ISLANDS, in the republic of Esthonia. See BALTIC STATES: Esthonia: Territory.

MOONLIGHT SCHOOLS. See KENTUCKY: 1916.

MOOR, Sir Frederick Robert (1853-), premier of Natal since 1906. Delegate to the imperial conference, 1907. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1907.

MOORE, Andrew Barry (1806-1873), governor of Alabama, 1857-1861. See U.S.A.: 1860-1861 (December-February).

MOORE, George (1853-), Irish novelist. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1880-1920.

MOORE, James (c. 1640-1729), American colonial soldier. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1700-1706; 1712-1732.

MOORE, James (1737-1777), American general. See NORTH CAROLINA: 1775-1776

MOORE, Sir John (1761-1809), British general. Fell in the battle of Corunna, 1809. See SPAIN: 1808-1809 (August-January).

MOORE, Richard Channing (1762-1841), American divine. See PROTESTANT CHURCH: 1811-1836.

MOORE'S CREEK, Battle of (1776). See NORTH CAROLINA: 1775-1776.

MOORISH LEARNING. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 9th-15th centuries: Saracen and Moorish learning.

MOORS, or Mauri, dark race living in the northern part of Africa. (See AFRICA: Races of Africa: Prehistoric; Modern.) Their name is derived from the ancient Mauretians or Mauri. (See COMMERCE: Medieval: 5th-8th centuries.) The Arabs who conquered Spain were Moors.

Origin. See NUMIDIANS.
698-709.—Arab conquest. See CALIPHATE: 647-709.

711-713.—Conquest of Spain. See SPAIN: 711-713, and after; CADEZ: 711-1262.

11th-13th centuries.—Almoravides and Almohades in Morocco. See ALMORAVIDES; ALMOHADES; SPAIN: 1146-1232.

1238-1492.—Founding of kingdom of Granada.—Its crumbling and fall. See SPAIN: 1238-1273; 1273-1460; 1476-1492.

1492-1669.—Persecution and final expulsion from Spain.—Deadly effect upon that country.—“After the reduction . . . of the last Mohammedan kingdom in Spain, the great object of the Spaniards became to convert those whom they had conquered [in violation of the treaty made on the surrender of Granada]. . . . By torturing some, by burning others, and by threatening all, they at length succeeded; and we are assured that, after the year 1526, there was no Mohammedan in Spain, who had not been converted to Christianity. [See SPAIN: 1524-1526.] Immense numbers of them were baptized by force; but being baptized, it was held that they belonged to the Church, and were amenable to her discipline. That discipline was administered by the Inquisition, which, during the rest of the 16th century, subjected these new Christians, or Moriscoes, as they were now called, to the most barbarous treatment. The genuineness of their forced conversions was doubted; it therefore became the business of the Church to inquire into their sincerity. The civil government lent its aid; and among other enactments, an edict was issued by Philip II, in 1566, ordering the Moriscoes

to abandon everything which by the slightest possibility could remind them of their former religion. They were commanded, under severe penalties, to learn Spanish, and to give up all their Arabic books. They were forbidden to read their native language, or to write it, or even to speak it in their own houses. Their ceremonies and their very games were strictly prohibited. They were to indulge in no amusements which had been practised by their fathers; neither were they to wear such clothes as they had been accustomed to. Their women were to go unveiled; and, as bathing was a heathenish custom, all public baths were to be destroyed, and even all baths in private houses. By these and similar measures, these unhappy people were at length goaded into rebellion; and in 1568 they took the desperate step of measuring their force against that of the whole Spanish monarchy. The result could hardly be doubted; but the Moriscoes maddened by their sufferings, and fighting for their all, protracted the contest till 1571, when the insurrection was finally put down. By this unsuccessful effort they were greatly reduced in numbers and in strength; and during the remaining 27 years of the reign of Philip II. we hear comparatively little of them. Notwithstanding an occasional outbreak, the old animosities were subsiding, and in the course of time would probably have disappeared. At all events, there was no pretence for violence on the part of the Spaniards, since it was absurd to suppose that the Moriscoes, weakened in every way, humbled, broken, and scattered through the kingdom, could, even if they desired it, effect anything against the resources of the executive government. But, after the death of Philip II., that movement began . . . which, contrary to the course of affairs in other nations, secured to the Spanish clergy in the 17th century, more power than they had possessed in the 16th. The consequences of this were immediately apparent. The clergy did not think that the steps taken by Philip II. against the Moriscoes were sufficiently decisive. . . . Under his successor, the clergy . . . gained fresh strength, and they soon felt themselves sufficiently powerful to begin another and final crusade against the miserable remains of the Moorish nation. The Archbishop of Valencia was the first to take the field. In 1602, this eminent prelate presented a memorial to Philip III. against the Moriscoes; and finding that his views were cordially supported by the clergy, and not discouraged by the crown, he followed up the blow by another memorial having the same object. . . . He declared that the Armada, which Philip II. sent against England in 1588, had been destroyed, because God would not allow even that pious enterprise to succeed, while those who undertook it, left heretics undisturbed at home. For the same reason, the late expedition to Algiers had failed; it being evidently the will of Heaven that nothing should prosper while Spain was inhabited by apostates. He, therefore, exhorted the king to exile all the Moriscoes, except some whom he might condemn to work in the galleys, and others who could become slaves, and labour in the mines of America. This, he added, would make the reign of Philip glorious to all posterity, and would raise his fame far above that of his predecessors, who in this matter had neglected their obvious duty. . . . That they should all be slain, instead of being banished, was the desire of a powerful party in the Church, who thought that such signal punishment would work good by striking terror into the heretics of every nation. Bleda, the celebrated Dominican, one of the most influential men of his time, wished this to be done, and to be done thoroughly. He said, that, for the sake of example,

every Morisco in Spain should have his throat cut, because it was impossible to tell which of them were Christians at heart, and it was enough to leave the matter to God, who knew his own, and who would reward in the next world those who were really Catholics. . . . The religious scruples of Philip III. forbade him to struggle with the Church; and his minister Lerma would not risk his own authority by even the show of opposition. In 1609 he announced to the king, that the expulsion of the Moriscos had become necessary. 'The resolution,' replied Philip, 'is a great one; let it be executed.' And executed it was, with unflinching barbarity. About 1,000,000 of the most industrious inhabitants of Spain were hunted out like wild beasts, because the sincerity of their religious opinions was doubtful. Many were slain, as they approached the coast; others were beaten and plundered; and the majority, in the most wretched plight, sailed for Africa. During the passage, the crew, in many of the ships, rose upon them, butchered the men, ravished the women, and threw the children into the sea. Those who escaped this fate, landed on the coast of Barbary, where they were attacked by the Bedouins, and many of them put to the sword. Others made their way into the desert, and perished from famine. Of the number of lives actually sacrificed, we have no authentic account; but it is said, on very good authority, that in one expedition, in which 140,000 were carried to Africa, upwards of 100,000 suffered death in its most frightful forms within a few months after their expulsion from Spain. Now, for the first time, the Church was really triumphant. For the first time there was not a heretic to be seen between the Pyrenees and the Straits of Gibraltar. All were orthodox, and all were loyal. Every inhabitant of that great country obeyed the Church, and feared the king. And from this happy combination, it was believed that the prosperity and grandeur of Spain were sure to follow. . . . The effects upon the material prosperity of Spain may be stated in a few words. From nearly every part of the country, large bodies of industrious agriculturists and expert artificers were suddenly withdrawn. The best system of husbandry then known, were practised by the Moriscos, who tilled and irrigated with indefatigable labour. The cultivation of rice, cotton, and sugar, and the manufacture of silk and paper were almost confined to them. By their expulsion all this was destroyed at a blow, and most of it was destroyed for ever. For the Spanish Christians considered such pursuits beneath their dignity. In their judgment, war and religion were the only two avocations worthy of being followed. To fight for the king, or to enter the Church was honourable; but everything else was mean and sordid. When, therefore, the Moriscos were thrust out of Spain, there was no one to fill their place; arts and manufactures either degenerated, or were entirely lost, and immense regions of arable land were left uncultivated. . . . Whole districts were suddenly deserted, and down to the present day have never been re peopled. These solitudes gave refuge to smugglers and brigands, who succeeded the industrious inhabitants formerly occupying them; and it is said that from the expulsion of the Moriscos is to be dated the existence of those organized bands of robbers, which after this period, became the scourge of Spain, and which no subsequent government has been able entirely to extirpate. To these disastrous consequences, others were added, of a different, and, if possible, of a still more serious kind. The victory gained by the Church increased both her power and her reputation. . . . The greatest

men, with hardly an exception, became ecclesiastics, and all temporal considerations, all views of earthly policy, were despised and set at naught. No one inquired; no one doubted; no one presumed to ask if all this was right. The minds of men succumbed and were prostrate. While every other country was advancing, Spain alone was receding. Every other country was making some addition to knowledge, creating some art, or enlarging some science, Spain numbed into a death-like torpor, spellbound and entranced by the accursed superstition which preyed on her strength, presented to Europe a solitary instance of constant decay."—H. T. Buckle, *History of civilization*, v. 2, ch. 8.—See also INQUISITION: 1203-1525.

ALSO IN: W. H. Prescott, *History of the reign of Philip II*, v. 3, bk. 5, ch. 1-8.—R. Watson, *History of the reign of Philip III*, bk. 4.—J. Dunlop, *Memoirs of Spain, 1621-1700*, v. 1, ch. 1.

15th-19th centuries.—In kingdom of Morocco. See MOROCCO.

Influence of Saracenic civilization on southern Europe.—Building of aqueducts. See EUROPE: Middle Ages: Saracenic civilization; AQUEDUCTS.

MOORSLEDE, village of West Flanders, Belgium, five miles west of Courtrai. See WORLD WAR: 1015: II. Western front: e, 2.

MOOSHAUSIC RIVER, Rhode Island, site of Roger Williams' plantation. See RHODE ISLAND: 1636.

MOPH. See MEMPHIS.

MOPLAH REBELLION. See INDIA: 1921-1922.

MOQUELUMNAN FAMILY.—"Derivation: From the river and hill of the same name in Calaveras County, California. . . . It was not until 1856 that the distinctness of the linguistic family was fully set forth by Latham. Under the head of Moquelumne, this author gathers several vocabularies representing different languages and dialects of the same stock. These are the Talatui of Hale, the Tuolumne from Schoolcraft, the Sonoma dialects as represented by the Tshokoyem vocabulary, the Chocuyem and Youkiousme paternosters, and the Olamentke of Kostromitonov in Bæer's Beiträge. . . . The Moquelumnan family occupies the territory bounded on the north by the Cosumne River, on the south by the Fresno River, on the east by the Sierra Nevada, and on the west by the San Joaquin River, with the exception of a strip on the east bank occupied by the Cholovone. A part of this family occupies also a territory bounded on the south by San Francisco Bay."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report, Bureau of Ethnology*, pp. 92-93.

MOQUIS, North American Indian tribe. See PUEBLOS.

MORA, ship which bore William the Conqueror to England, and which was the gift of his wife, the Duchess Matilda.

MORABETHA. See ALMORAVIDES.

MORAES BARROS, Prudente (1841-1902), Brazilian political leader. See BRAZIL: 1803-1804.

MORALES, Carlos F., president of Santo Domingo, 1903-1906. See SANTO DOMINGO: 1004-1907.

MORALITY PLAYS. See DRAMA: Medieval.

MORAT, Battles of (1476, 1802). See BURGUNDY: 1476-1477; NETHERLANDS: 1473-1477; FRANCE: 1801-1802.

MORAVIA: Physical features.—Industries and resources.—"Moravia is a mountainous plateau sloping from north to south and surrounded on three sides by mountain ranges. In the north it is separated from Silesia by the Sudetic moun-

tains; in the east from Austria and Hungary by the Carpathian and the White mountains, and in the west from Bohemia by the Moravian-Bohemian highland. Branches of these mountains intersect the whole country and give it a very irregular surface. Almost the whole of Moravia, belongs to the Morava (March) river basin, which forms a part of the Danube system. The Morava traverses the entire length of the margravate—a distance of one hundred and forty miles—and receives numerous tributaries from the border-mountain regions. . . . Only a small part of the Morava is navigable. The total area of the margravate is 8,580 square miles, ninety-seven per cent. of which is productive. Wheat is grown in great quantities; also flax, hemp, vegetables, and orchard fruits. In recent times the sugar beet has been extensively cultivated on the large estates. Minerals are abundant, and the quantities of coal and iron favour industry. Moravia has an excellent clay for chinaware and vast tracts of productive forest land. There are also large deposits of lignite, copper, graphite, and sulphur. The land unfortunately is largely in the hands of a few proprietors, and the small size of the peasant farms forces their owners, as in Bohemia, to engage in home industries. The products that are made in the homes, chiefly during the winter months, are woodwares and textiles. The woollen industry of the country is very old, and some progress has been made . . . in the weaving of cotton and linen fabrics.”—W. S. Monroe, *Bohemia and the Cechs*, pp. 449-450.

People and their early history.—“Three-fourths of the inhabitants of Moravia belong to the Slavic race—Cechs, Horaks, Hanaks, and Slovaks—and the balance are Germans, Jews, and Vlachs. The country was settled at a very early period by Slavic tribes of the same ethnic stock as the first settlers of Bohemia. But the Moravians unified the scattered tribes within their borders and established a strong form of imperial government several decades in advance of the Bohemians.”—W. S. Monroe, *Bohemia and the Cechs*, p. 451.—See also **BOHEMIA**: Its people, etc.

6th-8th centuries.—**Early history.**—About the sixth century, the Slavs, who had been pressing into Central Europe, occupied the territory between the Elbe and the Vistula, southward to Pusterthal. Within this region, toward the west, three Slav powers, Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia, arose at an early date. Of the three, Moravia is the first to appear out of the mists which cloud the history of Central Europe down to the end of the early Middle Ages, a mist which hides from view the struggles during which the Celts disappeared before the Teutons, and the Teutons in turn were driven out by the Slavs. In the seventh century the Slavs appear to have been subject to the Avars, who were then in possession of the Danube plain, but, tradition says, under the leadership of a Frankish merchant, named Samo, the Slavs shook off the rule of their overlords. Samo was chosen king, or duke, of the freed territory, and the new kingdom, which extended through the present Moravia and Bohemia, bade fair to become all powerful in Germany. This kingdom was forced by Charlemagne to accept his supremacy in 789, when he led a campaign against it to put an end to incursions into German territory.

9th century.—**Wars between Moimir and Louis the German.**—**Conversion to Christianity.**—**Kingdom of Svatopluk.**—After the treaty of Verdun, 843, Louis the German claimed suzerainty over greater Moravia, as part of his kingdom of

Germany, by virtue of the conditions imposed upon it by his grandfather, Charlemagne. The duke, Moimir, had no intention of submitting tamely to this demand, and in 846 he began a war of resistance, which, however, did not last long, for, a few years later, Moimir appears to have been slain either by his nephew Rostislav, or at Rostislav's instigation. Some say that Moimir had been deposed by Louis, who made Rostislav (also called Rostiz) duke on promise of submission. But, whether or not this prince was aided by the German king, he apparently had no intention of keeping his promise of allegiance, if indeed he had understood what allegiance implied. He endeavored to establish the independence of his kingdom, and for this purpose fortified his frontiers, and then declared war on Louis, who commenced a series of invasions which continued, with varying success, from 885 to 968. Up to this time the Moravians had been pagan. Some writers state that one of the conditions made by Louis was that they should accept Christianity, and that the wars were partly caused by their refusal to do so at the hands of the Germans, who sought to enslave them. Others say that German, Greek and Italian missionaries were all working in the duchy at this time and that Rostislav appealed in person to Pope Nicholas I, asking him to decide upon teachers for the distracted country. Nicholas, however, refused to intervene, and Rostislav then turned to Michael III of Greece with the same request. However, this may be, it is a matter of certainty that in 864 two missionaries, Cyril (or Constantine) and Methodius of Thessalonica arrived in Moravia and began their labours, which resulted in the conversion of the people to Christianity. (See also **CHRISTIANITY**: 9th century: Conversion of Moravia.) “Unwelcome as Christianity had seemed to the Moravians, when presented to them as a demand of Frankish invaders, and taught in an unknown tongue, its lessons came with a very different force when urged by pious and peaceable monks, recommended by friendly kinsmen, and expounded in a language intelligible to the converts. [See also **SLAVS**: 9th-10th centuries.] Rostislav no doubt quickly perceived that the new teaching might form a valuable link in the alliance of the Slavs against their enemies. He appealed to the Emperor of the East to send Cyril and Methodius to Moravia; and, when they arrived at the town of Devina, Rostislav and his followers went out to welcome them. . . . But troubles very soon began for the new-comers. The German party in Moravia were resentful at the introduction into the churches of what they considered a barbarous language; and they saw danger to their power, both in the adoption of a ritual which was understood by the people, and in the assertion of an episcopal authority which claimed to be independent of the German bishops. Nor was it only by foreigners that the influence of Cyril and Methodius was endangered; an opposition was roused even among the Moravians themselves. Svatopluk, the nephew and rival of Rostislav, seems to have accepted some kind of nominal Christianity, but unaccompanied by any change of life, or even by any great reverence for the externals of worship; and he opposed the new apostles of the Slavs with the greatest fierceness. . . . According to one story he had already attempted to poison Rostislav, and having failed in that purpose he conspired with the Emperor Louis against him, made him prisoner, and sent him off to the Imperial Court to be tried. Louis threw Rostislav into prison, and put out his eyes. But Svatopluk, though he suc-

ceeded in seizing the Dukedom, did not long retain the confidence of the Emperor or the German party. He, in his turn, was deposed and thrown into prison. Then the Moravians rose against the Franks, under a man named Slavomir, who, according to one story, was a pupil of Methodius. The Emperor thereupon set Svatopluk free, and sent him at the head of an army to suppress the new rising. Svatopluk betrayed his soldiers to his countrymen, destroyed the German army, and once more became Duke of Moravia. . . . [The independence of Moravia was recognized by the Treaty of Forcheim, signed in 874, but] there still remained the real subjects of dispute. These were the lawfulness of the Slavonic ritual, and the position of Methodius as Archbishop of Moravia. Svatopluk had thrown himself with eagerness into the cause of Methodius's opponents, and joined in the denunciation of the Slavonic ritual, declaring that it degraded worship by connecting it with a barbarous dialect. . . . [Cyril died in 869 at Rome, where the brothers had gone to obtain the consent of the Pope to the use of the liturgy in the Slavonic tongue. Methodius was consecrated bishop by the pope; but, in spite of this, and of the fact that in 880 Pope John VIII gave him protection and upheld his authority, the German clergy continued to oppose Methodius almost to the time of his death in 885. This is an important point, because in those days especially, it was inevitable that the religious struggle should have great effect upon the political state of the country.] Pope John seems clearly to have understood that the opposition to Methodius arose rather from prejudice of race than from ecclesiastical principle; and he recognised this fact in the Bull which sanctioned the Slavonic ritual. For in this document he expressly required that all the clergy in the diocese of Moravia and Pannonia, whether Slav or of whatever race they might be, should be submissive to the archbishop. A very noteworthy modification was subjoined to this decision which seemed to stamp a popular and democratic character on the Slavonic movement. 'If Svatopluk,' said the Pope, 'and the members of his Court desire to use the Latin ritual, they may do so still.' An even more crushing blow to the hopes of the enemies of Methodius was given in a second decision of the Pope . . . [who] expressly recommended Svatopluk to choose his next bishop with the advice and consent of Methodius. . . . The relations between Methodius and Svatopluk, always hostile, would now have probably culminated in the death or exile of the archbishop, but that a quarrel broke out between Svatopluk and Arnulf [duke of Pannonia]; and the desire of Svatopluk to overthrow Arnulf's influence in Pannonia naturally hindered his action against Methodius. For the few remaining years of the archbishop's life, he was able to carry on his work, both moral and religious, with much less opposition; but when, after his death, his friends attempted to get his pupil Gorazd appointed as successor in the archbishopric. . . . [Svatopluk was stirred up against Gorazd] but in spite of the opposition of dukes and Germans, the Slavonic ritual held its own in Moravia, and Svatopluk's son Mojmir became its champion. . . . Svatopluk, the cruel and unscrupulous persecutor of Methodius and his followers, might, from the ordinary nationalist point of view, have been looked upon as the establisher of Slavonic greatness, the champion of Moravian independence, and even the protector of Bohemia and Moravia against a cruel and barbarous invader. Under his rule Moravia had become the centre of a

great Slavonic alliance extending eastwards to Bulgaria and northwards to Magdeburg. The exact relations between the dukedom of Moravia and the other States referred to may be difficult to define; but the whole story of his relations with Bohemia shows that Svatopluk exercised an authority there which was, at least, equal to that maintained by the German Emperor over many of the states subject to him. [See BOHEMIA: 9th-13th centuries.] . . . Such a position, in the then condition of Europe, could not but excite rivalry and jealousy among the neighbouring princes; and Arnulf, the Duke of Pannonia, who had aspired to the throne of the Frankish Empire, was particularly jealous of a man whose power, as he considered, had been largely due to the patronage which Arnulf had granted to him. The exact merits of the numerous quarrels between these princes it is impossible to estimate accurately; but it is clear that, as Svatopluk gained power, he became more and more resolved to throw off the authority which Arnulf found difficult to assert. At last Arnulf, having lost hope of maintaining his authority by his own force, and perhaps suspecting that Pannonia would itself fall a prey to his rival, resolved to call in a new ally to his assistance."—C. E. Maurice, *Bohemia*, pp. 10-11, 14-19.—"At one time . . . [Svatopluk] was the most powerful monarch of the Slavs; Rome was in treaty with him, Bohemia gravitated towards the orbit of Moravia, while Moravia held the empire in check. . . . At this time [891] the kingdom of Svatopluk . . . included, besides Moravia and the present Austrian Silesia, the subject country of Bohemia, the Slav tribes on the Elbe and the Vistula as far as the neighbourhood of Magdeburg, part of Western Galicia, the country of the Slovaks, and Lower Pannonia." But Svatopluk was ruined by war with his neighbor, Arnulf, duke of Pannonia. The latter "entered into an alliance with Braclav, a Slovene prince, sought the aid of the king of the Bulgarians, and, what was of far graver importance, summoned to his help the Magyars, who had just settled themselves on the Lower Danube. Swabians, Bavarians, Franks, Magyars, and Slovenes rushed simultaneously upon Moravia. Overwhelmed by numbers, Svatopluk made no attempt at resistance; he shut up his troops in fortresses, and abandoned the open country to the enemy, who ravaged it for four whole weeks. Then hostilities ceased; but no durable peace could exist between the two adversaries. War began again in the following year [894], when death freed Arnulf from Svatopluk. . . . At his death he left three sons; he chose the eldest, Mojmir II, as his heir, and assigned appanages to each of the others. On his death-bed he begged them to live at peace with one another, but his advice was not followed."—L. Leger, *History of Austro-Hungary*, ch. 4.—"The ruin of the Moravian dukedom speedily followed. According to one tradition, Wiching, Svatopluk's German bishop, was used by Arnulf to stir up division between the sons of Svatopluk. If so, he must undoubtedly have used his influence in favour of the younger Svatopluk, and against Mojmir, the champion of the Slavonic ritual. But, whatever the cause of division, the fact of the civil war is undoubted; and all the enemies of the country took advantage of it. In 896 the Hungarians again invaded Moravia, and this time with much greater success."—C. E. Maurice, *Bohemia*, p. 21.

10th-14th centuries.—Struggle for independence.—Under rule of Bohemia.—Created a margravate of the empire.—The struggle for the security and independence of Moravia was con-

tinued for a few years after the death of Svato-pluk; but the Magyar invaders were encouraged by the German monarchs, and aided by the dissensions and mismanagement of Svato-pluk's sons. In 900 the Bavarians together with the Czechs, invaded Moravia. In 901 a peace, which is said to have "in no way limited the constitutional independence" of the country, was made with the emperor who endeavored to assist Mojmir. But the Magyars, far more deadly foes, continued their attacks. In 907 Mojmir was killed in battle and with his death greater Moravia completely disappeared. Moravia now seems to have fallen under the supremacy of Bohemia, which had meanwhile been growing stronger, and consequently she became involved in the wars between the Czech kingdom, Poland, and Hungary, all of whom disputed for her possession. About the year 1000 she was conquered by Boleslav I of Poland, and during the confused period which follows, we catch only a few glimpses of the troubled state of the country, which was divided at various times in order to provide appanages for the younger sons of the kings of Bohemia. At one time in the twelfth century we read of three duchies. At the end of that century Conrad Otto, a Moravian prince, united their rule in his own person, and became sufficiently strong to threaten Bohemia. Frederick Barbarossa, however, intervened, and decreed (1197) that Conrad Otto should govern Moravia as a margravate, under the suzerainty of the empire. Nevertheless, Moravia was generally speaking more or less under Bohemian overlordship. John, the blind king of Bohemia, who fell at Crécy, made his son Charles margrave of Moravia in 1333. Charles, after his father's death, either as king of Bohemia, or as emperor, gave the margravate first to his brother John Henry, and afterwards to his brother Wenzel, duke of Luxembourg; in 1355, with the consent of the Diet, the margravate was declared an integral and inalienable part of Bohemia.—See also BOHEMIA: 1355.

1241.—Battle of Liegnitz against Mongols. See LIEGNITZ.

1526.—Rule of Austria.—After the battle of Mohacs, Moravia, with all the other Bohemian possessions, fell to Ferdinand of Austria, and was thenceforth ruled by the House of Austria.

1618-1620.—Participation in Bohemian revolt. See GERMANY: 1618-1620.

1618-1648.—Thirty Years' War.—In the early part of the Thirty Years' War, the Moravian Diet was influenced by Charles of Zerotin, a Moravian noble, to follow a moderate policy, and gave Ferdinand the right to send troops through the country. The treasury of the estates, and part of the army were taken to Vienna by Wallenstein, who was himself a Moravian. But, when Thurn entered Moravia with 8,000 men, a directorate was established, and the other part of the army went over to Bohemia. Again in 1619 the Diet was divided on the subject of the resolution to depose Ferdinand, although ultimately the resolution was carried. Later the Estates renounced resistance on the promise that their religious liberties would be preserved to them. The promise was of no avail, however; Ferdinand fell back on the plea that the Pope had authority over him in matters of conscience. The towns were subjected to large levies; members of the Brethren were compelled to flee to Hungary, and the constitution was revised on the same lines as that of Bohemia. Moreover, in 1627, all Protestants were ordered to sell their estates, and leave the country under pain of severe punishment. No Protestant could inherit; marriages between Protestants and Roman Catholics were not

recognized; and provision was made to take the education of children out of the hands of Protestant parents. At the close of hostilities (see GERMANY: 1640-1645) the population was a fraction of what it had formerly been; the country was reduced to want, and did not again rise to anything like the importance it had previously enjoyed.

1742-1758.—Invasions by Frederick the Great.—In 1742 Frederick entered Moravia in conjunction with a body of Saxon troops, but the campaign was rendered fruitless by the obstinacy of the Saxon commanders. (See also AUSTRIA: 1742 [January-May].) During the Seven Years' War the Moravians, as well as the Bohemians, remained loyal to Maria Theresa. During his occupation of the country Frederick found extreme difficulty in obtaining supplies and information, a circumstance which contributed to the defeat of his attempt to reduce the fortress of Olmutz. At the close of the war, Moravia was attached to Austrian Silesia.

1849.—Separation from Bohemia.—In 1849 Moravia was again made a distinct province, or independent crownland, with a legislature consisting of forty-nine members in the House of Deputies, and a provincial Diet of 151 members.

1918.—Part of Czecho-Slovakia.—In 1918, Moravia joined with Bohemia, Silesia and Slovakia in the formation of the new republic of Czecho-Slovakia. The boundaries of the old margravate are now those of the electoral area and administrative district of the new republic.—See also CZECHO-SLOVAKIA: Territory.

ALSO IN: G. Bretholz, *Geschichte Mahrens*.—W. S. Monroe, *Bohemia and the Czechs*.

MORAVIAN, or BOHEMIAN, BRETHERN (Unitas Fratrum): Origin and early history. See BOHEMIA: 1434-1457; 1621-1648.

Saxony and America.—Indian missions.—Recognition by Church of England.—"In 1722, and in the seven following years, a considerable number of these 'Brethren,' led by Christian David, who were persecuted in their homes, were received by Count Zinzendorf on his estate at Berthelsdorf in Saxony. They founded a village called Herrnhut, or 'the Watch of the Lord.' There they were joined by Christians from other places in Germany, and, after some time Zinzendorf took up his abode among them, and became their principal guide and pastor. . . . In 1737, he consecrated himself wholly to the service of God in connection with the Moravian settlement, and was ordained a bishop. . . . Zinzendorf had before been received into the Lutheran ministry. The peculiar fervor which characterized his religious work, and certain particulars in his teaching, caused the Saxon Government, which was wedded to the traditional ways of Lutheranism, to exclude him from Saxony for about ten years (1736-1747). He prosecuted his religious labors in Frankfurt, journeyed through Holland and England, made a voyage to the West Indies, and, in 1741, another voyage to America. New branches of the Moravian body he planted in the countries which he visited. . . . It was a church within a church that Zinzendorf aimed to establish. It was far from his purpose to found a sect antagonistic to the national churches in the midst of which the Moravian societies arose. . . . With a religious life remarkable as combining warm emotion with a quiet and serene type of feeling, the community of Zinzendorf connected a missionary zeal not equalled at that time in any other Protestant communion. Although few in number, they sent their gospel messengers to all quarters of the globe."—G. P. Fisher, *History of the Christian Church*, pp. 506-507.—The first settlement of the Moravians in America was planted in Georgia, in

1735. (See GEORGIA: 1738-1743.) "But Oglethorpe's border war with the Spaniards compelled him to call every man in his colony to arms, and the Moravians, rather than forsake their principles [of non-resistance, and dependence upon prayer], abandoned their lands and escaped to Pennsylvania [1740]. Here some of their brethren were already fixed. Among the refugees was the young David Zeisberger, the future head of the Ohio missions. Bethlehem on the Lehigh became, and is yet, the centre in America of their double system of missions and education. [See also MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: North America.] They bought lands, laid out villages and farms, built houses, shops, and mills, but everywhere, and first of all, houses of prayer, in thankfulness for the peace and prosperity at length found. The first mission established by Zinzendorf in the colonies was in 1741, among the Mohican Indians, near the borders of New York and Connecticut. The bigoted people and authorities of the neighborhood by outrages and persecution drove them off, so that they were forced to take refuge on the Lehigh. The brethren established them in a new colony twenty miles above Bethlehem, to which they gave the name of Gnadenhütten (Tents of Grace). The prosperity of the Mohicans attracted the attention and visits of the Indians beyond. The nearest were the Delawares, between whom and the Mohicans there were strong ties of affinity, as branches of the old Lenni Lenape stock. Relations were thus formed between the Moravians and the Delawares. And by the fraternization between the Delawares and Shawanees . . . and their gradual emigration to the West to escape the encroachments of Penn's people, it occurred that the Moravian missionaries, Zeisberger foremost, accompanied their Delaware and Mohican converts to the Susquehanna in 1765, and again, when driven from there by the cession at Fort Stanwix, journeyed with them across the Alleghenies to Goshgoshink, a town established by the unconverted Delawares far up the Alleghany River." In 1770, having gained some important converts among the Delawares of the Wolf clan, at Kuskuskee, on Big Beaver Creek, they transferred themselves to that place, naming it Friedenstadt. But there they were opposed with such hostility by warriors and white traders that they determined "to plunge a step further into the wilderness, and go to the head chief of the Delawares at Gepelmukpechenk (Stillwater, or Tuscarawi) on the Muskingum. It was near this village that Christian Frederick Post, the brave, enterprising pioneer of the Moravians, had established himself in 1761, with the approbation of the chiefs. . . . By marriage with an Indian wife he had forfeited his regular standing with the congregation. His intimate acquaintance with the Indians, and their languages and customs, so far gained upon them that in 1762 he was permitted to take Heckewelder to share his cabin and establish a school for the Indian children. But in the autumn the threatened outburst of Pontiac's war had compelled them to flee. . . . [Early in 1772 the Moravian colony] was invited by the council at Tuscarawi, the Wyandots west of them approving it, to come with all their Indian brethren from the Alleghany and Susquehanna, and settle on the Muskingum (as the Tuscarawas was then called), and upon any lands that they might choose. . . . [The invitation was accepted.] The pioneer party, in the removal from the Beaver to Ohio, consisted of Zeisberger and five Indian families, 28 persons, who arrived at this beautiful ground May 3, 1772. . . . The site was at the large spring, and appropriately it was named for it Shoenbrun. In August arrived the Missionaries Ettwein and

Heckewelder, with the main body of Christian Indians who had been invited from the Alleghany and the Susquehanna, about 250 in number. . . . This, and further accessions from the east in September, made it advisable to divide the colony into two villages. The second [named Gnadenhütten] was established ten miles below Shoenbrun. . . . In April, 1773, the remnants of the mission on the Beaver joined their brethren in Ohio. The whole body of the Moravian Indians . . . was now united and at rest under the shelter of the unconverted but . . . tolerant Delaware warriors. . . . The population of the Moravian villages at the close of 1775 was 414 persons. . . . The calamity of the Moravians was the war of the American Revolution. It developed the dangerous fact that their villages . . . were close upon the direct line between Pittsburgh and Detroit, the outposts of the two contending forces." The peaceful settlement became an object of hostility to the meaner spirits on both sides. In September, 1781, by order of the British commander at Detroit, they were expelled from their settlement, robbed of all their possessions, and sent to Sandusky. In the following February, a half-starved party of them, numbering 96, who had ventured back to their ravaged homes, for the purpose of gleaning the corn left standing in the fields, were massacred by a brutal American force, from the Ohio. "So perished the Moravian missions on the Muskingum. Not that the pious founders ceased their labors, or that these consecrated scenes knew them no more. But their Indian communities, the germ of their work, the sign of what was to be accomplished by them in the great Indian problem, were scattered and gone. Zeisberger, at their head, labored with the remnants of their congregation for years in Canada. They then transferred themselves temporarily to settlements on the Sandusky, the Huron, and the Cuyahoga rivers. At last he and Heckewelder, with the survivors of these wanderings, went back to their lands on the Tuscarawas."—R. King, *Ohio*, ch. 6. —"The settlement of many families of the Brethren in the British Colonies of North America, soon after their emigration from Moravia, led to an application to Parliament for protection, and for relief from laws and services contrary to their religious scruples. In 1747, an Act was passed in their favor (20 George II. cap. xlv.) for extending the privileges of natural-born subjects to the Moravian Brethren and other Foreign Protestants who should make affirmation of allegiance, &c. and should scruple to take the oaths; but their case was more particularly brought to the notice of Parliament in 1749, when upon application to be relieved from taking oaths generally, and bearing arms; their doctrine, discipline, character, and history, were scrupulously examined before Committees of both Houses. An Act was passed, with the unanimous consent of the Episcopal Bench, in that year (22 George II. cap. xxx.) conceding to the Brethren in England, as well as America, the privileges they sought, and fully acknowledging them as 'An Ancient Protestant Episcopal Church, which had been countenanced and relieved by the Kings of England His Majesty's Predecessors.'—London Association in Aid of Missions of the United Brethren, *Brief narrative of the origin and progress of the Church of the United Brethren (commonly called Moravians) and of its recognition by the church and government of England (pamphlet)*, p. 8.

ALSO IN: D. Cranz, *History of the United Brethren*.—F. Boxer, *Banished count (Life of Zinzendorf)*.—E. de Schweinitz, *Life and times of David Zeisberger*.—D. Zeisberger, *Diary*.

MORAVIANS, Highland tribe. See **CLANS**, **HIGHLAND**.

MORAZAN, Francisco (1790-1842), soldier and statesman of Honduras. See **CENTRAL AMERICA**: 1821-1871.

MORCOURT, town in France, northeast of St. Quentin. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: c, 27; j, 2.

MORE, Sir Thomas (1487-1535), English statesman, jurist and author. Knighted, 1521; speaker of the House of Commons, 1523; lord chancellor, 1529-1532; executed for refusal to take oath of supremacy, 1535. See **ENGLAND**: 1529-1535; **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 1530-1660.

MOREA: Origin of name.—"The Morea must . . . have come into general use, as the name of the peninsula [of the Peloponnesus] among the Greeks, after the Latin conquest [of 1204-1205], even allowing that the term was used among foreigners before the arrival of the Franks. . . . The name Morea was, however, at first applied only to the western coast of the Peloponnesus, or perhaps more particularly to Elis, which the epitome of Strabo points out as a district exclusively Scлавonian, and which, to this day, preserves a number of Scлавonian names. . . . Originally the word appears to be the same geographical denomination which the Scлавonians of the north had given to a mountain district of Thrace in the chain of Mount Rhodope. In the 14th century the name of this province is written by the Emperor Cantacuzenos, who must have been well acquainted with it personally, Morrha. Even as late as the 14th century, the Morea is mentioned in official documents relating to the Frank principality as a province of the Peloponnesus, though the name was then commonly applied to the whole peninsula."—G. Finlay, *History of Greece from its conquest by the Crusaders*, ch. 1, sect. 4.

Principality of the. See **ACILÆA**: 1205-1387.

1714-1718.—Recovery by Turkey. See **TURKEY**: 1714-1718.

MOREAU, Jean Victor (1763-1813), French general. Commanded the army of the Rhine-and-Moselle, 1795; given command of the army of Italy, 1799; again at the head of the army of the Rhine, 1800; banished on accusation of collusion with Pichegru, 1804. See **FRANCE**: 1796 (April-October); 1796-1797 (October-April); 1799 (April-September); (November); 1800-1801 (May-February); 1804-1805; **AUSTRIA**: 1798-1806.

MORELLY, R., French socialist. See **SOCIALISM**: 1753-1797.

MORELOS, state in Mexico south of the state of Mexico. See **MEXICO**: 1910-1913.

MORELOS Y PAVON, José Maria (1765-1815), Mexican revolutionist. Next to Hidalgo, the greatest hero of the Revolution of 1810-1815; captured November, 1815, brought to Mexico City and executed the following month. See also **MEXICO**: 1810-1810.

MORENO, Alfred Baquerizo (1859-), president of Ecuador, 1916-1920. See **ECUADOR**: 1916.

MORES MAJORAM, Roman law founded on the customs of ancestors. See **CIVIL LAW**: B. C. 450-100.

MORESNET, small district and village in Belgium, four miles southwest of Aix-la-Chapelle, on the border between Belgium and Germany. It contains a very valuable zinc mine. Formerly the district was administered jointly by the two countries, but by the Treaty of Versailles, 1919, it was given to Belgium. See **BELGIUM**: 1919 (June 28); **VERSAILLES**, **TREATY OF**: Part III: Section I.

MORETON BAY, inlet on the Pacific ocean, Queensland, Australia. See **AUSTRALIA**: 1800-1840; 1859; **QUEENSLAND**: 1824-1900.

MOREUIL, town in France, south of Amiens. It was a scene of fighting in 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: c, 29.

MORGAN, Daniel (1736-1802), American soldier. Served in the American Revolution. See **U. S. A.**: 1777 (July-October); 1780-1781.

MORGAN, Harry Hays (1860-), American diplomat. See **WORLD WAR**: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XII. Reconstruction: b, 3.

MORGAN, Sir Henry (c. 1635-1688), Welsh buccaneer. See **AMERICA**: 1639-1700; **BUCCANEERS**: English buccaneers; **JAMAICA**: 1655-1796.

MORGAN, John Hunt (1825-1864), American soldier. Served in the Confederate army during the Civil War. See **U. S. A.**: 1863 (July: Kentucky).

MORGAN, John Pierpont (1837-1913), American financier. Instrumental in the organization of the International Mercantile Marine Company and the United States Steel Corporation. See **TRUSTS**: International; **United States**: Climax of consolidation, etc.; **CAPITALISM**: 19th century: **United States**; also **GIFTS AND BEQUESTS**.

MORGAN, Junius Spencer (1813-1890), American financier. See **CAPITALISM**: 19th century: **United States**.

MORGAN, Thomas (d. 1743), English deist. See **DEISM**: English deism.

MORGAN, William (c. 1775-c. 1826), American Freemason. See **NEW YORK**: 1826-1832; **ANTI-MASONIC PARTY**, **AMERICAN**; **MASONIC SOCIETIES**: **United States**: Abduction of William Morgan.

MORGAN, Fort, on Mobile Point, Alabama. See **U. S. A.**: 1860 (December-February); 1860-1861 (December-February); 1864 (August: Alabama).

MORGANATIC MARRIAGES. — When a member of a royal family married a woman of a rank inferior to his own, the marriage, though ecclesiastically and legally a perfect marriage, was called a "morganatic marriage." The wife did not acquire, nor the children inherit, the rank of the husband and father. Neither did the children succeed to the father's position nor to such property as is attached to that position. The origin of the name is found in an old German custom, and applies properly to German houses only. "Besides the dowry which was given before the marriage ceremony had been performed, it was customary [among some of the ancient German peoples] for the husband to make his wife a present on the morning after the first night. This was called the 'morgengabe,' or morning gift, the presenting of which, where no previous ceremony had been observed, constituted a particular kind of connexion called matrimonium morganaticum, or 'morganatic marriage.' As the liberality of the husband was apt to be excessive, we find the amount limited by the Langobardian laws to one fourth of the bridegroom's substance."—W. C. Perry, *Franks*, ch. 10.

MORGARTEN, Battles of (1315, 1798). See **SWITZERLAND**: Three forest cantons; 1792-1798.

MORGENTHAU, Henry (1856-), American lawyer and diplomat. See **POLAND**: 1919-1920: Status of Jews; **WORLD WAR**: Diplomatic background: 74.

MORGETES, ancient tribe in Italy. See **CEONTIANS**.

MORIAH, Mount, hill in Jerusalem. It was the site of Solomon's temple. See **JERUSALEM**: B. C. 2100-1400; A. D. 33; **CHRISTIANITY**: Map of Jerusalem.

MORIKE, Eduard (1804-1875), German poet. See **GERMAN LITERATURE**: 1798-1896.

MORIN, Grand and Petit, two small rivers of France, tributaries of the Marne. They were crossed by the German general, Kluck, in his invasion during the first month of the World War, 1914, before the battle of the Marne and the German retreat.

MORINI, tribe in Gaul. See BELGÆ.

MORISCOES.—This name was given to the Moors in Spain after their nominal and compulsory conversion to Christianity. See MOORS: 1492-1609.

MORLAND, George (1763-1804), English painter. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

MORLEY OF BLACKBURN, John, 1st Viscount (1838-), English statesman and author. Editor of the *Fortnightly Review*, 1867-1883; chief secretary for Ireland, 1886, 1892-1895; secretary of state for India, 1905-1910; lord president of the Indian Council, 1910-1914. See ENGLAND: 1905-1906; INDIA: 1908-1909; HISTORY: 32.

MORMAERS, or **Maarmors**.—A title, signifying great Maer or Steward, borne by certain princes or sub-kings of provinces in Scotland in the tenth and eleventh centuries. The Maebeth of history was Mormaer of Moray.—Based on W. F. Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, v. 3, pp. 49-51.—See also SCOTLAND: 1039-1054.

MORMAL FOREST, wooded district, seven miles southwest of Maubeuge, France. It was occupied by the Germans in 1914, during the British retreat from Mons, and was held until 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: x, 3.

MORMONISM: 1805-1830.—Joseph Smith and the Book of Mormon.—Non-polygamous branch.—“Joseph Smith, the Mormon prophet and founder of the Church, first saw light at Sharon, Windsor County, Vermont, on December 23rd, 1805, the fourth of a family of seven sons and three daughters. The family claimed to be of Scottish descent, but had settled in America a hundred years before Joseph was born. . . . Opponents of the Mormons say the prophet's parents were poor, illiterate, and superstitious. Mormons hold that they were devout, honest, and in straitened circumstances owing to the treachery of a trusted friend. . . . When Joseph was ten years old his parents left Vermont for County Wayne, New York, and four years later they moved to Manchester, in the same county, where Joseph led the life of an ordinary farm-hand, learning agriculture, and apparently conducting himself neither better nor worse than his fellow workers. . . . At any rate, he seems to have had in his composition many of the elements which go to make up the visionary and the dreamer. Opposed to the mass of testimony assailing his character is the story, accepted by all good Mormons, of the early life of their prophet, supported in turn by ‘witnesses.’ The most important parts of this narrative have been supplied by Joseph himself.”—S. Martin, *Mystery of Mormonism*, pp. 22-24.—“When Joseph Smith was about fourteen years of age his father's family moved from Palmyra, N. Y., to Manchester, N. Y. About this time there was evinced a great deal of sectarian revival activity to make converts and add to the Church ‘such as should be saved.’ Joseph, a lad of sensitive nature, was naturally influenced by the emotionalism around him. His mother and three brothers and a sister had just joined the Presbyterian Church, but Joseph, though so young, was much perturbed about the different sects of the professed children of God. Why these divisions? Surely God cannot be the author of this confusion, he reasoned. If God has a Church in the Faith it will not be split up into factions. . . . Not far from his home was a beautiful grove,

the foliage of which was dense enough to give him the seclusion he desired for private devotion. Here, on the morning of a clear spring day, he retired for definite prayer and communion with God, if such things were possible. Let me now quote from the article of B. H. Roberts in the *Americana Magazine* on the ‘History of the Mormon Church.’ And now something strange happened. The youth had just begun timidly to express the desire of his heart in words, when he was seized upon by an invisible power that overcame him; his tongue was bound so that he could not speak. . . . At this moment of dreadful alarm he saw a pillar of light exactly over his head which shone



JOSEPH SMITH (1805-1844)

out above the brightness of the sun. . . . As soon as the light appeared, the youth found himself freed from the power of the enemy that had held him bound. As the light rested upon him, he beheld within it two personages, exactly resembling each other in form and features, standing above him in the air, one of these, calling Joseph by name, and pointing to the other, said: “This is my Beloved Son, hear him.” . . . When he came entirely to himself he found that he was lying on his back, looking up to heaven. With the passing of the vision he was left without strength; but soon recovering from his weakness he returned home. . . . It is upon the assumed truth of this vision and subsequent revelations alleged to have been made to Joseph Smith, that the Mormon Church, The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints, definitely, positively, unflinchingly takes its stand. Its leaders do not beg the issue, dodge it, or question it. . . . [Some years later] praying to God for forgiveness, one night, another vision appeared to him. This time it was the angel Moroni, who . . . revealed that ‘there was a book written upon gold plates, giving an account of the former inhabitants of this continent, and the source from which they sprang. He also said that the fullness of the everlasting gospel was contained in it’ and that with the book would be found two stones in silver bowls—the Urim and

Thummim—which would enable him to translate the book. Again and yet again Moroni appeared to him with the same revelation, and on a fourth occasion he commanded Joseph to tell everything he had heard to his father. He did so, and then further obeying the commands of Moroni, he went to the hill where the sacred book was said to be. It was near to Manchester, Ontario county, New York, and is known as the hill Cumorah. Here, in a stone box, the plates, etc., were found, but he was not allowed to remove them. Instead, each year for four years, he was required to visit the place, after which he was to take away the plates. Accordingly, on September 22, 1827, he went for that purpose, and secured them. The news led to strenuous efforts on the part of enemies to get them away from him, and to frustrate these efforts he decided to move into Pennsylvania. A friend, Martin Harris, advanced him \$50.00 for this purpose, and it was this same Harris that afterwards wrote part of the translation of the book, at Joseph's dictation. But when about one hundred and sixteen pages had been written, Harris' desire to show the manuscript overcame Joseph's reluctance, and after many pledges, Harris was allowed to take the manuscript away. Violating his pledges, those to whom he wrongfully showed the writings stole them from him. To frustrate the evil designs of these thieves Joseph received a revelation in which the Lord rebuked him and forbade him attempting to retranslate that which had been written, but instructed him to translate from the 'Smaller Plates of Nephi,' which contained a fuller history for the period covered by the first translation, which had been made from Mormon's abridgment of the 'Larger Plates of Nephi.' At the same time a new scribe, in the person of Oliver Cowdery, was sent to Joseph. Persecutions also began to be showered upon Joseph and his discovery of the plates denounced as a fraud. 'Revelations' now came speedily one after another, . . . guided Joseph in his relations with his family and followers, the organization of the Church, the publication of the Book of Mormon (which took place in 1830), and the public ministry of the newly organized church. At this time the spirit of persecution began to rage against the Mormons more furiously than hitherto it had done."—G. W. James, *Utah, the land of blossoming valleys*, pp. 47-52.—It is believed by many that the groundwork of the Book of Mormon was supplied by an ingenious romance, written about 1814 by the Rev. Solomon Spalding, a Presbyterian minister of some learning and literary ability, then living at New Salem (now Conneaut), Ohio. This romance, which was entitled "The Manuscript Found," purported to narrate the history of a migration of the lost ten tribes of Israel to America. It was never published; but members of Mr. Spalding's family, and other persons, who read it or heard it read, in manuscript, claimed confidently, after the appearance of the Book of Mormon, that the main body of the narrative and the notable names introduced in it were identical with those of the latter. Some circumstances, moreover, seemed to indicate a probability that Mr. Spalding's manuscript, being left during several weeks with a publisher named Patterson, at Pittsburg, came there into the hands of one Sidney Rigdon, a young printer, who appeared subsequently as one of the leading missionaries of Mormonism, and who is believed to have visited Joseph Smith, at Palmyra, before the Book of Mormon came to light. On the other hand, Mormon believers have, latterly, made much of

the fact that a manuscript romance without title, by Solomon Spalding, was found, not many years since, in the Sandwich islands, by President Fairchild of Oberlin College, Ohio, and proved to bear no resemblance to the Book of Mormon. Spalding is said, however, to have written several romances, and, if so, nothing is proved by this discovery.—Based on T. Gregg, *Prophet of Palmyra*, ch. 1-11, 41-45.

Also in: E. E. Dickinson, *New light on Mormonism*.—J. M. Kennedy, *Early days of Mormonism*, ch. 1-2.

"Like the Mormons of Utah, the . . . (Reorganized) Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints, sometimes called Nonpolygamous Mormons, trace their origin back to the movement begun by Joseph Smith in 1830. They claim to represent this movement and to be true to the principles and doctrines proclaimed by him, and insist that those who followed Brigham Young were led away from the truth into error. They deny that the revelation concerning polygamy which was communicated to the church in Salt Lake City in 1852 by Brigham Young was genuine, and declare that the true successor to Joseph Smith in the presidency of the church was not Brigham Young, but Joseph Smith's eldest son, Joseph. . . . [Their] headquarters are at Lamoni, Ia."—H. K. Carroll, *Religious forces of the United States*, pp. 170-171.

Also in: J. E. Talmage, *Story of Mormonism*.—W. A. Linn, *Story of the Mormons*.—J. Smith III. and H. C. Smith, *History of Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints*.

1830-1846.—First Hegira to Kirtland, Ohio, the second to Missouri, the third to Nauvoo, Illinois.—Danites.—Building of the city and its temple.—Hostility of Gentiles.—Slaying of the prophet.—Immediately after the publication of the Book the Church was duly organized at Manchester. On April 6, 1830, six members were ordained elders—Joseph Smith, Sr., Joseph Smith, Jr., Hyrum Smith, Samuel Smith, Oliver Cowdery and Joseph Knight. The first conference was held at Fayette, Seneca county, in June. A special 'revelation' at this time made Smith's wife 'the Elect Lady and Daughter of God,' with the high-sounding title of 'Electa Cyria.' . . . Another revelation was to the effect that Palmyra was not the gathering-place of the Saints, after all, but that they should proceed to Kirtland, in Ohio. Consequently, the early part of 1831 saw them colonized in that place, the move being known as 'The First Hegira.' Still another revelation (on the 6th of June) stated that some point in Missouri was the reliable spot. Smith immediately selected a tract in Jackson county, near Independence. By 1833 the few Mormons who had moved thither were so persecuted that they went into Clay county, and thence, in 1838, into Caldwell county, naming their settlement 'Far West.' The main body of the Mormons, however, remained in Kirtland from 1831 till they were forced to join their Western brethren in 1838. Brigham Young, another native of Vermont, joined at Kirtland in 1832, and was ordained an elder. The conference of elders on May 3, 1833, repudiated the name of Mormons and adopted that of 'Latter-Day Saints.' The first presidency consisted of Smith, Rigdon, and Frederick G. Williams. In May, 1835, the Twelve Apostles—among them Brigham Young, Heber C. Kimball and Orson Hyde—left on a mission for proselytes. . . . The Mormons were driven from Missouri by Governor Boggs's 'Extraordinary Order,' which caused them to gain sympathy as having

been persecuted in a slave State. They moved to Hancock county, Illinois, in 1840, and built up Nauvoo [on the Mississippi river, fourteen miles above Keokuk] by a charter with most unusual privileges."—F. G. Mather, *Early days of Mormonism* (*Lippincott's Magazine*, Aug., 1880).

ALSO IN: R. J. Britton, *Early days on the Grand river, and the Mormon war*.

In the midst of the troubles of Smith and his followers in Missouri, and before their removal to Nauvoo, there arose among them "the mysterious and much dreaded band that finally took the name of Danites, or sons of Dan, concerning which so much has been said while so little is known, some of the Mormons even denying its existence. But of this there is no question. Says Burton: 'The Danite band, a name of fear in the Mississippi Valley, is said by anti-Mormons to consist of men between the ages of 17 and 49. They were originally termed Daughters of Gideon, Destroying Angels—the gentiles say devils—and, finally, Sons of Dan, or Danites, from one of whom was prophesied he should be a serpent in the path. They were organized about 1837 under D. W. Patten, popularly called Captain Farnot, for the purpose of dealing as avengers of blood with gentiles; in fact they formed a kind of death society, desperadoes, thugs, hashshashiyun—in plain English, assassins in the name of the Lord. The Mormons declare categorically the whole and every particular to be the calumnious invention of the impostor and arch apostate, Mr. John C. Bennett. John Hyde, a seceder, states that the Danite band, or the United Brothers of Gideon, was organized on the 4th of July, 1838, and was placed under the command of the apostle David Patten, who for the purpose assumed the name of Captain Farnot. It is the opinion of some that the Danite band, or Destroying Angels as again they are called, was organized at the recommendation of the governor of Missouri as a means of self-defence against persecutions in that State.'—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific States*, v. 21, pp. 124-126.—'The Mormons first attracted national notice about the time they quitted Missouri to escape persecution and took refuge in Illinois. In that free State a tract of land was granted them and a charter too carelessly liberal in terms. The whole body, already numbering about 15,000, gathered into a new city of their own, which their prophet, in obedience to a revelation, named Nauvoo; here a body of militia was formed under the name of the Nauvoo legion; and Joe Smith, as mayor, military commander, and supreme head of the Church, exerted an authority almost despotic. The wilderness blossomed and rejoiced, and on a lofty height of this holy city was begun a grotesque temple, built of limestone, with huge monolithic pillars which displayed carvings of moons and suns. . . . Nauvoo was well laid out, with wide streets which sloped towards well-cultivated farms; all was thrift and sobriety, no spirituous liquors were drunk, and the colonists here, as in their former settlements, furnished the pattern of insect industry. The wonderful proselyting work of this new sect abroad had already begun, and recruits came over from the overplus toilers in the British factory towns. . . . But there was something in the methods of this sect, not to speak of the jealousy they excited by their prosperity, which bred them trouble here as everywhere else where they came in contact with American commonplace life. It was whispered that the hierarchy of impostors grew rich upon the toils of their simple followers. Polygamy had not yet received the

sanction of a divine revelation; and yet the first step towards it was practised in the theory of 'sealing wives' spiritually, which Smith had begun in some mysterious way that it baffled the gentile to discover. Sheriffs, too, were forbidden to serve civil process in Nauvoo without the written permission of its mayor. All these strange scandals of heathenish pranks, and more, besides, stirred up the neighboring gentiles, plain Illinois back-woodsmen; and the more so that, besides his 3,000 militia, the Mormon prophet controlled 6,000 votes, which, in the close Presidential canvass of 1844, might have been enough to decide the election. Joe Smith, indeed, whose Church nominated him for President, showed a fatal but thoroughly American disposition at this time to carry his power into politics. This king of plain speech, who dressed as a journeyman carpenter, suppressed a newspaper which was set up by seceding Mormons. When complaint was made he resisted Illinois process and proclaimed martial law; the citizens of the surrounding towns armed for a fight. Joe Smith was arrested and thrown into



BRIGHAM YOUNG.

jail at Carthage with his brother Hiram. The rumor spreading that the governor was disposed to release these prisoners, a disorderly band gathered at the jail and shot them [June 27, 1844]. Thus perished Smith, the Mormon founder. His death at first created terror and confusion among his followers, but Brigham Young, his successor, proved a man of great force and sagacity. The exasperated gentiles clamored loudly to expel these religious fanatics from Illinois as they had been expelled from Missouri; and finally, to prevent a civil war, the governor of the State took forcible possession of the holy city, with its unfinished temple, while the Mormon charter of Nauvoo was repealed by the legislature. The Mormons now determined [1846] upon the course which was most suited to their growth, and left American pioneer society to found their New Jerusalem on more enduring foundations west of the Rocky Mountains."—J. Schouler, *History of the United States*, v. 4, pp. 547-549.

ALSO IN: C. H. McClure, *History of Missouri*, pt. 2.—B. H. Roberts, *Missouri persecutions*.—J. H. Evans, *One hundred years of Mormonism*, pp. 1-283.—H. C. Smith, *Mormon troubles in Missouri* (*Missouri Historical Review*, July, 1910, pp. 238-251).—T. Ford, *History of Illinois*, ch. 8, 10-

11.—A. Davidson and B. Stuvé, *History of Illinois*, ch. 41.—J. Remy and J. Brenchley, *Journey to Great Salt Lake City*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 2-3.—R. F. Burton, *City of the Saints*, p. 350.

1846-1848.—Gentile attack on Nauvoo.—Exodus of "the Saints" into wilderness of the West.—Their settlement on Great Salt lake.—"During the winter of 1845-'6 the Mormons made the most prodigious preparations for removal. All the houses in Nauvoo, and even the temple, were converted into work-shops; and before spring more than 12,000 wagons were in readiness. The people from all parts of the country flocked to Nauvoo to purchase houses and farms, which were sold extremely low, lower than the prices at a sheriff's sale, for money, wagons, horses, oxen, cattle, and other articles of personal property which might be needed by the Mormons in their exodus into the wilderness. By the middle of May it was estimated that 16,000 Mormons had crossed the Mississippi and taken up their line of march with their personal property, their wives and little ones, westward across the continent to Oregon or California; leaving behind them in Nauvoo a small remnant of 1,000 souls, being those who were unable to sell their property, or who having no property to sell were unable to get away. The twelve apostles went first with about 2,000 of their followers. Indictments had been found against nine of them in the circuit court of the United States for the district of Illinois at its December term, 1845, for counterfeiting the current coin of the United States. The United States Marshal had applied to me [the writer being at that time Governor of Illinois] for a militia force to arrest them; but in pursuance of the amnesty agreed on for old offences, believing that the arrest of the accused would prevent the removal of the Mormons, and that if arrested there was not the least chance that any of them would ever be convicted, I declined the application unless regularly called upon by the President of the United States according to law. . . . It was notorious that none of them could be convicted; for they always commanded evidence and witnesses enough to make a conviction impossible."—T. Ford, *History of Illinois*, ch. 13.—"The Saints who had as yet been unable to leave Nauvoo continued to labour assiduously at the completion of the temple, so as to accomplish one of the most solemn prophecies of their well-beloved martyr. The sacred edifice was ultimately entirely finished, at the end of April, 1846, after having cost the Saints more than a million dollars. It was consecrated with great pomp on the 1st and 2nd of May, 1846. . . . The day after the consecration of the temple had been celebrated, the Mormons withdrew from the building all the sacred articles which adorned it, and satisfied with having done their duty in accomplishing, though to no purpose otherwise, a Divine command, they crossed the Mississippi to rejoin those who had gone before them. Nauvoo was abandoned. There remained within its deserted walls but some hundred families, whom the want of means and the inability to sell their effects had not allowed as yet to start upon the road to emigration. The presence of those who were thus detained, together with the bruit caused by the ceremony of dedication, raised the murmurs of the gentiles, and seemed to keep alive their animosity and alarm. Their eager desire to be entirely rid of the Mormons made them extremely sensitive to every idle story respecting the projects of the latter to return. They imagined that the Saints had only left in detachments to seek recruits among the red-skins, meaning to come

back with sufficient force once more to take possession of their property in Illinois. These apprehensions rose to such a pitch that the anti-Mormons plunged into fresh acts of illegality and barbarism. . . . On the 10th of September, 1846, an army of 1,000 men, possessing six pieces of artillery, started to begin the attack under the direction of a person named Carlin, and of the Reverend Mr. Brockman. Nauvoo had only 300 men to oppose to this force, and but five small cannon, made from the iron of an old steamboat. The fire opened on the afternoon of the 10th, and continued on the 11th, 12th and 13th of September." Every attack of the besiegers was repulsed, until they consented to terms under which the remnant of the Mormons was to evacuate the town at the end of five days. "The Mormons had only three men killed and a few wounded during the whole affair; the loss of their enemies is unknown, but it would seem that it was heavy. It was agreed that a committee of five persons should remain at Nauvoo to attend to the interests of the exiles, and on the 17th of September, while the enemy, to the number of 1,625, entered the city to plunder, the remnant of the Mormons crossed the Mississippi to follow 'the track of Israel towards the west.' . . . About the end of June, 1846, the first column of the emigrants arrived on the banks of the Missouri, a little above the point of confluence of this immense river with the Platte, in the country of the Pottawatamies, where it stopped to await the detachments in its rear. This spot, now known by the name of Council Bluffs, was christened Kanessville by the Mormons. . . . At this place, in the course of July, the federal government made an appeal to the patriotism of the Mormons, and asked them to furnish a contingent of 500 men for the Mexican war. Did the government wish to favour the Saints by affording them an opportunity of making money by taking service, or did it merely wish to test their fidelity? This we cannot decide. . . . The Saints generally regarded this levy as a species of persecution; however . . . they furnished a battalion of 520 men, and received \$20,000 for equipment from the war department." The headquarters of the emigration remained at Kanessville through the winter of 1846-1847, waiting for the brethren who had been left behind. There were several encampments, however, some of them about 200 miles in advance. The shelters contrived were of every kind—huts, tents, and caves dug in the earth. The suffering was considerable and many deaths occurred. The Indians of the region were Pottawatamies and Omahas, both hostile to the United States and therefore friendly to the Mormons, whom they looked upon as persecuted foes of the American nation. Brigham Young, the successor of Joseph Smith, had determined to lead his followers beyond the frontiers of the Louisiana Purchase, and therefore out of reach of persecution. "On the 14th of April [1847], Brigham Young and eight apostles, at the head of 143 picked men and 70 carts laden with grain and agricultural implements, started in search of Eden in the far-west. [Early in June they reached Fort Laramie, and there established a ferry, at which nine men were left to help the emigrants. (See also IOWA: 1846.)] . . . The 23rd of July, 1847, Orson Pratt, escorted by a small advance guard, was the first to reach the Great Salt Lake. He was joined the following day by Brigham Young and the main body of the pioneers. That day, the 24th of July, was destined to be afterwards celebrated by the Mormons as the anniversary of their deliverance. . . . Brig-

ham Young declared, by divine inspiration, that they were to establish themselves upon the borders of the Salt Lake, in this region, which was nobody's property, and wherein consequently his people could follow their religion without drawing upon themselves the hatred of any neighbours. He spent several weeks in ascertaining the nature of the country, and then fixed upon a site for the holy city. . . . When he had thus laid the foundations of his future empire, he set off on his return to Council Bluffs, leaving on the borders of the Salt Lake the greater portion of the companions who had followed him in his distant search. During the summer, a convoy of 566 wagons, laden with large quantities of grain, left Kaneshville and followed upon the tracks of the pioneers. . . . On their arrival at the spot indicated by the president of the Church, they set to work without a moment's repose. Land was tilled, trees and hedges planted, and grain sown before the coming frost." The main body of the emigrants, led by Brigham Young, moved from the banks of the Missouri about May 1, 1848, and arrived at the Salt lake the following autumn.—J. Remy and J. Brenchley, *Journey to Great-Salt-Lake City*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 4.—"On the afternoon of the 22d [August, 1847] a conference was held, at which it was resolved that the place should be called the City of the Great Salt Lake. The term 'Great' was retained for several years, until changed by legislative enactment. It was so named in contradistinction to Little Salt Lake, a term applied to a body of water some 200 miles to the south."—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 21, ch. 10.

ALSO IN: M. H. Egan, *Pioneering the West*.

1847.—Irrigation projects in Utah. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1847-1901.

1847-1920.—Later history.—Immigration fund.—Introduction of polygamy.—"In 1840 the so-called Perpetual Immigrating Fund Company was organized for the purpose of helping converts to Mormonism in Europe and the United States who had not the means to come to Utah; and hundreds of thousands of dollars of Church money were expended at an early day to bring immigrants across the oceans, plains and mountains. From 1860 to 1868 wagons were annually sent to the Missouri river after the poor. Each wagon, as a rule, was hauled by four yoke of cattle, or from two to four span of horses or mules. . . . About five hundred teams, partly mule teams and partly ox teams, were sent by the Church to the terminus of the Union Pacific Railroad up to 1868 to help the poor migrating saints to the valleys of Utah."—R. C. Webb, *Real Mormonism*, p. 134.—"The Book of Mormon, published in 1830, was as orthodox and conventional in its utterances on the marital relation and the punishments of God to man that should be visited upon their violators as were the sacred books and creeds of any of the Christian churches. . . . How then, came this ancient, this oriental, this Old Testament, this Mahommedan doctrine of polygamy to be promulgated—added to the other weighty doctrines the Mormon Church had placed upon its shoulders? History is perfectly clear about it. The prophet Joseph Smith had been dead eight years. The exodus from Nauvoo had taken place. The saints had established their new home in Salt Lake City. There had been, and were, rumors secretly passed about among the leaders that Joseph had believed, and some said, had lived, the doctrine of polygamy, yet few were prepared for the open promulgation of the doctrine, until on the 29th

day of August, 1852, Brigham Young announced in the Tabernacle that a 'Revelation on Plural Marriage' had been made to the prophet, Joseph Smith, at Nauvoo, and there written by him, July 12, 1843. The revelation was then read by Thomas Bullock, one of the elders of the Church."—G. W. James, *Utah, the land of blossoming valleys*, pp. 119, 120.—The doctrine of polygamy "aroused great discussion throughout the country, and resulted in various acts of Congress forbidding plural marriages. In 1890 President Woodruff issued a manifesto calling on all the Saints to 'refrain from contracting any marriages forbidden by the laws of the land.' Since that time such marriages have been prohibited by the church, although there have been cases where those already contracted have not been annulled. . . . The comparative isolation of the new location gave less occasion for such disturbances as had hitherto accompanied the history of the church, and permitted a more normal development of the community life. Active proselyting was carried on, and the number of converts increased rapidly. Brigham Young died in 1877, and was succeeded by John Taylor, who held the office of president for ten years. His successors in office have been Wilford Woodruff, Lorenzo Snow, and Joseph F. Smith."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, pt. 2, pp. 334-335.—The census of 1916 reported 462,329 members of both organizations (polygamous and non-polygamous) in the United States.—See also U.S.A.: 1894-1895; UTAH: 1846, and after.

1850.—Organization of Territory of Utah.—Settlement in Nevada. See UTAH: 1849-1850; NEVADA: 1767-1850.

1857-1859.—Rebellion in Utah.—Mountain Meadow massacre. See UTAH: 1857-1859.

1863-1884.—Settlements in Arizona. See ARIZONA: 1863-1884.

1922.—Colonies and missions.—Mormon colonies of importance are to be found in Mexico and Canada, as well as in the states of Arizona, Wyoming, Idaho, Colorado, New Mexico, Nevada, California, and a few others. In the middle and latter part of the nineteenth century the church did much to quiet its missionary activities in foreign countries, but many hundreds of converts were made. At first, all converts were expected to migrate to Utah, and a large fund was provided to aid them on their way to "the land of promise." In England and Holland especially, the number of people who undertook the journey reached into thousands, most of them women and girls. When the doctrine of polygamy was made public, active steps were taken in many countries to prevent the emigration of their people, especially the girls. Work had been begun in Liverpool in 1837, and a large body may still be found there, but emigrations were stopped. In Ireland and Scotland public opinion was against the missionaries, although a few converts were made; the book of Mormon, was translated into Italian in 1852; in Scandinavian countries the missionaries met with success until the governments took steps to prevent their entrance; in Germany all were expelled in 1852. The policy of the missionary leaders had to change after 1887, when the perpetual immigration fund ended, and the federal government forbade assisted immigration. Since that time, converts have not been urged to move to Utah, but churches are established, when possible, in their own countries.

ALSO IN: H. S. Salisbury, *Mormon war in Hancock County* (*Journal of Illinois State Historical Society*, July, 1915).—E. W. Tullidge, *History of*

Salt Lake City.—O. F. Whitney, *History of Utah*.

Coöperative polity.—"Nothing could be more eloquent of the industry and perseverance of the pioneers of Utah than the manner in which travelers, from 1850 to the present time, in describing their impressions of the state, have used the Biblical phrase, 'made the desert blossom as the rose.' What were the economic forces which brought about this transformation—the methods used, the underlying social causes? Too little consideration has been accorded these questions. . . . 'Is it not worth while,' asks Professor Ely, . . . 'to pass over the religious controversies connected with Mormonism and their outcome and examine into the achievements and manner of life of the Mormons, so far as these things relate to economic and social matters?' Within the limits thus laid out, one phase of such activities of the people of Utah stands out as more important and significant than the others—namely, their practice of coöperation. Not only did coöperation enter vitally into the economic life of the first settlers, but it has had a most far-reaching effect on their subsequent commercial and industrial affairs. . . . The coöperation practised among the Mormons is found to be of three kinds, each distinct from the other, but each a logical development of the preceding type. They are: first, a period of informal but nevertheless highly effective and efficient coöperation, extending from 1847 to 1868; second, the foundation and growth of coöperative stores from 1868 to approximately 1890; and third, the development of a system of coöperative industrial enterprises, beginning in 1890 and continuing until the present time. . . . Three elements have stood out as the underlying causes: first, the physiographic conditions; second, the religious organization of the Mormons; and third, Brigham Young. Mention has already been made of the arid conditions in Utah which led the pioneers to evolve irrigation. This was, of course, only the inevitable response to environmental influence, a natural functioning of the stern law of necessity. The irrigation system grew up because it had to; and coöperation came into being because it was found to be the sole means of furnishing the canals which irrigation required. But the mere physical conditions could not alone have been responsible for the coöperative system which arose. Other parts of the arid West have since been reclaimed without bringing forth such a method. The existence of coöperation in early Utah and its absence in neighboring states when physical conditions were identical must be accounted for by a difference in social structure. In near-by states the colonists acted individually and were not connected with each other by any particular interest, while in Utah there existed a compact social body closely united by common ties and easily capable of being used as a vehicle to cope with general needs. This common bond was the peculiar church organization and religion of the Mormon people. . . . If the Mormon leaders are to be given a measure of credit for instituting coöperation, by far the most of it is due to Brigham Young. He it was who perceived the ability of the Mormon people to become coöperators and rendered that ability concretely tangible. Shrewd, forceful, energetic, and far-sighted, he was preëminently fitted to lead his pioneer people. . . . And now, finally, what shall be said of the present condition of Mormon coöperation? . . . The Mormons in their colonizing schemes provide their irrigation systems in substantially the same manner as in pioneer times, by uniting endeavor. The numerous small

retail stores are yet performing much the same role of commercial usefulness as at first. And it can hardly be denied that the Mormon industrial and commercial system, which largely originated in their coöperative schemes, has made them a prosperous and independent people. It is natural that the Mormons, viewing their attempts at coöperation in the light of economic results, are not disposed to be dissatisfied with them."—H. Gardner, *Coöperation among the Mormons* (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, May, 1917).—"One of the main industries inaugurated under the guidance of the Church was the founding of co-operative stores in nearly all the settlements of the saints. Thus in 1869 the great Zion's Co-operative Mercantile Institution was founded in Salt Lake City and for many years it was known as the parent store, supplying scores of co-operative stores established in the different settlements in the Rocky Mountains."—R. C. Webb, *Real Mormonism*, p. 133.

MORNY, Charles Auguste Louis Joseph, Duc de (1811-1865), French political leader. See FRANCE: 1851: Plot of the coup d'état.

MORO, province in the southern part of the Philippine islands. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1903-1913.

MOROCCO, Ancient. See MAURITANIA.

MOROCCO: Geographic description.—Area.—**Population.**—**Government.**—Maroc, or Morocco, the name given by Europeans to the empire of the Moorish Sultan as a whole, is not so applied by the natives of the country. According to them, the Maroc or country of Marrakech, the Marruccos of the Spaniards, is only one of three States submissive to the authority of the Sultan-Shereef. At the north the kingdom of Fez, at the southwest the oasis of Tafilet, make up his real empire. Beyond these, vast territories occupied by numerous independent tribes, stretch over the space that is marked on our maps with the name Morocco. Its inhabitants have no common name for it as a whole. Their country, indicated in a general manner, with no precise delimitation, is the Maghreb el-Aksa,—that is to say, "The Extreme West."—Based on E. Reclus, *Nouvelle géographie universelle*, v. 11, p. 653.—See also AFRICA: Map.—"Politically the Moorish Empire is in principle one, but is divided into three parts—the so-called zones. First, there is the tiny international zone of Tangier, at the north-west corner. Then there is the Spanish zone, mostly on the north, but including also a small portion of the extreme south. The remainder is the French zone [the French Protectorate]. . . . Strange as is this political situation of the country, the physical and ethnological story which the map depicts is no less paradoxical. As it is separated by seas from Europe, and joined by land to Africa, we are apt to regard Morocco as belonging to the African continent, and its peoples as Africans, or, at any rate, as Asiatic immigrants. The real African continent, however, begins at the Atlas Mountains only, and Morocco north thereof is really a part of Europe, detached at some remote age, but European in its elements and features. . . . The same may be said of the inhabitants. A small proportion—probably less than 5 per cent.—are negroes, or partly of negro descent, . . . but the rest, whether Arabs or Berbers or Jews, belong to the Caucasian branch of the human race. Moreover, year by year it is becoming more and more clear that the Arab invasion itself—which gave all north-west Africa so Asiatic a colour—was the work of comparatively small numbers of people, and that the immense majority of the inhabitants

of Morocco, even of those who speak Arabic, are really Arabized Berbers and not of pure Arab origin."—J. M. MacLeod, *Achievements of France in Morocco* (*Geographical Journal*, Aug., 1918).—"The area of Morocco is about 231,500 square miles . . . and the estimated population is 6 millions, of whom nearly 5½ millions are in the French Protectorate. . . . There are about 88,000 Europeans, of whom half are French, one-fifth are Spanish, and about a thousand are British. The largest city is Fez, the northern capital, with over 100,000 people. Of nearly equal size is Marrakesh (Morocco), the southern capital, while the port of Casablanca, the centre from which French influence has developed, is third, with a population of over 80,000, including nearly 40,000 Europeans. Rabat, on the west coast, and Meknes, which are also native capitals, have each nearly 40,000 people, and the Sultan is at present (1921) in residence at Rabat."—E. G. R. Taylor, *Business man's geography*, pp. 341-342.—"The Sherifian Empire is a theocratic state. The Sultan, as 'Descendant of the Prophet', enjoys absolute power; his religious authority is one with his political authority, as the religious law is not distinguished from the civil law. The Sultan governs with the aid of his ministers, or viziers, at the head of whom is the Grand Vizier, charged with internal affairs. The entire administration of the country proceeds from the court of notables who assemble every morning in the Sultan's palace, each sitting in his little *benika*, or audience chamber, opening off the principal court. This administration has been preserved in its original form by the French authorities. The Sultan retains all his prerogatives; he exercises his office with all its traditional apparatus. The personnel of the palace, the sherifian family, and the royal *barem* are maintained by a civil list of 3,500,000 pesetas. The viziers also continue their functions according to past custom. But certain of the old offices of the *Makhzan* have become obsolete; for example that of the Vizier of Foreign Affairs. His seat is now filled by the French Resident General, the sole intermediary between the Sultan and foreign powers. Furthermore, several technical departments have been created—such as those of Public Works, Public Lands, Finance, Agriculture, and Postal Service. These are entrusted to French functionaries, who thus in reality serve as sherifian ministers. Administration of the towns remains with the pashas, delegated by the Sultan, and those of the tribes with the *kuids*."—A. de Tarde, *Work of France in Morocco* (*Geographical Review*, July, 1919).

647-1860. — Arab conquest. — Conquests in Spain.—Attacks by Spaniards and Portuguese.—Filali dynasty.—The tide of Mohammedan conquest, sweeping across North Africa (see CALIPHATE: 647-700), burst upon Morocco in 698. "Eleven years were required to overcome the stubborn resistance of the Berbers, who, however, when once conquered, submitted with a good grace and embraced the new creed with a facility entirely in accordance with the adaptive nature they still exhibit. Mingled bands of Moors and Arabs passed over into Spain, under Tarik and Moossa, and by the defeat of Roderic at the battle of Guadalete, in 711, the foundation of their Spanish empire was laid [see SPAIN: 711-713], on which was afterwards raised the magnificent fabric of the Western Khalifate. This is not the place to dwell on the glories of their dominion. . . . Suffice it to say, that a reflection of this glory extended to Morocco, where the libraries and universities of Fez and Morocco City told of the learning in-

duced by wise men, Moorish and Christian alike, who pursued their studies without fear of interruption on the score of religious belief. The Moors in the days of their greatness, be it observed, were far more liberal-minded than the Spanish Catholics afterwards showed themselves, and allowed Christians to practise their own religion in their own places of worship—in striking contrast to the fanaticism of their descendants in Morocco at the present day. . . . The intervals of repose under the rule of powerful and enlightened monarchs, during which the above-mentioned institutions flourished, were nevertheless comparatively rare, and the general history of Morocco during the Moorish dominion in Spain seems to have been one monotonous record of strife between contending tribes and dynasties. Early in the tenth century, the Berbers got the mastery of the Arabs, who never afterwards appear in the history of the country except under the general name of Moors. Various principalities were formed [11-13th centuries (see ALMORAVIDES; ALMOHADES)], of which the chief were Fez, Morocco, and Tafflet, though now and again, and especially under the Marin dynasty, in the 13th century, the two former were consolidated into one kingdom. In the 15th century the successes of the Spaniards caused the centre of Moorish power to shift from Spain to Morocco. In the declining days of the Hispano-Moorish empire, and after its final extinction, the Spaniards and Portuguese revenged themselves on their conquerors by attacking the coast-towns of Morocco, many of which they captured. It is not improbable that they would eventually have possessed themselves of the entire country, but for the disastrous defeat of King Sebastian in 1578, at the battle of the Three Kings, on the banks of the Wad El Ma Hassen, near Alcazar [see PORTUGAL: 1570-1580]. This was the turning-point in Moorish history, and an African Creasy would have to rank the conflict at Alcazar among the decisive battles of the continent. With the rout and slaughter of the Portuguese fled the last chance of civilizing the country, which from that period gradually relapsed into a state of isolated barbarism."—H. E. M. Stutfield, *El Mughreb*, ch. 16.—In 1664, the Filali dynasty, which still keeps a shadowy hold on the throne, was founded by Rashid II, a reputed descendant of the prophet. Ottoman power in Morocco disappeared, and the sultans, or sherifs, established the form of rule which, in appearance at least, is still maintained. The early rulers of this dynasty were excessively bloodthirsty, especially Ismail, brother of Rashid, who reigned from 1672 to 1677. Ismail's death was followed by a period of turmoil, during which sultans were set up and pulled down by the black troops known as Bokharis. At length, in 1757, Mohammed XVI, a grandson of Ismail, succeeded Abd-Allah, and reigned wisely and well for over thirty years. After his death a period of misrule again followed and lasted until Suleiman, one of his sons, gained power. During the reign of Suleiman, piracy was abolished, and although Abd-ur-Rahman, his successor, tried to revive it in 1830, he was unsuccessful in the attempt. "For a period following the battle of Trafalgar British influence was paramount in Morocco, notwithstanding that in 1826-7 the British blockaded the Moorish coast, but the conquest of Algeria by the French caused a great impression in Morocco, and the Sultan did all in his power to assist the famous Abdulkader in his resistance to the French invaders. In revenge Marshal Bugeaud seized the town of Oujda, near the Algerian frontier, in 1844, and

subsequently routed the Moorish army on the banks of the Isly. At the same time, and for the same reason, a French fleet under the command of the Prince de Joinville bombarded Tangier and Mogador. Again, in 1851, after a series of diplomatic incidents, the French bombarded Sallee. It was with Spain that the next trouble arose. There had been serious incidents on the boundaries of Spain's 'presidios' on the north coast of Morocco, and the Sultan—Mulai Abderrahman [or Abd-ur-Rahman]—was either unwilling or unable to put an end to Native aggression. At last the situation became unbearable. The Spaniards, in 1859, invaded the Tetuan districts from Ceuta. It took their army of 40,000 men six months to reach Tetuan (25 miles). The treaty of Oued Ras (1860) [made with Mohammed XVII, the successor to Abd-ur-Rahman] followed, by which Spain received an indemnity of £4,000,000, as well as a rectification of the boundaries of the 'presidios.'—W. B. Harris, and W. Cozens-Hardy, *Modern Morocco*, p. 27.

1681-1684.—French invasion of Morocco. See BARBARY STATES: 1664-1684.

1785-1801.—Piratical adventures in Mediterranean.—Tribute exacted for navigation.—Treaty with the United States. See BARBARY STATES: 1785-1801.

1799-1856.—Commercial treaties.—Exterritoriality.—"Trade in Morocco had not always laboured under the disadvantages which existed in 1855. So far back as 1725 Sultan Mulai Abdallah encouraged commerce by imposing a system of moderate duties, free of all monopolies and contracts—and with regard to the garrison of Gibraltar and the British fleet, frequently granted supplies free of all duties. In 1801 Great Britain entered into a commercial Treaty with Morocco—renewed in 1845—but without any express stipulations as to duties; the Treaty merely confirming to Great Britain all privileges granted to Spain in a Treaty made between that country and Morocco in 1799. Contrary, however, to the spirit of this Treaty a system had gradually arisen of monopolies, confiscation of products, high duties, and a constant alteration of tariffs, and the prohibition of articles of export without any cogent reason for such prohibition being given. A serious decline in commerce since 1801 had therefore ensued. . . . [John Drummond Hay, at that time British representative, succeeded in making a treaty which was ratified by the Sultan in December, 1856. By this treaty Great Britain received the right to appoint consuls to Morocco; British subjects were given the right to reside there with freedom from taxes, forced loans, and from search unless with the consent of the consul.] All criminal causes and all civil differences between British subjects were to be decided by the Consul without any interference on the part of the Moorish authorities. In cases between a Moor and a British subject, the matter was to be referred to the authorities of the country to which the defendant belonged; if a Moor, the trial was to take place before the Kadi, the British Consul being present; if a British subject, before the Consul, the Governor or Kadi being present. The Consul-General and the Moorish Minister for Foreign Affairs were constituted judges in the last resort—as a Court of Appeal. Provision was also made in case of war between the two Powers for the security and protection of the interests of their subjects. The commercial advantages gained were, amongst others, the abolition of monopolies . . . on most articles of trade, and the right to export, under fixed and more reasonable duties, most of the products of the Empire. . . . By an article in

the new Treaty, the Sultan was also bound to repress and punish piracy, and to aid Her Majesty's Government in their efforts to do the same. This convention was hailed with much satisfaction by British merchants, and was eventually adopted by all other nations."—F. W. de Winton, ed., *Memoir of Sir John Drummond Hay*, pp. 167, 182-183.

ALSO IN: T. H. Weir, *Shieks of Morocco in sixteenth century*.

1803-1805.—War with the United States. See BARBARY STATES: 1803-1805.

1843.—Disastrous war with France. See BARBARY STATES: 1830-1846.

1873-1894.—Reign of Mulai Hassan.—Tribal warfare.—"In 1873 Mulai Hassan, one of . . . [the sons of Mohammed XVII] succeeded. It took him 10 years to consolidate his kingdom and to obtain undisputed possession of the country. Even after that period he was constantly engaged upon military expeditions in parts of the country that had thrown off his yoke. In 1893 he crossed the Atlas from Fez and visited Taflet, but by a long series of delays, brought about by difficulties with the tribes and by a shortage of transport, his return was retarded until midwinter had set in. In re-crossing the Atlas to Marrakesh, in keen frosts and deep snows, his army suffered terrible privations. Men and animals died by scores from exposure, from accidents on the mountain tracks, and from lack of food. The whole road was strewn with carcasses and abandoned material, and the Berber tribes inhabiting these inhospitable regions at an altitude of 8,000 ft. above the sea secured a vast haul of booty. Mulai Hassan never recovered. A few months later he set out from Marrakesh for the Tadla districts and died in his camp (1894). He was succeeded by his young son, Mulai Abdul Aziz."—W. B. Harris and W. Cozens-Hardy, *Modern Morocco*, p. 28.

1894.—War with Spain. See SPAIN: 1885-1896.

1895-1906.—Gradual extension of French-Algerian boundary into Moroccan territory.—"A treaty—March 13, 1895—was negotiated between Great Britain and Morocco under which, in order to complete the unchallenged encircling of Moorish empire by France, the British Government agree to the purchase by the Moorish government of the property of the Northwest African Company at Terfaya, better known as Cape Juby. This treaty recognized the land between Wad Graa and Bojador as belonging to Morocco. . . . [By this time nothing appeared more certain than the ultimate acquisition of Morocco by France], at first under a directorate and later under annexation by the French Republic. In preparation therefore France diligently subsidized tribes on its border, gave its aid and countenance to the most conspicuous of Moslem ecclesiastical potentates in north Africa, the Sheriff of Wazan, and educated his sons in Algeria, giving them commissions in the Algerian service in the expectation of furnishing a pretender. They suffered from the usual effect of a European education on Moslem youth, but when a pretender appeared 10 years ago in the mountains bordering on Algeria, Bouhamara, who so narrowly escaped seizing power in Morocco and was executed this year at Fez, his payments were made in freshly minted French gold for arms and supplies which mysteriously appeared. . . . [Germany began early to interfere.] German scientific journals teemed with papers upon the country, which rapidly made them the chief source of opinion upon a subject which had long been exclusively held by French and English explorers. France on the other hand steadily continued to extend its frontier, occupied in 1901 Igli and Tuat, holding one of the great

caravan routes out of Morocco to the southeast, and in 1903 an agreement between France, Spain and England provided for a Moorish debt, of which ten million pesetas was yielded to Spain, fifty million francs to France, and England made a party to the transaction under which France was to have the right to collect Moorish customs in case there was a default in the interest, which was reasonably certain. There instantly followed over the entire Moorish empire a series of outbreaks which made roads even two days' journey out of Tangiers dangerous and closed much of south Morocco to European travelers, though German merchants still passed to and fro on the coast between Morocco City or Fez without challenge. For two years longer these opposing theories of the position of Morocco continued. Germany, by one accident and another, asserted its independence of all agreements among the three powers which had so long monopolised the diplomatic relations of Morocco, and France continued to act as the French foreign minister declared, as a country which had 'particular' and exclusive rights in the empire."—T. Williams, *Diplomatic relations of Morocco (Journal of Race Development, Oct., 1914)*.—The boundary between Algiers and Morocco had not been settled since the treaty of 1845. But, in the interim, France had been steadily pushing southward, and had brought under her influence a sparsely settled district of some thousands of square miles. In 1906 the railway had reached Beni Ounif, a short distance from Fig hig. At this time Charles Jonart, governor-general of Algiers, learned that emissaries from Fez were telling the frontier tribes that Germany would assist them to force out the French from the territories which they were occupying. Taking with him General Lyautey, Jonart immediately set out on a ceremonious visit to the tribes on the southern border. He received the formal submission of the chiefs, and before his return visited officially the great Zaouia, or religious center of Kenadsa toward the west.

1901-1904.—French diplomacy in Morocco.—"France's ancient influence over Morocco had disappeared with much else amid the disasters of 1870. In the two concluding years of last century it began to revive, and in the opening years of the present one an ambitious and impetuous Minister sought to galvanise it into strenuous activity. In March 1901 M. Delcassé sent a vigorous remonstrance to the Sultan in respect to the attacks he alleged French convoys on the Algerian-Moroccan frontier were subjected to by tribes owing allegiance to the Sultan. The latter replied that he had often suggested a delimitation of the frontier and was prepared to play his part in carrying it out in conjunction with the French authorities in Algiers. In April a squabble, whose origin appears to have been purely personal, occurred on Moroccan territory between a Moor and a Frenchman called Pouzet. M. Pouzet was killed. Thereupon the French Minister at Tangier threatened to send for two French battleships. In June 'compensation' for the affair was paid, and the Sultan despatched an embassy to Paris, where an arrangement was signed accentuating the close neighbourhood . . . of the two Powers and the need for 'consolidating the links of friendship between the two Governments,' on a basis of 'respect for the integrity of the Shereefian empire,' and M. Delcassé wrote to the French Minister at Tangier: 'You should make the Sultan feel that it depends upon himself to possess in us friends the most sincere, the most anxious to uphold the integrity of his power, the most able to preserve him, if necessary, from certain dangers. Our loyalty, as well as our interests,

are a guarantee to him that we shall not encroach upon it.' But while M. Delcassé was writing 'integrity' and 'loyalty,' in Paris they were talking 'Protectorate,' and Prince Radolin was closely questioning the Marquis de Noailles (France's Ambassador in Berlin) on the point. German watchfulness had, in fact, been aroused, and M. Delcassé clearly realised at that time that it must be reckoned with. He had large ideas, and he straightway sought to put them into effect. The years 1901 and 1902 witnessed a brisk exchange of communications between Paris, Berlin and Madrid, all based upon the division of Morocco into spheres of influence which should reconcile the interests of the three Powers. An agreement in that sense was on the point of being concluded in November 1902 when Spain, probably acting under British diplomatic pressure, withdrew at the last moment. What ensued during the next twelve months is still a closely kept secret. That the steering-gear of French diplomacy had in that interval completely altered the course of the French Ship of State became apparent with the publication of the Anglo-French Convention of the 8th of April 1904. Its text was not communicated to Germany by M. Delcassé for three weeks on the pretext of an ambassadorial indisposition. M. Delcassé had, in homely language, left Germany on the shelf, and the seeds of a growing estrangement between that Power and Britain, destined to bring forth a plentiful harvest, had been sown in fruitful ground."—E. D. Morel, *National interest in the Franco-German dispute (Nineteenth Century and After, Nov., 1911)*.

1903.—State of affairs in Moorish sultanate.—Abd el Aziz, the young sultan.—"Regarded as a Moorish ruler and leader, the late Sultan, Mulai Hassan, was a strong man, almost, perhaps, a great man. . . . Mulai Hassan had a companion of his right hand: Ba Hamed [Bahamed], the Grand Wazeer. In them Morocco could boast the possession of two strong men; crude, narrow of vision, even brutal and merciless, if judged by European standards, yet genuinely strong men. The greater of them died, and his subordinate successfully hid the fact (though the Court was journeying at the time) from all Morocco, masquerading as one in close attendance upon a Sultan whose corpse, as a fact, was tied in its litter, until city walls were reached, preparations made, and the succession of the youth Abd el Aziz assured. Be it remembered that Ba Hamed, the survivor, was a strong man in his own right. Young Abd el Aziz [who succeeded his father in 1894] was docile perforce, and Ba Hamed ruled, without pity, with greed, and quite unhampered by what Europe calls honour or justice."—A. J. Dawson, *Morocco, the Moors and the powers (Fortnightly Review, Feb., 1903)*.—"The political importance of Morocco may be said to have begun in 1900, when the young Sultan, Mulai Abdul Aziz, released by death from the tutelage of his powerful grand vizier, Bou Ahmed [or Bahamed] took the reins of government into his own hands. Up till this period the Makhzen (Moorish Government) had offered a firm and impenetrable front to all European attempts to obtain influence or territory at the expense of the country, and Morocco still possessed its integrity, threatened, perhaps, but as yet intact. With the death of Bou Ahmed things changed. The stern, cruel man who had put down rebellion and practised every form of barbarity and extortion, gave place to the pleasure-loving youth, Mulai Abdul Aziz. The viziers, seeing their opportunity to govern Morocco on their own lines, with a natural profit to themselves, set to work to turn the thoughts of their

lord and master to trivial things. It was not difficult. Photographers, firework-makers, and a dozen other professionals of all kinds flocked to the court. Meanwhile a semblance of more serious things was being maintained, for the British Government had proposed to the Sultan the introduction of reforms. In 1901 a Moorish special ambassador was sent to London and Berlin, and another to Paris. The former achieved nothing, except to interest the public in his personality, the latter settled in a more or less unsatisfactory way the question of the Algerian frontier with Morocco. Mulai Abdul Aziz had now been some six years in the southern capital, but he reached Fez early in 1902, and at once took in hand the proposed reforms. He was genuine in his endeavours, but had no one to assist him, except in his wild extravagances. For a time things seemed to be going well, and in October the Sultan decided to leave the northern capital for Rabat. While on the journey news reached him of the revolt of the Berber tribes, and he hurried back to Fez with his army. Bou Hamara had been proclaimed Sultan, and ruled all the country east of Fez. An army hastily sent against him suffered a colossal defeat on December 22, but the rebels refrained from attacking the capital. During the whole of 1903 the rebellion continued with varying successes and failures. At times the Sultan seemed inclined to energy, but always fell back under the influence of his purveyors of European goods, on which he spent large fortunes, only thereby increasing the spirit of unrest in the country. All idea of reform had meanwhile been abandoned."—W. B. Harris and W. Cozens-Hardy, *Modern Morocco*, pp. 29-30.

1903-1904.—Appearance of the Mahdi, Bu Hamara, as a leader of insurrection.—In 1903 there appeared in Morocco one of the prophetic pretenders called Mahdis, of whom so many have arisen in the Moslem world, to take advantage of occasions of religious excitement, and to lead a rising of wild tribes. This Moorish Mahdi, known as Bu Hamara, was helped to a leadership of insurrection by an incident which greatly stirred the religious temper of tribes wherever known. An English missionary was killed at Fez, and the murderer, flying to a sanctuary of special sanctity, was pursued thereto by the sultan's guards, and slain within the sacred bounds. Against this sacrilege, committed to satisfy hated Christians, Bu Hamara roused the country, preaching extermination of all Christians within it. The insecure throne of Abd el Aziz was made more insecure, English influence in Morocco was shaken, the French frontiers east and south were endangered, and Bu Hamara's revolt appears to have had much to do with the producing of all that followed,—in the Anglo-French agreement of 1904, the Algeiras conference, the dethronement of Abd el Aziz, etc.

1904.—Declarations of England and France concerning Morocco in agreements of the Entente of 1904. See FRANCE: 1904-1906; ENTENTE CORDIALE.

1904-1909.—Exploits of El Raisuli.—Kidnapping and ransoming of Perdicaris and Varley.—Capture and ransom of Kaid Sir Harry MacLean.—One of the chiefs in that mountainous strip of northern Morocco, nearly parallel to the Mediterranean, which is called "The Riff," played a startlingly troublesome part in Moroccan history for four or five years. His name was Mulai Ahmed ben Mohammed, but he was commonly designated in all news-mentions of his doings by his title,—El Raisuli, chieftain of a clan. The first exploit which made this title familiar to all the world was in May, 1904, when he kidnapped, from their resi-

dence near Tangier, a naturalized American and an Englishman, Mr. Ion Perdicaris and his stepson, Mr. Varley, carrying them into the mountains and holding them captive until he had extorted a ransom of \$70,000, despite the utmost efforts of France, Great Britain, and the United States, with the aid of the Sultan, to obtain their release on less humiliating terms. In 1906, encouraged by the success of Raisuli the tribes became active in hostility. "The bandit Raisuli had become more powerful than ever, and the Shereefian troops were never sent against him. It was even suspected that the Moroccan Government was using him as a means to stir up trouble, and thus check to some extent the advance of the Europeans. . . . French marines landing to obtain fresh water were fired upon; an outbreak against the Jews was staged at Mogador; and the French government was constantly in receipt of reports concerning the unchecked hostilities of the Moroccan tribes along the Algerian frontier. By the first of November, the [Algeiras] Act had not yet been ratified by all the Powers; France, Spain and Switzerland had not yet decided upon their officers for the police; the bandit Raisuli had complete control of the village of Arzila in the vicinity of Tangier, after having killed some of the guards and chased out the others; the false prophet Bu-Hamara was as powerful as ever, and a new contestant for the throne had come forth in the person of Hafid, the brother of Abdul Aziz. . . . [Toward the end of the year the French sent a naval expedition to Tangier] after notifying Spain and asking her cooperation. . . . Notice was also sent to the Powers that the expedition was being sent with no intention of disembarking unless such troubles should arise as would render an immediate policing imperative. . . . The arrival of the naval expedition finally aroused the Sultan to action, and he forthwith despatched his minister of war in personal command of an improvised army, with orders to place the city of Tangier under 'the shadow of security,' and to permit the execution of the reforms of Algeiras. Raisuli seemed little disturbed, and even attempted to arrest a Frenchman while the Sultan's troops were on the march. . . . Meantime Raisuli had left Tangier and fortified himself at Linat. The Sultan's troops decided to follow him, but when they arrived Raisuli had departed."

—G. H. Stuart, *French foreign policy*, pp. 228-232.

—His successes failed to satisfy the audacious brigand, and in July, 1907, he laid hands on another important hostage, this time a British officer, Sir Harry MacLean, who had been long in the service of the sultan of Morocco, as military adviser, with the title of Kaid. Kaid MacLean ventured to visit the brigand in his mountain retreat for some negotiation, and was detained in pawn. Raisuli held this notable captive until the following February, and released him then on receipt of \$25,000, cash down, with a pledge of \$75,000 more at the end of three years, if he gave no fresh trouble within that time. Meanwhile, he and twenty-eight of his family were to be under British protection. Before this transaction was closed a new sultan had won the Moroccan throne (as will be explained below) and he thought it wiser to employ the energies of Raisuli officially than to try to maintain a contest of authority with so unmanageable a subject. Accordingly, in February, 1909, Raisuli was appointed governor of twelve tribes in Northern Morocco, and became one of the most respectable representatives of government in the last of the Barbary states.

1905-1906.—German hostility to Anglo-French agreement.—Kaiser's speech at Tangier.—International Conference at Algeiras.—Resulting

act.—“Early in 1905 Germany intervened for the first time in Morocco affairs, protesting that as she was not a party to the agreement of the previous year her attitude toward Morocco was not affected thereby. [See also GERMANY: 1905-1906.] On March 31 the German Emperor landed in Tangier and visited the German Legation, where he was met by the Sultan's delegates. He stated that he would allow no attempt on the integrity of Morocco, and proffered financial aid on behalf of the German Government. His visit was followed by a German special mission to the Sultan. In May there were French, British, German and Spanish Special Missions at Fez. The British Mission was under instructions to aid France's policy, and actively supported the French Minister. Germany meanwhile had proposed an International Conference on the Morocco question, though outwardly the idea was supposed to have originated with the Sultan. . . . On July 10 M. Rouvier announced that the French Government had accepted the idea of a Conference. . . . A programme for a scheme of reform to be proposed was drawn up by the Powers, and accepted by Morocco in October. The Conference met in January, 1906, and the Act of Algeiras was signed on April 7. The state of the country rendered its being immediately put into action impossible. Rebellion existed on every side. Outrages took place, and Europeans were attacked in various parts of the country.”—W. B. Harris and W. Cozens-Hardy, *Modern Morocco*, pp. 30-31.—See also FRANCE: 1904-1906; U. S. A.: 1905-1906.

1907.—Protest against French rule.—Becomes cause of friction between Germany and France. See FRANCE: 1906-1909: Presidency of Armand Fallières.

1907-1909.—Mob-murder of Dr. Mauchamp.—Conflict at Casablanca.—Campaign against the tribes.—Dethronement of Sultan Abd-el-Aziz.—Friction between France and Germany.—Settlement by arbitration at The Hague.—“The Sultan, relying upon the lack of unity visible in the international action, became indifferent to French demands. . . . As Abdul Aziz became more dilatory, his subjects became more openly hostile. On March 8, at Fez, the capital of Morocco, a French engineer was attacked by the populace and very seriously injured before he succeeded in making his escape. On March 10, Dr. Mauchamp, an eminent French surgeon, in charge of the French dispensary in Marrakesh, was murdered by a mob. . . . A cruiser was despatched to Tangier, and on March 25, the Council of Ministers decided that Algerian troops [under General Lyautey] should occupy Oudja on the Moroccan frontier, until suitable reparation had been made. When it was learned that the Governor of Marrakesh had made no attempt either to send assistance to Dr. Mauchamp, although he had warning of the excitement of the populace, or to apprehend those guilty of the outrage when the murder was reported, France demanded his dismissal and imprisonment, in addition to an indemnity to the victim's family. The excellent record that Dr. Mauchamp had achieved, and the unselfish nature of his work, made his murder seem the more outrageous. . . . [On July 31, 1907, an outbreak occurred in Casablanca] in which nine Europeans were massacred, three French, three Italians, two Spaniards, and one unidentified. Again France was forced to send a squadron, and this time it was accompanied by a landing force under General Drude, with orders to seize the city and its suburbs, reestablish order and remain until the police should be organized. Spain was asked to cooperate with an equal contingent. When the forces attempted to land they were treacherously

attacked and six were wounded, one an officer. The war-ships in the harbor [French and Spanish] thereupon bombarded the town, sparing as far as possible, the European houses. Before the town was completely invested the French troops suffered fourteen casualties. The French then turned their attention to the organization of the police, but when assurances were demanded from the Moroccan Minister of War that these officers would be safe from assassination at the hands of their own soldiers, he would not give it. Thereupon the two governments decided that a temporary police must be organized from their own effectives, and the Powers signatory of the Act were notified to this effect. To complicate the situation, Mouley-Hafid, the elder brother of the Sultan, now raised the banner of a Holy War and some of the western tribes immediately enrolled under his banner. Before the end of August he was proclaimed Sultan in Marrakesh, the ancient capital of Morocco, thus giving him an excellent strategical position to work from. Abdul Aziz, becoming worried at the progress of the revolt, removed his court to Rabat, where he might be able to call upon the warships of the Powers in case of an emergency.”—G. H. Stuart, *French foreign policy*, pp. 233-234, 236-237.—“The news of these events increased the anarchy elsewhere, and Mulai Hafid was proclaimed in other parts of the country and in Fez. . . . In August Mulai Abdul Aziz set out for Marrakesh, but his forces were defeated, largely by the treachery of his own troops, as he was nearing the southern capital. Immediately after the receipt of this news Mulai Hafid was proclaimed at Tangier. He undertook in letters to the foreign representatives to abide by treaties and to keep to the terms of the Act of Algeiras. He also accepted responsibility for the debts of the Makhzen, except in reference to such as were the personal debts of his predecessor. During this whole period there was constant friction between the French and Germans. [See also U. S. A.: 1905-1906; ENGLAND: 1912.] . . . In November [1908] Mulai Abdul Aziz abdicated, ceding the throne to his brother, Mulai Hafid, whose position, however, was no sinecure, as he had to face at one and the same time the tribes who had put him on the throne on the understanding that he would carry out an anti-European policy, and the Powers of Europe by whose treaties he had undertaken to abide.”—W. B. Harris and W. Cozens-Hardy, *Modern Morocco*, p. 32.—The direction of government was assumed formally by Mulai Hafid. His authority had soon become established so fully that the German government addressed a note to the Powers proposing an immediate recognition of it. France and Spain objected, insisting that Mulai Hafid must confirm existing treaties, accept responsibility for the debts of the previous régime, give pledges of indemnity for the Casablanca outbreak, disavow the “Holy War” which he had countenanced and which had given him his success, and take effective measures for securing the safety of foreigners in the Empire. Their objection was approved generally; Germany assented to the requirements proposed, and it was not until Mulai Hafid had satisfied them that he obtained recognition as the legitimate sovereign of Morocco. This was given in the following note, handed to his representative on the 5th of January, 1909, by the *doyen* of the Diplomatic Body at Tangier:

“The signatory Governments of the Act of Algeiras have received the letter which Mulai Hafid sent to them through the agency of the Diplomatic Body at Tangier in reply to their *communiqué* of November 18. The Governments

represented in Morocco received with satisfaction this reply, in which they saw a proof that the explanations which they formulated in their Note of November 18, in the interest of the relations of friendship and confidence which they desire to maintain with the sovereign authority of the Shereefian Empire, are in accordance with the views of Mulai Hafid. In consequence the signatory Powers of the Act of Algeciras have decided to recognize his Majesty Mulai Hafid as legitimate Sultan of Morocco, and have charged the *doyen* of the Diplomatic Body at Tangier to notify their recognition of him to the representatives of his Majesty in that town."

Before this settlement was reached an incident had occurred at Casablanca on September 15th, 1908, which irritated the chronic sensitiveness of feeling between Germany and France. Five or six soldiers of the Foreign Legion in French service at Casablanca, including three Germans, deserted, and the German consulate attempts to protect the Germans when their arrest was undertaken by French gendarmes. There was some struggle, but the arrest was accomplished, and the demand of the consul for the release of the three Germans was refused. Germany demanded satisfaction for the treatment of her consul. France maintained that satisfaction was due to herself for the interference of the consul with her military rights; but offered to submit the affair to The Hague Tribunal for arbitration. Germany was willing to arbitrate the questions involved if France would first express regret for the official conduct on her side of the matter. France in reply suggested expressions of regret by both parties; and on these terms, supposedly vindicating national dignity on each side, the case went to The Hague. The Court of Arbitration held its first meeting on the 1st of May, 1909, and announced its judgment on the 22d of the same month. As summarized in an English despatch from The Hague, the opinion of the Court was as follows:

"The Court considered that in this case there was a conflict of jurisdiction between the Consular and the military authority of two foreign Powers, the one Power exercising full Consular authority over her subjects, who happened to be soldiers in the Foreign Legion of the other Power. The latter Power had effected the military occupation of a certain territory, and in consequence exercised full authority over that territory. As it was impossible to decide this conflict by any absolute ruling, which might indicate in a general way the precedence of either jurisdiction, the Court considered that the question must be determined by the particular circumstances of any given case. In this case the jurisdiction of the occupying force had precedence because the persons in question did not leave the territory occupied by that force. The Court decided that the Secretary of the German Consulate at Casablanca wrongly and through a grave and manifest error tried to embark in a German steamer deserters of the French Foreign Legion, who were not of German nationality. The German Consul and the other officials of the Consulate were not responsible for that fact; the Consul, however, in signing the safe conduct, which was laid before him, committed an unintentional error. The German Consulate in the circumstances obtaining at that time was not entitled to grant its protection even to deserters of German nationality; the legal error, however, which was committed in this connexion by the officials of the Consulate could not be reckoned either as an intentional or as an unintentional error. The French military authorities

were wrong in not respecting, as far as possible, the *de facto* protection exercised over those deserters in the name of the German Consulate. The circumstances did not justify either menace by revolver on the part of the French soldiers, or the blows given to the Moroccan soldier of the Consulate."

This proved satisfactory to all concerned, and the Casablanca incident was happily closed.

A more important adjustment of matters between Germany and France, aiming at a general clearing of causes of friction in their relations, so far as concerned Morocco, had preceded the Casablanca arbitration by nearly three months. All Europe had been surprised and delighted on the 9th of February, 1909, by the announcement of a Franco-German agreement, just concluded, in the following words:

"The Government of the French Republic and the German Imperial Government, actuated by an equal desire to facilitate the execution of the Act of Algeciras, have agreed to define the significance which they attach to its clauses with a view to avoiding any cause of misunderstanding between them in the future. Consequently, the Government of the French Republic, wholly attached to the maintenance of the integrity and of the independence of the Shereefian Empire, decided to safeguard economic equality there, and accordingly not to impede German commercial and industrial interests, and the German Imperial Government, pursuing only economic interests in Morocco, recognizing at the same time that the special political interests of France are closely bound up in that country with the consolidation of order and of internal peace, and resolved not to impede those interests, declare that they will not prosecute or encourage any measure calculated to create in their favour or in favour of any Power whatsoever an economic privilege, and that they will endeavour to associate their nationals in business for which these may be able to obtain contracts (*l'entreprise*)."

This most important agreement resulted from negotiations that were said to have been opened by a suggestion from the German foreign secretary, Baron von Schön. Its importance to Europe was hardly exaggerated by the *Paris Matin*, when it said: "It is a great and happy event, the importance of which need not be emphasized. . . . This close of the Moroccan quarrel may, if such be the desire, mark a date of capital importance in the history of Europe. In fact, as Prince Bülow has said and repeated, Morocco was only a pretext. If therefore it has become an object of agreement, it is not merely because it has been recognized that the local problem was not insoluble, but also because the general situation has changed or because the 'opportunity' no longer exists."

1909.—Struggle with pretenders.—Spanish War with tribes of the Riff.—Success of Mulai Hafid against his rivals.—French operations in and around Moorish empire.—French Mauretania.—French demands.—France and Spain were now strengthened in the execution of their Algeciras commission, by a harmonious backing in Europe, and the native government in Morocco had acquired, seemingly, a capable man at its head. "Early in 1909 French, Spanish, and British Special Missions were in Fez. Mulai Hafid at first created a good impression. He was a strong man, and evidently desirous of doing well, but the task proved too difficult. . . . About this time a new loan was raised in Paris to meet the actual military necessities of the situation, for the re-

billion of Bou Hamara was still proceeding. In August, however, this Pretender was caught, and after being exhibited in a small cage, was barbarously put to death. Such of his adherents as were captured were also atrociously treated. . . . The German mining claims attracted a considerable amount of attention at this period. Mulai Hafid had given the firm of Mannesmann Brothers a concession for mining rights, which after long negotiations the German authorities were forced to abandon, as the matter of such concessions and mining rights in general could only be decided by the Powers signatory of the Act of Algeciras. Meanwhile the Spaniards were actively engaged in fighting on the Rif coast, in the neighbourhood of Melilla. In the month of July alone the Spaniards lost 90 officers and 1,000 rank and file. The fighting continued till the winter rains put an end to movements of troops."—W. B. Harris, and W. Cozens-Hardy, *Modern Morocco*, p. 33.—See also SPAIN: 1909.—The war had been bitterly unpopular among large classes in Spain, and the feeling had been manifested in destructive rioting at Barcelona and elsewhere. What France had been doing meanwhile, in and around Morocco, has been told by a writer in *The Atlantic Monthly*:

"During the year [May, 1908, to May, 1909] the French army under General d'Amade, continued occupying Casablanca, and the fertile Chaouïa (Shawia) region. It has forced peace, law, and order, and open markets on the inhabitants, to their great advantage. . . . Meanwhile the interior of Morocco has been chiefly occupied in the unmaking and making of Sultans. . . . The real success of France is along the entire land-frontier of Morocco. For its whole length this is now also the frontier of French territory,—Algiers to the east, the Sahara with its line of French posts to the south, and so on to the Atlantic Ocean through the new French civil territory of 'Mauritanie.' . . . France absolutely refused to allow any question concerning this land-frontier to be brought up at the Conference of Algeciras."—S. Dewey, *Year in France (Atlantic Monthly, Aug., 1909)*.—The Moroccan government was now being sharply pressed by France with demands over which negotiation had proceeded hitherto very slowly. Pichon, the French minister for foreign affairs, made a statement on the subject to the chamber of deputies on November 23d, 1909, to the following effect: "On August 14 the representatives of the Sultan received a note summing up the conditions imposed by the French Government. These conditions were the evacuation of the Shawia region on condition of the organization by the Maghzen of a force; the evacuation of Casablanca when the French Government felt convinced that the organization of the Shawia police had become sufficiently effective; the organization of the police service on the Algero-Moroccan frontier; the payment of the Maghzen's debts and the reimbursement of the costs of the French military expeditions. The Maghzen owed at present £3,200,000, more than £400,000 of which was due to private creditors. The French Government would allow the Moroccan Government to raise a loan in France in order to facilitate the payment of its debts. . . . The French conditions had been acknowledged to be very moderate by all who had had cognisance of them. Germany had recently informed the Maghzen that it was high time to contract a loan. M. Pichon dwelt on the loyalty with which the Franco-German Agreement had been observed by the Berlin Government. Nevertheless the adhe-

sion of the Moroccan Government had not yet been obtained. That Government had admitted the principle of the loan of 80,000,000f. and that of the indemnity of 70,000,000f. for the French military expedition, but there was disagreement still in regard to the guarantees required for the realization of that operation. Mulai Hafid, moreover, demanded the immediate evacuation of the Shawia and of Casablanca. On November 6 M. Pichon informed the Sultan's envoys that it was futile to continue the *pourparlers* if France did not obtain a satisfactory reply. It would not be without danger for the Moroccan Government to persevere in its attitude." A little later it was made known that the sultan had yielded to the terms prescribed by the French government and was to obtain the loan which would help toward the payment of his debts.

1910-1911.—Tribal revolts.—"It was not till March, 1910, that Mulai Hafid agreed to carry out the terms of the Franco-Moorish agreements, signed by his predecessor, when, in a new arrangement, full satisfaction was given. . . . A few months later his dealings with Europeans and his treatment of the tribes led to fresh revolts, and in the spring of 1911 the anarchy was once more complete. Fez was attacked, and the Sultan's troops, part of which were encamped a day's distance from the capital, were threatened with annihilation. They succeeded, however, in fighting their way back to the city. Three thousand French troops left Casablanca for Fez on April 27, and others overtook them, until in the middle of May the force consisted of nearly 8,000 men. The capital was reached and relieved on May 21. In June, Spain landed a force of Laraiche, and Alcazar was occupied."—W. B. Harris and W. Cozens-Hardy, *Modern Morocco*, pp. 33-34.

1911.—German violation of Algeciras Treaty. See GERMANY: 1911: MOROCCO crisis.

1911-1912.—Agreement between France and Spain.—"The special interests and rights of Spain in Morocco had been recognized and protected by France in treaties with Spain in 1902, 1904, 1905, and in 1906, and France had kept her ally informed of the progress of the late negotiations with Germany. At length, after a detailed conference with England during most of November upon the future status of Tangier and the precise lines of delimitation for the French and Spanish territorial claims in Morocco, the French engaged the Spanish authorities, on December 7, in a series of confidential negotiations on the question, at which the British Minister to Spain was present. A great many intricate and delicate problems were involved; but they were centered about three main issues: the nature and extent of the Sultan's control over the Spanish sphere of the empire; the construction and control of the proposed railway from Tangier to Fez (part of which would have to pass through the Spanish zone); and the collection of customs and control of the public debt belonging to that portion of the Sultan's dominions under Spanish protection. The 'conversations' were prolonged to an unexpected and extraordinary degree, owing to the varied character of the questions at issue and peculiar difficulties that arose in the path of the negotiators; and the definite agreements were not reached until October 25, 1912. In these, it was provided that Spain, while retaining the control of the customs within its zone, should pay an annual sum approximating \$100,000 toward the interest and amortization of the Moroccan debt; that the boundary question should be settled by certain minor transfers of land—for a portion of the Rif coun-

try, Spain being given a good-sized piece of territory adjoining her colony of Rio de Oro on the north—and by a commission of delimitation to mark the precise frontiers; that the international position of Tangier should be settled by a special commission; that the Spanish zone should be administered by a Spanish High Commission, assisted by a Khalifa Resident at Tetuan and appointed by the Sultan from two persons nominated by Spain; and that the Tangier-Fez Railway should be built by a single company, of whose capital stock the French shall have fifty-six per cent, the Spanish thirty-six per cent, and other countries, if they desire, eight per cent. The attainment of this happy solution was received with great satisfaction by the leading statesmen and people of the two interested nations, and with considerable relief by the European states, some of whom had feared an open rupture more than once during the negotiations. The credit for their successful termination is due to the tact and breadth of view displayed by M. Geoffroy, the French Minister to Spain, and to the sincerity and conciliatoriness of Señor Canalejas, the Spanish Premier.”—N. D. Harris, *Intervention and colonization in Africa*, pp. 280, 281.

1911-1914.—Assaults on Europeans.—French intervention.—Agreement between France and Germany.—Establishment of French protectorate.—“In June, 1911, we read of outrages committed by the Fez garrison and of remorseless reprisals made upon neighbouring villages as soon as the siege was raised. Mulai Hafid had sent his own troops, under the command of French officers, and these committed wholesale destruction of life, expropriation of property, and nameless assaults, until stopped by General Moinier as soon as he understood what was being done. It is hardly to be wondered that the Moors felt resentment at the arrival of an infidel army which lent itself—even if but for a short time—to the designs of their hated officials. Of course Mulai Hafid and his immediate advisers denied stoutly all possibility of there being a savage re-establishment of the Sultan’s power; yet their acts were totally opposed to the spirit in which France sent succour and in which General Moinier conducted the relief operations. . . . Following quickly upon France’s action in sending troops into Morocco came Germany’s in sending a warship [the *Panther*] to Agadir, an open roadstead moderately protected by headlands and five hundred miles south of the Straits of Gibraltar. [See also ITALY: 1911.] Germany’s contention was that the possible occupation of Morocco by France was a breach of the Algeiras Act and restored to all Powers signatory to that Act freedom of action. There were German firms interested south of Morocco, and if Agadir were opened it would be a natural outlet of the Sus district. It seemed for a time as if the five European Powers,—France, Germany, Great Britain, Spain, and Russia as the ally of France,—would be required to enter into further negotiations to restore peace in Morocco; and if this necessity was evaded, nevertheless conditions indicate something of what is to be seen in at least one part of Africa to-day and no one will say they are satisfactory. The French Government had decided to re-enforce the French troops at Casablanca (Dar-el-Beida, about midway between the Straits of Gibraltar and Agadir), and drew up an agreement with the Maghzen for the purpose of supplying the Sultan with financial means to establish a serviceable army of five thousand troops, to be drilled and commanded by French officers, and to assist in the

upkeep of the balance. There was to be an issue of two successive loans through the agency of the Morocco State Bank. France intimated to the Sherrefian (the chief magistrates) her willingness to renounce temporarily the annual installments of the war indemnity due her. It is hardly surprising that all of this was construed by Germany as inimical to her position; nor is it astonishing that Great Britain threw her influence into the scale with France, because the total maritime trade of Morocco for the year 1909 (the latest for which statistics are readily available) amounted to £4,600,000, an increase of £800,000 over the previous year: but Great Britain’s share in this trade increased proportionately more than did that of any other European Power. France showed an increase of £90,000, Great Britain £430,000.”—J. K. Goodrich, *Africa of to-day*, pp. 35, 37, 38.—The *Panther* incident “ended in the Franco-German treaties of November 4 (1911). By the first of these treaties Germany acknowledged France’s claim to establish a Protectorate over Morocco, provided the rights of the subjects of other Powers were not interfered with. . . . These treaties freed France’s hands in Morocco, and it was decided to declare the Protectorate over that country without delay. For this purpose Monsieur Regnault, French Minister at Tangier, proceeded with a Special Mission to Fez, where he arrived on March 24, 1912. On the 30th a treaty was signed by which Morocco became a French Protectorate, on the principles of French collaboration with the Moorish authorities; the reorganization of the finances of the country; the appointment of a French Resident-General, and that the French Government should be charged with the diplomatic relations of Morocco. On April 17 a massacre of French officers took place at Fez, brought about by certain military restrictions upon the Native troops, and owing not a little to the unrest of the general situation. The Jews’ quarter was pillaged and largely burnt. Reinforcements of French forces arrived from Meknès, and after two or three days’ panic in Fez tranquillity was restored. . . . General Lyautey reached Fez on May 26, when renewed fighting took place in that region. . . . Meanwhile this crisis in the north had given the excuse for a rising in the south, and a certain Mahommed Hiba, a son of the Sherref and sorcerer, Mal Ainin—who had recently died—raised a revolution and obtained possession of Marrakesh, where he imprisoned the French Consul and eight of his compatriots. An expedition was ordered to proceed against Marrakesh, and the French troops entered the city, after little fighting, at the end of August. The French prisoners were safe and well. El Hiba escaped in disguise. . . . Mulai Hafid had abdicated in August [1912], his younger half-brother, Mulai Yussef, succeeding. . . . The first six months of 1913 were spent in fighting—French mobile columns acting with great courage and swiftness, subdued one tribal rising after another—and by June the occupied parts of the Protectorate were at peace. The early part of 1914 saw the peaceful occupation of the French Protectorate territory proceeding apace.”—W. B. Harris and W. Cozens-Hardy, *Modern Morocco*, pp. 34-36.

1912-1919.—Work of General Lyautey.—Progress under French control.—Part in World War.—“General Lyautey, who had already made his name as a most able officer and administrator, was sent by the French Government as the first Resident-General under the new Protectorate treaty. A happier choice could not have been

made. . . [He] saw that the only way to restore peace and security in Morocco was by the institution of a great programme of public works and the introduction of justice. His personality appealed to the Moors, over whom he at once obtained a great influence. At his recommendation the French Government advanced a sum of £12,000,000 for public works in Morocco. Roads, harbour improvements, railroads, and all manner of works were immediately undertaken, and a great number of Natives were employed. Peace in the more accessible regions of Morocco was quickly assured by this admirable policy."—W. B. Harris and W. Cozens-Hardy, *Modern Morocco*, pp. 34, 36.—"At the time when France took up the work of political and economic organization everything remained to be done—restoration of the disordered administration; establishment of the bases of economic development; installation of medical, educational, and other service; reform of the land

ciple of 'one major port, several secondary ports.' Choice of the chief port fell on Casablanca. Thither European commerce was directed for the most part, and interests acquired there were already considerable; furthermore it is the natural outlet for the rich regions of the Shawia (Fr., Chaouia) and Tadra."—A. de Tarde, *Work of France in Morocco* (*Geographical Review*, July, 1910).—"The outbreak of war found the French zone in Morocco in a state of increasing organisation. Public works were being pushed forward on every side. . . Morocco was in a strangely anomalous position. The whole of the south was under the French Protectorate, and therefore became a belligerent State, but as to the Spanish zone Spain was neutral, and her protected zone must remain neutral too, while almost as perplexing was the situation of the small Tangier zone on the Straits of Gibraltar. . . The Germans were immediately expelled from the French Pro-



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MOORISH SOLDIERS

On the lookout for Spanish advance against their mountain stronghold

system. At the same time peace had to be assured and a rebellious population pacified by the combined application of force and persuasion. The task was immense in itself. It was rendered still more difficult by the course of external events. When the protectorate treaty was signed Morocco was submerged in anarchy. The power of the Sultan was on the wane; most of the country with the exception of Fez, Meknes, and the coast was in rebellion against him. After affixing his seal to the treaty Sultan Mulai Hafid abdicated, and the Makhzan (Moroccan government) nominated his brother, Mulai Yusef, as his successor. . . . One of the first measures in establishing the protectorate was the drawing up of a scheme of economic policy, including a program for public works. Though the pacified area was then of small extent, the program was large in scope, for it looked to the future and, moreover, the order was to move quickly. The problem of the ports, the economic keys to the country, naturally demanded first attention. To avoid dissipation of efforts and resources there was adopted the prin-

tectorate. The representatives of Germany and Austria, who resided at Tangier, were put on board a French warship and conveyed to Italy, and their compatriots expelled to Spain. The French Government considered that the situation in Morocco must be sacrificed to the needs of France. A telegram was sent to the Resident-General stating that all his available troops would be required in France, and ordering him to abandon the interior of Morocco and to retire all his forces and all the civilian population to the coast towns. General Lyautey in reply promised that all the troops required in France should be sent, but refused to abandon one inch of territory. He foresaw the difficulties and dangers of such a policy—and the disastrous effect it would have upon the future position of France in Morocco. He sent the troops to France, and so far from having abandoned any territory the extent pacified by France . . . [was] largely increased during the war."—W. B. Harris and W. Cozens-Hardy, *Modern Morocco*, pp. 36-37.—Moreover, 30,000 Moors were enlisted for the French army in Europe, and

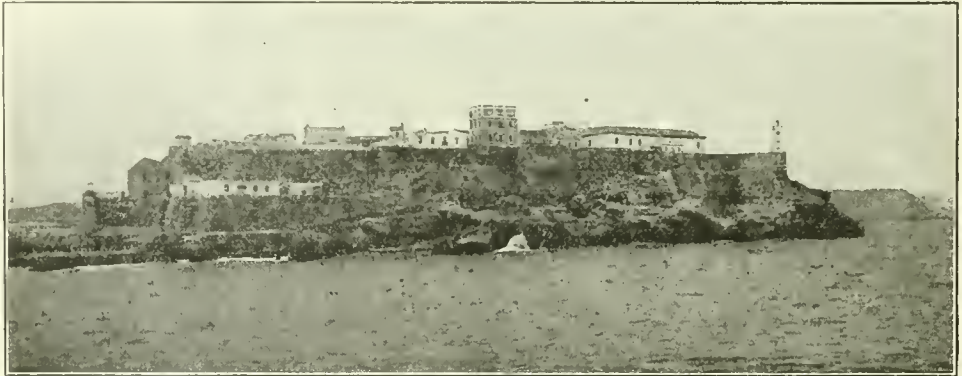
an equal number in the labor corps, while the country furnished a large quantity of supplies for the troops.

1919.—Austria and Germany renounce claims enjoyed through Algeiras Act and Franco-German agreements. See ST. GERMAIN, TREATY OF: Part IV: Section 1; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part IV: Section 5.

1919.—Outbreak in the Rif against Spain.—“In February, March and April of 1919 the Andjera tribesmen, who had much to complain of Raisuli and were never identified with the Jebala proper, submitted to the Sultan's Khalifa at Tetuan. Their territory was successfully occupied, with slight casualties, by troops from Ceuta, cleverly supported by a feint from Laraiche. In April the submission of part of the Beni Hosmar country to the east of Tetuan was assured, that of the great and important tribe of Beni Said, likewise bordering on the Rif, having already taken place. About the same time the Jebel Hebib men to the southwest of Andjera came in from the Jebala. In May the great M'talsa tribe to the south-east of Melilla, one of the most formidable in the Rif, admitted Spanish occupation, and

Treaty of Sèvres. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF (1920): Part III: Political clauses: Morocco, etc.

1921-1923.—War in the Rif.—Moroccan republic.—“A revolt, in 1921, of the tribes in the Melila region, proved to be much more serious than was at first apprehended, and spread rapidly through the entire Rif region. The Spanish troops were defeated at Anual on July 21, and General Fernandez Silvestre, the second in command in Africa, who had made a rash expedition across the desert to the scene of action, was reported to have committed suicide; Nador and Zeluán, within a short distance of the important seaport of Melila, were lost to the tribesmen, who were able with artillery to command the approach to the town; General Navarro and his forces were forced to surrender at Arruit, and after most cruel treatment the captives were sent prisoners to Axdir off the coast of Alhucemas. Heavy reinforcements were at once sent to the seat of war, and operations were commenced from Melila. The battle of Melila was fought in September, and won by the Spaniards; Mount Gurugu and Mount Arruit, whose heights dominate the town, were taken by assault, and at the close of the year all the territory which



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GREAT MOROCCAN FORTRESS AT MELILLA

towards the end of the same month the Spanish troops advanced their lines in the Benibut Yahi country, next to M'talsa, and from Laraiche against the Beni Aros and Beni Gorfet, operating a junction between the Ceuta and Tetuan divisions. On July 12-13, Raisuli, realizing that he was being cut off from the coast, attacked but was badly defeated, several key positions on Jebel Zemsem in the Wad Ras country being occupied. Immediately afterwards, at the beginning of August, took place the submission of the Gomara tribe to the Shereefian Khalifa at Tetuan, a fact equivalent in importance to that of the M'talsa a few months previously in the Rif. The close of September (30th) and first days of October (6th) witnessed the taking of El Fondak of Ain Yedida, Raisuli's principal position, by combined columns operating simultaneously from the Tetuan, Ceuta, and Laraiche districts. Raisuli's power was broken by this defeat, and soon the greater part of the Beni Mesauar and all Wad Ras was occupied, the road from Tetuan to Tangier being definitely cleared. . . . [The Spanish] aims have been favoured by the influx and establishment of a considerable number of civilian colonists, some 180,000 in all."—A. Merry Del Val, *Spanish zones in Morocco* (*Geographical Journal*, Jan.-June, 1920).

1920.—French protectorate recognized by

had been lost was recovered. The Spanish government announced that it had concluded an agreement with the Sultan by which the Gurugu heights were to be included in the military zone in order to relieve the town from the danger of attack. Meantime, Raisuli had been making trouble in the west, where he occupied Tazarut, and it was not until September, 1922, that he retired from this stronghold. Little was done during 1922 to pacify the country, in spite of the large army of occupation, which in the early part of the year numbered 150,000 of all arms. The Spanish government announced its intention to allow the Moors a greater share in the government, but nothing was attempted in this direction. On the other hand, the Moors claimed that they had been driven to war by religious animosity and bad treatment, and declared that they were more capable of governing themselves than the Spaniards were. *La Presse* this evening [September 3, 1923] says: "There exists in Spanish Morocco an independent Government which directs resistance against Spain. . . . This Government calls itself "the Moroccan Republic of the Rif," and has an Agent General in London. . . . The Riffians' revolting against Spanish authority are not merely a few native tribes that refuse to submit to the Spanish protectorate, but citizens of a rich country which is

organized and administered, possessing an established Government whose chief has already several times negotiated on equal terms with Spain. . . . The Moroccan Republic of the Riff was created in 1920. Prior to that date the chief of state was the Supreme Sheik, always chosen from among the members of the family of the Abd-el-Krim. . . . Every Riffian reaching the age of 21 gets a vote. There is a Chamber with fifty-five members, the executive Government and nine responsible Ministers. The Prime Minister is Abd-el-Krim. . . . The Spaniards say this Government exists only in the imagination of a handful of ambitious rebels."—*New York Times*, Sept. 4, 1923.

1922.—Political and economic state of country.—In 1922, there was "no strong Nationalist party. . . . In Fez the atmosphere was, indeed, unfriendly, but at Marrakesh [the people] . . . were on excellent terms with the French, who appeared to manage them with admirable tact and kindness. Had there been strong anti-French feeling it is clear that advantage would have been taken of the withdrawal of most of the regular troops and artillery for a general rising, whereas the country remained quiet and obedient. . . . To the east and south-east of Fez, and also some distance to the east of Marrakesh, there are large districts of difficult mountainous country in the Middle Atlas which are still unsubdued. But the French, who work out their operations with the skill and experience gained in the Great War, are rapidly subduing the stubborn tribesmen. . . . The position of the Sultan under the French protectorate is one of great importance. It was open to the conquerors to set up a mere dummy or else a sultan who would associate himself with the new-comers and aid them in their far-reaching reforms. Sultan Yusuf falls under the latter category. Elected in 1912 after the abdication of his brother, at a time when the tribes were in a state of revolt and El-Hiba, a pretender for power with the support of a strong party in the South, he has shown himself a worthy occupant of the throne, placing the valuable asset of his religious and temporal power at the disposal of the French. . . . [The French] are great road-makers, and their policy has been to construct good roads from their base at Casablanca eastwards to Algiers, *via* Rabat, Meknes and Fez, and southwards to Marrakesh. In addition, Meknes on the north is connected with the port of Knitra, and Marrakesh on the south with the ports of Mazagan, Safi and Mogador. To the south of the Meknes-Fez route a road is being constructed across the Middle Atlas. Finally, the French have constructed their section of the Rabat-Tangier road, but the Spanish have neglected to complete their share of the undertaking. Elsewhere the native tracks have been taken in hand, and made fit for motor traffic in fine weather. . . . To meet the urgent military necessities, light railways were laid down to the chief centres . . . but can only handle a very limited amount of traffic. . . . But, again, France is a great railway constructor, and work on the Fez-Meknes-Tangier line is being busily pressed forward. At more than one place . . . fine bridges [were] under construction [in 1922], and elsewhere the earthwork appeared to be completed. In the Spanish and Tangier zones there were also signs of activity. . . . Simultaneously with this main system, lines from the port of Knitra and from Knitra to Rabat and Casablanca are being constructed. . . . A railway . . . to Marrakesh [was projected], with a branch from a point between Bir Rashid and Settat . . . [to] tap the extraordinarily rich deposits of phosphates be-

tween Wad Zam and El-Buruj. . . . [Finally a line from Fez to the frontier of Algiers by Taza and Udja was under consideration. This programme, which works out at about five hundred miles, is part of a larger scheme], in which Paris to Dakkar and Paris to Lake Chad figure. . . . The extraordinary success won by France in Morocco is mainly the work of one man, Marshal Lyautey. . . . As Resident-General in Morocco his services are brilliant. Sympathy and reconciliation have always been the keynote of his policy, and, if obliged to use force, his rapid, staggering blows have been immediately followed by a resumption of friendly overtures. Apart from his own acts, he has succeeded in stamping his views on his subordinates. He has thereby founded a school of administrators and frontier officers. . . . His *Service des Renseignements* may be compared with the famous Political Department of the Government of India, which played so leading a part in the Great War in the Middle East."—P. Sykes, *France and Morocco: An appreciation* (*Fortnightly Review*, Feb., 1923).

See also BARBARY STATES.

MOROCCO QUESTION. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background; 71, 1; GERMANY: 1905-1906; FRANCE: 1904-1906; U. S. A.: 1905-1906.

MORON, town in the province of Seville, Spain, about thirty-five miles southeast of the city of Seville. It was taken by the Arab-Moors in 711. See SPAIN: 711-713.

MORONA, tribe of South American Indians. See ANDESIANS.

MORONG, town in central Luzon, Philippine islands, about nineteen miles southeast of Manila. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1800; Armed opposition to establishment of American government.

MORONS, Education of. See EDUCATION: Modern developments; 20th century; Education for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Feeble-minded.

MORONVILLERS, village in the department of the Marne, France, twelve miles east of Rheims. During the World War it was held by the Germans, and was regained by the Allies in the fall of 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1917; II. Western front; b, 1.

MOROS, Mohammedan inhabitants of the Philippine islands. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: People; 1600-1663; 1700-1800; 1800; Beginnings of acceptance of American sovereignty.

MOROSINI, Francesco (1618-1604), Venetian admiral. Besieged and captured Athens, 1687; doge of Venice, 1688-1604. See ATHENS: 1687-1688.

MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS. See BIOLOGY: History.

MORRILL, Justin Smith (1810-1808), American legislator. United States senator, 1867-1808; framed the Morrill Tariff Act, 1861; introduced Morrill Education Act, establishing state agricultural schools, 1862. See TARIFF: 1860-1883; EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: United States.

MORRILL ACTS (1862, 1800). See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: United States; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1862-1886.

MORRILL TARIFF ACT (1861). See TARIFF: 1860-1883.

MORRIS, Edward Patrick Morris, 1st Baron (1859-), Newfoundland statesman. Premier of Newfoundland, 1900-1918; representative at the imperial defense conference, 1900, and imperial war conference, 1917.—See also WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1900; British Imperial Defense Conference.

MORRIS, Gouverneur (1752-1816), American statesman. Member of the Continental Congress, 1777-1770; on committee for drafting the constitution, 1787; United States minister to France, 1792-1794; United States senator from New York,

1800-1803.—See also U.S.A.: 1787; NEW YORK: 1817-1825.

MORRIS, Lewis (1726-1708), American patriot. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

MORRIS, Robert (1734-1806), American financier and statesman. Delegate to Continental Congress, 1775-1778; one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence; superintendent of finance, 1781-1784; established the Bank of North America, 1781; delegate to the national constitutional convention, 1787; United States senator from Pennsylvania, 1789-1795. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Authorship, etc.; 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence; 1784; MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1780-1784.

1776-1777.—Aid to Washington. See U.S.A.: 1776-1777: Washington's retreat through New Jersey.

1777.—Appointed member of Committee for Foreign Affairs. See STATE DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES: 1774-1789.

1790.—Land purchase in New York. See NEW YORK: 1786-1799.

MORRIS, William (1834-1806), English poet, artist and socialist. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1833-1909; 1880-1920; PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1880-1900.

MORRIS CANAL, New Jersey. See CANALS: American: Morris canal.

MORRIS DANCE, supposed to have been derived from the Moriscoes (Moors) in Spain and introduced into England, in the reign of Edward III, by John of Gaunt, returning from Spain. It was danced at puppet-shows and belonged to the celebration of the May games with Robin Hood, Friar Tuck, Little John, Maid Marian and the Hobby Horse. In the time of Henry VIII the Morris dancers wore gilt leather and silver paper and coats of spangled fustian and innumerable little bells. Many of the old Morris dance tunes are extant. The Morris dance was suppressed by the Puritans but it still survives in some remote parts of England.

MORRIS ISLAND, at the entrance of Charleston harbor, South Carolina. It was a scene of action during the Civil War. See U.S.A.: 1863 (July: South Carolina).

MORRISON, Robert (1782-1834), English Protestant missionary. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: China.

MORRISTOWN, town on the Whippam river, New Jersey, about twenty-six miles northwest of New York City. Washington established winter quarters here, 1776-1777, 1779-1780. See U.S.A.: 1776-1777: Washington's retreat, etc.; 1780 (January-April).

MORROW MASS SCHOOLS. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 4th-15th centuries.

MORSE, Jedidiah (1761-1826), American Congregational minister and geographer. See ROSICRUCIANS.

MORSE, Samuel Finley Breese (1791-1872), American inventor. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Telegraph: 1753-1874.

MORT, Thomas Sutcliffe (1816-1878), English engineer and Australian pioneer. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Refrigeration.

MORT HOMME. See DEAD MAN'S HILL.

MORTALITY, Bills of. See INSURANCE: Life: Early forms.

MORTALITY TABLES. See INSURANCE: Life: Early forms.

MORTARA, Battle of (1849). See ITALY: 1848-1849.

MORTELMANS, musical compositions. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: The Netherlands: Belgium.

MORTEMER, Battle of (1054), defeat of French by Normans at Mortemer.

MORTGAGE LAWS. See COMMON LAW: 1600; EQUITY LAW: 1671.

MORTGARTEN, Battle of (1315). See AUSTRIA: 1291-1349.

MORTIER, Edouard Adolphe Casimir Joseph, Duke of Treviso (1768-1835), French marshal. Distinguished for service in Napoleonic wars; commanded left wing at the battle of Friedland, 1807; member of the chamber of deputies, 1816-1818; premier, 1834-1835. See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March); 1830-1840.

MORTIMER, Roger, Earl of March (1287-1330), English statesman. Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, 1316-1321; implicated in the conspiracy of the Earl of Lancaster; led the forces of Queen Isabella, wife of Edward II, 1326; returned with her to England; overthrew the king, and was virtual ruler during the minority of Edward III.

MORTIMER FAMILY OF WIGMORE, earls of Ulster and March of the Norman line. Ralph de Mortimer followed the earl of Hereford to Wales, where Wigmore became the family seat. In 1385, a member of the family was named heir-presumptive to the throne of King Richard; but the family claim was annulled by the accession of the Lancastrians to power in 1399. The family died out in 1425.—See also ENGLAND: 1309-1471; MORTIMER, ROGER.

MORTIMER'S CROSS, Battle of (1461), battle in the "Wars of the Roses," fought February 2, 1461, on a small plain called Kingsland Field, near Mortimer's Cross, Herefordshire, England. See ENGLAND: 1455-1471.

MORTMAIN, Statute of. See ENGLAND: 1270.

MORTON, John (1420-1500), English cardinal. Bishop of Ely under Edward IV; imprisoned by Richard III; archbishop of Canterbury and chancellor under Henry VII. See EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Catholic reformation.

MORTON, John (1724-1777), American patriot. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

MORTON, Levi Parsons (1824-1920), American banker and statesman. Minister to France, 1881-1885; vice president of the United States, 1889-1893; governor of New York, 1895-1896. See NEW YORK: 1894-1897; GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

MORTON, Oliver Perry (1823-1877), American statesman. Governor of Indiana, 1861-1865; United States senator, 1867-1877. See INDIANA: 1861-1865.

MORTON, Paul (1857-1911), American financier and cabinet officer. Secretary of the navy, 1904-1905; became president of the Equitable Life Assurance Society, 1906. See U.S.A.: 1901-1905.

MORTON, Thomas (c. 1590-1646), English colonist. Founder of "Merrymount," now Quincy, Massachusetts. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1622-1628.

MORTON, William Thomas Green (1810-1868), American dentist. Noted for work in connection with the discovery of anæsthetics. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Discovery of anæsthetics.

MORTUATH. See TUATH.

MORVAL, village in northeastern France, about five miles south of Bapaume. It was captured from the Germans by the British during the battle of the Somme, 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: c, 3; d, 13; 1918: II. Western front: k, 3.

MORY, town in France, about seven miles northwest of Lens. It was taken by the British in 1918. See **WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c. 12.**

MOSA, ancient name of the river Meuse.

MOSCHIANS, ancient Asiatic people, living southeast of the Euxine. They were conquered by the Assyrians in the 12th century. See **ASSYRIA: People.**

MOSCISKA, town in Poland. It was attacked by the Austrians in 1915. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: f, 5.**

MOSCOW, second city of Russia, on the Moskva river, 400 miles southeast of Petrograd. (See **RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the new border states.**) The population was 1,050,011 in 1920. Moscow was the capital of Russia until Peter the Great removed to St. Petersburg (Petrograd) in 1703. On March 14, 1918, it became the capital of Russia under Soviet government. The city grew around the Kremlin. It is said: "Above Moscow there is nothing but the Kremlin, and above the Kremlin there is nothing but the sky." The walls of the Kremlin are pierced by five gates, one of which, the Gate of the Redeemer, is sacred. In the enclosure of the Kremlin are the great Cathedral of the Assumption, in which the emperors were crowned; Cathedral of St. Michael the Archangel; Arsenal; Treasury; Great Palace (1838-1849); Old Palace; Tower of Ivan the Terrible (300 feet); and on Cathedral Square, "Tsar Kolokol" the largest bell in the world. Other notable buildings are: Cathedral of St. Basil (Vassili) with twenty gilded and painted towers and domes and Temple of the Saviour, finished in 1883 to commemorate the retreat of the French in 1812. Moscow is the second manufacturing city in Russia and a great emporium of trade for western Russia and Asia.

1147.—**Origin of city.**—"The name of Moscow appears for the first time in the chronicles at the date of 1147. It is there said that the Grand Prince George Dolgorouki, having arrived on the domain of a boyard named Stephen Koutchko, caused him to be put to death on some pretext, and that, struck by the position of one of the villages situated on a height washed by the Moskowa, the very spot whereon the Kremlin now stands, he built the city of Moscow. . . . During the century following its foundation, Moscow remained an obscure and insignificant village of Souzdal. The chroniclers do not allude to it except to mention that it was burned by the Tartars (1237), or that a brother of Alexander Nevski, Michael of Moscow, was killed there in a battle with the Lithuanians. The real founder of the principality of the name was Daniel, a son of Alexander Nevski, who had received this small town and a few villages as his appanage. . . . He was followed, in due course, by his brothers George and Ivan."—A. Rambaud, *History of Russia*, v. 1, ch. 12.

1380.—**Center of Russian church.** See **CHRISTIANITY: 10th-18th centuries: Russian church.**

15th century.—**Growth.** See **RUSSIA: 1350-1480.**

1571.—**Stormed and sacked by Crim Tartars.** See **RUSSIA: 1560-1571.**

1610-1612.—**Occupation by Poles and their expulsion.** See **RUSSIA: 1533-1682.**

1619.—**Partial control by Poland.** See **POLAND: 1500-1648.**

1662.—**July revolt.** See **RUSSIA: 1645-1676.**

1811-1812.—**Invasion by Napoleon.—Burning of city.—Napoleon's retreat.** See **AUSTRIA: 1809-1814; RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September); (September); (October-December).**

1867.—**Pan-Slav Congress.** See **SLAVS: 1830-1914.**

1899.—**University revolts.** See **RUSSIA: 1899.**

1904-1905.—**Strikes.** See **RUSSIA: 1904-1905: Outline of leading events in revolution; 1905 (November-December).**

1905.—**Assassination of Grand Duke Sergius.—Revolutionary disturbances.** See **RUSSIA: 1905 (January).**

1917.—**National conference under provisional government.** See **RUSSIA: 1917 (August).**

1918.—**Capital of Soviet government.** See **RUSSIA: 1918 (January-March).**

1919.—**Threatened by Kolchak.** See **RUSSIA: 1918-1920.**

1919-1921.—**First, second and third congresses of Third International.** See **INTERNATIONAL: 1919 (March); 1920-1921; 1921.**

MOSELLE, river in France, flowing through Alsace-Lorraine and Prussia, joining the Rhine at Coblenz. Provisions regarding its navigation were included in the Treaty of Versailles. See **VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part XII: Section II: Chapter IV.**

MOSES, Hebrew leader and lawgiver. Under his guidance Israel became a nation. If it is accepted that Meneptah is the Pharaoh of the Exodus, then Moses was born in the fourteenth century, B. C. His life is divided into three periods of forty years, two of which were spent in civilized Egypt, the third in the desert, chiefly in the vicinity of Mount Sinai, Kadesh (locality unidentified) and the plains of Moab. Most modern critics agree that the Pentateuch belongs to a later period.—See also **Jews: Children of Israel in Egypt; Exodus; CODES: B. C. 13th-6th centuries.**

MOSES, Bernard (1846-), American writer. Author of a number of works on political science; served on the Philippine Island Commission, 1900-1902. See **PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1900: Progress toward civil government.**

MOSES BEN MAIMON. See **MAIMONIDES.**

MOSHEIM, Johann Lorenz von (1604-1755), German ecclesiastical historian. See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1604-1906.**

MOSKOWA, or Borodino, Battle of. See **RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September).**

MOSLEM ARCHITECTURE. See **ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: India: Moslem.**

MOSLEM LEAGUE. See **INDIA: 1907-1921.**

MOSLEM RELIGION. See **MOHAMMEDANISM.**

MOSLEMS. See **CALIPHATE.**

MOSQUE, Mohammedan house of prayer. The earliest mosque was that at Mecca. The Mosque of the Omayyads in Damascus, one of the oldest now in existence, was built in 705 on the foundations of a Christian basilica. The Mosque of Ahmad Ibn Tulun, built in 879, in Cairo, is interesting as one of the first examples of a genuine Mohammedan style, and contains the characteristic pointed horseshoe arch, and arabesque decorations. The mosque at Cordova, Spain, founded in the eighth century on the site of a Roman temple and Visigothic church, and added to during the next two centuries, was one of the largest and most beautiful of the sacred buildings of Islam. It is now used as a cathedral, and was much impaired by the addition in the sixteenth century of a high altar and choir. The mosques of the East are characterized by the use of the dome, evidently of Byzantine origin. Sancta Sophia was taken over as a mosque in 1456 and was copied in several instances. (See **SAINT SOPHIA.**) The so-called Mosque of Omar, at Jerusalem, is merely a shrine and not a true mosque.—See also **ARCHITECTURE: Medieval; Mohammedan.**

MOSQUERA, Tomas Cipriano de (1708-1878), Colombian general and statesman. Dictator

of Colombia, 1861-1867. See COLOMBIA: 1819-1830; 1830-1886.

MOSQUITO, or MÛSQUITO, INDIANS, several tribes of Indians inhabiting the Mosquito Coast. The Mosquito Indians are unusually intelligent and very dark-skinned, due, it is said, to intermarriage with shipwrecked slaves. From 1655 to 1850 Great Britain claimed a protectorate over the Mosquito Indians, which was disputed by Spain, the Central American republics and the United States. In 1848 the seizure of Greytown (San Juan del Norte) by the Mosquito Indians, with British support, nearly brought on a war, but by the Clayton Bulwer Treaty of 1850 both powers pledged themselves not to fortify, colonize, or exercise dominion over any part of Central America. See NICARAGUA: 1850; 1860-1880; 1894-1905.

MOSQUITO COAST (Mosquitia), extensive region still unexplored on the Caribbean sea and the Nicaragua seaboard, inhabited by the Mosquito Indians. The area is about 26,000 square miles. The Mosquito Coast was discovered by Columbus in 1502 and was a great rendezvous of buccaneers. It was incorporated with Nicaragua in 1894, and is now styled department of Zelaya. The capital is Bluefields. See NICARAGUA: 1850; 1860-1880; 1894-1905.

"MOST FAVORED NATION" CLAUSE.—“Early commercial treaties were arranged by European nations in strict accordance with the idea that every concession granted by one country to any other should be given only in exchange for similar concessions in return. In other words, the negotiation of commercial treaties was a sort of bargaining process in which a foreign nation might be overreached by its antagonist. The object to be kept in mind by either party was the arrangement of an agreement as favorable to it as circumstances, and the relative acuteness of the other, would allow. It is evident that, supposing two nations, A and B, to have signed a commercial treaty granting certain privileges by mutual agreement, B might be at a considerable advantage with respect to a third nation, C, in competing for the trade of A. If, subsequently, an agreement should be entered into between A and C, whereby more elaborate concessions were allowed C than those which had been gained by B, it might turn out that B would not merely be outstripped by C in the competition, but would even be worse off than would have been the case had no treaty been originally negotiated with A. It was this situation which led to the development of the most-favored-nation clause. Under it, states sought to obtain guarantees that in case future commercial concessions should be offered to their competitors, they themselves would, *ipso facto*, enjoy the same concessions. Thus, if the two nations, A and B, had entered into a commercial agreement in which the most-favored-nation stipulation has been incorporated, and if there should be any subsequent treaty between A and C in which larger concessions were granted, A would, by the nature of the case, extend those concessions also to B. Now, it is clear that the interpretation to be placed upon the clause might be such as to extend those concessions to B only in case B should pay for them by the same return concessions granted by C, or should simply be permitted to enjoy them without any further payment than that already arranged for in the original A and B treaty. Writers on international law distinguish several different forms of the ‘most-favored-nation clause.’ They enumerate more particularly the so-called ‘simply reciprocal form’ and the so-called ‘imperative and unconditional form.’ In the first, ‘where reciprocity is the foundation of every clause

in the treaty dealing with a subject of commerce and navigation, the inference points to reciprocity as the foundation for the general covering clause which is to supply omissions and prevent future unfavorable discrimination.’ Under the other interpretation, the commercial favors are granted to all countries under the most-favored-nation clause ‘immediately and without condition’; in other words, without compensating privileges offered in return. It is easy to see why nations like Great Britain, which have adopted free trade as their policy and which have, as a matter of fact, nothing to offer in return for a reduction of duties, are disposed to insist strenuously upon this second interpretation. The ‘simply reciprocal form’ of the most-favored-nation clause, is, of course, the one to which the United States has consistently held. It has, from the beginning, adhered rigidly to the view that trade concessions offered by it to some other country need not become common to a third country with which we have no treaty relations involving the most-favored-nation clause, unless that third nation should meet us on our own ground by granting the same favors that we secured at the hands of the other nations with which we had entered into treaty relations. In the treaty negotiated between the United States and France, February 6, 1778, the following words occur: ‘The most Christian King and the United States engage mutually not to grant any particular favor to other nations in respect to commerce and navigation which shall not immediately become common to the other party, who shall enjoy the same favor freely, if the concession was freely made or on allowing the same compensation if the concession was conditional.’ In Art. IX of the treaty with Prussia, in 1828, and in Art. IX of the treaty with Austria, in 1829, occur the words: ‘If either party shall hereafter grant to any other nation any particular favor in navigation or commerce, it shall immediately become common to the other party, freely, where it is freely granted to such other nation, or on yielding the same compensation, when the grant is conditional.’ On the other hand, European diplomacy has developed the most-favored-nation clause along a different line, following the second of the two interpretations already referred to. As things now stand, most European countries admit that nations which have granted to other nations the benefits of the most-favored-nation clause have guaranteed to the latter that their commercial relations shall not be less favorable with the guarantors than shall those of any other country. In other words, new and more extensive trade concessions granted by country A to C, a third nation, are, *ipso facto*, extended to B, a second nation, with which it has originally entered into commercial relations, while B obtains these advantages without compensation even though they may have been paid for very heavily by C. This, of course, is a marked reversal of the original interpretation of the ‘most-favored-nation clause’ during the eighteenth and first half of the nineteenth century. It is a most important point to bear in mind, in studying the development of reciprocity as a policy, for it will readily be seen that the adoption of the European interpretation of the most-favored-nation clause implies either the giving up of all commercial treaties, or else the conscious recognition of tariff reduction as a system to be regularly applied whenever granted in an individual case. Reciprocity, when limited to isolated instances, becomes nothing more than a process of international bargaining, which may or may not be undertaken, as circumstances of the particular case seem to indicate.”—H. P. Willis, *International aspect of reciprocity*

(*Journal of Political Economy*, July, 1911).—See also **TARIFF**: 1860; 1870-1900; 1910; **JAPAN**: 1797-1854; **PORTSMOUTH, TREATY OF**.

MOSTARABES. See **MOZARABES**.

MOSTAREBA, or **MOTARABA**, early Arabian tribes. See **ARABIA**: Ancient succession and fusion of races.

MOSTY, town in Lithuania, about ninety miles northeast of Brest-Litovsk. It was a scene of fighting in 1915. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 5.

MOSUL, former vilayet of Asiatic Turkey, in the valley of the Tigris, Mesopotamia. It was declared independent in 1916, with French and British spheres of influence. The capital is Mosul, a city about 200 miles north of Bagdad, near the site of ancient Nineveh.—See also **SYRIA**: 1908-1921.

MOTHER CHURCH. See **CHRISTIAN SCIENCE**: Reorganization of Mother Church; Creed and polity of the church.

MOTHERS' PENSIONS. See **SOCIAL INSURANCE**: Mothers' pensions, etc.; **CHARITIES**: United States: 1914-1921; **LABOR LEGISLATION**: 1920-1922; **MARYLAND**: 1915-1916; **MISSOURI**: 1913-1919.

MOTHERWELL, W. R. (1860-), Canadian cabinet officer. Organized the Territorial Grain Growers' Association, 1902; minister of agriculture for Saskatchewan, 1905-1918; for Canada, since 1921. See **COOPERATION**: Canada.

MOTTHING. See **THING**.

MOTION PICTURES. See **INVENTIONS**: 19th century: Moving pictures; 20th century: Moving pictures; **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: Survey of late inventions; **WORLD WAR**: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship: d, 5.

MOTLEY, John Lothrop (1814-1877). American historian and diplomat. United States minister to Austria, 1861-1877; to Great Britain, 1869-1870. See **HISTORY**: 30.

MOTOR TRANSPORT. See **AUTOMOBILES**: 1858-1919; **WORLD WAR**: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: V. Moving men and material: d.

MOTORCYCLES. See **AUTOMOBILES**: 1885-1894; **STEAM AND GAS ENGINES**: Adoption of gasoline motor.

MOTORS: Electric. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: 1823-1921.

Liberty. See **AVIATION**: Development of airplanes and air service: 1910-1920.

MOTT, John Raleigh (1865-), American Y. M. C. A. leader. General secretary of the National War Work Council of the Y. M. C. A. during the World War. See **YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION**: World War activities: 1914: First social welfare organization.

MOTYE, Siege of (307 B. C.). See **SYRACUSE**: B. C. 397-396.

MOUGOULCHAS, tribe of North American Indians. See **MUSKHOGEAN FAMILY**.

MOULEY-ISMAEL, Battle of (1835). See **BARBARY STATES**: 1830-1846.

MOULINS, capital of the department of Allier, France, thirty-six miles northeast of Montluçon. See **BOIANS**.

MOULTRIE, William (1731-1805), American general. Repulsed the British attack on Charleston harbor from the fort on Sullivan island, which was subsequently named for him, 1776; commander of forces in South Carolina and Georgia, 1776-1780; British prisoner, 1780-1782; elected governor of South Carolina, 1785, and again in 1793.—See also **SOUTH CAROLINA**: 1775; **U. S. A.**: 1776 (June): British repulsed at Charleston.

MOULTRIE, Fort, located on Sullivan island, at the entrance of Charleston harbor, South Carolina. It was evacuated by Federal troops and used

by the Confederates in the bombardment of Fort Sumter, 1860. See **U. S. A.**: 1860 (December): Major Anderson at Fort Sumter.

MOUND BUILDERS. See **AMERICA**: Pre-historic; **ALLEGHANS**; **CHEROKEES**; **IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY**.

MOUNIER, Jean Joseph (1758-1806), French writer and political leader. Deputy of third estate to states-general, 1789; elected president of the Constituent Assembly, 1789; resigned and fled to Switzerland, 1790; appointed councillor of state by Napoleon, 1805.—See also **DOCTRINAIRES**.

MOUNT, specific names of mountains will be found under their names, as **EVEREST**, **MOUNT**; **McKINLEY**, **MOUNT**; etc.

MOUNT BADON, Battle of (520), battle was fought 520 and resulted in a crushing defeat of the West Saxons by the Britons. It figures in some legends among the victories of King Arthur.—Based on J. R. Green, *Making of England*, ch. 3.

MOUNT CALAMATIUS, Battle of (72 B. C.). See **SPARTACUS**.

MOUNT ETNA, Battle of (1849). See **ITALY**: 1848-1849.

MOUNT GAURUS, Battle of (c. 342 B. C.). See **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 343-200.

MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE, for the higher education of women, at South Hadley, Massachusetts. It was founded as Mount Holyoke Female Seminary by Mary Lyon in 1837 and was the pioneer institution from which sprang higher education for women in America; chartered as a college in 1888. See **EDUCATION**: Modern: 19th century: United States: Secondary education.

MOUNT TABOR, Battle of (1799). See **FRANCE**: 1798-1799 (August-August).

MOUNT VERNON, estate of George Washington, in Fairfax County, Virginia, on the Potomac, fifteen miles southwest of Washington, D. C. The house was built by Lawrence Washington, half-brother to George, in 1743, and named for the British officer under whom he served, Admiral Vernon, hero of Portobello in 1739. It became the property of George Washington in 1752, who left it to Bushrod Washington. In 1858 it was acquired by the Mount Vernon Association (founded 1853) which cares for it as a museum through a board of regents. It contains many Washington relics and also the key of the Bastille given to Washington by Lafayette. General Washington and his wife are buried on the estate.

ALSO IN: B. J. LOSSING, *Home of Washington*.—T. N. Page, *Mount Vernon and its preservation*.

MOUNT VERNON, United States ship. It was attacked by a German submarine, 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: IX. Naval operations: d, 3.

MOUNT VESUVIUS, Battle of (338 B. C.). See **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 340-338.

MOUNTAIN, extreme revolutionary group in the French Revolution. See **FRANCE**: 1791 (October); 1792 (September-November); (November-December); 1794-1795 (July-April); **GIRONDINS**; **PRICE CONTROL**: 1793-1798.

MOUNTAIN MEADOWS MASSACRE (1857). See **UTAH**: 1857-1859.

MOUNTAIN WHITES. See **ALABAMA**: 1861.

MOUNTJOY, Charles Blount, Lord (1563-1606), lord-lieutenant of Ireland. Military commander at defeat of Ulster, in 1601. See **ULSTER**: 1585-1608.

MOUQUET FARM, town in France, about twelve miles northwest of Peronne. It was captured by the Allies in 1916. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: II. Western front: i, 15.

MOURU. See **MARGIANA**.

MOUSSORGSKY, Modeste Petrovich (1835-1881), Russian composer. He composed practically all forms, but his national music drama, "Boris Godunov," produced in Petrograd in 1874, is his best known work.—See also **MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Russia.**

MOUSTERIAN STAGE. See **EUROPE: Prehistoric: Stone Age: Moustesian; Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Neanderthal skeleton.**

MOXO, Great, imaginary emperor of El Dorado. See **EL DORADO.**

MOXOS, or Mojoa, South American Indian tribe. See **BOLIVIA: Aboriginal inhabitants.**

MOYENNEVILLE, town in France, about twenty miles southeast of Amiens. It was taken by the British in 1918. See **WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: k, 1.**

MOYTURA, Battle of.—Celebrated in the legendary history of Ireland and represented as a fatal defeat of the ancient people in that country called the Firbolgs by the new-coming Tuatha-de-Danaan. "Under the name of the 'Battle of the Field of the Tower' [it] was long a favourite theme of Irish song."—T. Moore, *History of Ireland, v. 1, ch. 5.*

MOZAMBIQUE, former name of the Portuguese territory in East Africa, now applied only to the northern part of Portuguese East Africa. It is also a town of Portuguese East Africa. See **AFRICA: Map; PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA; INDIA: 1498-1580.**

MOZARABES, or Mostarabes.—The Christian people who remained in Africa and southern Spain after the Moslem conquest, tolerated in the practice of their religion, "were called Mostarabes or Mozarabes; they adopted the Arabic language and customs. . . . The word is from the Arabic 'musta'rab,' which means one 'who tries to imitate or become an Arab in his manners and language.'"—H. Coppée, *History of the conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors, v. 1, bk. 4, ch. 3, with foot-note.*

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch. 51.*

MOZART, Wolfgang Amadeus (1756-1791), Austrian composer and one of the greatest musical geniuses that ever lived. Began to play and compose at the age of four; toured Europe as a "wonder child" pianist in 1769-1770; his works include the "Nozze de Figaro," "Zauberflöte" (Magic Flute), "Don Giovanni," and the great unfinished "Requiem."—See also MUSIC: Modern: 1650-1827; 1700-1827.

MOZART HALL. See **NEW YORK: 1863-1871.**
MPAPUA, Battle of. See **WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 15.**

MPRET, title borne by Prince William of Wied during his brief reign in Albania, March-July, 1914. See **ALBANIA: 1908-1914.**

MSAGARA, Battle at. See **WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 15.**

MÜCKE, Hellmouth von, German naval officer. Lieutenant on board the German cruiser Emden during the World War; stranded on the Cocos islands, 1914, but finally made his way to Germany. See **WORLD WAR: 1914: IX. Naval operations: h.**

MUDARRIS, Mohammedan preacher. See **ULEMA.**

MUD-SILL, nickname contemptuously applied in the South to workers in the North before and during the Civil War. The term originated in a speech by a senator in which he referred to the working class as "mud-sills," meaning the foundation of society. Mud-Sill Clubs were organizations of California union workmen in 1858.

MUERTOS, small island adjacent to Porto Rico. See **PORTO RICO: 1899 (October).**

MUFTI, title applied to Mohammedan propounders of the law. See **SUBLIME PORTE; ULEMA.**
MUGELLO, Battle of (542). See **ROME: Medieval city: 535-553.**

MUGGLETON, Lodowicke (Ludovick) (1609-1698), English sectarian. Founder of the Muggletonian sect. See **RANTERS.**

MUGWUMPS, or Independent Republicans, American political party. See **U.S.A.: 1884: Twenty-fifth presidential election.**

MUHAMMAD. See **MOHAMMED.**

MUHESA, town in East Africa. It was occupied by the British in 1916. See **WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 11.**

MÜHLBERG, Battle of (1547). See **BOHEMIA: 1516-1576; GERMANY: 1546-1552.**

MÜHLDORF, or Mahldorf, Battle of (1322). See **AUSTRIA: 1291-1349; GERMANY: 1314-1347; ITALY: 1313-1330.**

MÜHLENBERG, Frederick Augustus Conrad (1750-1801), American divine and legislator. Elected to Continental Congress, 1779; speaker of the House of Representatives, 1789-1791, 1793-1795. See **U.S.A.: 1789-1792.**

MÜHLENBERG, Henry Melchior (1711-1787), American Lutheran divine. Founder of American Lutheranism. See **LUTHERAN CHURCH: Lutherans in America.**

MÜHLENBERG, John Peter Gabriel (1746-1807), American divine, soldier and legislator. Took part in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, Monmouth and Yorktown during the American Revolution; member of the House of Representatives, 1789-1791, 1793-1795, 1799-1801; elected to the United States Senate, 1801, but resigned soon after to become supervisor of revenue for the district of Pennsylvania. See **U.S.A.: 1781 (January-May).**

MÜHLON, Wilhelm (1878-), German financier. Former member of the board of directors at the Krupp Works at Essen, Germany, whose memoranda and letters were published in 1918. See **WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 73; BELGIUM: 1914: Germany and Belgian neutrality.**

MUJTEHEDS, higher Persian priests. See **PERSIA: 1905-1907.**

MUKDEN, capital of Manchuria, in the province of Shinking on the Han river 500 miles north-east of Peking, and 120 miles from Newchwang, its port. (See CHINA: Map.) The population in 1910 was about 250,000. Mukden was the cradle of the Manchu race.—See also CHINA: 1903 (May-October); 1905 (December); 1905-1909; MANCHURIA: 1905-1908.

Battle of (1905). See **JAPAN: 1902-1905.**

MUL SANKAR (Swami Dayanand Sarasvati), Indian religious leader. Founded the Arya Samaj, or Society of the Noble, India, 1875. See **ARYA SAMAJ.**

MULAI-ABD-EL-AZIZ. See **ABD-EL-AZIZ.**

MULAI-ABD-EL-HAFID, sultan of Morocco, 1908-1912. See **MOROCCO: 1907-1909; 1909.**

MULAI-ABDERRAHMAN (Muley-Abd-er-Rahman), sultan of Morocco, 1822-1859. See **BARBARY STATES: 1830-1846.**

MULAI-AHMED-BEN-MOHAMMED (El Raisuli), revolutionary chieftain of a northern Morocco tribe. See **MOROCCO: 1904-1909.**

MULAI-HASSAN, sultan of Morocco, 1873-1894. See **MOROCCO: 1873-1894; 1903.**

MULCAHY, Richard James, Irish legislator. Member of Parliament for Dublin, 1918; minister of defense, 1922. See **IRELAND: 1922 (January-July).**

MULCASTER, Richard (1530-1611), English schoolmaster. See **EDUCATION: Modern: 1530-1611.**

MULEY-HASSAN, king of Tunis. See **BARBARY STATES**: 1516-1535.

MULHOUSE, city in Alsace-Lorraine, France, about sixty-one miles southwest of Strassburg, on the Ill river. It was allied with the Swiss Confederation, 1515-1798, and annexed to France, 1798. In 1871 it was ceded to Germany, and returned to France in 1919.

1674.—Battle of. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1674-1678.
1914.—Taken and retaken by French. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: h.

1918.—Occupied by the Allies. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: XI. End of the war: c.

MULLAGHMAST, Massacre of. See **IRELAND**: 1550-1603.

MULLAH (Muhammad Abdullah), religious agitator and revolutionist in Somaliland. See **SOMALILAND**: Trouble with the Mullah; Peace with English.

MULLAS, Persian priests. See **PERSIA**: 1905-1907.

MULLEN-GAGE ACT. See **NEW YORK**: 1921; 1923.

MÜLLER, Friedrich Maximilian (Max Müller) (1823-1900), English philologist and Sanskrit scholar of German birth. See **PHILOLOGY**: 1, 3.

MÜLLER, Hermann (1876-), German socialist leader and statesman. Minister for foreign affairs, 1919-1920; representative of Germany at the Paris peace conference and one of the signers of the Treaty of Versailles, 1919; chancellor, March-June, 1920.—See also **VERSAILLES, TREATY OF**: Conditions of peace; **GERMANY**: 1920 (March-April).

MÜLLER, Johannes von (1752-1809), Swiss historian. See **HISTORY**: 25.

MULLER, Johannes Peter (1801-1858), German physiologist. One of the founders of modern physiology. See **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Modern: 19th century: Revolutionary experiments and discoveries.

MÜLLER, Karl von (1879-), German naval officer. Captain of the German cruiser *Emden* during the World War, captured by the British when his ship was destroyed off the Cocos islands by the Australian cruiser *Sydney*, November 9, 1914. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: IX. Naval operations: h.

MULLIGAN, James (1830-1864), American soldier. See **U. S. A.**: 1861 (July-September: Missouri).

MULTAN. See **MOOLTAN**.

MUMAYADO, Prince. See **SHOTOKU TAISHI, PRINCE**.

MUMMY LAKE VILLAGE, ancient Indian village in the southwestern part of the United States. See **AMERICA**: Prehistoric.

MÜNCHEN. See **MUNICH**.

MÜNCHENGRÄTZ, Battle of (1866). See **AUSTRIA**: 1862-1866.

MUNDA, Battle of (45 B. C.). See **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 45.

MUNDANE ERA. See **CHRONOLOGY**: Jewish mundane era.

MUNDINUS, or **Mondino** (c. 1250-1320), Italian physician. See **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Medieval: 12th-15th centuries.

MUNDRUCU, tribe of South American Indians. See **TUPI**.

MUNERA GLADIATORIA, prize fights of ancient Rome. See **LUDI**.

MUNICH, capital of Bavaria, third city of Germany, on the Isar, about twenty-five miles north of the foothills of the Alps, halfway between Strassburg and Vienna. The population in 1919 was 630,711. It is an important commercial, industrial and art center. Munich was founded by Henry the Lion in 1158. It took the name München from monks, who owned the site.

13th century.—Rise. See **BAVARIA**: 1180-1356.

1632.—Surrender to Gustavus Adolphus. See **GERMANY**: 1631-1632.

1743.—Lost and regained by Austria. See **AUSTRIA**: 1743.

1921.—Experiments in child welfare legislation. See **CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION**: 1890-1921.

MUNICIPAL CENTERS. See **CITY PLANNING**; **CIVIC BEAUTY**.

MUNICIPAL CONSTITUTIONS. See **COMMUNE**; **BOROUGH**; **GUILDS**; **MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT**: Development of the city, etc.

MUNICIPAL CORPORATION ACT (1835). See **BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND**: 1835-1838.

MUNICIPAL COURTS. See **COURTS**: United States: State courts.

MUNICIPAL CURIA. See **CURIA, MUNICIPAL**.

MUNICIPAL FRANCHISE. See **SUFFRAGE, WOMAN**: England: 1860-1905; Sweden.

MUNICIPAL FRANCHISES FOR PUBLIC UTILITIES. See **MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT**: Franchises in the United States.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Difference between national and municipal government.—Americans generally admit that their municipal government is the least satisfactory of their various divisions of government. It has been much less recognized in the United States than in Europe that cities are essentially business groupings and that the primary function of city government is the provision of proper living conditions for those who by their gathering together in great numbers have made such conditions proportionately important and also difficult to attain. The cities' political machines have tended to be linked up with the national and state machines; local politics has been colored by the national parties and distorted by national issues. This unfortunate condition has resulted in part from the control which state legislatures exercise to a greater or less extent over city governments, a control which, whether legislative or administrative, has its dangers as well as its justification. The party system of government may well be the best means of securing political democracy for a large territory, but for a small, compact territory, where the

problems are comparatively simple and popular criticism quick to show itself, the best results can surely be obtained by some kind of non-partisan business administration. The commission and city manager forms of government are attempts to provide that kind of administration; they are treated under their own headings. In this article is described the development of the most familiar and accepted forms of municipal government and of the main types of business for which such governments are responsible. This municipal business may be either carried on by private enterprise under public control or operated by the city itself; the gradual spread of municipal ownership is briefly discussed.

Ancient Babylonia.—Municipal curia of Rome. See **BABYLONIA**: Social structure; **CURIA, MUNICIPAL**.

Types of medieval municipal government. See **GUILDS**: Medieval; **GUILDS OF FLANDERS**; **COMMUNE**; **FRANCE**: 12th-13th centuries.

Development of the city as a local business unit.—Early American charters.—“The first im-

portant piece of European legislation which recognized that the city, in addition to being an agent of state government, was an organization for the satisfaction of local needs, was the Prussian Cities Act of 1808. This act recognized that each city had a sphere of activity and property apart from the state and gave to the city an organization which has remained in its outlines and characteristic features to the present day [1909]. This organization was so formed as to permit of voluntary action upon the part of the city in the direction of satisfying its own local needs. [See also ADMINISTRATIVE LAW: Prussian; GERMANY: 1807-1808.] The Prussian Act of 1808 was followed in England by the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835, which gave to the English municipal borough a position and organization very similar to those which had been devised in Prussia for the Prussian municipal corporation. France followed the lead given by Prussia and England and, by a series of laws beginning in 1830 and ending in the existing law of 1884, gave to her cities both an organization and powers of local self-government which permit the cities to attend to the distinctly local needs of modern urban life. [See also ADMINISTRATIVE LAW: In France; FRANCE: 1841-1848.] The kingdom of Sardinia, which later developed into the present kingdom of Italy, provided, under the influence of the revolutionary ideas of the year 1848, for her cities, local councils elected by the larger taxpayers. The electorate was enlarged in 1850. The movement toward according to the cities of Italy greater liberty, continued uninterruptedly and, after the union of Italy in 1870, new laws were passed, namely, the present law of 1880 as to the general powers of cities, and a law of 1903 as to the operation by the cities of public utilities, which greatly enlarged the powers of local government possessed by the cities, and recognized that they were not merely agents of the central government, but as well organizations for the satisfaction of local needs. . . . The municipal institutions of the United States were naturally borrowed from those in England as they existed prior to the adoption of the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835. The first important municipal charter was granted to New York, which after several attempts to obtain a charter, received from George II in 1686 what is known as the Dongan charter. [See also NEW YORK: 1686.] During the colonial period as many as seventeen charters of a similar character were granted to various districts, almost all of them outside of New England, where the town system of government gave to the urban districts a satisfactory system of government. These early colonial charters, like the early European charters, were regarded as in the nature of contracts entered into between the people of the cities and the Crown, represented by the colonial government. After the United States secured its independence charters of municipal incorporation were granted by the legislatures of the states and up to about the middle of the nineteenth century were contained in special acts, each of which affected only one city. These charters, both colonial and state, were in large measure based upon the mediæval idea that a special organization of the judicial system in the municipalities was necessary. In fact, the sphere of government recognized by these charters as possessed by the cities, embraced merely the right to exercise judicial powers through the special courts that were established, the right to issue police regulations, and the right to manage the property with which the cities were endowed by the charter, as in the case of New York, or which was ob-

tained in any other way. The cities were not recognized as possessing in the absence of legislative authorization any power to tax their inhabitants and were restricted, so far as income was concerned, to the fines that might be imposed in their courts and to the revenue of their property. They generally, however, possessed the borrowing power and when their debts became so great as to cause anxiety they resorted to various expedients, such as lotteries, in order to pay these debts."—F. J. Goodnow, *Municipal government*, pp. 78-80.

Evolution of types of municipal government in the United States.—Analysis of the various types.—Cabinet form of government.—"The earliest type of city government in the United States was modeled after that which prevailed in the English borough and which still survives with comparatively little change in the English city today. It was simple in form. A single body—the board of mayor, aldermen, and assistants—constituted the government of the city. These exercised judicial and legislative functions primarily. One or two other charter officers were usually provided, such as a clerk and a chamberlain; but such simple administrative functions as were performed were also carried on by or under the direct control of this single body. There was no separation of powers. There was complete group centralization of both power and responsibility. Although the doctrine of the separation of powers exerted a powerful influence in the philosophy of those who drafted our early state constitutions and our national constitution, it is highly probable that in the immediate post-revolutionary period nobody thought of applying this principle of organization to the government of cities. The charters that survived from [the] colonial period were not at once overhauled to give expression to this principle, and I am by no means certain that it was consciously and clearly applied in any American city for more than half a century after the Revolutionary War. . . . It was not until this principle was fairly applied that a new type of municipal organization may be said to have developed in the United States. It is true that as this or that city increased in population the judicial powers of the mayor and aldermen were gradually sloughed off; but this was due not so much to the application of the idea of a division of powers as to the necessity for a division of labor—a necessity arising out of the increase of city functions. It is true, also, that certain features of our state and national governments were early introduced into city governments; but I think it can scarcely be said that the introduction of these features changed in any fundamental respect the colonial type of organization, the essence of which was the concentration of policy-determining and policy-executing functions in a single group of officers. . . . The introduction of the two-chambered council was a disastrous step in the direction of cumbersomeness of organization; but it did not in point of fact affect the fundamental principle of councilmanic domination and control. Individual responsibility became more difficult to locate; but group responsibility and concentration of authority remained. . . . It is probably true that in most of our older cities the break from the type of government under which the council enjoyed almost complete control to a type embodying an administrative organization independent of the council was made not by the introduction of the plan of mayoralty nomination and aldermanic ratification but by the application of the principle of popular election to the heads of administrative departments."—H. L. McBain, *Evolution of types of city government in*

the United States (*National Municipal Review*, Jan., 1917, pp. 19-21, 23).—See also BICAMERAL SYSTEM.—“During the first forty years after the establishment of the American Republic, the net results, according to Fairlie, were: (1) The abolition of the close corporations and the definitive establishment of the rule that each American municipality should have a locally elected council; (2) the unmistakable legal supremacy of the state legislatures over the municipal charters and the powers of the municipalities; (3) the introduction—as yet in a very few places—of the bicameral council system and the veto power of the mayor.’ From 1820 to 1850 the development consisted (1) in the change in the manner of electing mayors, from election by the councils to election by popular vote; and (2) in the limited extension of the bicameral system of council organization. It should also be noted that by the close of this period the property qualifications for the municipal suffrage had in most cases disappeared, and the general tendency of state legislation to enter into great detail in all statutes still further tended to remove all discretionary powers from the local officials, and leave them simply administrative duties to perform. This detailed statutory regulation was, perhaps, to be expected in regard to matters of general state administration, such as poor relief, education, and taxation, which were now often under the control of the municipal authorities. Established in this sphere, it was easy to follow the same rule in legislation for purely local matters in the cities, and especially in the statutes passed without the approval of the municipal authorities in order to insure that the latter would not evade the statutes; while in the case of cities controlled by another political party than that which controlled the state legislature there was a further motive for the most strict and detailed provisions in all the legislation for such cities. It is not said that these results had worked themselves out on any large scale before the middle of the century. It is after, rather than before, the year 1850 that much special legislation came to be enacted without regard to the local authorities, and hence to be considered as an interference with the local government. But even before 1850 something of this sort had been done, and the steps in the process are worth noting in the general development of municipal government.’ During the next thirty years, 1850-1880, the main points to be noted are: (1) The extension of municipal functions in kind and degree; (2) the constant growth of special and partisan legislation for cities, and the first ineffective measures to prevent such legislation; (3) the steady decline of the council; (4) the tendency for the government to disintegrate into independent departments, with no unity or harmony of purpose and action; (5) the development of the mayor’s authority, through the limited powers of appointment and removal and veto power. From 1880 to 1900 there was a continual growth of urban population and municipal activity.”—C. R. Woodruff, *New municipal program*, pp. 252-254.—“It is only in recent years that we have given definite names to types of city government. For lack of a more satisfactory nomenclature for the older types, . . . I should like to [name them and] call the government in which the administrative branch is constituted by mayoralty nominations and councilmanic confirmations the mayor-and-council hybrid. . . . It embodies neither the principle of an independent executive department nor of one responsible to the council. It may be that the system as found in our national and state governments is nothing more than an excep-

tion to the rule of the separation of legislative and executive powers. It is certain, however, that as applied in most cities the exception was at once more obvious and more important than the rule. . . . In spite of the fact that this type of government survives in a number of cities to-day, and in spite of the fact that in exceptional instances it has been measurably successful . . . it is indefensible in theory and unsupported by an overwhelming weight of experience. I should like to call the government in which numerous heads of administrative departments are made subject to popular election the independent-decentralized-executive type. Wholly apart from the viewpoint of the voter with his absurdly long ballot, this type produced in operation many unhappy results. Harmonious co-operation in the work of the city was effected, if at all, only through the agency of political parties. The resulting alternative was either distressing lack of co-operation or government by the city boss. It was clearly founded upon the understandable principle of the separation of policy-determining and policy-executing functions; but that principle is as bad as no principle if there is neither individual nor group responsibility which the electorate can locate. Another type of government was introduced in a number of American cities with the advent of the board plan of departmental control. Where the members of these boards were elected by the voters of the city or, as in some cases, appointed by the governor or the legislature of the state, a strong tendency developed to vest in these boards independent or quasi-independent financial powers and a portion of the legislative power of the city. This wholly new kind of organization may doubtless be called the independent-board type of government. Both the council and the mayor were stripped of all but their names, or were left at best with a pitiful remnant of power. The city was in fact governed by a number of commissions each independent of the other. A more extravagant and unworkable type of government could scarcely have been devised. There are numerous instances in which these popularly elected or state-appointed administrative boards survive in American cities with independent or quasi-independent powers over against the city government proper. I believe, however, that there is no city at the present time [1916] whose government as a whole may be said to be of this type. . . . In spite of the perseverance of our inherited love for checks and balances we have come at last to realize that the dangers resulting from an abuse of large political authority are perhaps after all not so great as the dangers of misgovernment that result from the diffusion of authority and a consequent concealment of responsibility. . . . Mr. Tweed introduced into the New York charter of 1870 the principle of an elected mayor endowed with power to appoint the heads of the ten administrative departments independent of any confirmation by the board of aldermen. This inaugurated a new type of city government in the United States—the independent-centralized-executive type. It was founded upon the principle of the separation of powers, but it was unique in that the administrative branch of the government was organized under the complete control of a single elected chief executive. I do not believe that this feature of the Tweed charter was to any considerable degree responsible for the scandalous corruption that followed almost immediately. However that may be, the charter was short-lived. In 1873 it was replaced by a charter in which the confirmatory power of the board of aldermen was restored. In 1880, however, this type of government was reintroduced in the city of Brooklyn. It

proved almost immediately successful and four years later it was again adopted for New York. It has had and still has great vogue among the cities of New York state. It was introduced into Quincy, Massachusetts, in 1888, in Louisville in 1893, in New Haven and Meriden in 1897, in St. Paul, Duluth, and San Francisco in 1900, in Portland, Oregon, in 1903, in Denver in 1904, in all the cities of Indiana in 1905, in Kansas City, Missouri, in 1908, in St. Joseph, Missouri, in Boston, and in all the cities of Ohio in 1909. The Tweed charter was responsible for the germ of another innovation which may perhaps be regarded as creating a distinctly new type of municipal organization. This was a board of estimate and apportionment. The essence of such a board is that the lion's share of the appropriating power of the city is vested in a group of administrative officials. Such boards are now found in New York city, in Rochester, in all the six second class cities and a few of the third class cities of New York, and in Baltimore. In every instance they are constituted in major part of the mayor and a small number of important administrative officials. In consideration of the fact that whenever a board of estimate is found it invariably forms the most important feature of the government of the city, it may be that the few cities having such boards should be regarded as representative of a distinct type of organization. I say this in spite of the fact that such a board may, of course, be combined with more than one of the several types of government that I have referred to. In point of fact it has been introduced only in cities in which executive responsibility has been centered largely if not entirely in an elected mayor. . . . In the entire evolution of municipal government in the United States there has been nothing so unprecedented as the rapid development within the last decade or so of our two most recent and somewhat related types of government, the so-called commission and city-manager types. [See COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES; CITY MANAGER PLAN.] . . . It may be that neither the commission form nor the city-manager type of government is the last word in municipal organization in the United States. To my mind they are of less interest as types than as an expression of a manifest and compelling need, on the one hand, and the proof of a change of public mental attitude on the other. They express the need for simplicity in municipal organization. Democracy cannot function properly through a complicated organization which it cannot visualize and cannot comprehend. Pinning our faith to the catholicon of reorganization, we early began to emerge from simplicity in municipal organization. For more than half a century we reaped the reward that might have been expected from the complications we introduced. We are now in the era of a return to simplicity. It is a sign that is full of hope, whatever may be the specific type of government in which the movement finds expression. . . . I am inclined to believe that had the commission or the city-manager type of government been established a generation or so ago it would have been a dismal failure. In an atmosphere of public indifference, of inactivity, of lack of heart or of interest, it would have lent itself admirably to the machinations of the professional politicians and spoilsmen. We should hesitate to give to the genius of a designer credit that is in fact due to a new motive force—in this case to an awakened, vitalized, and actively operating public opinion."—H. L. McBain, *Evolution of types of city government in the United States* (*National Municipal Review*, Jan., 1917).—"If

concentration of administrative responsibility upon five commissioners works well, further concentration upon the mayor alone will make it possible to hold just one man responsible for the ills of government. From this argument the cabinet form of government was developed. Upon the mayor alone was centered all responsibility, all authority, and all power. The organization of the national government was taken as the pattern for the cabinet form. One great departure from previous forms was made: the legislative body was separated entirely from the administrative; to the council were delegated legislative functions solely. Upon the mayor as the chief executive and his cabinet were vested all administrative functions. Sound in the theory and sound in practice was this separation of legislative and administrative bodies. Under the town-meeting system all legislative functions were performed by all the people assembled in town meeting, and administrative functions were vested in the selectmen. From the beginning of a representative form of government, however, legislative and administrative functions had been combined in the aldermanic council or in the commission. Some separation was made under the board system, but a connection was still there. Not until the cabinet form was tried was the separation once more effective. That this was good practice is manifest. In legislative matters it is advisable that the unit of representation shall be small and the representative body large. By this means, legislative matters are kept more closely in the hands of all the people governed or legislated for. In administrative affairs it is equally imperative that responsibility shall be centralized. By this means the people will always be able to place their finger upon the man responsible for dishonest or inefficient service. Under the cabinet form, therefore, the council, elected by wards or at large according to the tastes of the individual cities, performed only legislative functions; it had nothing to do relative to administrative affairs. The mayor was usually the presiding officer of the council and was generally given the veto power, which formed the only connecting link between the two departments. The council, too, was vested with sole power to make appropriations. By this means it was able to preserve a check upon administrative affairs although having no opportunity for direct interference with details. The law-making body was kept still further in close contact with the people through the initiative and referendum. These supplementary principles gave the nearest approach to the principles of the pure democracy possible under any representative system of government. The organization of the administrative branch of the government varied in different cities. Fundamentally the cabinet form was the same in all cities. In the elected mayor was vested all administrative responsibility and authority. He appointed his own heads of departments and was held responsible for their acts. In some cities, confirmation of these appointments by the council was necessary. It was found better practice, however, to give the mayor a free hand and then hold him to strict account for the acts of his appointees. Departments were organized along the same lines as in the commission form of government. Instead of electing the heads of these departments, however, the mayor only was elected and he, in turn, appointed his administrative heads. Cabinet meetings were usually held daily. At these meetings the mayor, surrounded by his department heads, discussed and fixed matters of general policy, the execution of the details being left to the heads of the respective departments. At these cabinet meetings, too, complaints, petitions, and other com-

munications from the people and from the employees were heard. All meetings were open to the public. Failure on the part of any administrative head to comply with decisions of the cabinet, to carry out effectually and efficiently the functions imposed upon him, was chargeable by the people directly against the mayor. He, therefore, saw to it that only competent and honest men were appointed to these administrative positions. Among the variations of the plan to be found was that some cities gave to the mayor and his cabinet legislative functions. This centered legislative as well as administrative powers in one man. It was neither good theory nor good practice. Tremendous power as well as tremendous responsibility was placed upon the mayor under the cabinet form. He has control directly, or through his appointed cabinet, over all expenditures, salaries, and employees. This was the great objection to the plan. In no small degree it made a dictator of the mayor. It might enable him to perpetuate himself in office, and to plunder the city if he were disposed to dishonesty. Two principles were necessary as safeguards to the cabinet form of government. One, the greatest, was the recall. By means of this, the mayor could be forced from his position either because of dishonesty on his own part or because of dishonesty or inefficiency on the part of the members of his cabinet. The people had a string upon one man only, and that man was the mayor. But as the mayor was responsible for every act of every employee and official in the administration of the city, he was the man who was recalled when any portion of the business of government went wrong. The other safeguarding principle was civil service. The great fear of the opponents of the cabinet form of government was that the mayor, being in absolute control, might perpetuate himself in office through the building up of a great political machine. It was the charge, too, that the business of government might be made to suffer severely every time a new mayor was elected if he were permitted to discharge the small army of employees his predecessor had maintained. Civil service was, therefore, applied to practically all municipal employees subordinate to cabinet members. By this means, in theory at least, the mayor was not given the opportunity to secure such a grip upon the city as to render himself immune from the operation of the recall or defeat for reelection."—F. M. Sparks, *Business of government: Municipal*, pp. 30-33.—See also BIRMINGHAM, ALABAMA; BOSTON: 1895-1899; 1909; CHICAGO: 1918-1919; 1919; CITY MANAGER PLAN: Dayton, Ohio; CLEVELAND: 1913; DETROIT: 1918-1920; 1920: Reform in judicial procedure; DELAWARE: 1918-1919; DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA: 1878-1890; COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES: Origin in Galveston; NEW YORK: 1863-1871; 1894; NEW YORK CITY: 1834; 1864-1921; 1905; 1920; PHILADELPHIA: 1921; PITTSBURGH: 1906; SAN FRANCISCO: 1898; 1901-1909; Struggle with political corruption.

ALSO IN: R. M. Story, *American municipal executive (University of Illinois Studies in the Social Sciences)*.—*Political Science Review*, Feb., 1921, pp. 124-125.—L. M. Holmes, *Development of municipal government in the United States before the Civil War*.—G. H. McCaffery, *Municipal policies*.—F. J. Goodnow, *City government in the United States*.—H. Bruère, *New city government*.—H. E. Deming, *Government of American cities*.—J. A. Fairlie, *Municipal development in the United States* (C. R. Woodruff, ed., *New Municipal program*)

Short ballot and public spirit in British cities.
—"The city governments of England and Scotland

are the admiration of the world. They are intelligent, progressive, and economical. Ward politicians and reformers are both conspicuous by their absence. Yet to a political grafter of our country the opportunities would seem ideal. The British municipality is run by the council, acting through committees. There is considerable antiquated and outgrown red-tape, and the property interests in the House of Lords often interfere unreasonably with city progress. In some cities the municipal operation of public utilities—gas works, street cars, etc.—is so extended that one tenth of the laboring population is on the city pay-rolls, with none of the civil-service-examination restrictions that we should think vital in such a situation, to check 'patronage.' The development of wholesale organized corruption would seem to be inevitable in such an environment. Its absence is not to be explained by any superior civic spirit in the British public, for before the cities were organized under the present act relating to municipal corporations, corruption in their governments was widespread and quite equal in flagrancy to anything we have ever had in the United States. The explanation is seen when you ride down to business on the tramway on a morning following a meeting of the city council. The doings of the council are spread out in detail in the morning paper, the editorials review the proceedings, the people are chatting on the subject, each citizen knows what the councilmen from his ward did, and criticism is pointed and severe. Everybody in town seems dissatisfied and the councilmen will know it. This is a phenomenon that also reveals itself in Des Moines and other cities in [the United States] . . . under the commission plan, and it sometimes gives to a casual observer the impression that the plan of government is anything but satisfactory to the people. But this criticism, on closer study, is found to be over matters an American would usually regard as trifles—matters which he never debates because so many larger affairs usually need fixing first. They are matters which in typical American towns are never looked into by the people at all. I have seen a city council in England bitterly denounced in an editorial because it had made an architect stick unreasonably close to specifications! The existence of this ready and bitter criticism is not a sign of disease, but a sign of health. The council dares not differ with public opinion. The lash is always busy. The members must explain themselves at every turn. The people not only have the right to oversee the work of their representatives, but they actually are on deck overseeing it. A British council would face a hurricane of public wrath if it did some things which an American city council could do with impunity. That difference is sufficient to account for the relative superiority of the British municipality. How was it brought about? By some great stirring up of the conscience of the people? Are the British citizens, by reason of being conscious taxpayers or for some other cause, more alert on civic matters than our people are? No. . . . The British water-mill works so nicely, not because the stream is stronger, but because the mill turns more easily, its gears being properly adjusted to the energy available. The mechanism by which the British voter controls his city government is a hallot about the size of a post-card. It elects the member of council from his ward. There are two names, or three, on it; the voter selects one. To make up his mind on that simple choice is the whole work of the voter in the campaign and on election day. The chance of his selecting the candidate who really best represents his wishes is excellent—certainly much better than

that of an American voter who is trying to make wise selections for thirty officers at one time. The British council chooses the aldermen (who sit in the council), the mayor, whose duties are mostly ornamental, and all other city officers. The councilmen simply dictate policies for paid superintendents to carry out. They do not themselves receive salaries and they give only their spare time to the city. The service does not mean the abandonment of private careers. The wards are small, and candidates can easily get in personal touch with every voter. The office is a visible and debatable office, since it has 'a large part in determining interesting policies,' and this fact leads to fierce campaign discussions. No candidate could hope for success if he did not permit questions to be publicly addressed to him at the conclusion of his speeches, and this 'heckling' does much to provide a basis for clear opinions among the voters. The phenomenon of political peace when things are going right is also noticeable here, for about one third of the time there is 'no contest,' which means either that at the expiration of his term no one cares to try to prevent the incumbent from remaining in office for another three years, or that only one candidate has asked to have his name printed on the official ballot. Councilmen who do well for one or more terms and are ready to serve again, are so sure to be re-elected that it is useless for new candidates to come forward. Often council members serve for decades. This is good government, and it results from having a form of government which the people readily control. The British city is a democracy. The Two Limitations are respected:—

1. The office is visible. 2. The district is wieldy."—R. S. Childs, *Short-ballot principles*, pp. 91-96.—See also CAUCUS: England: Development of the caucus; BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND: 1835-1838.

State control over cities.—Legislative versus administrative control.—France, Prussia and England.—Tendency toward administrative control in the United States.—"The fact that the city is discharging many functions which have been assigned to it as an agent of the state government makes it necessary that the state shall exercise some sort of a control over it. The further fact that matters which are at one time regarded as of municipal interest become, with the course of social development, of interest to the state as a whole makes it necessary that the state should always have the power of extending its control over matters which may at one time be regarded as distinctly municipal functions. Finally, the state should have a control over the financial administration of cities so far as the carrying on of that administration necessitates the exercise of the taxing and the borrowing powers. For these reasons there must be provided in the governmental system a state control over the actions of municipalities. But while from the constitutional point of view the control which the state may exercise over municipalities should be a very broad one, from the point of view of legislative policy this control should not be exercised except when necessary. Our study of the history of municipal development shows us that the too extensive exercise of the control of the state over the municipality prevents the development in the municipality of that local life whose existence is so requisite to the proper occupation of that great field of activity opened to the modern municipality by the social development of the nineteenth century. There is a great danger that the municipality may be hampered by the state in the exercise of powers which are neces-

sary to municipal development. There is also great danger that the interests of the municipality will be disregarded by the state, that the municipality will be sacrificed to the state. . . . Two methods have been adopted to keep the necessary control of the state over the municipality within its proper limits: one has consisted in the attempt to assign a sphere of activity to the city within which the organs of the state government may not legally enter and in which the municipalities may act free from state control. This is the course which has been pursued in most of the states of the United States. It consists, in the first place, in forbidding the legislatures of the state governments, and indeed all the authorities of the state governments, to interfere in any way with certain matters specified in the state constitutions and entrusted to the municipalities. It cannot, however, be claimed that this method of regulating the relations of city and state has been successful. The attempts of the people to limit the powers of the legislature over the cities have been largely frustrated by the courts, which have decided both that the sphere of municipal activity protected by the constitution is a very narrow one, and that special legislation is, notwithstanding the constitution, permissible under the device of classification [as when an act is passed to apply to any cities belonging to a certain population class which may actually include only one city]. . . . It would therefore seem as if any method of limiting the control of the state over the city, which is based upon a constitutional denial of the power of the state government to interfere in municipal matters, were foredoomed to failure. It would seem that in order to solve this problem of state control over municipalities the attempt should be made so to organize the control that the state authorities would not be tempted to exercise it improperly, while the existence of their power should not be denied. It has been shown that the main cause of the improper extension of the control of the state over the cities in the United States is to be found in the very narrow powers which the city possesses and that, if we may judge from both European and American experience, such improper extension of the legislative control over cities may be discouraged by the grant of general powers of government to the cities. The mere grant to cities of general powers of government does not, however, make any provision for the control which it has been shown that the state must exercise over municipalities. Indeed, the recognition of general powers in the municipalities would be extremely dangerous to the welfare of the state as a whole if some means were not devised of assuring to the state a control over the actions of the cities. This control is on the continent and to a less degree in England an administrative control, which is the second method of providing for the necessary state control. [See also STATE GOVERNMENT: 1890-1921.] . . . While in England and the United States the centralization of government which has been secured is a legislative centralization, on the continent the centralization has been administrative rather than legislative. The great influence of feudal ideas on the continent prevented the development of the idea of the unity of the state, and no general representative legislative authority was established in early times. There were formed in both France and Germany local legislative bodies whose powers varied considerably at different times. The only unity in the state government was to be found in the administration with the Crown at its head. The purpose of the absolute

monarchy everywhere was to realize the idea of national unity. The absolute monarchy on the continent did, it is true, endeavor with varying degrees of success to extend its centralization to matters of legislation as well as of administration, but the chief success of the Crown in its attempts at centralization was in the domain of administration. By the time of the French Revolution its success was almost complete. In France, . . . the Crown had succeeded in forcing its general scheme of municipal administration on all cities in the Kingdom and had, as a result of the general ordinances in which this scheme was to be found, secured a very large control over the administration of municipal affairs, appointing most of the important officers. The influence of the French Revolution was in the same direction. It secured unity to France and the great law of 1800 made the city but a part of the central administration, giving the central government the appointment of all city officers and subjecting their action to a most strict central administrative control. After the unity of the state had been secured, however, and the supremacy of the central legislative power had been acknowledged the administration began to be decentralized. This decentralization did not, however, result in the denial of the right of the central administration to control the government of the cities where the interests of the state as a whole were affected. It merely provided that, where privileges of local government could be granted with due regard to the interests of the state, this should be done. The same is true of Prussia. The centralization of municipal administration had the same result as in France, that is, the practical absorption of all municipal administration into central state administration. In Prussia further as in France, and largely due to the same causes, a central representative legislature played a very unimportant rôle. Indeed, it did not appear in Prussian history until about 1848. The administration with the Crown at its head attended to legislative as well as to administrative matters. Since 1808, the date of the passage of the Great Cities' Act, the administration, as in France, has been much decentralized. Particularly is this the case within the last fifty years [written in 1909]. But, as in France, notwithstanding the grant of large privileges of local government to the cities, the central administration has large powers of control over their actions in so far as these affect the interests of the state as a whole. The unimportance, indeed the absence for so long a time of any central legislative authority, had of course an important influence on the position which the administration occupied in the post-revolutionary system of governmental polity. Whereas, in England, owing to the early recognition of the supremacy of Parliament, the central legislative body, administrative officers owed allegiance to that body and official duties were minutely prescribed in its mandates, on the continent, on account of the absence of any central legislature, administrative officers owed allegiance to some administrative superior whose instructions delimited their competence and prescribed their duties. When the central state legislature was finally established on the continent it naturally occupied a position very different from that of the English Parliament and the American state legislature. The fact that the detailed duties of subordinate administrative officers had from time immemorial been prescribed by royal ordinances and ministerial circulars of instructions made it perfectly natural for the legislature, so far as it interfered with the administration at all, to confine its interference merely

to the laying down of general principles which were to be elaborated in detail by ordinance and instruction and to permit the administration to continue to exercise in the future as it had exercised in the past a control over the governmental affairs of the local communities. This control hereafter differed from what it had been in the past only in that it was no longer entirely arbitrary but was to be exercised within the general limits fixed by legislation and was in some cases subject to judicial revision. But the predominant position of the administrative organization and its recognized efficiency made it not only unnecessary but also inexpedient and unnatural for the legislature to assume the same special control over administrative matters which it had been the recognized policy of the English Parliament to exercise. To these reasons is due the fact that on the continent the central administrative control exercised over municipalities, which is the remnant now left of the idea that all administration is state administration, is merely a part of the general administrative centralization, and is exercised by the ordinary central administrative authorities, either the executive departments at the capital of the state or the general representatives which the central administration has always had and now has in the localities and which are an essential part of a centralized administrative system. In England a centralized administrative control similar in many respects to that existing at the time on the continent was developed during the nineteenth century. It could not, however, be organized in the same way in which the continental system was organized. The original local self-government system of England could not adapt itself to the changed conditions necessitated by the existence of a central administrative control, without being completely remodeled. The central administration had no representatives in the provinces, but matters of general interest were attended to there by local officers, that is, the justices of the peace. Therefore the new legislation of Parliament, beginning with the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834, super-imposed upon the original local self-government system a new system of administration with what is now the Local Government Board at London at its head, to which have been given large powers of control over the local authorities established since 1834. When the matter of education became one in which the local communities interested themselves, a similar control over the exercise of their school powers was vested in the Privy Council. . . . The failure of legislative control in the United States has caused recourse in a number of instances to administrative control. Thus in the state of New York the administration of the civil service law by cities is subjected to the control of a state civil service commission which has the power to disapprove the rules of the municipal commissions. In a number of states, such as Ohio, the finances of the cities have been subjected to a similar state control. In a large number of states the management by cities of schools and charitable and correctional institutions and of the public health must be conducted in accordance with rules laid down by state administrative authorities, such as state school boards and boards of charities and health and state superintendents of schools, who also have rights of inspection and supervision of the actions of city officers. When we consider this movement in the direction of administrative centralization together with the constitutional limitations of legislative power which have been described, we can hardly fail to reach the conclusion

that the state control over local corporations in the United States is being changed from a legislative into an administrative control."—F. J. Goodnow, *Municipal government*, pp. 114-119, 126-127.—See also ADMINISTRATIVE LAW.

Home rule for cities in the United States.—Beginning with the third quarter of the nineteenth century, there were introduced significant changes in the local government of American cities. "The creation of new cities, which up to 1850 had . . . been accompanied by special legislative acts of incorporation for each city, now became the subject of constitutional provision requiring the legislature to proceed by general law for the incorporation of cities and forbidding special legislations. . . . By the middle of the nineteenth century the disposition to insert in the state constitution, clauses to check the legislature interference with the municipal government were so decided that whenever a revision was made in a constitution, some such provision was added. . . . [Before 1875 there were three different styles of Charter systems: special charter system, general charter system, and classified charter system. Then came the home-rule charter system.] It was the continuance of legislative interference with cities . . . that resulted in the . . . home-rule charter system. . . . [This] movement began in Missouri in 1875, when the constitution of that year gave to cities of over 100,000 population . . . the right to frame and adopt their own charter. . . . The idea made but slow progress in other states, California, Washington, and Minnesota having the principle in the next thirty years, but since 1900 [written in 1921] nine other states have adopted the home-rule charter system, Colorado, Oregon, Oklahoma, Michigan, Arizona, Ohio, Nebraska, Texas and Maryland. . . . The size of the cities to which the privilege of framing their own charters is extended varies in different states. . . . The freedom accorded to cities to initiate their own plan of city organization has resulted in a tremendous stimulation of interest in these matters, and has been largely responsible for the extensive adoption of the newer forms of city government in this country."—H. G. James, *Local government in the United States*, pp. 111, 309, 310.

City finance.—**Evolution of income sources.**—**Taxation.**—**Expenditures.**—**Financial officers.**—"The receipts of cities for a considerable period in their history, since they were reduced to the position of subordinate members of a greater state, consisted exclusively of private corporate rather than public governmental receipts. The history of most cities in Europe had brought it about that they became owners of considerable amounts of revenue-bearing property. From lucrative rights, from the receipts from this property, and from loans, the expenses of the city government were for the most part defrayed. Cities in England and the United States, further, were not before the nineteenth century regarded as sufficiently governmental organizations to be entrusted with the right of taxation. It was the rule of the English law thus that the mere incorporation of a borough did not confer upon it any power of taxation. The extension of the sphere of municipal activity which was characteristic of the nineteenth century, made it, however, impossible for cities to defray the expenses of their administration out of the income of their property, and recourse was had to the taxing power which was very commonly conferred upon them by the legislature of the state in which they were situated. It is very questionable whether such a complete reversal of the policy of the centuries preceding the nineteenth

century was either necessary or wise. For there was, as it turned out, in the streets of cities a new kind of property whose income, if recognized as being at the disposal of the city, would have been sufficient, particularly in the large cities, to pay a large part if not all of the really local expenses of the city government. In the United States, however, the courts very generally refused to recognize the cities as possessing any property rights in the streets, and the legislatures of the states very commonly wasted this property by improvident grants of it, sometimes in perpetuity, to private persons and companies. These grants were in many instances unaccompanied by conditions by the enforcement of which cities could either derive pecuniary profit for themselves as corporations or indirect advantage for their inhabitants through improvement in service. Prior to the commencement of the nineteenth century the municipal authorities had wasted the city patrimony in England and Europe generally. During that century what might have been a new city patrimony of immense value was wasted by the legislatures of many of the states of the United States. Within recent years, however, a more intelligent view has come to be taken of the rights of the cities and at the present time [1909] an earnest attempt is being made throughout the United States to secure for the city a portion, at any rate, of the profit which is derivable from street and other municipal franchises. One reason why this mistaken policy was adopted in the United States is to be found in the belief which has so generally been held in this country as to the functions of government. Whatever may have been the original ideas held on this subject, the experience of most of our states, which at the beginning of the nineteenth century entered into commercial undertakings, particularly those connected with transportation such as canals and railways, was from the pecuniary point of view so unfortunate that it became the fixed belief of the great majority of the people of the United States that political corporations were inherently unable to conduct enterprises whose purpose was pecuniary profit. This belief has had two effects on the finances of American cities: one was that the city government should undertake only those functions whose discharge would not be undertaken by private companies; the second was that if by any chance the city should have entered upon an undertaking which could be made profitable the charges for services should be reduced so as to cover little if any more than the cost of the service. The advantage to be derived from any city undertaking was to be found not in the pecuniary profit from the undertaking, but in the improvement of the welfare of the inhabitants. As a result of these conditions the receipts derived by American cities from commercial undertakings and property generally, form a very small portion of their total receipts. It is from the public governmental receipts, such as taxes, special assessments for local improvements, and loans to be eventually paid from the receipts of taxation, that by far the major part of the revenue of the American city comes. Only 2% of all revenues of cities of 4,000 inhabitants comes from public utilities. What has been said of American cities is also in large part true of foreign cities, though in Great Britain and Germany some of the cities derive quite a percentage of their revenue from sources other than taxes. Thus Berlin gets 30% of its total ordinary revenue from such sources, the cities of England and Wales, one-sixth, Paris, 22%. . . . The organization provided by the average American, and

indeed European, city for the collection of its receipts has to do, for the reasons stated, mainly with matters of taxation, including in that term 'special assessments.' It is of course true that where it has revenue from property this is collected not by the tax officers, but rather by special boards or authorities having charge of particular classes of property such as a water-works board or commission. In some cases the revenue of city property, such as markets, is collected by the chief financial officer of the city. In a few cities where the revenue of city property has been pledged to the payment of city debts the care of city property may be placed in the hands of a debt or sinking fund commission. This is the case in the City of New York. But apart from these comparatively unimportant matters, the collection of city revenue is in the hands of the taxing officers of the city. . . .

"There are two general systems adopted by the various cities of the United States for organizing the authorities entrusted with the determining of the city appropriations. The first system vests almost all the powers relative to fixing the amount of money to be spent, so far as that is a matter of local determination, in the city council; the second provides a board of administrative officers which has at least coördinate powers with the city council. The first system is the one more generally adopted; the latter system has been established in the City of New York, in a number of the larger cities of the State of New York, all the cities of the State of New Jersey, and in a number of cities scattered all over the country. In some of the cities adopting this second system the board of finances or estimate, as it is often called, has larger powers relative to the amounts of money which may be spent than the council. Thus a greater than ordinary majority vote of the council is necessary to amend the estimates made by the board of finances, or the council is permitted merely to reduce but not increase the estimates made by that body. It is believed by many that it is very desirable to forbid the council to increase the appropriations proposed by the administrative authorities of the city government, and that in this way alone will economical city government be secured. Where a board of estimates or finance is provided, it usually consists of the mayor, the chief financial officer of the city, the president of the council where there is one, the corporation counsel, and other officers who are generally not connected with departments spending large sums of money. In the City of New York it consists, in addition to the mayor, comptroller and president of the board of aldermen, of the presidents of the five boroughs of which the city is composed. These last officers are really at the head of the borough departments of public works (streets and sewers) and naturally, therefore, spend a great deal of money. Where there is no board of estimate the estimates of each department usually are delivered to the head of the finance department who ordinarily revises them before they are submitted to the council. The council usually considers these estimates in committee. The council further is usually authorized to make such changes in the estimates as it sees fit. . . . Ordinarily the budget of an American city does not include the extraordinary expenditures defrayed from the proceeds of loans or special assessments. The same authorities, which make up the budget of current expenses defrayed from the revenue of city property and taxes, usually have charge also of the extraordinary expenditures. There is not, however,

usually any attempt made to estimate beforehand what extraordinary expenditures shall be made each year but each matter requiring such expenditure is attended to as it arises. In the City of New York, however, the charter specifically provides that the board of estimate and apportionment may, without the approval of the city council, expend each year from the issue of bonds, certain specified amounts for the extension of the city streets and school houses, for acquiring new docks, and for increasing the plant of its water works. Expenditures, both ordinary and extraordinary, are not in the average American city altogether a matter of local determination. This is particularly true of the expenditures relative to matters which are regarded as of state interest. Thus, the city is often compelled by law to enter into undertakings which in the opinion of the legislature are of advantage to it, the salaries of its officers are often fixed with considerable detail, particularly the salaries of teachers. In New York City as in Prussia the minimum salaries of teachers are fixed by the state law and in the case of New York the city must devote a certain proportion of the tax levy to the payment of such salaries. These compulsory expenditures form, sometimes, such a large proportion of the total expenditures of the city as to take away much of the importance of the formal budget making authorities. Thus, in New York City it is said that more than half of the expenditures for salaries and wages are fixed by state law. These compulsory expenditures are enforced by the courts on the application of parties interested. In England naturally the whole matter of city expenditures is in the hands of the council. Certain expenses are, however, obligatory. Ordinarily as in the United States the provision for such expenses may be enforced by the courts at the instance of persons interested. This judicial control is supplemented by an imperfect administrative control exercised by the Local Government Board in all matters but schools, where the Board of Education is to act. The estimates often go to a Finance Committee which puts them into the form in which they are submitted to the council. But the council where it has adopted no standing order to the contrary may increase as well as reduce them. In both France and Germany the determination of expenses is made by the council on the proposition of the executive. In France proposals made by the mayor to spend money may be changed by the council by either additions or reductions. In Germany the council may reject the proposals of the executive, when appeal goes to the administrative courts. Provision for obligatory expenses may be enforced on the continent of Europe by the superior administrative authority to which the budget of receipts and expenses must be presented before it has any legal effect. This may be changed so as to make it conform to the law. . . . In the smaller cities of the United States these two functions [of determining the correctness of the claims for payment and of making the actual payments] are quite commonly discharged by the same authority, in the larger they are discharged by separate authorities. Further, in a number of cities, of which New York is an example, the function of determining the correctness of claims against the city is made a part of the duties of the chief financial officer of the city. Where we find the greatest differentiation in the functions of municipal financial administration, we find three separate and distinct officers, namely, a treasurer, or chamberlain, who receives, cares for and pays out city funds,

a comptroller, who is the chief financial officer of the city, and an auditor, who examines into the character of claims against the city. As a general thing the city treasurer is elected by the people in the United States. In New York City he is called the chamberlain and is appointed by the mayor. In other cases he is appointed by the council. The comptroller, where that office is completely distinguished from the others, is almost invariably elected by the people or appointed by the council. The same is true of the auditor. It is thus generally true that the financial administration of most American cities has not been brought under the control of the mayor even in those cities in which the mayor has large powers of control over every branch of city administration. In England payments are regularly made by the borough treasurer, appointed by the council, on orders signed by three members of the council and countersigned by the town clerk. The Municipal Corporations Act provides that an order so made which is not authorized by act of parliament may be removed by writ of *certiorari* on the application of a rate-payer to the Court of King's Bench, which on motion and hearing may disallow or confirm such order. In France the mayor is the only authority in the city government who can authorize the payment of city monies. He is responsible for his action to the city council, which at the budget session examines his account for the past year with the idea of ascertaining if his orders of payment correspond with the appropriations made. The mayor's accounts must also be submitted to the prefect for approval. The orders or warrants of payment issued by the mayor must be honored by the city treasurer, who is appointed by the prefect or president of the republic from a list containing the names of three persons presented by the city council. The German system of providing for expenditures is much like the French except that the officer having charge of city funds is appointed by the municipality. As in France, warrants issued by the competent authority, generally the burgomaster, must be honored by the officer who has possession of the funds, usually a chamberlain or receiver, who is appointed by the city authorities."—F. J. Goodnow, *Municipal government*, pp. 361-374.

Also in: E. A. Cottrell, *Municipal budget systems*.—O. C. Hormell, *Municipal finances as a function of government*.—F. A. Cleveland, *Chapters on municipal administration and accounting* (*Political Science Quarterly*, Dec., 1908).—Bureau of Municipal Research, *New York City, How should public budgets be made?*—E. E. Agger, *Budget in the American commonwealth* (*Columbia University Studies*).—D. F. Wilcox, *Study of city government*.

Police defined.—Administrative police.—Origin of police systems.—Board control.—Police and public health.—Organization of policemen.—British and Continental police compared.—"The English word 'police' as a term to signify an organized body of constabulary is of comparatively modern origin. When Sir William Blackstone published his celebrated Commentaries in 1765, he gave it a much broader meaning. 'The public police and economy,' he said, 'must be considered as the due regulation and domestic order of the kingdom, whereby the individuals of the state, like members of a well-governed family, are bound to conform to the rules of propriety, good neighborhood, and good manners'—a definition wide enough to include the entire domestic policy of a nation. Not until the Parliament act of 1787, which provided for a constabulary sys-

tem in Ireland, did the word come to be used officially in its modern and somewhat limited sense. To-day we mean by police the primary constitutional force for the protection of individuals in their legal rights, or—to use M. Louis Lepin's definition—"an organized body of officers whose primary duties are the preservation of order, the security of the person and the safety of property."—R. B. Fosdick, *European police systems*, p. 3.—"Administrative police is that part of the police function which has to do with the arrest of offenders against the criminal and police laws and ordinances. The systematic organization of professional, disciplined police forces has only very recently been undertaken. From a very early time the attempt was made to provide officers for the preservation of the peace, like the English Parish constables. . . . There was nothing, however, very systematic about the way in which the government attempted the work, and the attempts which it made were not attended with great success. Besides forming systems similar to that which was based on the parish constable, the governments of the centuries preceding the nineteenth century placed a considerable reliance upon the army for the preservation of order, particularly where that might be disturbed as the result of political offenses. . . . The first attempt to form a modern city police force was made by England, in 1829, by the act passed to improve the police in and near the metropolis of London. The metropolis of London as distinguished from the city of London had grown up naturally about the city through the settlement of persons in what had been rural parishes. As the population of these parishes had increased and it was seen that unmodified rural parish organization was inapplicable to the new conditions, special Acts of Parliament were passed, giving particular parishes a special organization. But, so far as the preservation of the peace and the maintenance of public order were concerned, reliance was placed on the parish constable and the night watchman, who had jurisdiction only in the parish in which they had been appointed. Dr. Colquhoun, a city police magistrate, drew attention, in the latter part of the eighteenth century, to the bad conditions produced by such a system, in a book entitled 'The Police,' which in a short time went through several editions. Various parliamentary committees were appointed to examine into the subject in the early part of the nineteenth century. In 1828 a commission was appointed on the suggestion of Sir Robert Peel, who was then Home Secretary, and in 1829 an act was passed which took out of the hands of the parishes surrounding the city the charge of the preservation of the peace, and provided a metropolitan district, as it was called, which ultimately came to consist of all the country within a radius of fifteen miles from Charing Cross, and in which a new police force was established. The police of the city of London, which had not been affected by the act of 1829, was, in 1830, put upon somewhat the same basis as the metropolitan police force. The fact of Sir Robert Peel's connection with the change will always be associated with the new municipal police methods from the terms of 'Bobby' or 'Peeler' which, originally used in derision, have since come to be applied commonly to city policemen in almost all English-speaking countries. This reform met with great opposition. The committees of Parliament, which in the early part of the nineteenth century had examined into the subject, regarded with considerable misgiving so radical a change in the historical methods of maintaining order. And

Parliament made the change only because of the increase of crime everywhere throughout the metropolitan district. The misgivings of those responsible for the change were but a forecast of the opposition which followed its adoption on the part of the people. . . . The main characteristics which distinguished the new methods from those which they superseded were three in number. They were, first, the professional character of the force. The old system of parish constables and night watchmen had, it is true, been based upon paid service, but the service was paid for on such a low scale that the constable and watchmen were not able to live from their pay alone. The new force, in addition to being much more numerous than the old, received larger compensation and were expected to devote their entire time to their work. The occupation of policemen thus became a definite occupation, requiring certain specific qualifications, although the powers given the new force were little more than those possessed by parish constables. The second characteristic of the system was its centralization. The officers at the head of the new force, at first two commissioners, later one commissioner and three assistant commissioners, who were given the powers of justices of the peace, were appointed by and acted under the immediate direction of the home secretary. In the third place, the new force was organized on a semi-military plan and consisted of constables, sergeants, inspectors, and divisional and district superintendents. In the United States, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, similar conditions existed in the cities as existed in England. Reliance was placed almost entirely on the constables and night watchmen. A good idea of the conditions which existed in one of the large cities of the United States is given by Allinson and Penrose in their 'Philadelphia.' Here it is said: 'The first watchman was appointed in 1700 by the provincial council, and had the whole care of the city within his charge. It was his duty to go through the town at night ringing a bell, to cry out the time of night and state the weather, and to inform the constables of any disorder or fire. In 1704 it was ordered by the common council that the city be divided into ten precincts and that an equal number of watchmen be assigned to each constable therein. In the same year the city was divided into ten wards. The constable was the principal officer of the watch. The watch was not a permanent body of paid men, but every able-bodied housekeeper was supposed to take his turn and watch or furnish a substitute. . . . The system, however, was onerous and unsatisfactory. . . . At length, in 1740, the complaint concerning the want of a "sufficient and regular watch" culminated. It was complained that the watch was weak and insufficient, and that the housekeepers refused to pay the watch money upon the pretense that they would attend the watch duty when warned, but frequently neglected to do so.' In 1750 an act was passed granting to a board, consisting of six wardens to be annually elected, the power to appoint and pay as many watchmen as they deemed proper. 'In conjunction with the mayor, recorder, and four aldermen they were to fix stands throughout the city at which the watchmen were to be posted and to have general control of the watch. The constables and watchmen were supplied with copies of the rules and regulations. The constables reported regularly at the court-house and had general superintendence of the watchmen. Neglect or violation of the police rules of the mayor recorder, aldermen, and watchmen was punished by fine.' The system was not,

however, at all satisfactory. 'During the revolution there was practically no police protection to the city apart from the military, and even after the act of 1789 was passed the same radically inadequate system continued as existed under the charter government. The police force, if we may use the term, consisted of a high constable, the constables, the watch, and the superintendent of the watch, the two former appointed by the mayor, the latter by the city commissioners. The constables had their common law powers. The ordinance of 1789 creating city commissioners and the several ordinances supplementary thereto, placed the appointment and regulation of the watch in their hands where it remained until 1833 subject to removal by the mayor for misconduct. The first decided step to be noticed in this period is that the city commissioners were to appoint a superintendent of the night watch, and hire and employ a sufficient number of able-bodied men to light and watch the city, at fixed wages, prescribe rules for their government, and dismiss them when they thought proper.' The system still was not satisfactory, and several riots occurring, one in 1838 and another in 1844, resulted in the improvement of the system, the police force being organized in 1850 somewhat on the English model. Conditions were very similar in New York. In 1840 an attempt was made to make the force more efficient. The mayor with the approval of the council was to appoint a chief of police, and the captains and men were to be appointed every year in each ward by the aldermen and the assessors. Naturally such a system was unsatisfactory and in 1853 a change was made. By the law passed in this year the mayor, recorder, and city judge were made police commissioners, with power to appoint the members of the force during good behavior. At first great difficulty was found in both Philadelphia and New York in making the men wear uniforms. The attempt to do this excited somewhat the same remark that the later attempts of the late Colonel Waring, to put the street-cleaning force of New York into uniform excited. The wearing of uniform was then considered to be degrading to American manhood, and the attempt to make the men wear it was resented. Indeed, it is said that in Philadelphia the attempt to make the men wear their uniforms was not successful until 1860. But both in Philadelphia and New York the attempt to make a somewhat military force after the English model was successful, and the example of these two cities was followed by others, so that at the present time almost every city in the country has its uniformed police force, organized in military fashion, and professional in character. . . . It will be seen that the system, as originally introduced in the United States, differed in one important respect from that adopted by the English law of 1829. In the United States the preservation of the peace was, at first, regarded as a purely municipal matter, and was therefore put in the charge of the local authorities, the mayor being the most important authority having to do with the matter. In London, and on the Continent as well, it was regarded as a matter affecting the interests of the central government and therefore was either put into the hands of the central government or made subject to its control. The experience of a number of the cities of the United States, under the local management of the police force, was such as soon to produce a change in this respect, which brought the American treatment of the subject more into accord with European ideas. Thus, in 1857, the police of New York city and of Brooklyn was

put into the hands of a centrally appointed police commission having jurisdiction over the newly established metropolitan police district. The example of New York was followed within ten years by Baltimore, St. Louis, Chicago, Detroit, and Cleveland, while other centrally appointed police boards have since been provided in several cities in Massachusetts, among them being Boston, in Cincinnati, Washington, Denver, Newport, Kansas City, St. Joseph, Birmingham, Manchester, N. H., in eleven Indiana cities, and in Providence (1901). In some of the cities, in which these centrally appointed boards were created, return has been made to the method of local appointment. This is so in New York, Chicago, Detroit, and Cleveland. . . . [An important] question in the United States connected with police administration is, What shall be the composition of the authority, whether locally or centrally appointed, which has in its hands the management of the police? Shall it be a board or shall it be a single man? . . . In this country the board system of police management was characteristic of the first attempts to organize a modern police force, namely, those of New York, by the laws of 1853 and 1857. The board system was introduced here, however, probably not because a board was believed to be particularly appropriate to police administration, but because the board system was just about that time believed to be the proper form of municipal government. It is true, that afterward the demands of the spoils system seemed to make a board necessary, for that was the only way in which a division of the spoils of the police force could be made between the two leading political parties, but this consideration does not seem to have affected the legislature which passed the acts of 1853 and 1857, for no trace of the bipartisan idea is found in those acts. Later on, it is, of course, true that the bipartisan idea had a potent influence in giving the board form to the municipal-police authority. The abuses which resulted from bipartisan boards have led, however, in more recent years to quite a tendency toward the abandonment of the board idea altogether, and to placing the management of the police in the hands of one man. There is little doubt that the latter system is the correct one, whether such officers be appointed by the city or by the state. . . . It is, however, hardly to be believed that the mere placing at the head of the police department in American cities of a single commissioner or the appointment of such officer by the state governor, will have the effect of so changing the character of the force as to remove the present grounds for dissatisfaction with the police force as a whole. Such changes would, of course, concentrate responsibility for its management, and take it to a considerable degree out of local politics. But the main reasons for dissatisfaction with the police force in the average large city of the United States, are not that it cannot be held responsible, or that it favors the members of one political party over those of another. The most common complaint against the city police is that, either as a body or through its individual members, it sells the right to break the law. . . . In one respect, . . . the conditions of American life differ very much from those of European life, and the difference is perhaps in large part accountable for the greater use made by the police of American cities of their powers in their own pecuniary interest. In the United States the people have never so clearly as in Europe, and particularly in Continental Europe, distinguished between vice and crime. It is too commonly believed in this country that once we have

determined that an action is vicious, it necessarily follows that such action should be criminally punished. . . . Until we alter somewhat our standards of determining crime we can hardly hope for a different kind of police force. . . . In the United States the police of public health and safety starts from the idea of nuisance. It is further based on the principle that there is to be a legislative determination in great detail as to what are nuisances. There are in this country few elaborate general statutes on the subject, and in those states where special legislation is permitted by the constitution much of the legislation is contained in statutes which affect only one city. New York city was one of the first cities in this country in which the matter of public health was taken in hand. This was done about the middle of the nineteenth century, and here what was accomplished was largely accomplished in the usual way by regulations inserted in the charter of the city. In addition to the special acts passed by the legislature there are also municipal ordinances which are passed either by the city council, as, for example, the present building code of the city of New York, or by some one of the executive departments of the city, as the sanitary code adopted by the department of health. . . . In American cities further administrative public health and safety police power is usually vested in a series of authorities. Thus, in the city of New York, police power is given by the charter to the fire, the health, and the tenement-house departments, and the building departments of the five boroughs into which the city is divided."—F. J. Goodnow, *City government in the United States*, pp. 214-238.—"During [1919 there was] . . . much discussion relative to the right of policemen to affiliate with labor organizations, and to the question of police strikes. At its annual convention in June, 1919, the American Federation of Labor reversed its previous policy and decided to issue charters to all *bona fide* organizations of policemen. In the course of a few months charters had been issued to 33 such organizations. Late in August, the commissioners of the District of Columbia adopted rules forbidding members of the metropolitan police department to join or retain membership in an organization of policemen affiliated directly or indirectly with any other labor organization. Congress, in November, passed a law of the same general character, and the Washington Policemen's Union returned its charter. In Boston, however, events took a more serious turn. On September 9 some 1500 members of the police force went on strike to force the authorities to recognize their newly-formed union and their right to affiliate with the American Federation of Labor. For several days the city was given over to rioting, looting and violence. Only after martial law was declared and soldiers of the state guard were placed in charge of the streets, was a semblance of order restored. In spite of appeals of the officers of the Federation of Labor that the striking policemen be taken back, the Boston police commissioner declared their places vacant. A new personnel was rapidly recruited."—E. D. Groper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*, p. 79.—"The police problem is a variable problem, not only as between different countries, but as between different cities in the same country, and even as between different periods of time in the same city. The Italian police are confronted with a situation unfamiliar to the English police: Stuttgart and Königsberg, two typical German cities, require in the way of police activity, somewhat different treatment: Vienna presents to-day a police prob-

lem quite distinct from that of twenty years ago. So many factors are responsible for these variations that it is possible to mention only the more important. Alterations in economic conditions, for example, inevitably produce changes in the kind of activity required of the police. Three hundred thousand paupers settled in Liverpool during the four years that followed the Irish famine of 1849, with consequences visible even to-day in the peculiarly difficult problems which face the police authorities of that city. 'I have no hesitation in saying,' wrote the former Head Constable in 1910, 'that by far the greater part of the crime of Liverpool is due to poverty.' In Dresden, a German city of approximately the same size, the police problem is far less acute. For this condition a variety of causes may be assigned, but prominent among them is the absence of a pauper class. 'We have no real poverty here,' the police president of Dresden told the writer. Again, the task of the police varies with the size of a city and the character of its industries. A large manufacturing center such as Birmingham or Manchester is, from a police point of view, decidedly more difficult to handle than smaller, quieter cities like Worcester and Lincoln. Not only is the total volume of crime smaller in the latter cities, but the number of crimes per thousand of population is smaller, while in point of variety the crimes themselves have a comparatively limited range. Moreover, the proportion of serious crimes, such as murder and burglary, is not so large in the smaller towns as in cities of complex industrial development. The simple social and economic environment of the less important municipalities produces a comparatively simple police problem. Similarly, the police problem varies according as the population of a city is homogeneous or heterogeneous. A population made up of different elements, each with its own traditions, habits and racial peculiarities, is not so easily directed or controlled as one having a common heritage and uniform customs. . . . With the exception . . . of Vienna and other cities of Austria, the populations of European cities are remarkably homogeneous, and the task of the police in preserving law and order is correspondingly simplified. . . . To summarize, we see, that in spite of the common purpose underlying all police bodies, their problems are often widely different. These differences are due to economic conditions, to the size of a city and the character of its industries, to the relative homogeneity of its population and to national traits and traditions which tend to vary both the volume and the character of crime. Sometimes there are other factors, perhaps equally important, which alter the police problem or which, in specific instances combine with the factors already mentioned to produce special situations and corresponding tasks. To this divergence of problem, as well as to the distinct historic evolution through which each of the European nations has come, we must look for an explanation of the differences in power and authority conferred upon the police. In no two countries is the conception of the police in its relation to the public exactly the same. In Great Britain the police are the servants of the community. Their official existence would be impossible if their acts persistently ran counter to the expressed wishes of the people. They depend for their effectiveness upon public sanction. They are civil employees, whose primary duty is the preservation of public security. In the execution of this duty they have no powers not possessed by any other citizens. A policeman has no right superior to that of a private person in making

arrests or asking questions or compelling the attendance of witnesses. Further, he must suffer the consequences of any illegal action he may commit, and he cannot divest himself of responsibility by pleading the orders of his superior officer, if those orders happen to be illegal. In the language of Sir James Stephen: 'With a few exceptions a policeman is a person paid to perform, as a matter of duty, acts which, if he be so minded, he might have done voluntarily.' In sharp contrast is the Continental theory, which, evolved from the necessities of autocratic government, makes of the police force the strong arm of the ruling classes. The Continental policeman is the servant of the Crown or the higher authorities: the people have no share in his duties, nor, indeed, any connection with them. He possesses powers greatly exceeding those of the citizen. Under ordinary circumstances he cannot be prosecuted for illegal action unless permission is obtained from the government, and even then he enjoys the privilege of special laws administered by special courts regulating the relations of public officials to private citizens. Where, in England, the constable may ask no question of those whom he arrests or is about to arrest, criminal procedure on the Continent is based on the interrogatory system, and the police of Germany, Austria, Italy and France are allowed to resort to what are popularly known as 'third degree' methods in their endeavor to wring a confession of guilt from those whom they accuse. 'I have asked dozens of educated Germans living in England,' says an eminent German jurist, 'as to the most characteristic difference between German and English penal procedure. Invariably the answer was: In Germany the accused must prove his innocence: in England his guilt must be proved. This is the impression one gets from our system.' Again, in Germany, where a distinction is made between arrest and detention (*Verhaftung* and *Festnahme*), men may be taken to police stations, questioned and even detained for twenty-four hours, although there is no charge against them and no reasonable ground for suspicion. Moreover, the right of search, restricted by stringent provisions in England and used only in exceptional circumstances under judicial direction, is, in Germany and Austria, much more freely employed, its use resting in many cases solely upon police discretion. Similarly the police in Germany and Austria and to a somewhat limited extent in France and Italy are given powers to restrict freedom of discussion and the right of public meeting to an extent unheard of in England. In other words, the different ideas as to the powers of the police and their relations to the public arise from different constitutional conceptions. The great safeguards to personal liberty established in England by Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights and sustained by centuries of judicial interpretation are almost entirely lacking on the Continent. While the constitutional struggles of the last hundred years in Germany and Austria have not left police powers entirely unaltered, it is scarcely an exaggeration to say that in spirit and procedure they still represent the Continental absolutism of the 18th century. We perceive, therefore, a broad distinction between the English and the Continental conception of police. Fundamentally the distinction is based on different ideas as to the extent of police power which a government shall exercise. In Great Britain police organization has been built up around the conception of a constabulary as a prohibitive or repressive power. Until the middle of the nineteenth century, police legislation was

looked upon as a body of law prohibiting certain actions regarded as prejudicial to the public welfare. On the Continent, however, the idea early developed that the state, in addition to its prohibitive measures, should resort as well to preventive measures. . . . The Continental police were given privileges and powers of control over the population with which the English police were entirely unacquainted. While these powers have, to some extent, been curbed by the liberalism of the nineteenth century, and while, as we shall see, police activity has been greatly limited in modern times, continental and Anglo-Saxon theories are still widely at variance. What we have said of British police requires, however, a qualification. While the function of the English constabulary has, it is true, undergone little or no change, and still conforms to the characterization given above, the conception of police power has broadened. With the expansion of British commerce and industry resulting from the Industrial Revolution, new measures became necessary to safeguard the lives and health of the artisan population, and as a result factory legislation and public health laws were enacted. These are essentially police measures of preventive character. Later similar laws were passed on the Continent. An important distinction in the enforcement of these laws at once developed. In the Continental countries the new statutes were left largely to the regular police officials, who, as we have observed, were already engaged in handling other preventive measures. In Great Britain they were given to various national and municipal departments and branches, for the most part specially formed for that purpose. The contrast with the Continent in respect to the function of the regular police bodies has, therefore, been intensified rather than diminished by the progressive legislation of the nineteenth century. So much for differences of a qualitative nature between British and Continental police—differences, that is, as to the kind of power the policeman possesses. Equally striking is the difference in respect to the scope or extent of police functions—the number of things that the police are charged to look after. Police duties in England are to-day confined roughly to three tasks: first, the maintenance of order; second, the pursuit of criminals; and third, the regulation of traffic. These duties are inter-relative: together they form a unified policy whose objective point is public security, and the police are, generally speaking, concerned with nothing else. In Germany, on the other hand, and to a large extent in Austria and France, police functions far transcend this somewhat restricted scope. In these countries there is hardly a governmental activity that is not more or less directly connected with the police: indeed, in Germany the police force cannot be said to constitute a sharply defined independent authority within the internal administration. Thus in Prussia there are Insurance Police, Mining Police, Water and Dike Police, Field and Forest Police, Cattle-Disease Police, Hunting Police, Fisheries Police, Trade Police, Fire Police, Political Police, Roads Police, Health Police, Building Police and a score of others. . . . The combination of legislative and judicial with administrative functions produces an unwieldy and uncontrollable machine. From an English standpoint—indeed, from the standpoint of any democratic government or any liberal political creed—the practice is greatly to be deprecated. Weidlich's word, 'monstrous,' with which he sums up the entire system, would seem scarcely too strong. But it is important to realize that these added legislative and

judicial powers in no way effect the function of the police as an organization for the protection of public safety. Strip off these powers, which often encumber and impede the police in carrying out their simpler duties, and the same problems will be found that, in spite of modifying circumstances, confront the English and French cities alike. Although, as we have seen, many factors vary the character of the problem, the task of the Metropolitan police Force of London is fundamentally the task of the *Schutzmannschaft* of Berlin, and it is a mistake to assume that, because an official belonging to the latter force has other unrelated functions, his ideas and experience have no applicability in London or elsewhere. The German police organization, in spite of its needless extensions, has many points worthy of careful study by the police forces of other lands."—R. B. Fosdick, *European police systems*, pp. 4-8, 14-21, 36-37.

ALSO IN: L. F. Fuld, *Police administration*.—W. L. M. Lee, *History of police in England*.—F. J. Goodnow, *Municipal government*, ch. 12.—H. G. James, *Principles of Prussian administration*, ch. 7.—J. A. Fairlie, *Municipal administration*, pp. 133-139, 332.—P. Colquhoun, *On the police of the metropolis*.—D. B. Eaton, *Government of municipalities*, pp. 422-435.—A. Woods, *Policeman and the public*.

Fire fighting and prevention.—"American cities have the most highly organized and the best-equipped fire-fighting systems to be found anywhere in the world. The administration of the fire department of a great city is usually entrusted to a layman appointed by the mayor, while the technical work of directing the fire-fighting battalions is committed to the care of an expert, known as the chief, who has seen long and honorable service. Under the chief are the several brigades and their officers stationed at the engine houses distributed at strategic places throughout the city."—C. A. Beard, *American city government*, p. 283.—"The fire-fighting problem was a great one even in the days of the Romans. Rome had her *Præfectus Vigilum*, her fire chief, and a highly organized corps of fire-fighters. In this regard the Romans showed their superiority to the moderns, for London had no fire-fighting apparatus when the great fire of 1666 wiped out the city."—M. C. Deshel, *Safeguarding life and property (Community Civics Pamphlet)*.—"In extinguishing a fire, no matter how small, firemen are not restricted in property destruction. They are given perfect freedom to destroy whatever may be necessary to check the spread of the consuming conflagration. This destruction may amount solely to breaking thru a door, or it may mean the dynamiting of an entire city block. In fire-fighting the one and only object is to extinguish the fire. There is, nevertheless, a paradox. In attempting to extinguish a fire, a fire company may destroy ten or twelve times as much property as would have been necessary upon the order of a fire prevention bureau official to prevent this very same fire. The chief difficulty is, however, that the hands of the fire prevention bureau are tied, while the fire extinguishing department is left free to destroy whatever it deems necessary toward extinguishing the fire. In many cases, to comply with the requirements of a fire prevention bureau, it would be necessary to construct rather than destroy property. This is true because in fire prevention work there is plenty of time to exercise care and good judgment and to carry out the scheme with deliberation. If a city expects its fire prevention bureau to be as effective in the prevention of fires

as the fire companies are in checking them when once started, the officials of these fire prevention bureaus must be accorded more freedom of action. This will not necessarily mean the enactment of more ordinances or legislation, but rather placing fire prevention work outside the rounds of political intrigue and free from the interference of the administration. The fire prevention bureau, which is bound to obey the edict of some political organization and is told that it can do this, but must not do that, or that it must be inactive just before election, and which must consult the leaders of some political organization before taking any important action in fire prevention, is just as badly handicapped as a fire chief who must take orders from some lay official when he is fighting a large conflagration in a city. It is of primary importance that municipal administrations first select thoroly competent officials for fire prevention work and, secondly, give them a free hand to clean up garrets, yards, lots and all other places where a spark might start a fire or where spontaneous combustion might be the beginning of a great conflagration."—*American City, Mar., 1910, p. 293.*—“In Baltimore, the fire chief testified publicly to the fact that the clean-up crusade carried on by the women had been his greatest aid in fire prevention work. It is an obvious fact that proper disposal of rubbish eliminates fuel for the flames. One of the most vigorous anti-fire campaigns ever carried on by women was that waged by the working women of Newark, New Jersey, just after a terrible factory holocaust in that city of numberless factories. The women's trade unions of Newark actually brought about changed conditions in the factories through their splendid organization and fighting spirit. In New York, soon after the Newark experience, about 150 girls were burned in the Triangle Factory fire and women again led the agitation against the evils that exist in shops and factories all over New York. The Women's Trade Union League, many of whose members were burned at this time, started the campaign. A Fire Complaint Committee was formed and through it circulars were distributed broadcast among the workers requesting them to observe conditions where they worked and report certain definite evils to it. Every mail for weeks brought a vast pile of complaints, intelligent and eager, which were turned over by the Committee to those in authority, an effort being made to follow up results. A Citizens' Committee was formed at the instigation of the women of the Trade Union League which maintained enthusiasm through a typical nine days of horror, and then largely subsided, although some influence is undoubtedly seen in the present work of the Fire Prevention Bureau . . . organized in New York. More definite results as far as factories are concerned seem to have been obtained by the Cloak and Suit Makers' Unions through their Board of Sanitary Control. . . . Robert Adamson, New York's Fire Commissioner [under Mayor Mitchell], appointed three women on the force. . . . He wrote to John E. O'Brien, counsel for the women on the civil service list, eligible for appointment: 'It is my intention to appoint women as inspectors in the Bureau of Fire Prevention, so far as the character of the work of that bureau will permit. I understand that Commissioner Johnson felt that the work of the bureau in its entirety could be performed by men, and that he, therefore, declined to make any appointments from the women's eligible list; whereupon the women on this list applied to the court for an order directing the consolidation of the women's eligible list with the

men's eligible list, which application was denied by both the Supreme Court and Appellate Division. . . . I have always felt that the Bureau of Fire Prevention is peculiarly one in which women could, with great advantage to the welfare of the city, be employed. Certain classes of the work in this bureau could, in my opinion, be performed by women even better than by men. For example, the services of women should be particularly available in the inspection of factories where women are employed; in moving-picture places; perhaps in dance halls, and in other places where this department has jurisdiction in prescribing regulations to insure safety in case of fire. . . . If I find that the result of . . . investigation verifies my present view of the matter, I shall appoint women to those vacancies. I believe that the appointment of women in this bureau to do such work as I have indicated will greatly improve the efficiency and usefulness of this most important branch of the fire department, the work of which I find has only fairly been inaugurated.' Mr. Adamson thereupon appointed three women. All are well-known settlement and social workers."—M. R. Beard, *Woman's work in municipalities*, pp. 288-291.

ALSO IN: J. K. Freitag, *Fire prevention and fire protection*.—J. Johnson, *Incendiarism in Greater New York*.—E. F. Croker, *Fire prevention*.—H. T. Wade, *Modern development in American motor fire apparatus* (*Engineering Magazine, Feb., 1912, pp. 761-783*).

Municipal charities in the United States.—“The relative position of the country and town in the administrative system of the states of the United States seems to have an important effect on the position of the city with regard to public charities. There is not [1909] a single city in New England of more than 40,000 inhabitants which does not do some work in the line of public charities. . . . The reason why poor relief is so generally regarded as a branch of municipal government in New England is to be found in the law imposing on each town the support of its own poor. As a city has gradually supplanted a town it has taken upon itself the town's duty of supporting the poor. In the middle and western states the care of the poor is devolved by the general law upon the town or the county or upon both, while in the southern states, where the town does not exist, the support of the poor is naturally devolved upon the county. The result is that, as a rule, the cities outside of New England which have charge of poor relief are to be found only in the middle and western states, though more frequently in the former than in the latter, while in the southern states it is seldom the case that the city has any functions to discharge relative to the poor. This rule is of course subject to exceptions, particularly so far as concerns the cities in the middle and western states. Thus Buffalo, Rochester, Jersey City and Reading, Pennsylvania, all cities in the Middle states, have no functions to discharge relative to poor relief, the matter being a subject of county administration, while New Orleans, Louisville, Richmond and Charleston, all cities in the southern states, include poor relief within their municipal activity. The larger the cities are, the more liable they are to make poor relief a municipal function. Thus eight of the ten largest cities, namely, New York, Philadelphia, St. Louis, Boston, Baltimore, San Francisco, Cincinnati and Cleveland, manage their own poor. Of the ten second largest cities, however, only five, namely, New Orleans, Pittsburgh, Washington, Newark and Louisville, have any im-

portant functions relative to poor relief, while in the remaining five, namely, Detroit, Milwaukee, Jersey City and Minneapolis, which has no almshouse but supports a hospital, and Kansas City, Missouri, poor relief is attended to by the county in which the city is situated."—F. J. Goodnow, *Municipal government*, pp. 301-302.—See also CHARITIES: United States: 1877-1908.

Early development of public works.—Peculiar problems of different cities.—Ad hoc corporations.—Organizations in charge of public works.—"The concentration of population [despite attempts, in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, to limit the size of cities] could not be resisted and cities all over Europe, particularly the political capitals, had therefore to begin to grapple with the problems which this inevitable and irresistible increase in population presented. It must not be supposed, however, that prior to the end of the eighteenth century nothing was done in cities in the nature of public works to improve the conditions of city life. . . . Two interesting accounts of conditions as they existed in Paris at about the beginning of the eighteenth century . . . show that even [then] . . . Paris had made some provision for a public water supply. This consisted of three small aqueducts supplemented by pumps which drew water from the Seine. That these were inadequate is shown by Mildmay's statements that generally water is conveyed to the inhabitants 'by pailfuls sold about the streets as milk is in London.' . . . Similarly crude attempts were made to provide for street paving, cleaning and lighting. Originally every inhabitant was obliged in Paris, as in London, to pave the street or a portion of it in front of his house. The inconvenience of such a method, on account of the unevenness and want of uniformity in the pavement, led in Paris to a change as early as 1609, when the care of the paving was put into the hands of the city authorities and the expense defrayed by a tax placed on each house in proportion to its front on the street. In 1640 the city defrayed the expense out of the proceeds of a tax paid on merchandise brought into the city. The actual work of paving was done by contract made in great detail as to the size of stones and the method of laying them. The contractor was aided in the performance of his contract by a law imposing the obligation on all wagons coming into the city to bring in a certain quantity of paving stones, which were to be delivered gratis at the city limits. This method of caring for street paving was still in force at the end of the eighteenth century. Similar methods were adopted for cleaning the streets. In 1666 the King decreed that a tax for this purpose should be imposed on every house in proportion to its front. The actual cleaning was let out by contract to the lowest bidder. The contractor was obliged to collect the heaps of dirt swept up by the householders, who were required to sweep the street in front of their premises. Half an hour before the carts came along a bell was rung so as to give warning of their approach. . . . The expense of lighting the streets was defrayed also from the receipts of a tax imposed on the householders. . . . The connection between the topography of the city and these undertakings [transportation, sewerage, supplying of water, light, etc.] was not originally of great importance. Municipal sewers were almost unknown prior to the beginning of the nineteenth century. City water supplies, if we may call them such, did, it is true, exist at an earlier date. But they were crude in character, consisting for the most part merely of public fountains to which

water of an indifferent character was conducted in insufficient quantities. No means of transportation except such as was to be found in hackney carriages and sedan chairs was provided, and the art of illumination was so undeveloped that no attempt more serious than that which . . . existed in Paris [where candle lanterns were used] was made to light even the public streets. But with the discovery of gas and electricity and the tramway, and the appreciation of the intimate connection between health and the quality of the water supply municipal public works have assumed supreme importance. Conduits must be laid and tracks must be built which must make use of the public streets. All cities in the western European world now do something in these directions to ameliorate the conditions of city life. The work which any city does depends, however, in large measure upon its geographical situation. A city like Glasgow, which is situated near a hilly country blessed with a heavy rainfall, is called upon to do much less in the way of water supply than a city like New York, situated on the sea coast at quite a distance from elevated land and in a district where droughts are not unknown. Other cities, like those on the Great Lakes, which have a copious supply of portable water near at hand, have still less to do than Glasgow. Their work consists merely in pumping into their distributing system from the reservoir at their very doors. Glasgow has to maintain expensive aqueducts, while New York in addition to aqueducts must maintain large storage reservoirs. Other cities, like Hamburg, have found to their cost that their only available source of water supply is polluted because of the great adjacent population and have had to install filter beds. Filtration of water supply, it may be remarked, will probably be necessary very soon in the case of most cities of any size. What is true of water supply is also true of sewers. Cities situated on tidal waters have merely to run their sewage into such waters. Cities inland, particularly where they are situated on a plain with no great variety of surface, may have to make provision both for sewage disposal and for pumping. Such is the case in Berlin, which also has attempted with some degree of success to conduct farms on which the city sewage is used as a fertilizer. Chicago, or rather the drainage district of which Chicago forms a part, is using the water which is drawn from Lake Michigan for purposes of sewage purification, for the generation of electric power which is used both to light the city streets, and to carry on private manufactures in the city. Some system of sewage purification, it may be said, will probably have to be adopted by all cities of any size. Even a city like New York, situated on tidal waters which rise and fall to a considerable extent, is beginning to apprehend that there is a limit beyond which the pouring of sewage into the waters of the bay cannot go without danger. Glasgow and London have already been obliged to undertake works the purpose of which is to prevent the rivers on which they are situated from becoming polluted. . . .

"An important question in connection with the public works of cities is the method of the organization of the force in charge of them. Generally speaking, all of these works are so distinctly city matters that their care is vested in authorities which are regarded as a part of the ordinary city organization. These are cases, however, where for one reason or another there are formed for the management of particular kinds of public works what the English speak of as *ad hoc* corporations, which are distinct from the ordinary city cor-

poration. Such an arrangement is quite common in Great Britain, where special trusts have been formed for the management of docks, as in Liverpool, or for the improvement of the navigation of a particular river in which some one city is specially interested. This is the case, for example, with the Thames as far inland as London, with the Tyne at Newcastle, and the Clyde at Glasgow. These boards, or trusts, as they are commonly called, while containing representatives of the city which is particularly interested in the work they are doing, have as well in their membership representatives of other localities or interests. . . . Somewhat similar arrangements have been made in the United States in some of the cases in which cities have entered the field of the municipal ownership and operation of public utilities. Examples may be found in the former Gas Trust of Philadelphia and the present Gas Trust of Wheeling. Another instance may be found in the Chicago Drainage District, which has its own organization separate from that of the city. Sometimes a particular public utility is, notwithstanding the local interest it has, taken over by the state government. This is true, for example, of the reservoir system from which Boston and the neighboring cities draw their water supply, and which is under the jurisdiction of the Massachusetts Metropolitan Water Commission, consisting of persons appointed by the state government. Such an arrangement of the matter is justified in those cases in which the influence of the undertaking transcends the limits of a particular locality. This is the case quite commonly with docks, sewers and water and will unquestionably be the case in the not far distant future with transportation, as it changes from an intra-urban to an interurban undertaking. . . . In the United States alone is the question of the organization of the municipal authorities in charge of these public works an important one. Elsewhere the authorities in charge of these matters are usually organized just as are the authorities in charge of other branches of municipal administration. They are ordinarily committees or boards, composed either entirely, as in England, or partly, as in Prussia, of members of the Council. In Prussia, . . . such boards have as a member a permanent professional expert who aids although he cannot control the board in its action. In England the committee usually has, subordinate to it, an expert, who has a practically permanent position and to whose opinion the committee must in the nature of things defer in most if not in all matters. But this expert is distinctly a subordinate and not a member of the board. In both England and Germany each one of the various branches of public works is usually under the immediate control of a special authority. The fact that in both countries each of these authorities acts under the control of the principal city authority is supposed to prevent conflicts of jurisdiction. But these conflicts do sometimes occur. Thus in Glasgow some of the committees have prosecuted in the criminal courts the subordinates of other committees. In Italy a special organization is provided by the law for the authorities in charge of the operation of each public utility, such as gas, etc. In the United States, however, there is no recognized method of organizing the authorities at the head of the matters which have been classified as public works. In some cases the attempt has been made to place a number of these public works, particularly where they have a close connection with the streets, under the control of one authority such as a board or director

of public works. . . . In other cases, particularly in the larger cities, where the work of each of the departments has increased greatly in amount, it has seemed best to provide separate authorities for each of the different kinds of public work, while in one at least, i. e., New York, under the charter of 1901, most of the public works, with the exception of the water supply, are placed in the charge of the presidents of the five boroughs into which the city was divided. Under such an arrangement the several departments of public works were decentralized rather than disintegrated."—F. J. Goodnow, *Municipal government*, pp. 320-342.—See also CITY PLANNING; BILLBOARDS: Court decisions.

Franchises in the United States.—Modification of state constitutions by city franchises, and vice versa.—"In the United States many of the cities seem to have acted with wisdom in their original treatment of the questions arising in connection with the gas supply and transportation. They often granted franchises limited as to term, as in the case of the early gas franchises in New York City, or inserted in the franchises granted, provisions reserving to the city the right of purchase on payment to the companies of the sums such companies had actually expended in building and equipping their plants. . . . In other parts of the country [than New York City] different policies were adopted. Thus in Massachusetts no street railway franchises at all were granted, but the street railway companies were permitted to occupy the streets under revocable licenses. Throughout the middle west franchises with a fixed term, generally rather short, were commonly granted. Considerable trouble and confusion similar to that which arose in New York have arisen everywhere throughout the country by reason of the relations of the cities with the state legislatures. Where companies have not been able to secure what they wished from the cities they have applied to the legislatures, which have in more than one instance favored them to the disadvantage of the cities. Such action has resulted in the insertion in many of the state constitutions of provisions intended to protect the cities. Such, for example, was the provision inserted in the constitution of the State of New York in 1875, which made it necessary that the consent of the city should be obtained before a franchise for a street railway could be granted."—F. J. Goodnow, *Municipal government*, pp. 346-347.—"Nothing could make our paper constitutions and charters in America appear more futile—mere child's play—than to find in them sections or series of sections bravely prohibiting perpetual franchises and imposing whole pages of lucid restrictions upon franchise grants, when we know all the while that most of the actual franchises controlling the utilities in the commonwealth or the city for which the constitution or charter has been written have long since been bartered away in perpetuity and are in no respect subject to the restrictions imposed. So far as the framework of government is concerned, a new constitution or charter is effective in establishing the principles it declares. The old legislature, the old judiciary, the old counties, the old municipal departments, are superseded and displaced by the new, in so far as the constitution or charter calls for changes in the organization of government. But when we come to consider, not the forms of government, but its substantive acts, we find that a constitution drafted in 1015 is subordinate to a contract executed in 1014, or in 1814 for that matter. The result is that modern constitutions and charters, with their manifold and

far-reaching provisions in regard to public utilities and public utility franchises, are often mere masks concealing rather than revealing the truth. In large measure they are theoretical and have no practical significance. Where franchises are granted in perpetuity, a city does not have to be very old or very large before the power to control its public utilities through charter provisions or constitutional amendments applying only to the future is lost forever. Even in the case of street railways, where franchises are usually granted for specific streets rather than for all the streets within the limits of a given municipality, the early grants are almost uniformly on the down-town thoroughfares in the strategic locations, with the result that they command the future development of transit facilities almost as much as if they covered all the streets of the municipality and were exclusive. Competition is a wholly inadequate remedy. Competition of street railways in the same streets, even though temporary, has long since been regarded as impracticable and intolerable except under extraordinary conditions. Competition in water supply and gas service, involving as it does the construction of duplicate systems of mains and the wanton tearing up of pavements and consequent interference with ordinary street traffic, is almost as unbearable as competition in street railways. In electric light and power and in telephone service, the disadvantages of competition from the standpoint of the street itself are serious, but not so forbidding under ordinary circumstances as in the case of the other utilities mentioned. From the standpoint of the public, however, competition in telephone service is theoretically intolerable, while in electric service it may have some immediate advantages. . . . The principal streets, and in some cases all the streets, of the municipalities have been mortgaged in perpetuity to some or all of the principal utilities. . . . Hitherto in New York the constitution has left to the state legislature the franchise-granting power and the power to acquire, own and operate public utilities, to be exercised or delegated as the legislature may see fit, subject to a very few limitations. Under the section 18 of article III of the present constitution the legislature may not pass a private or local bill granting to any corporation, association or individual, the right to lay down railroad tracks or granting to any private corporation, association or individual any exclusive privilege, immunity or franchise. All such grants must be by general law. But the legislature is further prohibited from authorizing the construction or operation of a street railroad except upon condition that the consent of the local authorities having control of the streets be obtained and also that the consent of the abutting property owners be secured, or in case of their refusal, the consent of the appellate division of the supreme court, upon the recommendation of special commissioners appointed to inquire into the necessity of the construction of the railroad. . . . The new constitution of Michigan, adopted in 1908, contains the following provision [art. 8, sec. 23]: "Subject to the provisions of this constitution, any city or village may acquire, own and operate, either within or without its corporate limits, public utilities for supplying water, light, heat, power and transportation to the municipality and the inhabitants thereof; and may also sell and deliver water, heat, power and light without its corporate limits to an amount not to exceed twenty-five per cent of that furnished by it within the corporate limits; and may operate transportation lines without the municipality within such limits as may be

prescribed by law: Provided, That the right to own or operate transportation facilities shall not extend to any city or village of less than twenty-five thousand inhabitants." In 1911, California adopted a series of important amendments to its constitution. One of these conferred the right to own and operate public utilities upon all the municipal corporations of the state. This provision, as amended in 1914, is as follows [art. 11, sec. 19]: "Any municipal corporation shall have power to acquire by purchase, lease, and condemnation or otherwise, in whole or in part, or to construct, and to own, maintain, equip and operate public utilities; and to grant franchises to persons, firms or private corporations to establish, equip, maintain and operate public utilities, upon such conditions and under such regulations as may be prescribed under the organic law of such municipality or otherwise by law. Any municipal corporation may furnish the product or service of any public utility conducted or operated by it to other municipal corporations and the inhabitants thereof, and to consumers and users outside of its limits." The Ohio constitutional convention of 1912 submitted a long series of amendments. One of those related to 'Municipal Corporations.' The following sections were adopted as a part of this amendment [art. 18, section 4 and 6]: 'Sec. 4. Any municipality may acquire, construct, own, lease and operate within or without its corporate limits, any public utility the product or service of which is or is to be supplied to the municipality or its inhabitants, and may contract with others for any such product or service. The acquisition of any such public utility may be by condemnation or otherwise, and a municipality may acquire thereby the use of, or full title to, the property and franchise of any company or person supplying to the municipality or its inhabitants the service or product of any such utility. Sec. 6. Any municipality, owning or operating a public utility for the purpose of supplying the service or product thereof to the municipality or its inhabitants, may also sell and deliver to others any transportation service of such utility and the surplus product of any other utility in an amount not exceeding in either case fifty per centum of the total service or product supplied by such utility within the municipality.' . . . The new Michigan constitution provides that the legislature shall enact general laws limiting the rates of taxation for municipal purposes and restricting the powers of cities in borrowing money and contracting debts. It further provides that whenever a city is authorized to acquire or operate a public utility, it may issue mortgage bonds for the purpose beyond the general limit of bonded indebtedness prescribed by law. Such bonds, however, are not to impose any liability upon the city, but are to be secured only upon the property and revenues of the utility, including a franchise for not more than twenty years to be available for use in case of foreclosure by the bondholders. Under this provision, the legislature has granted a two per cent margin of indebtedness to be incurred against the general credit of the city for public utility uses, thus reducing far below the cost of construction or acquisition the amount of bonds necessarily issued against the utility property itself. Under this provision, the city of Detroit is now [1914] proceeding to acquire the local street railway system. The same provision with regard to the issuance of bonds in excess of the general debt limit was included in the new constitution of Ohio."—D. F. Wilcox, *Constitution and public franchises (New York State Constitutional Con-*

vention Commission Report on Revision of the State Constitution, pt. 2, pp. 186-191, 193-196).

European municipal ownership, particularly British.—Transportation.—Advantages, financial and otherwise.—Electric and gas lighting.—“Municipal ownership is the established official policy of nearly all British as well as of many German cities. In Great Britain the movement is confined to street-railways, gas, water, and electric-lighting enterprises, the telephone properties being owned and operated by the national government. In Germany municipal ownership has no set limits. It includes not only the natural monopolies but abattoirs, markets, docks, mortgage banks, savings-banks, pawnshops, restaurants, wine handling, and occasionally insurance and baking. Many cities in Italy and Austria own and operate the public utility plants, while in France and Belgium the movement is just in its beginning. In Glasgow (present [1915] population 1,150,000) . . . [a] controversy between the company and the men had been prolonged and bitter. The community sympathized with the demands of the employees, who were alleged to be overworked and underpaid. The company, however, declined to arbitrate the question of wages or hours of labor, and the irritation over this question stimulated the demand for ownership. The question was agitated for several years, and in 1894 the council decided to retake the tracks which it had laid under its statutory powers. But the company refused to sell its equipment, so the city had to purchase equipment elsewhere. As a consequence of this action the company ultimately lost its total equipment investment. With the advent of municipal operation fares were reduced 33 per cent. below those previously prevailing, while the length of the hauls was increased. The condition of the employees was also improved. Free uniforms were added, as well as five days' holiday each year. The success of Glasgow stimulated the movement for municipal operation in other cities, for the discontent with private operation was general. Controversy with employees was a common cause of trouble. But probably the main operating motive was the desire of the city to control its transportation system and derive such revenue as was possible out of ownership. For local taxes in Great Britain are very heavy. And the business men and citizens saw in municipal ownership a means for relieving the rates. In addition, cities were considering the installation of electric-lighting plants, and it was seen that power stations could, with economy, be constructed which could be used for lighting as well as for the operation of the street-railway plants. And this has quite commonly been done. A uniform load is possible by this arrangement, the day load being used for the operation of the tramways and power and the night load for the lighting of the city. The street-railways in Great Britain are constructed with much more permanence than they are in America. This is true of private as well as public undertakings. The girder groove rail is universally used. Tracks are heavily ballasted, while the overhead work is very substantial. Many of the towns have erected splendid shops in which they both build and repair their cars. In consequence of the high standard of construction the capital outlay has been very heavy. In 1906 the cost of the Glasgow system was \$93,305 per mile of single track and in Liverpool \$90,536. The London County Council reports a cost of \$106,033 per mile. It is believed that the construction cost in the British cities exceeds that of the average American city (outside of New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Chicago, and

Washington) by approximately 50 per cent. Aside from the large investment in capital account, there are many provisions for the comfort and convenience of the people. For the street-railway is under constant supervision; it touches every citizen daily. It is more difficult to disguise bad service in street-railway operation than in any other public utility. Accidents are of rare occurrence. They have been reduced to a minimum. The same solicitude is manifested in the care of the cars. They are kept fresh with paint and are washed daily. In Glasgow and many other cities all advertisements have been excluded. Employees are courteous and seem animated by a sense of service to the community, and because of the surveillance of the public they are of necessity considerate to the riders. Council committees are on the alert to better conditions and to adopt new devices. There is keen rivalry between different cities, each of which takes peculiar pride in its enterprises, the equipment and the service rendered, as well as the annual balance-sheet. The zone system of fares is universal in Great Britain as it was under private management. In a sense travel is metered just as [are] . . . gas, water, and electricity. Upon each zone a fare of from one to two cents is collected, depending upon the length of the ride. There seems to be no protest whatever against this system, which leads to a very great stimulus of short-haul riders. Four motives animate the councils in the operation of the street-railway system. They are: first, the best possible service at the minimum cost; second, the relief of the taxpayers by more or less substantial contributions to the city budget; third, the widening of the boundaries of the city and the improvement of housing conditions by opening up the countryside; and, fourth, the improvement in the condition of the employees. There is constant pressure to reduce the fares and extend the zones; but the prevailing tendency of councils is to utilize the surplus earnings for the reduction of the debt and the repayment of the loans. Despite this fact, rates of fare are lower than under private management and very much lower than they are in the United States. For instance, in Glasgow there is a one-cent fare for short distances of about a half a mile, and in 1912 43.98 per cent. of the passengers paid but a one-cent fare. The number paying 2 cents formed 37.85 per cent. of the total number, while the percentage paying 3 cents was 7.38. In that year over 80 per cent. of all the passengers paid 2 cents or less. The one-cent fare encourages traffic in the centre of the city and is a great convenience. It stimulates travel when traffic is light. The average fare paid on all of the 136 tramways operated by local authorities in 1910 was 2.1 cents, as opposed to an average of 2.48 cents paid on the 138 private companies. In 1911 the total receipts in Glasgow were \$4,748,740. At the prevailing 5-cent fare charged in America the passengers would have paid \$11,808,305. The total capital investment of the 136 local authorities operating street-railways, which included nearly every large city in the United Kingdom, was in 1910, \$220,541,250. The gross receipts for the year amounted to \$47,437,170, against which were charged operating expenses of \$20,436,216, leaving a net revenue of \$18,000,955. The percentage of net earnings to capital invested was 8½ (eight and a half) per cent. The publicly owned lines were operated at a lower ratio of cost than the private companies, despite the higher wages paid, the shorter hours, and better conditions of employment. [The ratio of the] working expense of the local authorities to the gross income was 62.05

per cent. as against 62.52 per cent. for the private companies. At the same time, while the cities earned 8½ per cent. on their investment, the private companies earned but 4½ per cent. . . . Aside from four small communities showing a deficit, which in 1910 amounted in the aggregate to but \$15,000, most of the companies made very substantial contributions to taxation. The tramways of Manchester contributed \$364,987 to the relief of taxes; of Leeds, \$275,000; of Birmingham, \$100,000; of Liverpool, \$135,000; of Nottingham and of Bradford, \$100,000. In Glasgow the net profits, which amounted to \$265,000, are paid into a special fund, known as the Common Good. In 1910 the total contributions of the public tramways to the relief of taxation were \$2,200,565. In addition, there was a gain to the public of \$7,080,434 in the difference between the average fares charged by the publicly owned tramways and the average fares of the private companies. There is no question about the financial success of public operation. The indebtedness of the cities is being rapidly amortized. In addition to the regular amortization charge provided by law, cities make very substantial contributions to depreciation and reserve. For instance, Glasgow in 1910 repaid its debt to the extent of \$448,470 and added \$1,102,805 to the depreciation and reserve. The sum contributed to depreciation and reserve, in addition to debt repayment, by Manchester was \$375,000; by Liverpool, \$427,555; and by Sheffield, \$106,080. These statistics are authoritative. Municipal authorities are required to keep their accounts according to standards fixed by the local government board. Annual returns are required to be made to the board of trade, while the reports are published each year and are subject to scrutiny. The books of the municipality are also audited by the central authorities, in order to make sure that all requirements as to debt repayment, depreciation, and reserve are properly provided for. Overcrowding is specifically prohibited, and rarely is it necessary to stand. In Liverpool 68 per cent. additional cars are added during the rush hours. In Leeds the service is increased by 30 per cent. in the morning, at noon, and in the evening. In some cities standing is prohibited. Many cities, too, reduce their fares for working men in the morning and evening. In Manchester the 3 and 4 cent fares are reduced to 2 cents, the 5 and 6 cent fares to 3 cents, and the 7 and 8 cent fares to 4 cents. In Leeds four-mile tickets are sold for 2 cents. The purpose of these rules is to encourage working men to live in the country and to still further adjust the tramway service to the needs of the working classes. As indicative of the experiments made by British cities is the instance of Bradford, which carries on a municipal express and delivery service all over the city. This service is not unlike that of the parcel post. Stamps are sold, which are affixed to parcels in the centre of the city. They are then loaded on the street-cars to be delivered to the various sub-stations for distribution throughout the city. At the terminals of each route a uniformed agent collects and delivers the parcels. Rates of charges are as follows: for packages up to 7 pounds, 4 cents; from 7 to 14 pounds, 6 cents; from 14 to 28 pounds, 8 cents; and from 28 to 56 pounds, 10 cents. The entire investment in the parcels-delivery system is but \$17,033, which includes the cost of five motor vans. The total cost of this service in 1910 was \$31,284, and the receipts were \$30,757. During the year 675,719 packages were carried, at great economy to the merchants and citizens. Many of the shopkeepers have been enabled to dispense with

their delivery service, while the congestion of the streets is greatly reduced, as is the unnecessary waste involved in countless delivery wagons traversing the same routes. There is little sentiment for a return to private operation from any class. The financial gains are too obvious. The service is undeniably better on the public tramways than on the private ones, while rates of fare are lower and the condition of the employees is better. Membership on the tramway council committee is sought after as a high honor because of the opportunities for service involved. Cities, too, are eager to introduce new devices and new comforts, and representatives are constantly studying the service of other countries. There has been a steady improvement in cars, a constant effort to better the service and consider the well-being of the community. The double-decker type of car is universal and is very popular. The upper deck is so arranged that it can be closed in winter. Smoking is permitted on the upper deck, which is used by all classes for pleasure riding. The double deck also increases the seating capacity. In addition, there has been no serious trouble between the city and its employees such as prevailed under private operation. The city adjusts differences through the council committee or by arbitration. But controversies of this kind have been very rare, owing to the fact that the city pays a higher rate of wage than prevails in other industries; it supplies the men with free uniforms; it allows, generally, a week's holiday on full pay, and otherwise concerns itself for the well-being of its employees. As a consequence of this a fine *esprit de corps* has arisen among the employees. They seem to take great pride in their jobs and are earnestly zealous in their effort to serve the community. . . . Electric-lighting plants are very generally owned by the British cities. The introduction of electricity was delayed in Great Britain until after it had obtained a foothold in America, and cities refused to grant franchises to private companies until the success of electric lighting was assured. The introduction of electricity was generally coincident with the municipalization of the tramways. The statistics of the *Municipal Year Book* indicate that the rates and charges of municipal companies are considerably lower than those of the private companies. The gas has not been so generally municipalized as either the street-railway or the electricity supply. Gas was introduced many years ago by private companies which were given long-term, indeterminate grants, so that when the city comes to acquire them it has to pay a substantial sum for the franchise. This, along with the idea that electricity would eventually supplant gas, has checked the municipalization of the supply. The returns of local authorities and private companies for the year 1911 show that 298 plants are owned by municipal authorities and 511 by private companies. The public authorities supply 2,666,146 consumers and the private companies 3,751,703. The local authorities earn 0¾ per cent. upon the capital invested and the private companies 5⅝ per cent. . . . The net revenues of the public companies were \$14,636,535, which was used to pay interest upon the investment, for the reduction of the debt and the relief of the taxpayers. The price of gas is much lower in Great Britain than it is in the United States. The returns for 1911 show that the average charge for gas per 1,000 cubic feet by the municipalities was 60 cents, as opposed to 66 cents by the private companies. In Birmingham rates are from 42 to 56 cents per 1,000 feet; in Bradford, Burnley, Halifax, and Rochdale, 50 cents; in Manchester,

from 58 to 60 cents; and in Oldham, 46 cents. Through ownership the cities are able to experiment in a variety of ways. They light the streets very generously. It is a common saying in Great Britain that a lamp-post is as good as a policeman. Tenement districts, slums, and alleyways are lighted as a preventive of vice and crime. Cities also encourage the use of gas by providing cooking-stoves at a low rental or at cost. Among the very poor penny-in-the-slot meters are installed by which the consumer can buy two cents' worth of gas by the insertion of a coin in the meter. The municipal gas plants earn large sums for the repayment of loans and the reduction of taxes. The total contributions to the relief of city taxes amount to more than \$2,000,000 a year."—F. C. Howe, *Modern city and its problems*, pp. 170-187.

German municipal ownership.—Its wide scope.—"German cities engage in a great variety of activities of social betterment. This is due to several causes. In the first place, the *laissez-faire* philosophy of Great Britain and America has never made much headway in Germany. On the contrary, the idea of state and municipal ownership is accepted by all classes as a perfectly natural thing. Both the nation and the cities have owned many things from early times. The steam-railways, telegraph, and telephone services are owned and operated by the individual states. The states and cities are also great land owners. Some of the states own mines and operate them at a profit. A large part of the revenues of Prussia is derived from profit-making enterprises. In the second place, the military organization of Germany leads to constant interference with the lives of the citizens, which interference has been greatly extended in recent years as a means of protecting the health, lives, and efficiency of the people. Finally, the cities are free to do anything necessary for the welfare of the people. They have home rule and can own and operate, regulate and control individual property with almost as much freedom as the state itself. This is the background of the German city upon which a social programme has been reared that has made it the model of the modern world. To this must be added the fact that the city is governed by experts trained in the universities and technical schools. It has at its command the trained men of the empire in finance, education, sanitation, housing, taxation, and administration, as well as the co-operation of the interior department, the universities, and the technical schools. The German city is more adequately equipped with expert assistants than is any private corporation. German cities adopted ownership after a thorough test of private operation. Franchises for street-railways were originally granted for from twenty-five to forty years, but the service was not satisfactory and the equipment was not kept up to a high standard of efficiency. In addition, the housing problem was very acute and means had to be found to remove the population from the old congested quarters of the city. This could only be done through adequate transportation facilities, and the companies were unwilling to extend their lines out into the non-profitable suburbs. Further than this, German cities have worked out comprehensive planning projects in which transportation is an integral part. It was necessary to control the means of transit in order to project industries out into the surrounding country, to provide homes, and to co-ordinate all of the planning projects of the community. The zone system of street-railway fares prevails in Germany as in Great Britain, the average rate of fare being 2½ cents, which includes the right

of transfer. Many devices have been adopted for improving the service. One finds maps within the cars on which are indicators showing the car's destination. Attractive waiting-rooms are erected to accommodate the passengers in inclement weather. Rates are frequently reduced mornings and evenings for working men, and also for children. Cities also own the water, gas, and electricity supplies, which, like the street-railways, are operated with the aim of rendering the greatest amount of service to the community at the minimum cost. Cities also own their water-fronts and develop them with splendidly equipped harbors. The docks are connected with the state-owned railroads; they are designed by experts and are consciously used to promote the industrial development of towns and the commerce of the [former] empire. Immense sums have been spent on municipal docks, those along the Rhine and the North Sea being probably the most perfectly appointed harbors in the world. Düsseldorf, a city of 356,000 people, has erected a great harbor along the Rhine at a cost of \$4,500,000. The building of this dock increased the city traffic by 300 per cent. in ten years' time. Frankfort-on-the-Main, a city of only 414,000 people, two thirds of the size of Cleveland, . . . set aside \$18,000,000 for the dredging of the river, the building of a great inland harbor, and the development of a new industrial section. In anticipation of the harbor the city purchased 1,180 acres of agricultural land, which it planned as a complete industrial section, with provision for rail and water transportation, with sites for all sorts of factories, and with a park and playground for the working people. In addition it laid out a suburb close by the new industrial section for working men's dwellings, some of which have been erected by the city and some by private enterprise. By this means Frankfort [expected] . . . to become a great inland industrial centre, inasmuch as it [could] . . . offer the best of factory sites at a low price to capital. This is one of the ways German cities promote their growth. And Frankfort [expected] . . . to pay for the entire expenditure out of the increased value of the land by selling and leasing the land to industries at prices which [would] . . . ultimately relieve the city of indebtedness."—F. C. Howe, *Modern city and its problems*, pp. 188-190.

Spread of municipal ownership in the United States.—"Although as a general thing the service rendered by public service companies in the United States has been good, and although in most cases the service has continuously improved, and the price charged for the service has commonly been reduced, a few notorious examples of gross over capitalization accompanied by a decided deterioration in the character of the service, aroused what would on the whole appear to be an unreasonable dissatisfaction with the general scheme of private ownership of public utilities. This dissatisfaction was also due in large measure to the belief, which would appear in many instances to have been justified, that public service corporations were exercising a very corrupting influence not only on the city but also on the state governments. The belief was also commonly entertained by the people of the United States that public service corporations were making inordinate profits and it was felt that the public should obtain a larger share than had been accorded to them in the increased profits due to the lessening of operating expenses which had followed the introduction of such improvements as the substitution of electricity for horse power. The results of this feeling were in the first place an extension of municipal opera-

tion. It was believed that municipal operation of water works had on the whole been successful, and was therefore the proper policy to adopt. From 1800-1900 municipally operated water works had increased from six to sixty per cent of the whole number of water works. Of the fifty largest cities only nine rely on private companies for their water supply. The municipal gas plants increased from fifteen in 1900 to twenty-five in 1906. In 1881 there was but one public electric light plant in the United States, in 1902 there were 818, in 1904, 927, in 1907 it was estimated that there were more than 1,000. [In 1919, out of 5543 electric light systems in the United States and its possessions, 1821 were municipally owned.] The movement has, however, hardly touched transportation, although some cities like New York and Boston have built and own subways which are operated by private companies. . . . The more important results of the dissatisfaction in the United States with uncontrolled private operations are to be found, however, in the numerous attempts which have been made to subject private operation to public regulation and control. These attempts have resulted in either local or state regulation. . . . A study of the history of the treatment of these particular branches of municipal public works and of the conditions under which private operation has given and is giving way to public operation can hardly fail to convince us that the sphere of direct municipal activity is gradually extending. Reliance upon the individual property owner for the discharge of such functions as paving and sweeping the streets has almost everywhere given way to public action at public expense. Private water works have been very generally replaced by public water works and there is a considerable movement in Germany and England in the direction of replacing private by public gas and electric works, and tramways, while in the United States, France and Italy there are numerous instances of municipal electric light works for the lighting of the street and a few instances of such gas and electric light works for the distribution of light and power to private consumers. The law of these latter countries is being changed so as to admit of greater municipal activity in the operation of almost all kinds of public utilities."—F. J. Goodnow, *Municipal government*, pp. 347-348, 355.

Also in: O. L. Pond, *Municipal control of public utilities*.—D. F. Wilcox, *Municipal franchises*.—C. L. King, *Regulation of municipal utilities*.—L. S. Rowe, *Problems of city government*, ch. 10.—*National Civic Federation Report on Municipal and Private Operation of Public Utilities*, v. 1.—C. R. Woodruff, *New municipal program*, ch. 10.—R. P. Porter, *Dangers of municipal ownership*.—W. B. Munro, *Government of European cities*.

Municipal markets.—"The difficulties of properly inspecting perishable foods and the recent increased cost of living have brought to the front the proposition that municipal markets should be established. Just as a great reservoir simplifies the work of water inspection, so a centralization of food supplies in general and radial markets would render public control easier. It is the cost of food, however, that makes the matter more serious, particularly for the poor, who must purchase in small quantities, usually from petty tradesmen, three or four times removed from the producer. With those living constantly on the margin, every penny counts, and if the city can bring producer and consumer face to face, thus eliminating to a considerable extent the middle-

men, it may materially help in the maintenance of a proper supply of healthful foods at low prices. Years ago many of our cities, especially in the South and Southwest, had large markets, but their places have been taken by private concerns, although a few cities, like Boston, New Orleans, Baltimore, and Rochester, still [1912] maintain some municipal trading centers. Nowhere are the markets systematically organized, and no attempt is made to cover the whole field adequately. The subject is now receiving more attention, in answer to the demand for some systematic organization of the trade in food supplies, particularly meats and vegetables. Dubuque, Iowa, maintains a market at which farmers may sell without the interference of middlemen and the result has been a decided reduction in the cost of staples. 'At the recently established market place in Des Moines, between 100 and 200 farmers gather on the city hall lawn and in the streets adjacent thereto between the hours of 5 o'clock and 10 o'clock in the morning without paying any license or rent. They are permitted to sell direct from their wagons to the city consumer. The result has been that they receive approximately 50 per cent. more for their produce than the commission men paid them before, while the city buyers get their produce for approximately 50 per cent. less than was paid formerly.' In other cities, for example, Madison, Wisconsin, recent experiments in marketing have not been so successful, and it is apparent that the problem cannot properly be met without a great deal of skilful management on the part of the municipal authorities."—C. A. Beard, *American city government*, pp. 272-274.

See also CERAMICUS OF ATHENS.

Transportation and health.—"To increase the cost of transportation tends to retard a city's expansion along the lines of community health and safety. Cheap car fares with liberal transfers have been a tremendous factor in Chicago's territorial growth and development. Cheap and rapid transportation is also a means of preventing the crowding together of people in limited areas with the attending damage to both health and morals that always is in evidence in badly congested districts. The question of family health has impelled thousands of people, in Chicago to seek the outlying districts where air and sunshine can be had in abundance and where there is elbow room and a chance for children to grow and develop into healthy and vigorous men and women. And cheap and rapid transportation has made this possible. The workman of to-day can travel a round-trip distance of twenty miles between his home and his work place, and do it in less time than he could have traveled half the distance twenty years or more ago. A well-known health worker said some years ago that improved transportation facilities had taken thousands of people out of the congested districts in a single ward and into neighborhoods where, with no increase in rentals, the living surroundings from a health standpoint were immeasurably superior to those amid which they had formerly lived. And while there can be no accurate estimate made as to the number of lives saved each year on account of the wholesale begira of people from bad to good surroundings, there can be no doubt that such moves do exert a direct and vital influence over both the sickness and the death rates of the city. Especially, too, are fresh air, sunshine, and open-air playgrounds important factors in promoting the healthy, normal development of growing children."—*Transportation and health (American City,*

Mar., 1920, p. 246).—See also PUBLIC HEALTH; CITY PLANNING.

"Municipal program," framed by National Municipal League.—"At the joint invitation of the City Club of New York and the Municipal League of Philadelphia, a Conference for Good City Government was held in Philadelphia in January, 1894. Out of this conference grew the National Municipal League, formally organized in New York City in May, 1894. The League includes in its affiliated membership, the leading municipal reform organizations of the country, and, in its associated membership the leading students of municipal government. At the annual meeting of the League in 1897 held in Louisville, a special committee was appointed 'to report on the feasibility of a *Municipal Program* which will embody the essential principles that must underlie successful municipal government, and which shall also set forth a working plan or system, consistent with American industrial and political conditions, for putting such principles into practical operation; and the Committee, if it finds such *Municipal Program* to be feasible, is instructed to report the same with its reasons therefor, to the League, for consideration.' The Committee appointed under this resolution made a preliminary report at the annual meeting of the League held in Indianapolis in 1898, and a final one at the annual meeting of the League held in Columbus in 1899. The Committee did not claim that its report constituted the final word upon the subject referred to it, but its members were convinced, as a result of their studies and investigations, that '*A Municipal Program*' which would embody the essential principles that must underlie successful municipal government was entirely feasible, and they recommended certain Constitutional Amendments and a general Municipal Corporations Act, as setting forth a working plan or system consistent with American industrial and political conditions, for putting such principles into practical operation. The Committee's recommendations were unanimously adopted by the League at its Columbus meeting."—H. E. Deming, *Government of American cities*, p. 203.—As originally published, the "municipal program" has gone out of print, but Mr. Deming, under an arrangement with the league, reproduced it as an appendix to his book, with an explanatory discussion of it. The main objects sought in it are "to clothe the city government with such broad powers as will enable it to perform all the appropriate functions of a local government without resort to the State Legislature for the grant of additional power;" and to "prevent the interference by the State Legislature with the free exercise by the city of the governmental powers granted it." Beyond this, the designers of the "program" worked out what seemed to them the most effective plan of organization in municipal government for the exercise of such full powers. In 1910, the National Municipal League published a "new municipal program."

See also AYUNTAMIENTO; BERLIN: 1861-1903; BUENOS AIRES; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1900: Progress toward civil government; CITY PLANNING; CIVIC BEAUTY; PUBLIC HEALTH; RECREATION; BICAMERAL SYSTEM; CITY MANAGER PLAN; COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES; HUNDRED.

ALSO IN: W. C. Beyer and others, *Character and functioning of municipal civil service commissions in the United States (Report of the Committee on Civil Service, Governmental Research Conference of the United States and Canada)*.—W. P. Capes, *Modern city and its government*.—W. P. Capes

and J. D. Carpenter, *Municipal housecleaning*.—W. J. Clute, *Law of modern municipal charters*.—R. T. Crane, *Loose-leaf digest of city manager charters*.—A. B. Gilbert, *American cities: Their methods of business*.—F. J. Goodnow and F. G. Bates, *Municipal government*.—H. G. James, *Municipal functions*.—E. Kimball, *State and municipal government in the United States*.—N. Matthews, *Municipal charters*.—W. B. Munro, *Principles and methods of municipal administration*.—Idem, *Bibliography of municipal government in the United States*.—F. H. Spencer, *Municipal origins*.—D. F. Wilcox, *American city: A problem in democracy*.

MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP OF PUBLIC UTILITIES. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: European; German; Spread of municipal ownership in the United States.

MUNICIPAL REFORM. See COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES.

MUNICIPIUM.—"The term Municipium appears to have been applied originally to those conquered Italian towns which Rome included in her dominion without conferring on the people the Roman suffrage and the capacity of attaining the honours of the Roman state."—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 2, ch. 14.

MUNITIONS MINISTRY, British, executive department of the British government, established in June, 1915, to provide munitions of war for the conduct of military operations during the World War. It was given vast powers to acquire property, to control the management of plants, to limit profits, and to regulate the conditions of labor. See ENGLAND: 1915: Ministry of munitions; 1915: Munitions fabrication.

MUNITIONS OF WAR. See ORDNANCE; GRENADES; LIQUID FIRE; POISON GAS; RIFLES AND REVOLVERS; TANKS.

MUNITIONS OF WAR ACT (1915). See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Great Britain: 1880-1920; ENGLAND: 1915: Ministry of munitions; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1915: South Wales coal strike.

MUNITIONS OF WAR AMENDMENT BILL (1917). See ENGLAND: 1917-1918.

MUNITIONS STRIKES, Bridgeport, Connecticut. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1917-1918: Munitions strikes.

MUNN VS. ILLINOIS, celebrated legal case concerning a man by the name of Munn, who was prosecuted and convicted under the statutes of Illinois for carrying on the business of public warehouseman without a license. He appealed to the United States Supreme Court on the grounds that the statute would deprive him of his property without due process of law, and that the statute was a contradiction of the commerce clause in the Constitution. These contentions the Supreme Court denied, holding that the business of public warehousing, like that of common carriers, was affected with a public interest and subject to special regulation under the police power, and that this power was legislative, having been exercised by the British Parliament prior to the formation of the United States, and was therefore a part of common law and as such, retained by the State legislatures, if not limited by the Constitution of the United States.—See also SUPREME COURT: 1882-1898.

MUNRO, Sir Hector (1726-1805), Anglo-Indian general. See INDIA: 1757-1772.

MUNRO-FERGUSON, Ronald Craufurd, 1st Viscount Novar. See NOVAR.

MUNSEE, or Minsiu, tribe of North American Indians. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; DELAWARES; MANHATTAN ISLAND.

MUNSTER, province of southwestern Ireland, comprising the counties of Tipperary, Waterford, Cork, Kerry, Limerick and Clare. (See IRELAND: Historical map.) In medieval times it was an independent kingdom.—See also IRELAND: 13th-14th centuries; 1327-1367; 1559-1603; also 1691: Maps.

MUNSTER, capital of the province of Westphalia, Germany, about sixty-five miles northeast of Düsseldorf. See GERMANY: Map.

1532-1536.—Reign of Anabaptists.—Persecution. See ANABAPTISTS OF MÜNSTER; BAPTISTS: European beginnings.

1644-1645.—Negotiations between France and Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1625-1647.

1648.—Peace of Westphalia or Münster. See WESTPHALIA, PEACE OF; GERMANY: 1648; Peace of Westphalia; NETHERLANDS: 1648; AMERICA: 1528-1648; AUSTRIA: 1618-1648.

1759.—Taken by French during Seven Years' War. See GERMANY: 1759 (April-August).

1803.—Controlled by Prussia after Treaty of Lunéville. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

MÜNSTER, Anabaptists of. See ANABAPTISTS OF MÜNSTER.

MUNYCHIA. See PRÆUS.

MUNYCHIA, Battle of (403 B.C.). See ATHENS: B. C. 404-403.

MÜNZER, Thomas (c. 1489-1525), German religious enthusiast. Influential in the German Reformation and leader in the Peasants' War, 1525. See ANABAPTISTS; GERMANY: 1524-1525.

MURA, tribe of South American Indians. See GUCK, OR COCO, GROUP.

MURAD, or Amurath I (1319-1389), sultan of Turkey, 1359-1389. See TURKEY: 1360-1389.

Murad, or Amurath II (1403-1451), sultan of Turkey, 1421-1451. See TURKEY: 1402-1451.

Murad, or Amurath III (1546-1595), sultan of Turkey, 1574-1595. See HUNGARY: 1567-1604.

Murad, or Amurath IV (1611-1640), sultan of Turkey, 1623-1640. See TURKEY: 1623-1640; BAGDAD: 1393-1638.

Murad, or Amurath V (1840-1904), sultan of Turkey, May-August, 1876.

MURAD BEY (c. 1750-1801), Mameluke chief. See EGYPT: 1517-1798.

MURAT, Joachim (1767-1815), French marshal and king of Naples, 1808-1815. Entered the French army, 1791; accompanied Napoleon to Italy, 1796; to Egypt, 1798; on his return dispersed the Council of Five Hundred and was rewarded with the command of the consular guard, 1799; married Caroline, sister of Napoleon, 1800; commanded cavalry at Marengo, 1800, and subsequent important battles of the Napoleonic campaigns; created prince, 1805; declared war on Austria after Napoleon's return from Elba, 1815; invaded Italy after Waterloo; taken prisoner and shot.

1796.—With Napoleon in Italy. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October).

1805.—Commander of French forces in Germany. See FRANCE: 1805 (March-December).

1806-1813.—Campaigns in Germany. See GERMANY: 1806 (October); 1813 (August-October).

1808.—Commander-in-chief in Spain.—King of Naples. See SPAIN: 1808 (May-September); ITALY (Southern): 1808-1809.

1812.—Russian campaign. See RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September); (September); (October-December).

1814.—Desertion of Napoleon. See ITALY: 1814.

1815.—Defeat at Tolentino.—Death. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF; ITALY (Southern): 1815.

MURATORI, Lodovico Antonio (1672-1750), Italian antiquarian and historian. Regarded as the

father of Italian history. See HISTORY: 25; ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1670-1745.

MURAVIEV, Mikhail Nikolaievich (c. 1796-1866), Russian general and statesman. Noted for his cruelty in putting down the rebellion in Lithuania, 1863. See POLAND: 1863-1869.

MURAVIEV, Mikhail Nikolaievich (1845-1900), Russian statesman. Minister of foreign affairs, 1897-1900. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: First International conference.

MURCI, a name given to degenerate Romans, in the later days of the empire, who escaped military service by cutting off the fingers of their right hands.

MURDERER'S BIBLE. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: Curious misprints in old Bibles.

MURDOCK, William (1754-1839), Scottish inventor and engineer. Inventor of the oscillating steam engine and first user of illuminating gas for practical purposes. See AUTOMOBILES: 1678-1803; INVENTIONS: 18th century: Artificial light.

MURET, Battle of (1213). See ALBIGENSES: 1210-1213; SPAIN: 1035-1258.

MURFREESBOROUGH, or **STONE RIVER**, Battle of (1862-1863). See U.S.A.: 1862-1863 (December-January: Tennessee).

MURILLO, Bartolomé Estéban (1617-1682), Spanish painter. Founded Academy of Seville, 1678. See PAINTING: Spanish.

MURMAN COAST, northeast coast of the Kola peninsula, Lapland, between Norway and the White sea, on the Arctic ocean. (See RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the new border states.) Part of this coast is ice-free, affording Russia her only all-year outlet to the open ocean. A small territory leading to the coast was ceded to Finland by the Soviet government in 1920.

MURMAN RAILWAY, completed in 1916, connecting Petrograd, Russia, with the ice-free port of Murmansk, Kola bay, on the Arctic.

MURMANSK, town in northwest Russia, on the Kola peninsula, at the mouth of the Kola bay, on the sheltered ice-free harbor. It is the northern terminus of the Murman railway. In 1916 the population was about 7,000. In 1918 the Allies held it against the Bolsheviks.—See also WORLD WAR: 1918: III. Russia: d.

MURPHY, Charles F. (1858-), American politician. See NEW YORK: 1913: Impeachment, etc.

MURRAY, Sir Archibald James (1860-), British general. Chief of imperial general staff, 1915; commander-in-chief, Egypt, 1916-1917. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VI. Turkish theater: c. 1.

MURRAY, Lord George (1604-1760), Scottish Jacobite general. Served Prince Charles, the young pretender to the House of Stuart.

MURRAY, or **Morey**, James Stuart, 2nd Earl of (c. 1531-1570), regent of Scotland. Illegitimate son of James V of Scotland; appointed regent after the abdication of Mary Queen of Scots at Lochleven, 1567. See SCOTLAND: 1561-1568.

MURRAY, John (1741-1815), American clergyman, called the "Father of American Universalism." See UNIVERSALISM: UNIVERSALISTS.

MURRAY, William, 1st Earl of Mansfield. See MANSFIELD, WILLIAM MURRAY, 1ST EARL OF.

MURRAY, or **GOOLWA, RIVER**, principal waterway of Australia, in the southeastern part of the continent. It rises in the Australian Alps, forms the boundary between Victoria and New South Wales, and empties into Encounter bay. It is over 1,000 miles in length. See AUSTRALIA: Map.

Labor settlements. See SOUTH AUSTRALIA: 1893-1895.

Irrigation system. See SOUTH AUSTRALIA: 1916.

MURRAY HILL RESERVOIR. See **NEW YORK CITY:** 1740-1862.

MURRHINE VASES, antique vases brought by Pompey from Asia to Rome. "The highest prices were paid for the so-called Murrhine vases (*vasa Murrhina*) brought to Rome from the East. . . . The *Consularis T. Petronius* . . . bought a basin from Murrha for 300,000 sesterii; before his death he destroyed this matchless piece of his collection, so as to prevent Nero from laying hold of it. . . . There is some doubt about the material of these Murrhine vases, which is the more difficult to solve, as the only vase in existence which perhaps may lay claim to that name is too thin and fragile to allow of closer investigation."—E. Guhl and W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans*, sect. 91.

MURSA, Battle of (351). See **ROME: Empire:** 337-361.

MÜRZSTEG PROGRAM OF REFORM IN MACEDONIA, drawn up by the emperors of Austria-Hungary and Russia at Mürzsteg, in the Austrian Alps, 1903, and presented to the Turkish government. See **TURKEY:** 1903-1908.

MUSA BEN MOHAMMED (c. 900), Arabian mathematician. See **SCIENCE:** Arabian.

MUSA BEN NOSSEYR (640-717), Arabian conqueror. See **SPAIN:** 711-713.

MUSCADINS, or *Jeunesse Dorée*, Anti-Jacobin party of the French Revolution. See **FRANCE:** 1794-1795 (July-April).

MUSCHENBROECK, or *Musschenbroeck*, Pieter von (1692-1761), Dutch mathematician and natural philosopher. Credited with the discovery of the Leyden jar. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY:** Early experiments.

MUSCOGEES, tribe of North American Indians. See **MUSKHOGEAN FAMILY.**

MUSCOVY, former name for Russia.

MUSCULUS, huge movable covered way which the Romans employed in siege operations.

MUSEO NAZIONALE, Florence, in the Bargello. It is chiefly devoted to sculpture, splendidly representing Donatello, Verrocchio and Michelangelo. "It is, if we may believe Vasari, partly to Arnolfo and partly to Agnolo Gaddi that we owe the Bargello, that place so like a fortress at the corner of the Via del Proconsolo and Via Ghibellina. Begun in the middle of the thirteenth century for the Capitano del Popolo, it later became the Palace of the Podesta, passing at last, under the Grand Dukes, to the Bargello, the Captain of Justice, who turned it, barbarously enough, into a prison, dividing the great rooms, as it is said, into cells for his prisoners. To-day it is become the National Museum, where all that could be gathered of the work of Tuscan sculptors is housed and arranged in order."—E. Hutton, *Florence*, p. 276.

ALSO IN: E. G. Gardiner, *Story of Florence*, pp. 214, 216.

MUSEO NAZIONALE, Naples.—"Originally commenced in 1586 as a cavalry barrack, but left unfinished until 1610, when it was assigned to the University, and after the inauguration in 1616 the building was known as the *Regii Studii*. After the earthquake in 1688 it was used by the courts, and during the revolution of 1701 it became a barrack. In 1767 it was enlarged and assigned to the Department of Public Instruction, and having been arranged for a public Museum, King Ferdinand IV, in 1790, removed here the Royal Collection of antiquities. After the restoration of the Bourbons they enriched it by additions from time to time, and declared it to be their private property, independent of the Crown, under the name of the Museo Reale Borbonico. Garibaldi, when dictator, proclaimed in 1868 the Museum and the territory devoted to the excavations to be the property of the nation, and increased the endowments and works connected with it. On the consolidation of the kingdom of Italy, Victor Emmanuel reorganized the Museum and included in it the Cumæan and Santangelo collections. The Museo Nazionale is especially rich in bronzes and statues, but its most characteristic feature is the priceless collection of frescoes and paintings, and other objects dug from the ruins of Pompeii and Herculaneum."—T. Greenwood, *Museums and art galleries*, pp. 350-351.

MUSEUMS. See **ART GALLERIES AND MUSEUMS;** also **ART INSTITUTE OF CHICAGO;** **ASHMOLEAN MUSEUM, OXFORD;** **BRITISH MUSEUM;** **CARNAVALET, MUSÉE;** **DARMSTADT MUSEUM;** **DRESDEN MUSEUM;** **DUBLIN MUSEUM;** **GLASGOW MUSEUM;** **HERMITAGE;** **HISPANIC SOCIETY OF AMERICA;** **IMPERIAL MUSEUM, VIENNA;** **LOUVRE;** **METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART;** **MUSEO NAZIONALE, FLORENCE;** **MUSEO NAZIONALE, NAPLES;** **NATURAL HISTORY, AMERICAN MUSEUM OF;** **NEW YORK CITY: 1870-1921;** **OLD PINAKOTHEK;** **PRADO, MUSEO DEL;** **RYKS MUSEUM OF AMSTERDAM;** **VATICAN MUSEUM;** **VICTORIA AND ALBERT MUSEUM.**

MUSH, chief town in the Mush Sanjak, Asia Minor, 79 miles south of Erzerum. It was captured by Grand Duke Nicholas' army from the Turks, 1916, two days after the surrender of Erzerum to the Russians. See **WORLD WAR: 1916:** VI. Turkish theater: d, 3; d, 6.

1915.—Armenians massacred by the Turks. See **WORLD WAR: 1915:** VI. Turkey: d, 1.

MUSHET, Robert Forester (1811-1891), English metallurgist. Inventor of the Mushet process of making steel. See **INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry.**

MUSHROOM VALLEY, Battle of (1914). See **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1914.**

MUSIC

Introduction.—The names, "Primitive Music," "Art-music," and "Folk-music," serve both as headings to the three main divisions of the article "Music," and as differentiating terms. Song, the most complex achievement of primitive man, is a permanent element in musical history and is one of the connecting links between primitives and civilization. *Primitive music* rests upon the pentatonic scale of five whole notes, and for the most part major; the melodies generally run from the top of the scale to the bottom; there is no part singing, no way of determining the pitch, and no universal key. Co-existent with art-music, and having the same common ancestry, is yet a third

type known as *Folk-music*; existing for purposes of lyric and narrative poetry, though never written down (except by collectors), it is one of the most permanent things in the world. Each singer learns his tunes, alters them to suit his own ideas, and transmits the result, orally, to his successor. Although an agglutination of the subconscious mind of a nation, *Folk-music* has the ordered beauty of design, balance, contrast, and proportion. *Nationalism in music* is better defined as a phase of national consciousness which is expressed in the idioms, and built on the elements of Folk-music by trained composers. *Art-music*, consciously formulated by the most competent thinkers of each

age, traces its beginnings back to ancient Egypt. In the three broad divisions of history: Ancient, Medieval, and Modern, art-music is progressively characterized by simple melody, simultaneous melodies (polyphony), and accompanied melody.

PRIMITIVE

First music.—Rude instruments.—"Music is coeval with the human race. In all probability it precedes spoken language. For music is primarily the expression of emotion; articulate language is the expression of definite thought. And in the process of evolution emotion precedes thought. The beginnings of music are to be found in nature herself. The howling of the winds, the humming of insects, the cries of animals, the songs of birds must all be considered as elemental music, inasmuch as they contain the two fundamental elements thereof: 'rhythm' and 'tone.'" In so far as we can learn from records and the study of primitive races, the first and lowest type of music is purely rhythmical; but man marked off from the rest of creation can at will, and with taste, combine emotion (melody) with gesture (rhythm). "When we contemplate the life of the savage we are to all intents and purposes observing the lives of our own primitive ancestors. As we see them to-day they without doubt portray for us a phase through which we ourselves passed on our way upward to civilization. No tribe of savages has yet been discovered who have not possessed some elemental fragments of music. . . . Most savage tribes gave their war cries, songs, and dances; their playful or ceremonious dances; their love or marriage songs, their funeral songs; and lastly their mysterious and pantheistically religious incantations: . . . to effect the deliverance of some person from a dread disease, or to bring rain, or abundance of game, etc. All of these are to be regarded as primitive music—music which has hardly as yet attained the dignity of an Art. . . . The most elemental cries of primitive peoples consist of a succession of sounds beginning on a high tone and descending by means of a gliding or slurring effect, to a low tone. Such are the cries of the Caribs, and of the aboriginal inhabitants of Australia. Definite musical tones cannot be recognized in these primitive cries, hence they cannot be accurately written down in the musical notation of civilization. In such simple and elemental cries as these, although no definite musical intervals are to be recognized, it is not long before they appear . . . and definite melodic design is the object toward which the savage mind unconsciously gropes. . . . It must not be supposed that the intervals in use in civilized music are wholly the invention of man. Many of the intervals, such as thirds, fifths, and octaves, are found to be quite perfect in certain animal cries and particularly in bird-song. . . . Music and the dance developed side by side. . . . In savage life they are well-nigh inseparable. . . . All primitive dances are accompanied by hand clapping, stamping of the feet, the beating of stones, the knocking of two sticks of wood together, or something of this nature to keep the time regular and to accentuate the rhythm. . . . The drum, roughly speaking, is the oldest musical instrument. It is of great interest . . . as it still holds a place of honor in the modern orchestra. . . . We have seen how naturally the percussion instruments . . . sprang into being, as it were, in response to an innate necessity for rhythmic expression, an inevitable accompaniment of the dance and the dance-song. Almost at the same time wind instruments of a simple and rude

kind were fashioned. Whistles were made from the bones of animals with the marrow removed. Pipes were made from hollow reeds, while conch shells and the horns of deer-like animals furnished the first trumpets. . . . To construct an instrument of the whistle variety which should produce more than one tone was the next step. On whistles or pipes of different lengths, tones of different pitches can be produced, low tones from long pipes, higher tones from shorter pipes. So different lengths of whistles were rudely bound together, the longest at one end, the shortest at the other end, and the intermediate ones arranged in a sequence according to their relative lengths. Thus an instrument was made from which it was possible to obtain a succession of rising tones, a primitive scale. . . . It has been given the poetical name of 'Pan's Pipes.' These 'Pan's Pipes' of more or less primitive construction, are found quite generally among the savage tribes of the world."—D. G. Mason, *Art of music*, v. 1, pp. 1, 3, 7, 14-15, 20-21.—"It is impossible to trace the progress of music in unbroken sequence from its primitive beginnings to its development as an art by civilized nations. The record is far too fragmentary. There are too many missing links, too many isolated and well-nigh inexplicable facts."—*Ibid.*, p. 28.

American Indian music.—"Of special interest to Americans is the music of the North American Indians. It is difficult to characterize this music by a few general remarks, as there are, or rather were, over fifty different tribes, each of which had its own peculiar music. . . . Music among the Indians did not occupy the place of an art. Song was not indulged in for the sake of giving pleasure, and music can hardly be said to have been developed among them in response to a love of melody for its own sake. . . . Song was the inevitable accompaniment of every important act or ceremony in tribal or individual life. The song, as a song, had no existence apart from the ceremony. It is true that gambling songs, and songs of labor, such as corn-grinding songs, are to be found among many of the tribes, but these are apparently variations of the general rule, and that they were indulged in for the sake of æsthetic pleasure is very doubtful. . . . In general it may be said that the . . . 'Iroquois,' 'Algonquin,' . . . or 'Kwakwiti,' are much ruder and present more rugged characteristics than those of the southern tribes, such as the 'Zunis' or 'Navahoes.' These southern Indian melodies are much more graceful. . . . The use of the interval of the fourth as a prominent melodic interval is quite a general characteristic of Indian music, and is noticeable in the music of many different tribes. . . . True to the most primitive characteristic of savage music, that of beginning on a high tone and descending gradually to the bottom of the voice, the melodic course of . . . Indian tunes is ever downward. . . . Among the Indians the drum is naturally the instrument most frequently in use. . . . The only other musical instrument deserving the name which is in widespread use is the so-called flute. This flute, pierced with six-holes and blown through the end (not across the side) is used as a court-ing or love-making instrument on which to serenade the loved one. . . . With the exception of the flute and its love-calls, instrumental music can be said not to exist among the Indians."—D. G. Mason, *Art of music*, v. 1, pp. 33-36.—"Nothing like a scientific study of Indian music was attempted until 1880. In that year Theodore Baker lived a while on the Seneca reservation, in the state of New York, and collected and studied

such Indian melodies as he could there obtain. The results of his studies were embodied in a pamphlet and published under the title, *Über die Musik der nordamerikanischen Wilden*. This little book first drew the attention of ethnologists and others to the hitherto unsuspected existence of a large and important native musical culture among the Indians. Since the publication of Baker's essay . . . the subject has not lacked investigators. The application by Prof. Fewkes, of Harvard University, of the phonograph to the accurate recording of Indian melodies has been used with brilliant success by investigators. Through the efforts of such workers as Alice C. Fletcher, Frederick R. Burton, Franz Boaz, James Mooney, Natile Curtis, Frances Densmore, and others, thousands of Indian songs of many different kinds have been collected, written down and published, forming a library of American primitive music of great completeness and inestimable value to students of the subject."—*Ibid.*, v. 1, p. 37.

Mexico, Ancient.—"The Music of Mexico was founded on the Drum. And the Mexicans developed the Drum in a manner which was quite peculiar to themselves. It was an instrument of melody with them, as it is with the Chinese and the rest of the Pipe nations, but instead of resorting to the somewhat clumsy contrivance of combining a lot of separate drums to produce the melody, the Mexicans had discovered how to produce different melodic notes from the same drum. And this they did by the use of vibrating tongues. In the top of the drum, which was an oblong, trough-shaped block of hollowed wood, in the flat top of this . . . they cut two long slits one at each side reaching nearly the whole length of the drum, and then cut a cross slit from one to the other, like a slit in a money box. This gave them two tongues of wood, and they had only to slice them to tune them to what note they pleased. Sometimes they would make two sets of these on the same drum, by cutting only half the top at a time, so that they could have two tongues on the left half of the top, and two on the right, with a little space of plain wood between each set. . . . These tongued drums were called *teponaztlis* and had a very deep tone. When they were played with other instruments, they served as the double bass. . . . But they were also played solo; for *teponaztlis* of various pitches might be so arranged as to play a consecutive melody between them, much as the Peruvian pipe players did with their Pan pipes. . . . So enamoured were they [the primitive Mexicans] of bass voices, for instance, that 'they would keep bass singers singing their bass songs for days together.' And the kind of bass they liked best was the deepest of deep bass—the *basso profundo*. For the tenor voice they did not care at all. . . . The Great Drum of the Mexicans was called *Vueatl*, and it could be tuned to any pitch by tightening or loosening the drum head. The reason of this was that it might play in concert with the *teponaztlis*. The copper gongs were struck with copper drumsticks, but the drums with drumsticks tipped with Indian rubber. And they had musical stones too like the Chinese, but they used them in a different way, for they clashed them together like cymbals. . . . And the copper rattles were made like small oil flasks, and the neck was the handle, and it was hollow; and the rattle was filled with small stones. Sometimes these rattles were made of silver, and sometimes of pure gold. In their ignorance of any stringed instrument, the Mexicans were put to it to devise perpetual variety in those simpler instruments they

had, not only in their form but in their quality of tone. So in their rattles, having tried the sound of pebbles rattled against copper, against silver, against gold, or of terra cotta pellets rattling against terra cotta, for they had terra cotta rattles too, they went on to try the sound of wood rattling against wood, or perhaps these wooden rattles may have been the oldest of all, and the terra cotta and copper rattles the subsequent ones. . . . They made those strange things . . . called Rattle Organs, and of which the music consisted in little pieces of wood rattling against one another. Of these Rattle Organs there were 2 kinds, the Small Rattle Organ, and the Great Rattle Organ; the first was called *Aiochicaoaztli* or *Nacatl-quouvitl*, and the second was called *Ayanhchicaoaztli*. . . . The second, of which the first was only a diminutive copy, . . . consisted of a board 12 feet long and a span broad (the first was only 6 feet long), on which were fastened, at certain intervals, round pieces of wood something of the shape of drumsticks, and when the board was moved these pieces of wood rattled against one another. These Rattle Organs were principally used in processions, and the players carried them on their shoulder. . . . Under the dominion of the master spirit the musical instruments became regular works of art. . . . They made their whistles in the shape of birds, frogs, men's heads; their *teponaztlis*, even the ordinary ones, were covered with carvings; but the *teponaztlis* used in war, the war drums, . . . were cut in the figure of a man crouching on his knees. . . . So delicate an ear had the Mexicans for all the shades of percussional sounds, that they could appreciate the variation caused by the stopping and unstopping of a hole in the body of a tambourine, no bigger than the hole of an ordinary flute stop. And they had rattles made in the shape of a snake crushing a toad in its coils; and things very much like the Chinese egg-instruments, that were really flageolets with two mouthpieces, that could play a bass and a treble at the same time; and pipes and rattles combined, in the form of three human heads supporting a pedestal—the pedestal was the pipe, and the heads, which were filled with stones, were the rattles. . . . As a curious commentary on . . . [the] blending and fusion of the Arts in Mexico, let us take those bodies which existed probably in all the cities of the Chichimec empire, and of which the chief one was at Terzucoc—may serve as a type of the rest. . . . It was concerned primarily with the regulation of Music. . . . Poets sang their compositions before it, and received prizes according to their merits; and it doubtless had much to do with determining what songs, out of the many that were written and rehearsed, should be sung at the monthly festivals. . . . It acted as a general Æsthetic Inquisition, and yet the name, Council of Music, was sufficient to denote its functions. . . . In the Vocal Music, 'metre and cadence were attended to so much, that unmeaning syllables were constantly interspersed in the poetry for the sake of the music.' Perfect time—perfect unison, are the invariable eulogies that are passed on the Mexican Music, and it is quite in keeping with such a character that dancing was its constant attendant. . . . The God of Music . . . was called *Tezcatlipoca*. He had brought Music from heaven on a bridge of whales and turtles; and he had twenty golden bells suspended round his ankles, which were a symbol of his power. And once a year the most beautiful youth in Mexico was chosen to be sacrificed to him; and the youth was chosen a whole year before, and during all that year he was dressed to represent

the god, and was regarded as the incarnation of Tezcatlipoca. . . . When the morning of the day of sacrifice arrived, he was taken by water to the Pyramid Temple where he was to be sacrificed. . . . And when the barge touched the shore, he was . . . delivered over to a band of priests. . . . And these conducted him to the steps of the pyramid, and he was hustled up in a crowd of priests, with drums beating and trumpets blowing. And he broke a flute on every step as he went up, to show that his love and his delights were over. And when he got to the top, he was sacrificed on an altar of jasper, and the signal that the sacrifice was completed was given to the multitudes below by the rolling of the great sacrificial drum. This was the drum that Bernal Diaz saw, and he says it was made of serpents' skins, and that the sound of it was so loud, that it could be heard eight miles away."—J. F. Rowbotham, *History of music*, pp. 332-342.

Peru, Ancient.—"Now could we have but crossed over to Peru before its conquest by the Spaniards, we might have heard those songs, forgotten now, which the reapers used to sing in the maize fields, as they were cutting the crops of Atahualpa; and whether they were reaping or binding up the sheaves, all the motions of their bodies were in time to the measure of their songs. . . . These reapers' songs were renowned all over Peru for their beauty. Except a few of the very best love songs, there was nothing that could come up to the reapers' songs; and in another way too they were remarkable, for Peruvian music consisted almost entirely of love songs, except a few songs about the warlike deeds of the past, which were sung at festivals and these reapers' songs, there was nothing else but love songs. And fortunately we can form a very fair idea of the ancient Peruvian singing, and could almost undertake to reconstruct the lost Peruvian melodies; for we have some very curious information about them. We are told that no such thing as unequal time was ever heard in Peru; that all the notes in a song were all of exactly the same length; we know what the favourite metre of the poetry was; and we know what the scale was . . . [the same as the Chinese 5 note scale]. So that putting these hints together, it would be no hard matter to reproduce much of the Ancient Peruvian music—for that piece of information about all the notes being of the same length is particularly valuable, indeed it is this which renders the attempt possible. . . . The Peruvians were not great singers and these are just the kind of metres, to have had an instrumental origin. 'In my time,' says Garcilasso, 'the people of Peru never sang at all, but they used to play their songs on the Flute instead, which came to much the same thing, for the words of the songs being well known and no two songs having the same tune, the melody of the flute immediately suggested the words to the mind.' It would be possible perhaps to argue from these and similar hints for a purely instrumental origin for the Peruvian metres. . . . The first thing that Garcilasso says [is] . . . that in his time the people of Peru never sang at all; and he adds that they had very had voices into the bargain, which he ascribes rightly or wrongly to this disuse of the art of singing. Flute-playing it appears had put singing quite out of court in Peru, and while it had always been in high favour there, just before the conquest it amounted to a positive passion. . . . The flutes which the gallants played upon had 4 or 5 stops, and were often wrapped in embroidered needlework. The reason the stops were so few was this, that only

songs were played on the flute, and 5 stops, which gave the complete Vocal Scale, were therefore sufficient. In the same way many of their Pan Pipes only sounded the 5 note scale, so that probably the Pan Pipes were also used to play the melodies of songs on. But most of the Pan Pipes however were tuned to a fanciful Instrumental Scale:—and these would no doubt toy with sweet sound, and play music not unlike the Instrumental Music of the Chinese. And they were such skilful players on the Pan Pipe and delighted in the instrument so much, that they used to form bands of Pan Pipes alone. And these bands were composed of 4 players, each with a different set of pipes,—one player had a set of Bass Pipes, another of Tenor, the third of Alto Pipes, and the fourth of Treble. And the Bass player would begin, and the Tenor player would answer him and the Alto would answer the Tenor, and the Treble the Alto. And so the Melody would soar up from the very lowest note right up to the highest, and they would fling it about from one to the other; and all in excellent time, for they were well trained. These bands used to play in the front of the palaces."—J. F. Rowbotham, *History of music*, pp. 327-331.

FOLK-MUSIC AND NATIONALISM

Introduction.—"The more a nation advances in civilization and self esteem, the more will it appreciate the precept put forth by the ancient sages, 'Know thyself;' and the more attentively will it investigate the views and tastes of other nations, since it is especially by observing others that we learn more thoroughly to understand ourselves. . . . The interest evinced, since the beginning of the present century, by several European nations in the popular songs, folk-lore, and other monuments of the mental condition of man in different parts of the world, is therefore a sign of progress not less delightful than the most important discoveries which have been made through the agency of practical science."—C. Engel, *Literature of national music*, p. vii.—"The Term National Music implies that music, which, appertaining to a nation or tribe, whose individual emotions and passions it expresses, exhibits certain peculiarities more or less characteristic, which distinguish it from the music of any other nation or tribe."—C. Engel, *Literature of national music*, p. 1.—"The folk-tale is the father of all fiction and the folk-song is the mother of all poetry. . . . 'The special value,' wrote Goethe, 'of what we call national songs and ballads, is their inspiration [which] comes fresh from nature—they are never got up, they flow from a sure spring. . . . The unsophisticated man is more the master of direct, effective expression in few words than he who has received a regular . . . education.'"—E. Martincgo-Cesaresco, *Essays on the study of folk-song*, p. 2.—There has always been, possibly always will be, two co-existent types of music—art music and folk-music. Folk-music is invariably simple melody, handed down from generation to generation, without any writing at all. It can be studied from one of two standpoints: artistic and the historical; and both may be studied along comparative lines; it is purely melodic, harmonic only by accident—the Russian *horovodi* affords the only known instance of folk-music which has developed into a rudimentary harmony without being written down. "A glance at the history of music will suffice to show that it falls into three periods: National music, in the sense of music being identified with the country of its origin, owing to

the comparative isolation of one country from another in early times. (Greek modes or tones; their adoption by St. Ambrose and St. Gregory; the flourish of Ambrosian and Gregorian chants all over Italy and abroad, consequent on the spread of Christianity; the English contrapuntists; the School of the Netherlands; the Italian movement, of which the Florentine Reformation forms an important part; the French clavecinists and opera writers, etc.), nationalism, here being in every case dependent on circumstances and not on the will of the composer. In Gluck, for the first time, we find music *International*, universal, not belonging to any one nation or school, but the outgrowth and representative of all the musical nations and schools of his time. . . . With Wagner the case is very different. He marks the starting point of the present great *Nationalist Movement*, and his aim, like that of every nationalist artist, was to express the character or soul of his country by means of his art."—R. T. Hall, *Wagner question and nationalism (Etude, Sept., 1918, p. 574)*.

Basque music.—"Among this little race of scarcely five millions, that speak five dialects of a language that none understands, . . . a vast treasure of folk music has been preserved since time immemorial, tunes ranging from the most emotional melancholy to the wildest rhythms of warlike dances (Zortzikos), from sweet shepherd lays saturated with mountain air to boisterous ditties of merriment and carousing. . . . The Celtic strain is clearly felt, a certain kinship to Breton and Welsh melody; but, strangely enough, also a relation to Finnish rhythms and harmonic conception. But this relation of the Basques and Finns is a shrouded mystery, strangely accentuated by the fact that recently anatomists have declared the absolute identity of the skull formation of both races."—K. Schindler, *Program of the 2nd subscription concert of the Schola Cantorum, New York, Mar. 24, 1920*.—"Therefore if the music of the Basques is of great antiquity, it must have sprung up under wholly different conditions from that of other nations. [No manuscript hitherto discovered is earlier than the eighteenth century.] It has a strange affinity with modern music, . . . due to the constant use of the leading note and the rapid and incessant changes of key. The Basque melodies are not founded on any particular scale; augmented intervals, whole tones, semi-tones, and even quarter-tones are freely intermixed, and a curious result is obtained by the constant repetition of a short phrase with alternating major and minor thirds. The time and rhythm of the Basque songs are irregular and complicated . . . but generally the bar has two beats, a weak and a strong which alternate in position: . . . the rhythmical grouping of the phrases is absolutely irregular; the periods are unequal in number, and none corresponds with the other; . . . the most popular tune (Sant Basque) . . . is surprisingly irregular. . . . In Aragon and Navarre the popular dance is the jota . . . almost always sung in thirds, and has the peculiarity that in the ascending scale the minor seventh is sung in place of the major."—G. Grove, *Dictionary of music and musicians, v. 4, p. 549*.

ALSO IN: F. Michel, *Le Pays Basque: Musique Basque*.—Vinson, *Le folk-lore du pays basque*.

Bohemia.—"Bohemia has a musical history which is quite as brilliant as its literary. A love for music and a certain aptitude in its practice are the birthright of every Bohemian, be he Czech or German. . . . Soon after his [Dr. Burney, the historian,] arrival in the country he was privi-

leged to discover one cause of the preëminence of the Bohemians in music. At Czaslan he found a school full of 'little children of both sexes, from six to ten or eleven years old, who were reading, writing, playing on violins, hautboys, bassoons and other instruments.' After that it was easy for him to understand how the nobility of the country could maintain orchestras in their houses. In keeping servants it was impossible to do otherwise, 'as all the children of the peasants and tradespeople in every town and village throughout the Kingdom of Bohemia are taught music at the common reading schools, except in Prague, where, indeed, it is no part of school learning, the musicians being brought thither from the country.' As Bohemia led Europe in general culture centuries ago, it is not surprising to hear of the extremely early period at which the cultivation of artistic music began. A singing society was founded in Prague A.D. 1105, and there seems to have been an association of amateurs devoted to the singing of motets, madrigals, etc., as early as 1616. For over two hundred years some of the leading composers and performers of Europe have come out of Bohemia, the names of men like Gyrowitz, Wauhal, Dionys Weber, Wranitzky, Duschek, Dreyschock, Kalliwoda Benda, Stamitz, Skroup, Smetana, Dvorak and Fibich shining on the pages of history. A distinctively national movement on lines similar to those of the Young Russian School began in 1862, when a national theatre was founded at Prague and Smetana set a model for a large company of followers, now headed by Dvorak, by writing a national opera, 'Branibori v Cechach' ('The Brandenburgs in Bohemia'). Smetana carried the national movement also into the department of orchestral music, and in this, as well as in the writing of operas, he has been followed by Dvorak. . . . K. J. Erben and Franz Sutil alone succeeded in collecting three thousand folk songs and folk dances, and the whole body of folk music literature numbers about five thousand tunes. These are overwhelmingly and sturdily major, though, as is the case with all Slavic peoples, there is also a minor tinge coming either from the employment of the modern minor scale or of sequences of intervals which recall the church modes. The author of an admirable historical sketch of Bohemian music in Mendel's 'Musikalisches Conversations Lexicon' says that the oldest songs were built out of the first, second, third and fifth tones of the diatonic major scale, and that the minor mode came into the country along with the Catholic religion and the Roman chariot. Protestant hymnology began in Bohemia, John Huss, like Luther, being a hymn writer and also composer. Luther made use of Hussite tunes, and adapted them for use in the Reformed Church."—H. E. Krehbiel, *Folk-music studies (New York Tribune, Aug. 6, 1899)*.—See also below: Modern; 1540-1672.—"The . . . two prominent national schools in modern times are the Bohemian and Scandinavian. . . . The Bohemian School centres about the achievements of . . . [Zdenko Fibich (1850-1900), Friedrich Smetana (1824-1884), and Anton Dvorak (1841-1904)], and its prevalent characteristics are the variety of dance rhythms . . . together with the peculiarly novel harmonic and modulatory scheme. . . . Smetana's significant work lies in his numerous operas, his symphonic poems and in the remarkable String Quartet in E minor entitled 'Aus meinem Leben.' The operas deal with subjects so strongly national that they have but little outside their own country. However, . . . *the Bartered Bride*—has been universally recognized as one of the genuine comic

operas in modern times and its spirited Overture is played the world over. . . . Although in some respects not so characteristic as Smetana, Dvorak by reason of his greater breadth and more cosmopolitan style, is considered the representative Bohemian composer."—W. R. Spalding, *MUSIC: An art and a language*, pp. 321-322.—See also BOHEMIA: Status of art and education.

ALSO IN: F. Liszt, *Des Bohémiens et de leur musique en Hongre*.—F. Urban, *Music of Bohemia*.

Celtic: BRITANNY.—"Among the bards who, in the fourth and fifth centuries of our epoch, resisted the invasion of Druidism by Christianity, the name of Kian, surnamed Givenc'hlan (meaning 'pure of race'), has been preserved to us in one of the fragments attributed to Taliesin, who speaks of him as one he had known in his youth, a composer of songs in humour of his country and its heroes. Nennius speaks of him, with Taliesin, Ancurin, and Llywarc'h Henn, as one of the most illustrious of bards 'in poemate Britannico.' Prophecies (Diouganou) ascribed to him existed in a MS. of the fifteenth century, preserved till the Revolution in the Abbey of Landévenec. This MS., in all probability the transcript of one much more ancient, perished in the Revolutionary troubles. Some fragments of it have escaped, which are quoted by M. de la Villemarqué. . . . M. de la Villemarqué, to whom we owe the Breton original of 'The March of Arthur' which he obtained from the recitation of an old mountaineer of Leuhan, called Uikel Floc'h, informs us that these triplets were sung in chorus, as late as the Chouan war, by the Breton peasants, as they marched to battle against the Republican soldiers. . . . A large proportion of the ballads still sung in the gatherings of the Breton peasantry—at the 'pardon' of the patron saint, the festivities of the wedding or the conservation of the new threshing-floor—relate to historical events of remote antiquity. One of these time-worn but deeply-stamped pieces of bardic coinage, now come down to exclusive circulation, among hard peasant-hands, but still precious for the quality of its true poetic metal, and venerable for its ancient mint-mark, is the ballad of 'The Plague of Eliant.' . . . The plague which the ballad commemorates ravaged Brittany in the sixth century. The 'Book of Llandaff' (in Jesus College, Oxford) contains an account of this plague. . . . It is . . . difficult to believe that a ballad of the date of the Conquest of England by William the Norman, and describing an episode in the life of one of the young Breton warriors . . . should have survived to our own time. Yet such is the conclusion, not of M. de la Villemarqué only . . . but of the . . . historian Augustin Thierry, who, in his history of the conquest, quotes this ballad as a contemporary composition. . . . 'The Goss-Hawk' ballad is the popular record of a peasants' war which broke out in Brittany 1008 . . . and is still sung in the Black-Mountains of Cornouaille. . . . 'The Nightingale' ballad or one on the same subject, was popular before the middle of the thirteenth century, when Marie of France—the first Anglo-Norman poetess—translated it among her 'Lais' giving it the name it bears. . . . 'The Battle of the Thirty' . . . is the popular account of one of the most gallant episodes of the intestine war between the rival houses of De Montfort and Blois, which ravaged Brittany from 1341 to 1364. . . . There can be little doubt that it is contemporaneous with the incident it describes. Froissart has told the same story in one of the supplemental chapters of his 'Chronicle' discovered by M. Buchon among the MSS. of the Prince de Soubise and published by him in 1824."—T. Taylor, *Ballads and songs of Brittany* (tr. from the *Barsaz-*

Breiz of Vicomte Hersart de la Villemarqué, pp. 15, 23, 61).

ALSO IN: C. Quef, *Breton music* (*Musical Quarterly*, New York, 1918, no. 3, p. 402).

HEBRIDES.—"The particular field of folk-music research here dealt with, that of the Hebridean Isles, offers peculiar advantages. Nowhere else in Europe probably can the labour song and the heroic chant be so studied from the living specimen. And these still living specimens date probably from many widely divergent stages of melodic development, the simplest forms and the most highly developed coming up, so to speak, in the same dredging net. Much of this music, again, is not necessarily unsophisticated. That it was unwritten (dating probably from pre-notation days) is no argument against conscious art. The Hebrideans have phenomenal memories . . . and this with their strong musical sense and their 'compelling sense of style,' has enabled them to retain and pass on a rich and varied literature of words and airs alike. . . . From our music we Gaels may learn that we are not only 'music-makers and dreamers of dreams,' not only of those that 'take up Harp and Sorrow and the wandering road,' but of those also that take up spears and die for a name. . . . Eigg and Benbecula indeed have furnished two-thirds of the material that is to be presented in our forthcoming second volume, the remainder hailing from Barra, Eriskay, South and North Uist and the Lewes. Low-lying, watery Benbecula of the sea-fords and the lochs and mirage-like illusions yielded us a great crop of labour lilt and some interesting and valuable Ossianic forms of chanting. I had been attracted to the island in 1911 by the fame of Callum Barraich as a singer of sacred songs. I looked for incantations and hymns and runes, such as those collected, translated and published by Dr. Alex. Carmichael in his 'Carmina Gadelica.' What was my astonishment to find that Callum's repertoire, and it was a very large one, consisted entirely of ancient, rhymed, heroic tales of pagan origin, just such Ossianic fragments as Macpherson found here in the eighteenth century, when covering this self-same ground in search of materials for his great epic. When his poems founded on this fugitive, fragmentary, orally transmitted lore appeared, all Europe reverberated to the strains of his Ossian. Macpherson died in 1796, but long before his death the Ossianic poems had become, according to William Sharp, one of the most vital influences in literature. . . . For seventy years (he was then eighty-seven) Callum had tended his cattle on the *machar* and chanted his tales of the heroes. He was out in the rain herding when we drove over one day, but he came with us to his cottage, and we were courteously ushered into the cheerful kitchen. . . . From the goodman we heard only Ossianic tales and lays. And ancient custom, we found, did not sanction an easy transition from these to lighter lilt. At one séance attention might be given only to the stuff of heroic tradition recited and listened to in reverent mood. These fugitive literary remains of the Gælic Homer are sacred to the Islesmen. Pre-mediæval, pre-Christian, pre-historic, these feats of Fionn and the Fayne, heroic, romantic, wild, fantastic maybe, hold up for imitation as a model Fionn, 'truest, wisest, kindest, gentle to women, generous to men. . . . Besides these Ossianic tales proper, the tales of Cuchullain, of the Great Fool (Parsifal?), of Deirdre, tales of suffering, of quest, and of high courage, are still recited orally by the folk around the peat fires. This lore was not spoken, it was chanted, and of the forms of chanting Callum Barraich used, we phonographed and

noted one or two specimens. From the goodwife we got labour lilt *guleor*, with intoxicatingly rhythmic refrains. These were mostly *waulking* songs sung at the shrinking of the home-spun web. As this process of fulling the cloth was long and heavy, the songs used for it were correspondingly stimulating. And many ancient airs are still preserved in Benbecula just because the work of weaving still goes busily forward there. . . . Hardly a day passes that is not marked by a *waulking*. And where there are many *waulkings* there will survive the greater number of varied and complex refrains. For at these gatherings the singing is the attraction and the tedious work of tossing, dumping and circulating the moisture-laden cloth is completely forgotten in the intoxicating swing of the body to the rhythmic refrain. . . . The workers, seated in opposite rows at a long table, rhythmically swing the cloth, tossing it on the boards to the pulse of the song. The stirring vocables of the refrains have, as a rule, no meaning. . . . Presumably women themselves were the authors of most of the labour songs used by them. . . . Many songs go to the shrinking of one web, and these vary in character and speed with the progress of the work. . . . But our main source of supply is Eigg. . . . Recurrent waves of Celtic inundation seem to have swept into and over Europe, probably from the East, in early days of racial migrations. And partly Oriental in character, the Celts remain in the mountain fastnesses, and remote isles and peninsulas where a remnant still faithful to the old memories and the old tongue remains. . . . There are traces in Celtic airs of kinship with Greek and Arabian. These may be found in the traditional formulae, which seem to persist for generations, although evidently quite freely redistributed in the order of their use by the various singers who receive them and pass them on, 'building with stones not of this building but of an older architecture.' . . . Yet it is notable that the Island melodic formulae—component entities out of which the complete tune is fashioned—lend themselves with amazing elasticity to the more extended forms of modern polyphonic music, as proved by their consummate use in Granville Bantock's 'Hebrides' symphony.'—M. Kennedy-Fraser, *Song collecting in Eigg and Benbecula* (*Musical Standard*, Mar. 10, 1917).

ALSO IN: A. Murray, *Father Allan's island*.

IRELAND.—'The Land of the Harp traces the origin of its national instrument, which is also its heraldic emblem, to ancient Egypt. On the monumental and sculptured remains of old Thebes we find the prototype of that polychord Bardic harp of the primitive Irish. . . . The inhabitants of pre-Christian Erin came from the East in various bands of colonists, bringing with them art-knowledge from their contact with the Land of the Nile. . . . If we reckon the growth of modern music to have commenced in earnest about two or three hundred years ago . . . or trace the first attempts at counterpoint (the crude organum) to have been somewhat previous to the great Flemish school of the 15th century, we have to go back not centuries, but thousands of years, to locate methods of harp playing in ancient Ireland through the first mention in Gaelic manuscripts of the harp or *cruit*. During the time of the tutha De Danaan race in ancient Erin (circa 1800, B.C.) it is recorded that the Daghdha, the Arch Druid of those mysterious and highly gifted colonists, so fascinated a band of pirate invaders by his harp-playing . . . that he threw a slumber-trance over his foes and so rescued . . . the treasure they had stolen [O'Curry's trans. of *Battle of Magh Tuireadh*], Harleian MSS.,

5280, British Museum]. Fanciful and legendary though this story is, the musical references in it are displays . . . practised by inhabitants of the Emerald Isle several centuries before the Christian Era; such evidence being contained in a large mass of Gaelic literature published during the last fifty years by the various Irish societies. From these and other sources we learn that later colonists than the De Danaans, the Milesians, . . . also coming from the Far East [according to the annals of the *Four Masters*, circa 1000 B.C.], brought with them 'a comely poet and gifted harper'—Cis, the son of Cis, and Clna by name. These artists fell by lot respectively to the two sons of Milesius, Heber and Heremon, the former obtaining 'the accomplished and most dexterous harper' [*Book of Conquests*]. Great indeed was the honour paid to their minstrels by the ancient Irish, bards ranking next . . . to chiefs and kings. Oisín . . . the famous warrior-minstrel of the Fianna heroes of the 2nd century, was far-famed as a harper, some Ossianic fragments of melody still in existence, being attributed to him. A few centuries later than the Fianna circle so formidable to Irish native rulers did these poet-musicians become that the then monarch, Hugh, endeavoured to get the bardic order banished from the country, peace being, however, made between the rival parties by St. Colum-Cille (558 A.D.). Foreign invasion, shortly following, interfered with the power of this strong musical caste. But the traces of a native minstrelsy of an exalted character, which these autocrats of the harp bequeathed to posterity, are still preserved in the vitalising and emotional appeal of the *oldest* specimens of our native music. . . . As compared with the pipers, who were mainly music-makers for the masses, the harpers were on a more elevated, aristocratic footing. Hence we will find two elements in Irish music proper: the 'traditional' music of the countryside and the more perfected melodic and semi-improvisatory work of the well-instructed bards. . . . Carolin (1670-1738), the blind harpist and composer, sustained his country's reputation in a musical contest with the Italian virtuoso, Geminiani. Gradually, owing to the disturbed state of the country, the well-to-do bard was replaced by the wandering minstrel, who sought hospitality for himself and his gentle art from door to door. Subsequent attempts were made to gather together and maintain the old harpers, who were gradually dying out toward the close of the 18th century. Hence the Granard and Belfast Harp Meetings. It was at and after the latter (1792) that Edward Bunting was able to note down from the playing of the aged blind harper, Denis Hempson (then over 100 years of age and practically the last of the old school) and others, a great number of the most beautiful of our ancient melodies. Bunting published three volumes in all of his life-long Collection, from which the poet Moore borrowed largely for his famous 'Melodies.' Dr. Petrie, the antiquarian, also did admirable work as a collector (Vol. I, 1855), his researches being mainly among the rural singers. . . . Subsequently, the late Dr. P. W. Joyce, tapped the Limerick district, swelling his own interesting Collections with those of Messrs. Pigott and Ford. Among numerous other collectors were Messrs. Levey (in *Dance Music*), Roche (in traditional music) and, notably, Captain Francis O'Neill (of Chicago) who, in addition to his colossal 'Music of Ireland' . . . has recently issued 'The Dance Music of Ireland' and '400 Choice Selections' . . . together with exhaustive volumes dealing with his subject, 'Irish Folk-Music: a fascinating hobby,' and 'Irish Minstrels and Musicians.' The latest Collections to date are those

of the Feis Ceoil (Vol. I, 1914), edited by Arthur Darley and P. J. McCall, and Mrs. Costillos, 'Traditional Songs from Galway and Mayo' (1918). When it is mentioned that the total of tunes, with distinct variants . . . number close upon 6000, some idea may be given of the quantity and variety of native-music items, the majority of which were bequeathed by the Irish bardic-harpers of old to their native country."—A. Patterson, *Folk-music of Ireland: Its past, present and future aspects* (*Musical Quarterly*, v. 6, no. 3, July, 1920).—Irish harpers travelled over Europe from the 8th to the 14th centuries, and their musical performances were in high repute. Vincenzo Galilei writing from Florence in 1581 quotes Dante (1300) to the effect that the harp was introduced into Italy from Ireland "where," he continues, "the instrument is excellently made and in great numbers, the inhabitants of that country having practised on it for many and many ages, they even place it in the arms of the kingdom, and paint it on their public buildings, and stamp it on their coin, giving as the reason their being descended from the royal prophet David."—V. Galilei, *Dialogo della musica antica e moderna*.—"The most ancient Irish harp now remaining, is that which is said to have belonged to Brian Boiromt, King of Ireland who was slain in battle with the Danes at Clontarf, near Dublin . . . 1014. . . . His son Donagh having murdered his brother, presented [the Harp, and other regalia] to the Pope in order to obtain absolution. . . . The Pope sent the Harp to Henry VIII with the title of Defender of the Faith. . . . Henry gave the Harp to the first earl of Clanricard, in whose family it remained till the beginning of this century [19th]."—E. Jones (Bard to the King, 1825), *Musical and poetical relics*, p. 97.

ALSO IN: E. Bunting, *General collection of the ancient Irish music of Ireland*.—J. Hardimai, *Irish minstrelsy or bardic remains of Ireland*.—E. Walsh, *Irish popular songs*.—J. C. Mangan, *Poets and poetry of Munster*.—C. V. Stanford, *Complete collection of Irish music as noted by George Petrie*.—A. Moffat, *Minstrelsy of Ireland*.

SCOTLAND.—*Bagpipes*.—"It is obviously impossible to arrive at a just conception or appreciation of the character of the ancient vocal music of Scotland, without taking into view the songs and rhymes to which it was adapted. . . . Music and poetry were much more intimately connected during the middle ages than they are at present; and whether the ancient melodies of Scotland were chiefly the invention of an order of men, who . . . conjoined these two sister arts, and 'sung verses to the harp of their own composing,' who graced all scenes of festivities with the exercise of their talents, and were welcome guests in the halls of the great, and the humble cabins of the poor; or whether they might have emanated from a class of persons who, . . . were little better than . . . 'mere instrumental performers, fiddlers . . . who made it their business to wander up and down the country, chanting romances; . . . or whether they took their rise among shepherds tending their flocks . . . who actually felt the sentiments and affections of which they are so very expressive,—all must be agreed that a congeniality,—a reciprocity, more or less perfect, must have . . . existed between the melody, and the words and the genius of the one must have alternately inspired and awakened that of the other. . . . It is believed that until within the last three hundred years, our Scottish songs were but seldom committed to paper. . . . The most ancient specimen of Scottish song, believed to be extant, is that which is given in Andrew Wyntown's "Rhyming Chronicle of Scottish History," written

about the year 1420, where speaking of the disastrous effect which resulted from the death of Alexander III, who was killed by a fall from his horse, in 1286, he says, "This falyhyd fra he deyed suddenly, This sang was made of him for thi." Another rhyme of the same period . . . is quoted . . . from an old Harleian MS., and was made by the Scots at the siege of Berwick. . . . In 1328, when Edward the Second's daughter Jane was given in marriage to David . . . and a [humiliating] treaty of peace entered into at York between the two nations . . . we are informed by the . . . historian, Fabian, that the contempt of the Scots broke out in diverse truffles, rounds and songs.' No more vestiges are traceable till the commencement of the sixteenth century . . . [when songs were] discovered [in] the 'Minute-book of Burgh Sasines' of the city of Aberdeen. . . . To what they owe their insertion in this inauspicious volume . . . we know not; but certain it is, that they appear there 'duly recorded' (1503-7). . . . The ballad of Evil Wyffis, the ballad of Guid Fallowis, and several—shorter pieces, which appear in the Bannatyne MS. (1568) may be considered as lyrical productions of this era. . . . The Skene MS. . . . is the property of the Faculty of Advocates at Edinburgh. It was bequeathed to that learned body . . . by the late Miss Elizabeth Skene . . . the great-great grand daughter of John Skene of Hallyards, who was the son of Sir John Skene . . . Clerk Register during . . . the reign of King James VI. . . . The MS. is without date, and there is . . . difficulty in [determining] the precise time . . . it was written. . . . From the appearance of the paper, the handwriting, and the fact that some of the tunes are here and there repeated . . . it is extremely probable, that they had been taken down at different times. . . . Circumstances . . . would indicate that this part [1] of the volume had been written some time between 1615 and 1620. . . . Part VI which contains some of the most valuable of our national airs, is evidently the oldest of all. . . . Written prior to 1615, though how long prior . . . it is impossible to say, . . . this collection of Scottish airs precedes in date by at least one hundred years the earliest compilation of the kind issued from the press. . . . As a great many musical instruments were anciently made use of in Scotland, especially in the low lands, much of the Scottish music must have been adapted to suit their particular genius, structure and compass. . . . Giraldus Cambensis [twelfth century] in his 'Topographia Hebermiaë,' observes that the Irish use only two musical instruments, the harp and the tabour; The Scots use three, the harp, the tahour, and the bagpipe. . . . The old music of Scotland belongs to a different scale from the regular music of modern times, which is founded either upon the diatonic or chromatic series; whereas that upon which most . . . of our national music is written, has been described to be the same with the modern diatonic, with two exceptions,—viz. that it wants the fourth and the seventh in such keys as resembles our major modes, and the second and sixth in those which we characterize as minor."—W. Dauneay, *Ancient Scottish melodies*, pp. 40-43, 47, 54, 5, 10, 12, 15, 175, 316.—"When we come to the question of the introduction of the bagpipe . . . into Scotland, we are . . . on highly controversial ground. It is obvious enough that the instrument is not peculiar to the Celtic races; that it has maintained its hold on them long after its disappearance in other European nations is equally so. But who introduced it into these favoured isles, whether the Cruithne or Prydani or Picts or the later 'C' Gaidheal branch of the Celtic stem—who shall say? Some authori-

ties—students of the subject would be a safer term—are prepared to assert that the bagpipe was introduced first into England, thence to Lowland Scotland, and only long afterwards into the Highlands; and one recent writer in the *Celtic Magazine* says the evidence of its association with the Scottish Gaels does not go back beyond the middle of the sixteenth century! . . . There is no likelihood of its ever being settled. Records did not exist in the ancient Highlands, and we have to turn to early Irish literature for reference to the bagpipe. In the Brehon Laws of the fifth century it is spoken of as the 'cuisle'; and, although Tara's halls are usually associated with the harp, it is recorded that at the assemblies which took place there in pre-Christian days it was the custom for the pipes to play at the banquets. It is possible the bagpipe was brought over from the north of Ireland, 'Scotia' as it then was, on the invasion of the Highlands by Cairbre Riada, who founded the kingdom of Dalriada in Argyle in 120 A. D.; or in the later great colonisation, about 506 A. D., under Lorne and Angus, the sons of Erc. . . . Unfortunately we have very little accurate knowledge of the early history of the Highlands, and there are no local written records extant to prove . . . that the instrument existed in those early days. We do know that the harper and the bard were national institutions of immense antiquity in the Highlands, and that, as the bagpipe became an increasingly important feature of everyday life, they were bitterly opposed to it. . . . In the absence of records of the employment of the bagpipe in war in the Highlands it is to Ireland, the so-called Lowlands of Scotland and to England that we have to turn for information; at the same time we must bear in mind that evolution of the instrument itself had begun to operate, and the English and Lowland pipes were different from the variety now known as the 'Highland,' which has supplanted all others. . . . Two institutions existed there [Scotland] which fostered the tradition and saved *piob mhor* from the fate of disappearance—the Burgh piper and the Clan piper; and by 1450 A. D. these had certainly become part of the national life. In Edinburgh in 1487 A. D. there were three town pipers, who were paid three pence daily; one of their duties was 'to accompany the town's drummer throw town morning and evening.' In 1505 A. D. the town records of Dumbarton, Biggar, Wigton, Dumfries and Linlithgow refer to burgh pipers. In Aberdeen in 1630 A. D. exception appears to have been taken to the custom of playing through the streets, as it is placed on record that this was to be stopped, 'it being an uncivill forme to be usit uithin sic a famous burgh, and being oftene found fault uith als weill be sundrie niehbouris as by strangeris.' That the citizens of this 'famous burgh' are peculiarly susceptible to the criticisms of 'strangeris' might never have been suspected by superficial observers, and it is well that there is official testimony to the fact. The effect of their daily music on the inhabitants of Perth was different,—or perhaps Perth was less amenable to the criticisms of 'strangeris.' In any case it is recorded of a burgh piper, who used to rouse the citizens at 5 a.m., that his music was 'inexpressibly soothing and delightful.' At Dundee the piper played through the town 'every day in the morning at four hours and every nicht at aucht hours,' and was paid twelve pennies yearly by each householder. The pipes, at least in the pre-Reformation days, were sometimes played in church; in course of time, however, piping on Sunday scandalised the authorities, religious and civil, and, in the burgh records, we find repeated instances of pipers being

punished for this misdemeanour. The burgh piper was a man of peace; the clan piper was a man of war. For many centuries he had to compete with the 'clarsair,' or harper, and the bard, and aroused feelings of acute hostility from the latter. In 1411 A. D. one hard, MacMhurich of Clan Ranald, wrote a poem of a most uncomplimentary nature about the bagpipes. The recitation of the bard before battle was probably last heard at Harlaw in 1411, and the clan bards disappeared finally in 1726; the last clan harper died in 1739, and the 'croistara'—the fiery cross—was sent round the clans for the last time in '45. The last Scottish piper will pass when the Scottish race itself passes—which will certainly be the last of all. . . . For four years and a half the pipes of war played their part in the greatest war in history [World War]; in the front, under conditions in which they could never have been expected to exist at all, they have led men to victory, have rallied them when victory eluded their grasp, and have marched them back undismayed by the tortures of battle; behind the lines they have headed the long columns of Scottish troops on their way up to the furnace in which the fate of nations was cast."—B. Seton and J. Grant, *Pipes of war*, pp. 10-13, 34.

WALES.—"By the Roman invasion, and the more barbarous excursions of the Saxons, the Danes, and the Normans and the emigration of the Britons to America [now Bretagne, France]; by the frequent destruction of MSS.; . . . and the massacres of the clergy and the Bards, the Poetry and Music of Wales have suffered a loss that has thrown a dark cloud over the history of those native arts. . . . Yet from the memorials still extant, and the poetical and musical compositions which time has spared we are enabled . . . to produce unquestioned evidence . . . concerning their rise and progress among us; since there is no living nation that can produce works of so remote antiquity, and at the same time of such unimpeached authority as the Welsh. . . . Of the Bards . . . and [their] music . . . little more than faint tradition is preserved. . . . In all the Celtic nations we discover a remarkable uniformity of manners and institutes. . . . It was the . . . office of the Bards of Britain to sing to the Harp, at the nuptials, funeral obsequies, their games . . . and at the head of their armies."—E. Jones (Bard to the king, 1825). *Musical and poetical relics*, pp. 1-13.—"The office, or function of the British Cambrian Bards, was to keep and preserve y tri Chôv Ynys Prydain; that is, the three Records, or Memorials of Britain, otherwise called the British Antiquities; which consist of three parts, and are called tri Chôv. . . . The first of the three Chôv, is the history of the notable acts of the kings and Princes of Britain and Cambria. The second of the three Chôv, is the language of the Britons, of which the Bards were to give an account of every word, and syllable, therein . . . in order to preserve the ancient language and to prevent its intermixture with any foreign tongue. . . . The third Chôv, consisted of the pedigrees, or descents of the nobility, their division of hands and the blazoning of arms."—*Three memorials of Britain* (An ancient folio manuscript in Bodleian Library, Oxford, marked KKK, p. 207).—"These bards served a higher purpose than the commemoration of individual leaders. They became the historians of their epoch. The profession was one of recognized eminence, and numbered kings among its adepts. Then it declined with the rise of written chronicles, till the last bard disappeared and only the ballad singer remained."—E. Martinengo-Cesaresco, *Essays on the study of folk-songs*, p. 4.—"Among the Celts, says Dio-

dorus Siculus [*bk. 5, ch. 2, p. 213, ed. 1559*] are composers of melodies [etc.] . . . Posidonius of Apamea, who flourished about 30 years before Christ, an author cited by Athenæus in his sixth book has the following passage: 'The Celts always carry to battle with them [Bards] whom they maintain as Parasites. . . . These companions . . . celebrate their praises, either before the crowd . . . or before any individual who may be interested in their Eulogies.' The disciples of the Druidical Bards . . . learnt an immense number of verses, in which they preserved the principles of their religious and civil polity by uninterrupted tradition for many centuries. Though the use of letters was familiar to them, they did not deem it lawful to commit their verses to writing. . . . 'Draig amyffrau odd uct llan lleffrau llady' . . . addressed to Beli Mawr is perhaps the oldest historical poetry of the Britons [written about eighty-five years before the Christian era]. . . . The Druids expelled from Britain by Cæsar . . . [took refuge in Ireland and the Isle of Man, and] British music moved with them. . . . At the commencement of the sixth century, we find the Bards resumed the Harp with unusual boldness to animate their country's last successful struggle with the Saxons. . . . From the ninth to the eleventh century their Awen or muse, seems to have received a check. . . . The hiatus continues till the time of Prince Gruffudd ab Cynan . . . who was the father of a noble succession of Bards, that brought the Poetry and Language of Wales to the highest perfection. . . . The Eisteddvod was a triennial assembly of the Bards (usually held at Aberffraw the royal seat of the Prince of Wales) . . . for the regulation of Poetry, and Music, for the purpose of conferring degrees, and advancing to the chair of the Eisteddvod by . . . musical contest. . . . Before any person could be enrolled in the Eisteddvod, the permission of the Prince . . . within whose jurisdiction he lived, was necessary. . . . The Eisteddvod was followed by the grand triennial Clera. . . . The period . . . between the reign of Gruffudd ab Cynan, and that of the last prince, Llewelyn is the brightest in our annals. . . . The works of most of the early Bards are to be found in the Myvyrian Archaeology of Wales collected from the oldest MSS. extant . . . [before the sixth century]. . . . Early in the twelfth century, Music and Poetry had approached their utmost degree of perfection in Wales. . . . The accession of a Tudor to the throne was destined to recall the exiled arts of Wales; and Henry VII was . . . the restorer of the Cambro British Muses."—E. Jones (Bard to the King, 1825), *Musical and poetical relics*, pp. 1-13, 31, 38, 46.

England.—"The Minstrels," says Percy, 'were the successors of the ancient Bards, who under different names were admired and revered, from the earliest ages, among the people of Gaul, Britain, Ireland, and the North. . . . [In the North] they were distinguished by the name of *Scalds*. . . . The origin of their art was attributed to Odin or Wodin, the father of their Gods; and the professors of it were held in the highest estimation. . . . The term Minstrel, however, comprehended eventually not merely those who sang to the harp or other instrument, romances and ballads, but also such as were distinguished by their skill in instrumental music only. . . . In the place of their old Scalders, a new rank of poets arose, called Gleemen, or Harpers. These probably gave rise to the order of English Minstrels, who flourished till the sixteenth century.' . . . The Scalds and Minstrels were held in great repute for many ages. . . . The Romans, on their first invasion of this island, found three orders of priesthood established here from a

period long anterior. The first and most influential were the Druids; the second the Bards, whose business it was to celebrate the praises of their heroes in verses and songs, which they sang to their harps; and the third were the Euhates, or those who applied themselves to the study of philosophy. The Northern annals abound with pompous accounts of the honors conferred on music by princes who were themselves proficient in the art. . . . Milton tells us, from the Saxon annals, that in 668, Pope Vitalian sent singers into Kent, and in 680, according to the Venerable Bede, Pope Agatho sent John, the Præcentor of St. Peter's at Rome, to instruct the monks of Weremouth in the manner of performing the ritual, and he opened schools for teaching music in other parts of the kingdom of Northumberland. Bede was also an able musician, and is the reputed author of a short musical tract in two parts, *de Musica theoretica*, and *de Musica practica, seu mensurata*. . . . Our great king, Alfred, according to Sir John Spelman, 'provided himself of musitians, not common, or such as knew but the practick part, but men skilful in the art itself; and in 866, according to the annals of the Church of Winchester, and the testimony of many ancient writers, he founded a Professorship at Oxford, for the cultivation of music as a science.

"The Normans were a colony from Norway and Denmark, where the Scalds had arrived at high renown before Rollo's expedition into France. Many of those men no doubt accompanied him to the duchy of Normandy, and left behind them successors in their art; so that when his descendant William invaded this kingdom, 1066, he and his followers were sure to favor the establishment of the minstrel profession here, rather than suppress it; indeed, we read that at the battle of Hastings, there was in William's army a valiant warrior, named Taillefer, distinguished no less for the minstrel arts, than for his courage and intrepidity. This man, who performed the office of Herald-minstrel (*Menestrier huchier*), advanced at the head of the army, and with a loud voice animated his countrymen, singing a war-song of Roland, *i. e.*, 'Hrofr or Rollo,' says our Anglo-Saxon historian, Sharon Turner. . . . Ingulphus, a contemporary of William the Conqueror, speaks of the popular ballads of the English in praise of their heroes; and William of Malmesbury, in the twelfth century, mentions them also. Three parishes in Gloucestershire were appropriated by William to the support of his minstrel."—W. Chappell, *Popular music of the olden time*, v. 2, pp. 1-3, 17.—"Minstrels and Poets abounded under Henry's patronage: they spread the love of poetry and literature among his barons and people, and the influence of the royal taste soon became visible in the improved education of the great, in the increasing number of the studios, and in the multiplicity of authors, who wrote during his reign and the next."—S. Turner, *History of England*.—"In the reign of Richard I. (1189) minstrelsy flourished with peculiar splendour. His romantic temper, and moreover his own proficiency in the art, led him to be not only the patron of chivalry, but also of those who celebrated its exploits. Some of his poems are still extant. . . . In the reign of King John (1212 A.D.) the English Minstrels did good service to Ranulph, or Randal, Earl of Chester. He, being besieged in his Castle of Rothelan (or Rhyudland), sent for help to De Lacy, Constable of Chester, who, 'making use of the Minstrels of all sorts, then met at Chester Fair, by the allurements of their music, assembled such a vast number of people, . . . that he intimidated the Welsh, . . . so that they instantly raised the siege and retired.' For this deed

of service to Ranulph, both De Lacy and Dutton had, by respective charters, patronage and authority over the Minstrels and others, who, under the descendants of the latter, enjoyed certain privileges and protection for many ages. . . . We have innumerable particulars of the good cheer and great rewards given to the Minstrels in many of the convents, which are collected by Warton and others. But one instance, quoted from *Wood's Hist. Antiq. Ox.*, vol. 1. p. 67, during the reign of King Henry III. (sub. an. 1224), deserves particular mention. Two itinerant priests, on the supposition of their being Minstrels, gained admittance. But the cellarer, sacrist, and others of the brethren, who had hoped to have been entertained by their diverting arts, &c., when they found them to be only two indigent ecclesiastics, and were consequently disappointed of their mirth, beat them, and turned them out of the monastery. In the same reign (1252 A.D.) we have mention of Master Richard, the king's Harper, to whom that monarch gave not only forty shillings and a pipe of wine, but also a pipe of wine to Beatrice, his wife. . . . Edward the First, according to the Chronicle of Walter Hemmingford, about the year 1271, a short time before he ascended the throne, took his harper with him to the Holy Land. . . .

"During the middle ages Music was always ranked, as now, among the seven liberal arts, these forming the *Trivium* and *Quadrivium*, and studied by all those in Europe who aspired at reputation for learning. . . . At Oxford the first who filled the chair [of music] was Friar John, of St. David's, who read not only lectures on Music, but also on Logic and Arithmetic. Academical honors in the faculty of music have only been traced back to the year 1403, when Henry Habington was admitted to the degree of Bachelor of Music, at Cambridge, and Thomas Saintwix, Doctor of Music, was made Master of King's College, in the same university; but it is remarkable that music was the only one of the seven sciences that conferred degrees upon its students, and England the only country in which these degrees were . . . conferred. . . . With the reign of Edward IV. we may conclude the history of the *old wandering minstrel*. In 1469, on a complaint that persons had collected money in different parts of the kingdom by assuming the title and livery of the king's minstrels, he granted to Walter Haliday, *Marshal*, and to seven others whom he names, a charter of incorporation. They were to be governed by a marshal appointed for life, and two wardens to be chosen annually, who were authorized to admit members; also to examine the pretensions of all who exercised the minstrel profession, and to regulate, govern, and punish them throughout the realm (those of Chester excepted). . . . Although Henry VIII. had given all possible encouragement to ballads and songs in the early part of his reign, both in public and private,—and in proof of their having been used on public occasions, I may mention the coronation of Anne Boleyn, when a choir of men and boys stood on the leads of St. Martin's Church, and sang . . . ballads in praise of her majesty,—yet, when they were resorted to as a weapon against the Reformation, or in opposition to any of his own opinions and varying commands, he adopted the summary process of suppressing them altogether. It is in some measure owing to that act, but principally to their perishable nature, that we have no *printed* ballads now remaining of an earlier date than that on the downfall of his former favorite, Thomas, Lord Cromwell, which is in the library of the Society of Antiquaries, at Somerset House. . . . During the long reign of Elizabeth, music seems to have been in

universal cultivation, as well as in universal esteem. . . . Even the city of London advertised the musical abilities of boys educated in Bridewell and Christ's Hospital, as a mode of recommending them as servants, apprentices, or husbandmen. In De-loney's *History of the gentle Craft*, 1598, one who tried to pass for a shoemaker was detected as an imposter, because he could neither 'sing, sound the trumpet, play upon the flute, nor reckon up his tools in rhyme.' Tinkers sang catches; milk-maids sang ballads; carters whistled; each trade, and even the beggars, had their special songs; the base-viol hung in the drawing room for the amusement of waiting visitors; and the lute, cittern, and virginals, for the amusement of waiting customers, were the necessary furniture of the barber's shop. They had music at dinner; music at supper; music at weddings; music at funerals; music at night; music at dawn; music at work; and music at play. . . . The most distinguishing feature of chamber music, in the reign of James I, from that of his predecessor, was the rapidly-increasing cultivation of instrumental music, especially of such as could be played in concert; and, coevally, the incipient decline of the more learned, but less melodious descriptions of vocal music, such as madrigals and motets. During the greater part of the reign of Elizabeth, vocal music held an almost undivided sway, and the practice of instrumental music, in private life, was generally confined to solo performances, and to accompaniments for the voice. The change of fashion, so far as I have been able to trace it, may be dated from 1590, in which year Morley printed a 'First Booke of Consorte Lessons, made by divers exquisite authors,' for six instruments to play together; and Anthony Holborne a collection of 'Pavans, Galliards, Almains, and other short airs, both grave and light, in five parts.'—W. Chappell, *Popular music of the olden time*, v. 1, pp. 9-11, 18, 43, 45, 50, 54, 98, 244.

"The first collection of songs in parts that was printed in England, was in 1530; but of that only a base part now remains. There are, however, many such collections in manuscript in public and private libraries. Stafford Smith's printed collection of songs in score, composed about the year 1500, is almost entirely taken from one manuscript. . . . In the Douce Collection (Bod. Lib., Ox., MS. No. 139), there is an English song with music, beginning—'Fowles in the frith, the fisses in the fiod' and the MS., which contains it, is of the thirteenth century, but it is only in two parts; and in Harl. MSS. No. 1717, is a French or Anglo-Norman song, 'Parti de Mal,' which seems to have been cut from an older manuscript to form the cover of a Chronicle of the Dukes of Normandy, written by order of Henry II. It is only for one voice, and a sort of hymn, but a tolerable melody. Both these may be seen in Stafford Smith's 'Musica Antiqua,' Vol. 1. Another very early English songs, with music, is contained in a manuscript, 'Liber de Antiquis Legibus,' now in the Record Room, Town Clerk's Office, Guildhall. It contains a Chronicle of Mayors and Sheriffs of London, and of the events that occurred in their times, from the year 1188 to the month of August, 1274, at which time the manuscript seems to have been completed. It is the Song of a Prisoner. . . . In the Arundel Collection (No. 202), there is a song in 'a handwriting of the time of Edward II.,' beginning—'Uncomly in cloyste l coure [cower] ful of care,' which is on the comparative difficulties of learning secular and church music, but, except in the line, 'Thou bitest asunder bequarre for bemol'

(B natural for B flat), there is no reference to the practice of music."—*Ibid.*, pp. 55, 25-26.

"That the harp was the common musical instrument of the Anglo-Saxons, may also be inferred from the word itself, which is not derived from the British, or any other Celtic language, but of genuine Gothic original, and current among every branch of that people, viz.: Ang. Sax. *hearpe* and *hearpa*; Gal. *harpe*; Span. *harpa*; Ital. *arpa*. The Welsh, or Cambro-Britons, call their harp *teylin*, a word for which no etymon is to be found in their language. In the Erse its name is *crwth*. That it was also the favorite musical instrument of the Britons and other Northern nations in the middle ages, is evident from their laws, and various passages in their history. . . . To prevent slaves from pretending to be gentlemen, it was expressly forbidden to teach, or to permit, them to play upon the harp; and none but the king, the king's musicians, and gentlemen, were allowed to have harps in their possession. . . . That the Gleeman or Minstrel held a stated and continued office in the court of our Anglo-Saxon kings, can be proved satisfactorily. We have but to turn to the Doomsday Book, and find under the head: Glowcesterscire, fol. 162, col. 1.—'Berdic, Jocolator Regis, habet iii villas,' &c. That the word Jocolator (at this early period) meant Harper or Minstrel, is sufficiently evident from Geoffrey of Monmouth, of whom Dr. Percy observes very justly, 'that whatever credit is due to him as a relator of facts, he is certainly as good authority as any for the signification of words.'"—*Ibid.*, pp. 4-6.—'English Folk-song has long been the ugly duckling of the folk-song family. For years musicians and experts, while fully recognizing the existence of traditional art in every other country, denied the possibility of there being any English folk-song.' In 1848, Rev. John Broadword (a name honorable in the annals of English folk-songs) published "Sussex Songs." "No more was done for the cause until 1880, when Mr. Baring-Gould made a large collection of West-County songs, and published a small selection of them under the title of 'Songs of the West,' this was followed in 1801 by Mr. Frank Kidson's 'Traditional Times' obtained chiefly from Yorkshire. . . . In 1898 the folk-song Society was founded 'for the purpose of collecting folk-songs, ballads and tunes.' Finally, in 1903, Mr. Cecil Sharp began his exhaustive researches in Somerset, which revealed a wealth of melody hitherto undreamt of, and his example has fired the enthusiasm of many collectors, and disseminators of folk-song. . . . The Oxford Folk-Music Society, [was] founded for the purpose of preserving, encouraging, and reviving traditional songs and songs among the people. Thus it seems that the ugly duckling is beginning to show its plumage, and is, in the opinion of many, turning out to be as white a swan as any of its elder brothers."—R. V. Williams, *English folk-songs (Musical Times, Feb. 1, 1911)*.

ALSO IN: C. Forsythe, *Nationalism in music*.

Finland.—'The Finlanders possess a folk-poetry of both the narrative and lyric kinds. Their national epic the *Kalevala* may be compared with the *Iliad*, the *Nibelungenlied*, *Beowulf*, or the narrative-poems that make up the ballad-groups of the English border. [See FINLAND: 1809-1898; KALEVALA.] They also have short poems, descriptive or emotional, which are sung to the accompaniment of the copper-strung plucked instrument called the *kantele*. But Finland has this special advantage: that its folk-music and poetry are still matters of common daily delight to its

people. . . . The art-music of Finland takes its rise . . . [from a German, Friedrich Pacius (1809-1891), who] seems to have possessed the unique faculty of being able to identify himself with the people among whom he lived. His successors were Collan, Linsen, and Ehrström. . . . [Martin] Wegelius (1846-1906) and [Robert] Kajanus [1856]—both cultured men of strong personality—asserted the national claims both on the literary and the musical side. The latter was one of the first to treat subjects from the *Kalevala*. In the next generation there are at least four composers whose vivid interest in their national art does honour to themselves and to their country. Of these the first three are Genetz [1852], [Armas] Järnefelt [1869], and Palmgren [1878]. The choruses of the first and last-named are imbued with the true spirit of folk-song. The fourth member of this group is [Jean] Sibelius [1865]. He studied both in Berlin and in Vienna. But on his return to Finland he asserted his position as an uncompromising nationalist. In fact, he may well be quoted as a living example of that type. To him Finland owes much of her present-day musical fame. His compositions have been played all over the world. We need only mention among his best known works the suite *Karelia*, *The Swan of Tuonela* (from the *Kalevala* epic), the *Elegy*, and *Finlandia*."—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsyth, *History of music*, pp. 334-335.

ALSO IN: A. Reade, *Finland and the Finns*, pp. 183-187.—E. Young, *Land of a thousand lakes*, pp. 263-265, 269-275.

France.—'The verses of the historic song have almost always been fitted to some air known long before the events which the song celebrates, and which has, therefore, no immediate connection with the events. Our old epic poems, of which the Song of Roland is the oldest and the most admirable type, were sung, as we know. But to what music we will never know; that is certain. In not one case has any trace of the old tune been found in the old manuscripts. . . . In any case, it seems evident, that this music, to which our old minstrels, accompanying themselves on the rebec, told their love for 'sweet France,' was reduced to insignificance, scarcely more than a melismatic recitative. . . . Then there is another reason, which induces us to avoid the examination of our so-called historic folk-songs here. And that is the questionable authenticity of most of those which have been set in circulation throughout the world, either by investigators who are easily satisfied, . . . or by singers, who . . . have desired to satisfy a curious public by serving it, under the color of archaism, with entirely modern fabrications. . . . The least contaminated among these folk-songs are those in which the falsification is limited to the *ex post facto* application, by analogy, of a name or a historic event, though this name or this event was wholly foreign to the original poem at the time of its conception. . . . Cassandra, which serves as a title to the chanson and to the dance, was the name of the woman beloved of Ronsard, to whom were dedicated some of the most perfect verses ever written in French; the Book of the Loves of Cassandra. . . . *Vive Henri IV* is almost the only *chanson* of this period which deserves attention. Shall we stop to speak of *Malbrough s'en va t'en guerre?* . . . This *chanson*, truly popular, is said to have been brought to the court of Versailles by the nurse of the Dauphin, the son of Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette. . . . Sung by her to lull the royal babe to sleep, the song charmed the august personages who heard it. Following their example, all the

world repeated it. . . . No other song has ever been so successful. . . . No one will be astonished to learn that the Revolution found for its national festivals poets and musicians who were worthy of translating its lofty aspirations into verse and music. . . . From the first anniversary of the fall of the Bastille, July 14, 1790, to that festival of the Federation which united on the *Champ de Mars* before the outdoor altar of *La Patrie* the representatives of all the provinces of France, assembled for the first time in one place, the need, immediate and irresistible, made itself felt. The preparations for the solemnity were simple in comparison with the majesty of the spectacle of such an assemblage. Those who made the arrangements had provided for no music but the *Te Deum*. Now, this would not suffice. On this day people must sing in another tongue than Latin, and with accents better fitted to express the sentiment that thrilled thousands of hearts beating in unison. Even before the approach of the great day a young author, who had recently made a brilliant début in the theater, and who was soon to become a veritable national poet, Marie Joseph Chénier, had written some verses which thróbbéd with this collective sentiment. . . . A musician was soon found, who set these beautiful words to music, a hymn-like melody supported by majestic chords. His name was Jean François [or François Joseph] Gossec. With this beginning destiny assigned to him the mission of composing the repertoire needed for the national festivals. Having provided the first models, Gossec soon found himself surrounded by a whole *Pléiade* of young composers who co-operated with him in this noble work. This historic moment, of capital importance to France and to humanity, was also of great significance in the history of French music. Until then, although French musicians had been quite active, a national school, properly so-called, had never come into being. . . . The people themselves must sing, and there was only one form that could satisfy this need,—the *chanson*. And so it came that the *chansons* multiplied exceedingly in the course of the French Revolution. Taken together they form a most enlivening and interesting object of study. . . . The first is contemporaneous with those manifestations of lyric fervor which we mentioned at the beginning of our consideration of the revolutionary epoch. It is the '*Ça ira*.' The plan to celebrate the fourteenth of July, 1790, the first anniversary of the fall of the Bastille, by uniting representatives from all the provinces of France at Paris in one great Federation, had aroused great enthusiasm among the people; but its execution met with some resistance on the part of the adherents of the old régime. The festival, the scene of which was laid in the Champs de Mars, at that time outside of Paris, was organized with difficulty. . . . Filled with ardor and with confidence, the groups of laborers met day after day with the cry of encouragement '*Ça ira!*' (That will go!) At that period there was a *contredanse*, frequently played at the public balls, the tune of which had become popular, as much because of its rhythms as of its title, 'The National Carillon,' which was quite suited to the taste of the day. By what mysterious force the saying *Ça ira* and the air of the *contredanse* were associated one with the other will never be known. This much is certain,—once the union was established, the success of the *chanson* was assured. . . . Numerous adaptations of words were forthcoming, rhyming well or ill, and all different. The *chanson*, in all its variants, sticks to the original beginning with the words thrice repeated:

Ah! ça ira, ça ira, ça ira. . . . The involuntary and astonished collaborator of the player of public dance music who composed the air, . . . was Bécourt. . . . Another characteristic *chanson* of the Revolution, the *Carmagnole*, was likewise Parisian. It belongs to another period, the most troubled, possibly the most terrible, of the Revolution; for it came into being on the morrow of the events of the 10th of August, 1792, when, under the menace a foreign invasion, the royal power was overthrown by a popular uprising, and when Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette, having fled from the Tuileries, were imprisoned in the tower of the Temple. The popular hatred finds emphatic utterance in certain stanzas of the *chanson*, which has no literary merit whatever, the author of which remains utterly unknown. . . . The melody of the *Carmagnole* is no less anonymous than the words. It certainly antedates the words and has all the earmarks of a true folk-song. . . . [Worthy of mention is a third *chanson* in] three stanzas, composed according to the usage of the time, to a well-known air: *Veillons au salut de l'empire*. Note in passing that the word 'empire' did not mean that the song was dedicated intentionally to the imperial rule. The *chanson* is dated 1791. The author [A. S. Boy, d. 1795], who had gone through his classical course at college, simply used the word 'empire' in its Latin acceptance: *imperium*, state, nation. . . . The tune to which he adapted his verses, an ariette from an *opéra-comique* by Dalayrac, . . . is truly transfigured, magnified, illumined by them. Thanks to this conviction, the *chanson* *Veillons au salut de l'empire* endured with honor throughout all the revolutionary years, and was many a time associated, without being eclipsed, with the immortal *Marseillaise*. . . . The history of the *Marseillaise* constitutes a chapter of general history which deserves to be universally known. No other song has ever played such a part in the life of humanity. . . . The hymn destined to become the national air of France was composed—the date is significant—on the first day of the war between France and the empires beyond the Rhine. . . . The author of the *Marseillaise*, . . . was the engineer captain, Rouget de Lisle [born at Lons-le-Saulnois (Jura)]. Having spent the first two years of the Revolution at Paris, he was sent to Strassbourg in 1791, there to fulfill the obligations of his rank [captain of engineers]. . . . He was received upon his arrival in Alsace in the social circle that gathered in the home of the mayor of Strassbourg, Frederick Dietrich, a man of means, active and full of generous ideas. . . . On the 20th of April, 1792, France declared war on the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria. On the morning of the 25th of April the news reached Strassbourg. It was proclaimed immediately by the mayor and the municipality, who organized a procession, entirely military, through the streets and squares. . . . A halt was made on each of the principal squares. Each time, the Mayor on horseback and his secretary read the declaration of war in French and in German. The drums beat flourishes and the bands, without interruption, played *Ça ira*, and again *Ça ira* and always *Ça ira*. . . . To end this day of patriotic celebration the Mayor gave a grand dinner to all residents of note, both civil and military, in his house on the *Place de Broglie*, the family residence. . . . As the dinner continued the company became more animated. . . . Music was made the topic of discussion. But the idea of war, persisting in spite of all, thrust itself into the musical conversation. The subject of patriotic songs was broached. All the songs sung by the

people came from Paris and were really too mediocre. What, after all, was this *Ça ira*, for instance, which had been dinned all day into one's ears, while Dietrich was making his importunate speeches? . . . Dietrich, well brought up, was indignant at its unmerited success. 'Ah what!' said he. 'Is there no one who will lift up his voice to let us hear a real national song? . . . Turning toward the Captain, and speaking in a tone of benevolent authority, he addressed him: 'But you, M. de Lisle, you who speak the language of the gods, who play the harp of Orpheus, do you do this for us. Find a beautiful song for this warrior-people, that arises on all sides at the call of the country in danger, and you will have deserved well of the nation!' . . . At last the party broke up. The freshness of the night air brought the fervid ideas in Rouget de Lisle's head into equilibrium again. He found himself in an unusually excited frame of mind. After such a day, after such a display of popular enthusiasm and patriotic emotion, he was sorely troubled. The champagne, of which he had drunk deeply (he confessed it later), did not fail to contribute its share to his uneasiness. His house on the *rue de la Mésange* was but a few steps off. He entered and mounted to his chamber, the thoughts seething in his brain. His violin lay on the table. He seized it and ran off a few arpeggios. The formulas of the all-pervasive enthusiasm of the day thrust themselves with imperious insistence into his consciousness. 'To arms, citizens! The standard of war has been unfurled; the signal has been given. To arms!' His fingers ran over the strings. Mysterious fragments of song vibrated under his bow, 'March on! Let us be free until we draw our latest breath!' Little by little the melodic formula crystallized. Verses, in which the words heard in the speeches of the day recur, associated themselves, as if of their own accord, with the music. He took note successively of the essential phrases of the first stanza, 'paying attention to the words' he tells us later on, 'only so far as was necessary to observe the order which they must follow in the melody.' Then he sat down and in one heat wrote the five succeeding stanzas. . . . Arranged immediately for a military band, the war song of Rouget de Lisle was executed for the first time in public at a final review of the forces departing from Strassbourg, which took place on the Sunday immediately following the composition, April 20, 1792, on the *Place d'Armes*. . . . The following month the Strassbourg printer, Dannbach, published it under the title, 'War Song for the Army of the Rhine,' words and melody, the latter embellished at the close with a singular little ritornell for the violin. in rococo style, which betrays the hand of the amateur. Then, no one knows how, the song was transported southward, and was sung at Marseilles at a banquet of the volunteer battalion, which in July marched through France from that city to Paris. Enthused by the accents in which they found an echo of their own sentiments, these warm-blooded men adopted it as their rallying song. They made it popular, first along the line of march, from the Rhône as far as the Seine, and then in the capital itself. By reason of this propagation Rouget de Lisle's song, composed by the banks of the Rhine, was spread throughout the world, first as the 'Hymn of the Men of Marseilles,' and finally as 'The Marseillaise.' . . . The *Conservatoire* is the direct issue of the national festivals. . . . The life of this great institution, was consecrated to a participation, in the Cathedral of Notre-Dame, in the justly decried Festival of Reason. . . . The Festival of the Supreme

Being . . . constitutes a chapter of a veritable musical novel. . . . Gossec and Chenier had composed the 'Hymn to the Supreme Being,' a vast choral and orchestral fresco, the execution of which they had assigned to the chorus of professional artists, already numerous. . . . In addition, the celebration was to be terminated by a performance of the *Marseillaise*, likewise sung by all the people, but to other words than those of Rouget de Lisle, words written to suit the circumstances. It was necessary to bring into accord the thousands, the tens of thousands of Parisian voices. How was this to be done? Very simply. The people were made to rehearse! By order of the authorities the forty-eight wards of the city assembled, on the eve of this festival, 'everything which had a voice, a heart, and blood in its veins,' as Berlioz said later. And the forty-eight musicians, the most famous—Méhul, Cherubini, Lesueur, Kreutzer, Dalayrac, and all the rest—armed with violins or accompanied by singers, applied themselves to the task of teaching the people, who were surely unable to read music, the new *Hymn to the Supreme Being* and the national song which was to be the fitting conclusion of the festival. And on the next day at the celebration in the Tuileries, Gossec's hymn rolled forth, borne by the three thousand voices of the ward delegates, and a little later on the *Champs de Mars* the national air was thundered out by one hundred and fifty thousand voices in unison! Surely, we have never heard such a concert, and we may confidently marvel at the effect which it must have produced. Grétry called the music of the Revolution 'cannon shot music.' The expression may be taken literally. Not only did this immense populace sing with one voice, held together by the baton of an orchestra leader, but also, to the thunder of the last refrain, the drums began to beat and to roll and salvos of artillery roared a mighty accompaniment to the harmonious tumult. Gossec won lasting renown by conducting this immense musical action. For many years his greatest title to glory was his authorship of the *Hymn to the Supreme Being*." —J. Tiersot, *Historic and national songs of France* (*Musical Quarterly*, Oct., 1920).

ALSO IN: J. Tiersot, *Histoire de la chanson populaire en France*.

Germany.—"Before there was such a thing as conscious musical art, song was existent. When art was stiff, unyielding formalism, popular song supplied it with suggestion and sentiment. Now that music seems to have reached that degree of virtuosity in all its elements and features which is always marked by a decay of the spontaneous creative faculty, the people's song is again enlisted to imbue it with color, life and characteristic expression. The three phases of development thus suggested are more clearly and forcibly exemplified in the music of Germany than in that of any other country, because music has entered more deeply into the common life of the German people than that of their neighbors. There is scarcely a phase in the life of the Germans which has not been crystallized in their songs. . . . It is only a century or so since the lyrical voice of the German people arrested the attention of critics and historians. Collections of the people's songs have existed for five hundred years, it is true, but the ancient codices were few, though they were the fruits either of a lively love for homely beauty, or of that antiquarian spirit which has always existed and has done so much for knowledge. Now the body of Folk-song is become stupendous in magnitude, and it is well for the purposes of study to distinguish between its different elements;

for it is by such segregation that the story of the songs, of their origin and growth, of their influence upon art and art's reflex influence upon them, is lifted into notice. For the present purpose I distinguish between three types of song: they are the Folk-song, the Popular Song and the Artistic Song which has won so much favor as to have been unconsciously adopted into the Folk-song category. [For centuries, German Folk-song has been interpenetrated with the best work of professional musicians.] Making use of the German terms we should call them *das Volkslied*, *das volkstümliche Lied* and *das populär gewordene Kunstlied*. The three types are generally confounded by all but writers and students who cultivate scientific accuracy; and it must be confessed that the differentiation, strictly considered, is largely a matter of accident and time. . . . The true Folk-song is the song of the folk as distinguished from the song of the individual; a lyrical effusion which in a peculiar sense gives voice to the emotional life of a people in its widest and yet most intimate phases; the direct, homely, simple, unconscious voice of a people's inspirations. Its potency is national, not individual; and it reflects the common traits—moral, social, political—of the multitude bound together by natural and national ties. To such songs no authors' names attach; they are the utterances of the people as poet, and the people as composer. . . . It shall never be known when the tale of Hero and Leander first took hold of the human imagination. Because it entered into literature through the Greek we think of the Hellespont as its theatre; but seek it out in half a dozen different countries in Europe, or as many provinces in Germany, and you shall find it in its essentials, though with changes in scene and personnel. . . . An old song which has figured in artistic music ('Ach Elsein') tells the story in one German form, and there is another ('Es waren zwei Königskinder') . . . —an old song on an exceedingly old subject. . . . When the canticles of the Roman Church took on the florid dress of which they were partly stripped by papal command in the beginning of the seventeenth century, such melodic flourishes on single syllables as may be seen in the very old, and very beautiful folk-song, 'Es steht ein Lind,' . . . found their way into the people's songs of Germany, as did also the scales upon which the church chants were built. In this, then, we find evidence of age, as well as the influence exerted by artistic expression on natural expression, just as later we shall find the reverse. It was not until the German Folk-song had reached the climax of its development that the song of the second class which I have mentioned came into being. I have called it the Popular Song, by which I mean the song which is like the song of the Folk yet not a Folk-song; a song which is *volkstümlich*,—like the Folk-song in manner as well as in contents, poetical and musical. These songs are the product of artists who are known. They were written and composed with conscious art by poets and musicians of excellent gifts, not the least of which was a peculiar susceptibility to native influences. In this field the poets have been more successful and also more fruitful than the musicians. It was the publication of Bishop Percy's 'Reliques' which called the attention of the great poets of Germany to the charm of Folk-song. The Weimar coterie was startled by the homely strength and beauty of the English popular ballads. It turned its eyes upon its own country and set the movement on foot which recovered the most widespread of the German Folk-poems. Then came 'Des Knaben

Wunderhorn' and the delightful little lyrics in the Folk-song vein by Goethe, Schiller, Uhland, Herder and, later, Heine, Geibel, Kotzebue, von Eichendorff, Hauff, Kermer and others. . . . Look at such songs as 'Ännchen von Tharau,' 'Ich weiss nicht was soll es bedeuten,' 'In einem kühlen Grunde,' if you would see how beautifully poet and composer can be consorted in artistic marriage by the genius of the Folk-song. It is a singular and significant fact that though every great composer has attempted at one time or another to write in the Folk-song vein, the results are scant, few and unsatisfactory. It is as difficult to write a true Folk-song tune as it is to write a real national hymn; and for very much the same reasons. The most notable success achieved by really great composers was that of Carl Maria von Weber, whose genius was racy of the soil which has produced the German *Märchen* as well as the *Volkslied*. . . . As a rule, however, composers of Weber's class have preferred to make literal quotations from the body of Folk-song rather than attempt the well-nigh impossible task of writing tunes in the Folk-song manner. . . . 'Als der Grossvater die Grossmutter nahm,' . . . is the *Grossvater Tanz* of the seventeenth century which Bach found a place for in one of his secular pieces, which Spohr introduced in a march which he wrote for the wedding festivities of the Duke of Saxe-Meiningen, which became the 'March of the Davidites against the Philistines' in Schumann's 'Carnaval,' and made itself heard in the finale of the same composer's 'Papillons.' The appropriateness of the quotation in Spohr's piece appears from the fact that the old-fashioned dance was the *Kehraus* (clear-out, wind-up) of the homely wedding merrymakings of two centuries ago in Germany. In its original shape its humor was of so rude a sort that the young people were all bundled out of the room before the married guests struck it up. It is amusing to see Nägeli's 'Freut euch des Lebens' figuring in variant form in the overture to Rossini's 'Semiramide.' Rossini . . . introduced it in his score with a truly sublime disregard of anachronism, just to please his friend. . . . The tune of 'So viel Stern am Himmel stehen' . . . figures in Goldmark's 'Heimchen am Heerd,' and also in Franchetti's 'Germania,' where it was evidently introduced under the impression that it was a German students' song. Popular with the students many of these songs are, but this particular one was long ago appropriated by the children of the Fatherland, who sing it sometimes to a religious variant of the words, beginning 'Weisst du wie viel Sterne stehen?' A true students' song . . . 'O Tannenbaum,' though it belongs to a Latin song known to students throughout the world, viz.: 'Lauriger Horatius.' In the United States it was appropriated for one of the patriotic songs of the South during the war of secession,—'Maryland, my Maryland.' . . . With the third class of songs mentioned at the beginning of this note, some of the most admirable composers of Germany are to be credited. Schubert's 'Lindenbaum' . . . in its original form is an example of the *durchkomponiertes Lied*, as the Germans say; that is, a song with a musical investiture which gives appropriate dramatic expression to every stanza of the poem. Its principal melody has exercised so great a fascination on the popular fancy, however, that it may be heard in simple harmonic garb or even without accompaniment at gatherings of the people. So, too, Mendelssohn's 'Es ist bestimmt in Gottes Rath' . . . has completely won the popular heart with its sweet pathos, and though an artistic song in every

respect, has taken its place in the popular category, as have some songs from Mozart's 'Zauberflöte' and the operas of Kreutzer, Lortzing and other composers of German *Singspiele*. Finally, the patriotic feeling of the Germans, particularly their intense longing for unity, which found its fruition in the results of the Franco-Prussian war of 1870, was responsible for putting the stamp of popularity on such a song as 'Die Wacht am Rhein,' and even so difficult and extended a composition as 'Was ist das deutschen Vaterland?'" —M. Spicker, ed., *Songs of the people, songs of Germany, eighty-one German folk—and popular songs*, pp. iii-vi.—See also below: Medieval: 12th century.

Hungary.—"Though there is as great a mixture of peoples in Hungary as in any neighboring land, the dominant race for a thousand years has been the Magyar, and it is the music of the Magyars which must be and is recognized as the national music of Hungary. But the Magyars are not Slavs. They belong to the Finno-Ugrian stock; they are Scythians, much more closely connected with the Turks than with any of the Slavonic or Germanic races. So, too, their language and their characteristic music. The rhythmical peculiarities of the Hungarian folk-songs differentiate them from the songs of all other European nations. The intervallic peculiarities, though not quite so marked, point to an Oriental origin, and might be accepted as either an aboriginal product (since the Magyars were originally an Eastern people) or as a contribution from the gypsies, who have been a powerful and influential element in the population of Hungary ever since the fifteenth century, and have for a century or more been recognized as Hungary's minstrels. From the performances of the gypsies, as we shall see, came the style of music called 'all ongarese,' the style which is so widely exploited by Hungarian bands to-day. The Hungarians have developed no school of composers, though their characteristic music has long exerted a charm upon the composers of Germany. . . . There are two marked peculiarities in the Hungarian folk-songs and dances (the terms, here as in most other cases, might as well be treated as synonymous) which must now be considered. The first, which is the more general, and which distinguishes Magyar music from that of all the rest of the world, is rhythmical. The majority of Hungarian folk-melodies are built on a metrical scheme of which the chief motive is a measure containing a dotted eighth note, two sixteenth notes and another dotted eighth, or, to use the terms of prosody, a union of a trochee and an iambus, i. e., a choriamb."—H. E. Krehbiel, *Folk-music studies* (*New York Tribune*, July 30, 1899). —"Although there is no doubt of the strong musical interest inherent in the Hungarians—witness the prevalence of Hungarian rhythms in Schubert, Liszt, Brahms and others—their country has always been so torn with political dissensions that the lack of a national artistic culture is not to be wondered at. Recently, however, three Hungarian composers, Dohnanyi, Moor and Bela Bartok, have produced works embodying racial tendencies and yet of such significant content and sound workmanship as to attract the attention of the world outside."—W. R. Spalding, *Music: An art and a language*, p. 328.

Also in: F. Liszt, *Des Bohémiens et de leur musique en Hongre*.

Italy.—"Italy was more slowly caught by the poetic flame which the Provençal Troubadours had kindled, than other southern countries. For not until the middle of the 13th century, when

Raymond Berenger, Count of Provence, visited the Emperor Frederick II. at Milan, bringing Troubadours and Jongleurs in his train, do we hear of them in this country. A similar patronage was extended to them by Raymond's son-in-law, Charles of Anjou, king of Naples and Sicily. Through which of these two gates the Provençal language entered Italy has ever been a disputed point. But taught by these singers, whom the common people called *Uomini di Corti*, Italy soon produced her own *Trovatori* and *Giocolini*. At first they deemed their native dialect unsuitable to poetry, and used the Provençal language. But it is certain that already, by the time of Dante, the *volgar poesia*, which sprang from it, had reached a stage when it was capable of receiving rules and of being taught in the schools founded for the purpose. After Dante, no Italian could longer doubt the capacities of his own tongue for all forms of poetry. It must not be forgotten that the *terza rima*, used by the Provençal troubadours for the *sirvente*, was adopted by Dante for the 'Divina Commedia' and by Petrarch in his 'Trionfi.' But soon the verse of the Troubadours began to pale before the splendours of the great poet; and towards the middle of the 14th century, the *Trovatori* declined in numbers and popularity, and after 1450 were heard of no more. Notwithstanding the subordination of lyric song to other branches of poetry and music in Italy, her long and careful study of *la melica poesia*—poetry wedded to music—has not been surpassed elsewhere. Dante's sonnets and Petrarch's 'Trionfi' were among the earliest poems set to music. Dante's own contemporary and friend Casella (born 1300), who set his sonnet 'Amor che nella mente' to music, is believed to have also composed the music for a *ballata* by Lemmo da Pistolja, still extant in the Vatican. The *ballate* and *intuonate* were perhaps the oldest forms of songs written in the vernacular; both were love-songs sung to a dance. After them the *maggiolate* or May-day songs had their popularity. These also were love-songs, sung in the spring-time by bands of young men. The hunting-songs or *cacci* equally deserve mention. The most celebrated were written by Soldanieri and Sacchetti, and the words are far better than their music by Nicolaus da Perugia, Laurentius, and Ghirardellus. Some are realistic, imitating the sounds of the hunt; others are canonic in form, and others again interesting from the historic side, as they bring in the street-cries of the time. When later the *Canti Carnascialeschi* came into vogue they at first were Carnival songs, but under the skilful hand of Lorenzo di Medici a kind of consecutive drama grew out of them. During the 14th century there existed a class of dilettante musicians called *cantori a liuto*, whose business it was to set other poets' verses to music and sing them. They differed from the *Trovatori* who were poets, and who sang their own verses to their own music or to that of others, and equally from the *Cantori a libro*, who were the learned professional musicians. Casella and Minuccio d' Arezzo, mentioned by Boccaccio, would belong to the *cantori a liuto*. It was the habit of these musicians to improvise, for until the 16th century musical notation remained so difficult that only learned musicians were able to avail themselves of it. This is the reason why the melodies of the strophic songs, which contemporary writers show to have been so popular and universal during the 14th and 15th centuries, have not survived. . . . But although we find within recent years that the study of the folk-lore of Italy has received serious attention,

materials for a satisfactory treatment of the *canti popolari* do not exist. . . . During the latter half of the last century Ricordi and other publishers have issued large quantities of modern *canti popolari* in volumes entitled . . . 'Canti Lombardi,' . . . 'Siciliani,' . . . and the 'Canti Abruzzesi,' collected by P. Tosi and G. Finamore. The latter, in an interesting article on the harvest-songs of this district, draws attention to the solemn, religious character of the melodies, in contrast to the words, which are merry love-songs. This peculiarity Finamore attributes to the great antiquity of the melodies, which have remained unchanged for centuries, though the words have altered. . . . The wealth of *canti popolari* is prodigious, and although (as mentioned above) they vary greatly in the different districts, their general characteristics are the same. The harmonic and formal structure is simple. The accompaniment, which is usually intended for the guitar, consists merely of the tonic and dominant chords, and rarely modulates into anything except the nearest related keys. Few modal *canti popolari* are extant, although the flattened supertonic which is characteristic of the Sicilian and Neapolitan folk-songs recalls the Phrygian mode."—G. Grove, *Dictionary of music and musicians*, pp. 554-555, 559.

ALSO IN: E. Canziani, *Costumes, traditions and songs of Savoy*.—E. Martinengo-Cesaresco, *Essays on the study of folk-song*.

Russia.—The chief representative countries where nationalism in music stands out as a prominent feature are: Russia, Bohemia, Scandinavia and Hungary. "Every country has its folk-songs—the product of national rather than individual genius—but Russia, in the number and variety of these original melodies is most exceptional. The Russian expresses himself spontaneously in song, and so we find appropriate music for every activity or incident in daily life. . . . For many centuries the bulk of the Russian people has been downtrodden; and the country, with its endless steppes and gloomy climate, is hardly such as to call forth the sparkling vivacity found in the Scandinavian and Hungarian songs. The prevalent mood in Russian folk-songs is one of melancholy or of brooding, . . . very often in the old Greek modes, the Aeolian, Dorian and Phrygian. . . . To understand fully the tendencies of Neo-Russian music, and above all to sympathize with the spirit in which this music is written, the incredible history of Holy Russia, the history of its rulers and people—the mad caprices and horrid deeds of the Romanoffs, . . . —the nature of the landscape, the waste of steppes, the dreariness of winter, and the loneliness of summer— . . . the sublime patience of the common people—the devotion of the . . . multitude to the Tsar—all this should be as familiar as a twice-told tale.—Inasmuch as Neo-Russian music is founded upon the folk-songs of that country, one should know first of all the conditions that made such songs possible, and one should breathe the atmosphere in which musicians who have used such songs have worked."—W. R. Spalding, *Music: An art and a language*, pp. 301, 315.—"Since the folksong of a nation is the cornerstone of its musical art, it should follow that the nation richest in folksong should be the first to develop its artistic music; but this reasoning, though logical enough, does not apply to Russia. Strange to say, it took this nation longer than any other in Europe to bring the sapling of its folksong up to the bloom and fruitage of a higher order of music. In a large measure this must be ascribed to the circumstance that, ever since the time of Peter the

Great, the culture of the upper classes was foreign; principally French and, in music, Italian. . . . In the mind of influential society Italian music was good *eo ipso*, because it was Italian, while Russian music—existing so far only in folksong—was thought good enough for the lower classes and only for them. Of the wealth of melody in their own folksongs; of their rhythmical force; of their noble and peculiarly sweet harmonies, Russian society knew practically nothing, and this condition might never have changed had not Balakireff and his pupil Rimsky-Korsakoff gathered these despised tonal gems, published them elaborately, and so saturated their minds, and the minds of their pupils, with this melodic essence as to make it permeate and color every artistic musical thought of their time and generation. . . . The first to draw Russian music out of its obscurity into the light of general public recognition was Michael Ivanovitch Glinka with his opera *A Life for the Tsar* (1836). While his workmanship and ideas were by no means free from Italianisms, the 'ethnic note' in this opera was so strong that the public felt its appeal quite as spontaneously and powerfully as the Germans felt it in Weber's *Freischütz*, which recalled them to their own musical consciousness. Glinka's second opera, *Ruslan and Ludmilla*, was not equally successful until after his death, but its predecessor proved strong enough to break the ice of public indifference and to make—though, alas! not yet to 'pave'—a path for his successors, Seroff, Dargomishski, and others. Their operas were not unsuccessful, but instead of ending the period of pioneering—aye, and of martyrdom—they marked but a stage of it. . . . The greatest sufferer [of public neglect] . . . was undoubtedly Moussorgski, whose *Boris Godounoff*—thanks to a splendid performance in every respect—has aroused great enthusiasm at the Metropolitan Opera in New York. In his day he was laughed at except by musicians; he was called an 'irregular' in harmony, counterpoint, and orchestration because he made his own laws. That he also kept his self-made laws and thus incontestably proved his definiteness of a sane purpose—almost a synonym for genius—did not save him from the charge of dilettantism. . . . His only moral support came from a group of fine, but at that time totally unimportant, musicians, who later on became known in Russia as the 'Great Five,' and to whom the fuller realization and fruition of the martyrs' work is due: Balakireff, Borodin, Rimsky-Korsakoff, César Cui, and Liadoff. Following their predecessors' course they, too, chose the opera as a field of action because, more than the Symphony concert, an Opera draws its audience from all social strata, and thus checks the false fastidiousness of a fashionable, over-refined and foreign-cultured society by the stronger racial and national feeling of the occupants of the cheaper seats, who are more quickly sensitive to the home touch in the music and exert an influence through their numerical strength. . . . Balakireff has been the teacher of the other four members of the Great Five, and was much beloved and honored by them; but at length his views grew altogether too radical for the times, and as he obstinately declined to modify them his little circle broke up. His place, however, was soon filled by young Glazounoff, a pupil of Korsakoff, and after awhile the reconstituted Five found a new home in the house of a wealthy wood and grain merchant by the name of Belaieff. This man, though neither a composer nor an executant, has earned an honorable position in the annals of Russian music by his ardent and active devotion

to its cause and by his princely financial generosity, which is largely accountable for the great rapidity with which Russian music found its way into foreign countries. . . . The absence of the names of Rubinstein and Tchaikovsky in connection with the Great Five requires explanation at this point. Rubinstein was highly esteemed by all Russian musicians as a pianist; he was personally much beloved and highly honored for having founded the Petrograd Conservatory of Music; but as a composer he had nothing in common with his Russian confrères. Being of Semitic origin he lacked those racial traits which united the others. . . . He was a Russian and a composer, but not a Russian composer. With Tchaikovsky it was different. What separated him from the Great Five was a fundamental diversity of art philosophy. That the Five followed the lead of their precursors in laying the greatest stress upon the racial element in their work was only natural under the conditions which led to their advent. The 'ethnic note' was their war-cry because it had to be. Tchaikovsky, on the other hand, regarded the ethnic note as a point which art must of necessity touch on its way to the summit of perfection, but not as the summit, itself. What he saw in art, far above and beyond the ethnic note, was—*personality!* And to this he gave free rein, while the others believed themselves to be serving the cause better by keeping this element in check. . . . The Great Five had been successful not only as composers but also—and equally so—as teachers in developing the dormant or latent creative talent among their compatriots. And this to such a degree as to make it now a fair question whether any other nation can equal Russia in the number of thoroughly trained, interesting, and respect-compelling composers of all types of music. . . . The briefest glance at Neo-Russian music reveals the composers' seriousness, sincerity, and absolute devotion to the cause of their national art. That the younger generation adheres to the same high ethics is, partly at least, due to the noble example their elders have set before them. . . . The unity of purpose, the enthusiasm for the cause that was sacred to their hearts, bound and held them together so firmly and closely as to bar all conflicts of personal interest and to make jealousy or envy among them impossible. Several compositions *written by a whole group of composers* testify most beautifully to their ideal personal relations. . . . To produce such artistic results where only good-natured fun was intended is, in itself, an indication of the high mental level of the coöperators; but it also throws a strong light upon such a friendship among them as can be based only upon their sincere devotion both to their art and to their country. No source of lesser dignity could have given to Russian music the strength to make its way from its far northern home through the whole civilized world, to win a spontaneous and sympathetic welcome everywhere and to establish itself (in less than twenty-five years) in the world of higher culture as an equal of the best contemporary musical product of any nation."—C. von Sternberg, *Modern Russian piano music*, v. 1, pp. x-xiv.

Also in: E. Newman, ed., *Modern Russian songs (Musicians Library)*.

Scandinavia.—"In the sense which is to prevail in these studies of national music the first distinctive school in the field was the Scandinavian. Gade was its father, and its chief exponents to-day are Grieg, Svendsen and Sinding. It was a protest against Gade, the founder, that put Grieg at the head of the school and gave it the individuality

and potency which it now enjoys. . . . To understand how truthfully Scandinavian music is a reflex of Scandinavian character, the physical environment which has formed both music and character should be studied. Though Sweden's political significance has long outweighed that of Norway the national type has been better preserved in the latter country. It is a rugged land, and rugged people inhabit it. Long and narrow, in places little more than a mountain chain, it extends two degrees into the Arctic Circle. Fogs envelop its shores and storms roar around its rocky cliffs. More than one-third part of Norway is within the region of perpetual snow. The crops raised do not suffice for home consumption. Even in Sweden, where the conditions are less rigorous, there is frequently a want of grain. But where Nature is most unkind her children love her best. The language of Scandinavia (which, as in the case of ancient Scandia, we are making to include Northern Denmark) is Danish—softened in Sweden, harsher, more forceful, a nearer approach to old Norse in Norway, and almost pure Norse in Iceland, where also are to be found the greatest number of the relics of antiquity. Parallel distinctions exist in the music of the different sections, though it is a fact for which we shall not attempt an explanation that the folk-music of Iceland is cast in a merrier mould than that of Norway or Sweden. The Norse men in Iceland being in the major, whereas in Sweden there are perhaps six times as many minor songs as major. . . . The Scandinavian school of composers have familiarized the world with two of the most popular forms of Norse dance—the Halling and the Springdansen. The former is characteristically the dance of Norway, and is, as a rule, in the major, enjoying a unique distinction in this respect among Norwegian folk tunes. It is in 2—4 time, and gets its name from the Hallingdal, between Christiania and Bergen."—H. E. Krehbiel, *Scandinavian music (New York Tribune, July 9, 1899)*.—"The earliest records that we have of music in the three Northern Kingdoms are the performances of the troubadours of the North, who were called skalds. . . . Unlike the class of poets and musicians of other countries, already mentioned, the skalds were not only poets in the ordinary sense of the word, but also tone-poets, singers or declamators, and instrumentalists, which can hardly be said of any of the other representatives of the art of folksong. As far as the subject matter of their performances is concerned, they ranked with the *trouvères* of France and the bards of Celtic Scotland, whose poems were mostly epics, and not lyrics, of which the troubadours were the chief representatives in France. The instrument, to the accompaniment of which the skalds either sang or declaimed their epics, was the *harp*. These epics were often of great length, recording the deeds of knights and warriors of the Middle Ages. None of these lays are complete, but we possess fragments of many of them in the younger Edda, which also contains a long list of skalds of the thirteenth century, amongst whom there are persons of the highest rank, and even kings. . . . The harp of the skalds has vanished, but there still exists an ancient national instrument in Norway and Iceland called *langeleik*, or *langspil*, which may possibly be a development of the harp of the skalds. It has somewhat the shape of the harp, but with this difference, that it is played with a bow; a similar instrument is also found in Sweden, under the name of 'nyckelharpe.' . . . It is only at a comparatively recent date that the folksongs of the three Northern Kingdoms have been collected and

arranged in a systematic form. As early as the end of the sixteenth century, when the court music of Denmark was chiefly in the hands of Flemish musicians, Peter Syv is recorded as the collector of Northern melodies; but it is due to the untiring effort of A. P. Berggreen, Lindemann, Otto Lindblad and other collectors, all of the nineteenth century, that we now possess a complete and well-assorted collection of highly characteristic folksongs. The 'Folkesange,' corresponding to the German 'Volkslieder,' were handed down from generation to generation at a time, when the art of notation was mostly unknown in the North; they simply lived in the hearts of the people who sang them, and, like any other tradition, they underwent many modifications in the different parts of the country where they had sprung up. The so-called 'Kæmpeviser' (*i.e.*, songs of knights and warriors) had most likely their origin in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, shortly after the skalds had disappeared. . . . On account of the greater facility of handing the text over from the one country to the other by writing it down, than of making a *melody* known in another country, when the art of notation was unknown, it follows, that the *melodies* of these old songs have a more distinctive national character in each of the three countries than the texts; thus it is not uncommon that the same texts are sung to different melodies, not only in the three Northern Kingdoms, but also in different districts of the same country. . . . As to the older Northern folksongs, it is possible that a greater number are in a minor than in a major mode. . . . There are . . . some characteristic features about our Northern songs. . . . One of them is this, that not a few of them begin in a major mode, and end in the minor mode, or *vice versa*. This is the case with the second of the little 'Kæmpeviser', . . . viz., 'The Tournament.' Another common feature is, that some of them close on the third, or even fifth of the tonic, like the troubadour song. . . . Besides the melodies in the ordinary major and minor modes, there exists a considerable number which are in the Greek modes, such as the 'hyperdorian,' where the seventh degree is not sharpened, having no proper leading note. Whether this is due to mere accident, or whether some of the Church modes have found their way into the folksongs is impossible to decide in each case. There is another characteristic regarding melodic progression which occurs pretty frequently in these songs, not so often met with in folksongs of other countries, viz., an emphatic repetition of the closing note in the final cadence. . . . There are probably no other countries in Europe where the belief in fairies has been so widespread, and has lingered so long as in the three Northern Kingdoms. . . . These songs, 'Fædrelandsange' either express the love and admiration for one's country and birthplace, or in the time of war and struggle with other nations, express the determination to sacrifice one's life for the beloved country. Of the last-named class (the war-song) Denmark possesses the greatest number, but for wealth of patriotic songs, without reference to war, it is difficult to decide whether Denmark or Sweden bears the palm."—*Saga Book of the Viking Club*, v. 5, pt. 1, 1907-1908, pp. 154-157, 159, 162, 165.—"Scandinavian music, ethnologically considered, would comprise that of the three related nations, the Swedes, the Danes and the Norwegians; some would include even the Finns, with their eloquent spokesman [Jean] Sibelius [1865]. Although the Danes have considerable folk-music, and as a people love music, they have produced no composer of dis-

tinction save Niels Gade (1817-1890), who was so encrusted with German habits of thought that his music is neither one thing nor the other—certainly it is not characteristically Danish. The best known of the Swedish composers is [Emil] Sjögren [1853-] from whom we have some poetic songs. . . . Scandinavian music, as far as the outside world is concerned, practically centres about the Norwegian composer Grieg (1843-1907) just as its dramatic art centres about Ibsen. The names, however, of four other Norwegian composers deserve mention; [Halfdan] Kjerulf (1815-1868) . . . [Johan] Svendsen (1840-1911) . . . and [Rikard] Nordraak (1842-1866). . . . In modern times the mantle of [Edvard H.] Grieg [1843-1907] has fallen upon [Christian] Sinding (1856-). . . . In Norwegian music we find the exuberant rhythmic vitality of a people living in the bold and highly colored scenery of that sun-lit land. . . . Grieg, a born lyric poet saturated with folk-music, has embodied this spirit in his works. His fame rests upon his songs and descriptive pianoforte pieces; though in his Pianoforte Concerto, in his Peer Gynt Suite, in the Violin Sonatas and String Quartet he proved that he was not lacking in power to handle large forms. . . . While Grieg's music is patterned upon Norwegian folk-dances and folk-melodies it is something far more. He has evoked from the characteristics of his native land a bold, original harmony and a power of color and description thoroughly his own."—W. R. Spalding, *Music: An art and a language*, pp. 324-325.

ALSO IN: H. T. Finck, *Grieg and his music*.

The Netherlands: BELGIUM.—"The glories of the old Flemish days are past but enthusiastic efforts have been made to found a new Belgian school, and there is now a long list of native composers. At the head of them, for many years, stood Pierre Leonard Leopold Benoit, or Peter Benoit, as he preferred to be called. He was born at Harlebeke, in the western part of Flanders, on August 17, 1834 [d. 1901]. His great love of music caused his father to give him lessons, and resulted in some juvenile efforts at composition. When he reached the age of seventeen he received more solid instruction, for he was sent to the Brussels conservatory, where he soon became a favourite of the great teacher Fétis. He studied piano, harmony, and composition, gaining several prizes for counterpoint and fugue. . . . In a few years he was appointed director of the Flemish School of Music at Antwerp, a position that gave him many opportunities to influence rising composers and develop their musical patriotism. . . . Among the important works of Benoit are a sacred 'Quadrilogie,' a piano concerto, the choral symphony 'De Maaiers' (The Reapers), and many lesser works for voice and piano. A more ambitious work is his second opera, 'Isa,' and the incidental music to the dramas 'Charlotte Corday,' 'William de Zwijger,' and 'Het Melief.' But the especial field in which Benoit excelled was the oratorio-cantata. His compositions in this line form a list of ample proportions, and show the composer at his best. One of the greatest of these is 'Oorlog' (War), while other striking works are 'Lucifer,' 'De Schelde,' 'De Rhy,' the Rubens cantata, and 'Promethée.' A Van Dyck cantata was also planned, but not finished before the composer's death in 1901. All of Benoit's larger works indicates a great power of conception, real inspiration, ripe technical knowledge, and much skill in the handling of great masses of tone. His oratorios are not modelled on the religious forms of Bach or Handel, but are the thoroughly modern

and dramatic in effect. They are great decorative pictures in tone, suggesting vistas of grand palaces, armies in battle array, rich fields of grain, mystic visions of the spirit world, or gorgeous triumphal marches."—A. Elson, *Modern composers of Europe*, pp. 184-187.—"Among other well-known followers of Benoit in the national movement, Lenaerts, leader of the Flemish theatre at Antwerp in his nineteenth year, has produced an excellent cantata, 'The Triumph of Light.' Keurvels, orchestral director at the same theatre, has produced the operas 'Paris,' 'Rolla,' 'Hamlet,' and others in lighter vein, as well as a Mass and some melodious ballads. Wambach, the violinist, is responsible for the drama 'Nathans Parabel,' the symphonic poem 'Aan de Boorden van de Schelde,' two oratorios, and many lesser works. Mortelmans is credited with the cantata 'Sinai,' the symphony 'Germania,' and the more recent 'Homeric' symphony, the symphonic poems 'Aspiration' and 'Helois,' and the cantata 'Lady Macbeth.' Vleeshouwer, a pupil of Blockx, has composed the operas 'Ecole des Pères' and 'Zrinyi,' also the fantastic 'Der Wilde Jäger.' [Jean Baptiste] Van Der Eeden [1842-], at Mons, has produced the prize cantata 'Faust's Last Night,' the opera 'Numance,' and several oratorios. Van Duyse, son of the poet of that name, has written the prize cantata 'Tassos Dood,' and seven operas. Emile Mathieu [1844-], leader of the Ghent conservatory, has composed much incidental music. Waelput is responsible for four symphonies, numerous cantatas, and the lyric drama 'Stella.' Huberti has devoted himself to secular oratorios, while Mestdagh, except for two overtures, has also confined himself to the choral field. Raway's sacred drama 'Neon' and the two-night lyric drama 'Freya' are ambitious works, while his symphonic poems are also well spoken of. Sylvain Dupuis, professor of counterpoint at the Liège conservatory, has produced the symphonic poem 'Macbeth,' and the operas 'Cour d'Ognon' and 'Moina.' Juliette Folville, famous among women as pianist and violinist, has composed the opera 'Atala,' a march, parts of a symphony, a violin sonata, and many songs. [Eugène] Ysaye [1858-] and [Martin Pierre] Marsick [1848-], both renowned as violinists, have produced several concertos for their instrument.

HOLLAND.—"Richard Hol was for many years the Nestor of the Dutch composers. His fame was assured by the patriotic hymn, 'Comme je t'aime, O mon pays,' and his long life of usefulness was of excellent service to the cause of music in Holland. Born at Amsterdam on July 23, 1825, he studied first at the Royal School, and later in Germany. He became piano teacher on his return, but did more important work in musical reform as leader of choral and symphony concerts. Among his hundred and fifty published works are the sacred opera 'David,' and cantatas 'Floris' and 'Le Hollandais Volant,' four symphonies, and several masses, to say nothing of lesser compositions for voice, piano, or chamber performance. Hol was for many years critic of the *Cecilia*, and afterward editor of the *Messenger Musical*. His long and active career reached its close with his death on May 14, 1904. Julius Röntgen was born of Dutch parents at Leipzig, May 9, 1855. His studies brought him under [Carl Heinrich] Reinecke and [Franz] Lachner [1803-1890], and made him a pianist as well as composer. In 1877 he came to Amsterdam, where he made his home. Here his activity took the form of teaching in the Amsterdam music-school, and he afterward aided in founding the conserva-

tory. His compositions include a piano concerto, an operetta, 'Toscani Rispetti,' 'Das Gebet,' for chorus and orchestra, and other lesser works. Amsterdam has become the musical centre of Holland, and its festivals afford a chance for the production of the best native works. Among the Dutch composers thus heard is Van t'Kruys, who has to his credit no less than eight overtures and five symphonies, to say nothing of the opera 'De Bloem van Island.' Smulders, of the Liège conservatory, has written the symphonic poem 'Adieu, Absence et Retour,' and other lesser works. Cornelius Brandt-Buys and his three sons have produced much organ and choral work. Hendriks is another prominent organist, while Averkamp, as director of a singing society, is also prominent in the vocal field. Gottfried Mann has seen the performance of his charming opera 'Melaenis,' while Van Milligen has written 'Brinio' and 'Darthula.' Among the latest Dutch operas are 'The Eagle's Nest,' by Julius Schey, leader of the Amsterdam opera, 'The Doge of Venice,' by John Wagenaar; and 'Kerstboom,' by Grellinger. Dirk Schaefer's piano concerto has created a good impression, and two movements of a symphony by De Haans have been well received. The best of the younger men, however, are Bernard Zweers and Alphonse Diepenbrock. Holland has also its quota of women composers. The children's songs of Catherine van Rennes and Hendrika van Tussenbroek are of unusual excellence, while the works of Cornelia van Oosterzee, if somewhat over-swollen in effect, show a mastery of larger forms. Cora Dopfer has entered the field of opera, and her 'Ratleft' is soon to be produced. All these names show that the national movement in Holland, if not yet of the same dimensions as that in Belgium, is still beginning to bear fruit."—*Ibid*, pp. 198-202.

United States.—"There is such a thing as an American note in music; only, for the present at least, you must not seek it in the symphonies and grand operas made in America. . . . America is not lacking in native composers of real worth and high technical proficiency. The most advanced among them, Charles T. Griffes, died too young to fulfill all the promise of his great talent. Music is being written to-day in the United States, which commands attention, not because it happens to be American-made, but because it is fine music. Nevertheless, it is almost entirely unmarked by national or racial traits. The work of American composers has, these many years, ignored the inventiveness and daring so splendidly exemplified in nearly everything else that American force and ingenuity have created or reshaped. Originality in the sense in which Whitman, Poe, and Whistler possessed it; boldness, such as American architects have shown, not to mention industrial and scientific pioneers—these qualities are yet to find a way into the art-music of America. . . . Among the native-born, few seem to walk ways of their own. A certain symphony, intended to depict in four movements the cardinal points of American landscape and character, might—as far as musical distinctiveness goes—be titled 'Everywhere and Nowhere.' The opera of an ardent demonstrator in American-Indian folklore, honored, for patriotic reasons, by a performance at the Metropolitan, is daubed all over with blotches of warranted-not-to-fade Sioux and Chippewa, in order to give the music 'native color.' And yet these works are representative American music! They are representative because they typify the two main sources from which the unoriginality of so much American music has sprung. One was the influence

of Europe. That was natural and, to a certain degree, unavoidable. It went with the training of American music-students in Paris or in Munich. But the case is more serious and quite humiliating, when we consider the second, namely, the musical 'borrowing' from the black man and the red, and when we see musicians applying the curling-iron or the war-paint to their tunes, by which processes they pretend to give us American music, which, in reality, but apes the merely tolerated negro or the ruthlessly exterminated Indian, who, each in his own manner, did that sort of thing a great deal better than the white man can ever hope to do. Of course, and contradictors notwithstanding, there never was and never will be an American folk-music, such as for instance Russia, Germany, or Scotland knows. Some people have seen therein the American composer's chief difficulty in obtaining a note of individuality. But the fact that a race inherited a wealth of ancient and traditional tunes does not always make for abundant musical genius of a high order. If it did, why do we not hear more from Greece or Polynesia? No doubt, the Southern negro is responsible for many characteristics in music which have passed for 'American.' There is the genuine bush-and-jungle thing, fierce and grand, preserved in a good many negro tunes; and there is the pseudo-darkey song, the kind that Stephen Foster wrote, pretty and domesticated—the amiable, shambling coon in congress-boots and stovepipe. It has never been established how many of the so-called plantation songs were nothing but Africanized English melodies, popular in the days of the colonists. No sooner did the packet bring from London a consignment of new publications for Messrs. Carr & Co.'s Musical Repository in Philadelphia, than these shilling sheets sped north and south. Floating through the parlor windows of Georgia and Virginia mansions, such snatches of the latest Covent Garden or Royal Circus show must have been quickly seized by the more musical dwellers in the slave quarters. It is not reasonable to believe that 'My heart is devoted, dear Mary, to thee,' one of Hook's Vauxhall songs published by Anne Bland before 1793, and clearly recognizable in the later negrofied 'Darling Nelly Gray,' was an isolated case. . . . Whether real or spurious, these negro elements are beginning to wear away; they are becoming 'bleached' and are taking a newer, indigenous shade. No matter what insistent advocates may say, the plantation songs of the South, the rich store of peculiar, tribal melodies of the Indian, cannot be regarded, or used, as foundation for true American music. They are foreign elements of a dead past. . . . MacDowell, better than any one else, succeeded in giving noble musical expression to the spirit of the Red Man. But in spite of his Indian Suites, ethnology and Leipzig could have done as much. Perhaps only hybrid music befits a hybrid people. . . . It is the same *Volkstümlichkeit*, or popular contemporary origin (*not* ancient folk-songs!), that is the root of the real American note in music. It did not make its entry timidly, in peasant skirts; it kicked out brazenly, in tights. Its cradle was the vaudeville stage. . . . The development of popular music in America, during the last fifteen years, has been astounding. While Vienna, Paris, and London have succeeded only in repeating, over and over again, the formulas of Johann Strauss, Offenbach, and Sullivan, New York has set the pace with tunes that have captured the world. Why not acknowledge that the war has produced in music nothing more typical of the spirit that won it, than the extraordinarily Mr. Cohan's superbly confident 'Over There'? Is it indeed so trivial and trite that

it may not take rank with the immortal 'Ça ira'? Compare with it the senile war-ditties of Messrs. Saint-Saëns and Widor, well-intentioned but inadequate, with the pathetically impotent 'Berceuse Héroïque' of the dying Debussy, or the spineless 'Madelon.' There was the American-made 'Tipperary' and the British admonition to 'Keep the Home Fires Burning.' But nothing really expressed the Allies' final go-to-it-iveness as did 'Over There.' The key-note of American popular music is optimism, [*i. e.*] 'punch.' . . . The true American note is that happy affirmation of the joy of living, the delight in bold and sensuous harmonies, the predilection for snappy and suggestive rhythms. In other words, it is the healthy negation of misery, murder and metaphysics. Therefore it is not essential to the white race, which is clearly put on its defense. History being dotted all over with *dal segno* marks, we see the whole of Europe seeking oblivion and relief in the panacea of the dance; this time the piper is American, being the only one left with breath enough to pipe. Shall speculation be ruled out of musical criticism because, generally, 'it comes the other way'? What fun posterity would lose! Let us then speculate what a composer might accomplish, who, in a day when we shall have forgotten how to dance the fox-trot (along with the *pavane* and *pique*), should succeed in idealizing, not the actual dance, but the *spirit* that animates it. Perhaps in that direction lies the unique opportunity which belongs to American composers. . . . Some ten or twelve years ago, Mr. Arthur Shepherd, one of America's most independent composers, wrote a piano sonata, quite remarkable considering its date. It contains no trace of negro or Indian. It is interesting because its last movement is based on a cowboy tune that Mr. Shepherd had learned to know while, as a young man, he conducted a vaudeville orchestra in his home town, Salt Lake City. That tune is autochthonal, it has the 'punch.' A more recent specimen is the trio for flute, viola, and piano by the young Chicagoan, Leo Sowerby. The scherzo of that work is obviously something that can be described only as American. It has no counterpart in music. Neither Dvorak nor Debussy could have written it; not even Mr. Gilbert. . . . Both Mr. Shepherd and Mr. Sowerby know Europe only by having served in the Expeditionary Force of their country. They studied music in America. There are other and smaller works which, for all their relative unimportance, are none the less characteristic of the trend. Whatever may be said of it, there is this advantage in the tendency, that music may derive from it a contribution, positive and universally applicable by white musicians. It is no longer the attempted infusion of elements forever alien and irrelevant, such as the Afro-American and American-Indian motives. It remains to be seen whether more will come of these meagre beginnings. The American note is there. . . . Transformed by the touch of white hands, it has gained in variety, elasticity, and a certain impudent swing. The stuff is Aryan, in the main, with perhaps a dash of Semitic effervescence and over-emphasis. It is happy, and at its best, supremely virile."—C. Engel, *American note in music* (*Living Age*, Sept. 3, 1921, pp. 609-612).

ANCIENT (ART-MUSIC)

circa. B. C. 4000-525.—Semi-civilized stage.—Egypt.—First nation to cultivate music.—"Golden Age."—Paintings and hieroglyphics.—National instrument.—Other instruments.—"Rhythm, pitch and articulation underlie all musi-

cal art and sum up all their possibilities."—C. V. Stamford and C. Forsyth, *History of music*, p. 7.—The historical development of art-music can be classified under three heads: ANCIENT: c. B. C. 4000-A. D. 900, unison, or at most octave singing; MEDIEVAL: A. D. 900-1600, simultaneous melodies, (polyphony); and MODERN: 1600 to the present day, accompanied melody, progression of chords (harmony). "Music enters the semi-civilized stage along with the other activities of developing society. When a people emerges from the heedless and irregular habits of savagery, its music usually attracts enough reasoning and skill to make it in some sense, artistic. The advance appears in heightened dexterity with song and instruments, in more exactly defined styles of composition, and in some attempt at literature about music, including often the use of a notation. Why some people cross this line and others do not is an enigma. However this may be, brief reference must be made to certain past or present systems of this grade, even though our knowledge of them is imperfect and though they seem wholly unconnected with our own music."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, p. 32.—"As is the case with other Egyptian institutions, music was very ancient in its origin, antedating 3000 B. C. [Egyptians were the first people to cultivate music] and was intimately connected with religion and through this with astronomy. There were many stages of development, which culminated in the Golden Age, 1500-1200 B. C., when music was employed as a social diversion and as an adjunct of religion, and was placed in the hands of carefully trained professional dancers, players, and singers, who formed orchestras and choruses. . . . After the Golden Age, music gradually degenerated, losing its individuality when Egypt was finally conquered by Persia in 525 B. C. The data from which we have derived our only knowledge of Egyptian music have been gleaned from hieroglyphics, bas-reliefs, paintings, and remains of instruments; and these show that stringed and wind instruments vastly predominated. The national instrument was the *Harp*, which was made in all sizes, from the portable kinds to the magnificently decorated and enormous temple harps, played upon by men only. . . . Other stringed instruments were lutes and lyres. . . . The chief wind instruments were single and double pipes and flutes; while for martial music there were trumpets, drums, and the Sistrum. [A nation could not have called into existence this array of instruments, except at the prompting of artistic feeling; and as music was associated with the chief events of their lives we may assume that they must have had an organized musical system.] From the structure of the instruments we infer that the scale was diatonic; and also, from the size of the orchestras in which women were allowed to take part, it is possible that some sort of harmony existed."—C. G. Hamilton, *Outlines of music history*, pp. 14-16.—See also INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Stringed instruments.

ALSO IN: C. Engel, *Music of the most ancient nations*.

B. C. 3000-7th century.—**Assyria and Babylonia.**—Warlike character of their instruments.—**Dulcimer.**—An "ancient system [of music] existed here, the outcome of the culture of Babylon, which city, dating from 3000 B. C., was merged in the Assyrian Empire about 1300 B. C. At Nineveh, resplendent in the eighth and seventh centuries B. C., the warlike character of the people was reflected in their instruments, which, though similar to those of Egypt, were yet constructed so that they might be strapped to the body, and thus car-

ried in processions. The most popular of these was the *Dulcimer*, shaped like a zither . . . while other instruments were portable harps, lutes, double pipes, trumpets, . . . etc. Many instruments of percussion were in use, and all the music was high-pitched and shrill."—C. G. Hamilton, *Outlines of music history*, pp. 16-17.

B. C. 2852-478.—**China.**—**Music in the reign of Emperor Fu Hsi.**—**Theory.**—**Lus**, basis of Chinese music.—**"Ta Shao,"** oldest known composition.—**Use of music encouraged by Confucius.**—**Japanese musical system and instruments.**—The Chinese claim their music began in the reign of Emperor Fu Hsi (2852 B. C.); and their musical system to take form about the time of the "Yellow Emperor" Huang ti (2697 B. C.). In ancient times the Chinese based their music on a series of *lus*; an instrument made up of twelve tubes, originally bamboo, of different lengths from nine inches downwards. "The tone-system is theoretically complicated. Its basis is probably tetrachordal, like the Greek, but in practice it tends to a pentatonic scale, discarding semitones. But the division of the octave into twelve semitones is also known and in theory is applied somewhat intricately. The rhythms of song are emphatic. . . . Some rudiments of harmony are known, but are rarely used except for tuning." The oldest known composition, the celebrated "Ta Shao," was composed by Shun (2255 B. C.). Confucius favored a serious and acute speculation about music and "from Chinese literature it appears that music has had a long and honorable history in connection with Confucianism and under the patronage of the imperial court. Some of the temple music to-day is impressive, and the tone-system and many instruments are notable. Yet the status of popular music, as heard in the streets and the theatres, is notoriously low. Possibly the present is a time of degeneracy from ancient standards, or perhaps in past times suggestions of progress were so partially assimilated as not to affect general use. It seems as if music, having reached a certain point, became fixed, without the power of further advance. . . . Chinese instruments are numerous and important. But it is uncertain which of them are indigenous and which are borrowed from other parts of Asia."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, pp. 32-33.—"The Japanese musical system was derived from China, but so long ago that it has now become distinct. The popular use of singing and of instruments is here an almost universal accomplishment of importance, but, on the other hand, the literary treatment of the art is meagre. . . . Japanese instruments are in general replicates of the Chinese, but with many variations of details and usually with greater external beauty."—*Ibid.*, p. 36.—While it is possible to play both the Chinese and Japanese music on European instruments, the music of the East and West will always be distinctly separated because of the impossibility of applying the oriental harmony to the occidental rhythm.

B. C. 2000-A. D. 1200.—**India, Persia and Arabia.**—The music of India, Persia and Arabia having always been peculiarly Asiatic and the earliest specific data so far apart in terms of years the inclusive dates have been made 2000 B. C. to 1200 A. D. "The details of Hindu music are better known than those of Chinese. Evidently from the time of the Aryan immigrations (c. 2000 B. C.) much attention has been paid to the art. But, since India has been repeatedly invaded and even subjugated by foreign peoples, and has been for ages in close commercial relation with Western countries, no one can say what of its music is original. . . . Music exists chiefly in the form of

popular song or as an accompaniment for dancing. In religious ceremony it is less frequent, though somewhat used by both Brahmins and Buddhists. The singing of poems is universal, from the old Sanscrit odes to the ballads of modern origin. Dancing to music is very popular, and professional dancing-girls are a feature at social functions. Music is often employed in pantomimes and plays having a mythical, social or fantastic subject. . . . The tone-system rests upon a primary division of the octave into seven steps, but more exactly into twenty-two nearly equal . . . quarter-steps. These latter are not all used in any single scale, but serve to define with precision various seven-tone scales that differ in the location of the shorter steps (as in the mediæval modes of Europe). Theory has been so refined as to name almost 1000 possible varieties of scale. . . . In practice not more than twenty of these appear, the usage varying with locality and tribe. Most of these scales are somewhat akin to ours, so that melodies in them often suggest our common modes. . . . [These modes are known as *rāgs* and can be classified as pure, mixed and altered.] The art of making instruments has been as minutely studied as the theory of scale. . . . Native writers indicate four classes—those with strings, those with membranes sounded by striking, those struck together in pairs, and those sounded by blowing. Of these the stringed group is by far the most characteristic and admired.”—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, p. 37.—The most ancient composition appears to be the “Saman Chant” a plain-song with a compass of three notes; “*Natyas astra*” (Bharata, about 600 A. D.) contains the first known treatise on theoretical music; and Jayedva (1200 A. D.) is the earliest known non-legendary musician. It is possible that the earliest attempts at notation were made by the Hindus and Chinese and later transferred to Greece. “There is little actual knowledge of the ancient Persian system, but, since many of its characteristics were undoubtedly transmitted to Arabian music after the Mohammedan conquest of Persia about 700 A. D., we are able to judge something of its nature from the study of the music of the Arabs. The well-known mathematical propensities of the latter people were applied to the structure of the scale, resulting in a very perfect division of the octave into seventeen equal parts, each consisting of one-third of a tone. . . . Such an appreciation of very small musical intervals would seem to point toward the existence of delicately adjusted instruments; and of these the Arabs had a great number, chiefly of the string type. . . . Of a number of members of the viol family, the strings of which were played by a bow, the *Rebab*, a two-stringed violin was a direct ancestor of our violin. It was chiefly through these instruments that Arabian music finally came to have important effects upon our own; for when the Arabs, under the influence of Mohammedanism, over-ran Egypt, North Africa, Turkey and Spain, in the 7th and 8th centuries, they carried with them their musical institutions which later on, especially through the Crusades, came into contact with European civilization. Since, also, Mahomet disapproved of music in connection with religion, the Arabian music was largely used for social diversion, and hence affected European music principally on the secular side.”—C. G. Hamilton, *Outlines of music history*, p. 12-14.—Arabia has been claimed as the birthplace of the bowed instruments but it is nearly certain that they were invented in England. In the very earliest years of our era, the British had the cruth, a primitive plucked instrument of several strings, and by the eleventh century the principle of the bow had

been applied to the cruth. In Arabia, the bow principle was applied to the lute, but not earlier than the fourteenth century.

ALSO IN: H. A. Popley, *Music of India*.

circa B. C. 1000-A. D. 70.—Hebrews.—Earliest record.—Religious uses.—Theories on adoption of ancient Jewish melodies by early Christians.—The earliest recorded application of music was by bands of prophets under Samuel before 1000 B. C., and for “obvious reasons the student will turn to the music of the Hebrews with greater interest than to that of any other ancient nation except the Greeks. The common supposition that the Hebrews had highly developed music in connection with their worship may easily be shown to have no foundation. There is no reason to suppose that music with them was any further advanced than among the Assyrians and Egyptians. It was unharmonic, simple and inclined to be coarse and noisy; it had a place in military operations, at feasts, private merry-makings, etc., but its chief value lay in its availability for religious uses. ‘The music of the Hebrews was divine service, not art’ (Ambros, *Geschichte der Musik*). Their instruments were plainly identical with those of their neighbors, the Assyrians and Egyptians. . . . There is no proof that any of the ancient Hebrew melodies have come down to us. Hebrew poetry, like that of all ancient nations, was always intoned or chanted. The cantillation of the modern Jewish synagogue is a traditional survival of the ancient usage. . . . The peculiar structure of Hebrew poetry known as parallelism may be noted as probably indicating an antiphonal manner of singing, as in the Church of England to-day. . . . An elaborate musical service, both vocal and instrumental, was organized in connection with the temple worship. The female voice was evidently not employed. . . . The archaic melodies and tonalities found in the modern synagogue song books of many countries have much interest, but their connection with the music of the old Jewish monarchy or with the synagogue worship of the time of Christ cannot be proved, or disproved. The adoption of ancient Jewish melodies by the early Christians, and their influence upon the Plain Song of the Catholic church, is also mere conjecture.”—E. Dickinson, *Study of the history of music*, pp. 7-9.—An opposite view will be found in T. Tapper and P. Goetschius, “Early Christian music.” Some authorities claim that the ancient Hebrew melodies formed the basis of the early Christian plain-song; and it is possible that these melodies were preserved in at least as pure a form in the Roman church as elsewhere. The Catholic Plain-song may be a collection of melodies older than any other in existence.

B. C. 540-A. D. 4th century.—Greece.—Homer.—Pythagoras.—Tone system.—New fountain-head for western art.—“It is odd to think that among the Greeks, at a time when poetry, painting, sculpture and architecture had attained the greatest heights, music was still in its infancy. They knew neither harmony nor even melody, as we conceive it; all musical interest for them consisted in rhythmic combinations and the union of these with prosody [originally tone or accent of a syllable, later applied to a song sung to music]; music was the humble slave of poetry; [chanted songs are mentioned by Homer]; it was rather a sort of rhythmized and droning diction, which must have gone well with the immobility of the tragic mask. As to instruments, their only use was to guide and sustain the voice of the declaimer, to give him the pitch, and to accentuate the rhythmic forms. . . . It is from the writings of the philos-

opers, Pythagoras (540 B. C.), Plato (430 B. C.), Aristotle and Aristoxenes (IV cent. B. C.) that we gain some vague idea of what Greek music must have been; it is certain that they knew the semitone, the tone, some say one quarter-tone; and they had the three systems, diatonic, chromatic, and enharmonic. The extent of their general scale was about three octaves. . . . They had numerous modes, each constituting a different scale. . . . [Greek tone-system was based on the tetrachord (four strings diatonic series of four tones)]. In conclusion, the Greeks possessed a very complicated system of notation. [They had two systems: one for the singers and the other for instrumentalists; the latter the more ancient] formed by means of the letters of their alphabet, . . . modified, inverted, etc., and varying for vocal or instrumental music."—A. Lavignac, *Music and musicians*, pp. 384-386.—While Pythagoras of Samos (6th century B. C.) is credited with the founding of Greek music and philology based on his previous studies in Egypt, yet some authorities claim Terpander (7th century B. C.), awarded the prize in musical feasts of the festival of Apollo Carneius (670 or 672 B. C.), should be considered the founder of Greek classical music. Research has not brought forth data definitely to settle either claim; the outstanding fact of this whole period is: that the music of the ancient Greeks was incorporated in the plain-song of the Christian church and the "modes" furnished material for later day tone systems.—See also EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 7th-A. D. 3rd centuries: Greece: Plato and Aristotle; Contrast between Athenian and Spartan education.

B. C. 2nd century.—Invention of the *Hydraulos* by Ctesibius. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Wind instruments.

B. C. 146-A. D. 524.—Rome.—Important treatise.—Center of distribution.—With the exception of the treatise, "De Musica," by Boethius (d. 524 A. D.), which had great influence upon medieval church music, pagan Rome cannot be said to have contributed anything toward creative music. The Romans obtained their scales, instruments, and musical methods from their cultural ancestors, the Greeks; and for a thousand years, Rome was the distributing center of civilization. Their lack of creative ability was so pronounced that even Horace (65-8 B. C.), in his "Ars Poetica," complained about the key-mechanism of the *aulos*, a wood-wind instrument.

B. C. 4-A. D. 397.—Early Christian.—Sources of first church music.—Saint Ambrose first reformer.—Ambrosian chant.—"The momentous religious awakening which ushered in the era of Christianity provided wholly new conditions, signally auspicious for the development of music. With the advent of spiritual ideals and impulses, the true power and mission of music became recognizable, and before long there evolved for the first time in human history, the possibility of directing this power into its most significant channels. The regenerated soul, longing for a medium of expression for its new hopes and feelings, found no other form of utterance so peculiarly qualified as music for this spiritual experience. The early Christian congregations were, therefore, impelled to sing, as well as to pray; and what they sang could scarcely have been altogether new, but was probably appropriated from the existing traditions of the Jewish church, . . . [the early Christian church not only drew on Jewish art, but also transformed and incorporated many heathen tunes both Greek and Latin; and from earliest times the Sanctus, Magnificat, Benedictus and Nunc Dimittis were sung to these simple tunes. It is more than likely

that the method of singing was antiphonal. Antiphon originally meant the breaking up of a long psalm into passages of equal length which were sung alternately by the two halves of the choir. Both sexes joined in singing; but instruments of every kind were prohibited for a long time. Saint Ambrose (333-397 A. D.) is regarded as the founder of the music of the Catholic Church. The first attempts to organize and establish a system of musical service are identified with his name. Saint Ambrose was a great lover of music and a hymn writer of such eminence that the term Ambrosian was applied to all hymns written in his characteristic prosodic measure, and even became a general synonym for all ecclesiastic hymns of that epoch. . . . The Ambrosian chant or intonation was, no doubt, recitative in style; the rhythm was marked as in speaking, while the voice remained mostly upon one tone, excepting at the cadences (the end of the lines or verses), where either a rising or falling inflection was made. . . . There was yet no system of musical notation; the tones were indicated by letters only, as among the earlier Greeks. Saint Ambrose classified his intonations according to the following four modes [forms], borrowed, presumably, from the Greek theory; these are known as the Ambrosian ecclesiastic tones or authentic modes:

Tetrachord Tetrachord

1. D \widehat{E} A G A \widehat{B} C D
2. \widehat{E} F G A \widehat{B} C D E
3. F G \widehat{A} B C D \widehat{E} F
4. G A \widehat{B} C D E \widehat{F} G

[These modes (forms) were made up of two whole tones and one half tone, the location of the half tone varying with the mode.] It must not be forgotten that at this time music was limited to melody alone. Harmony [grammar of music], or anything approaching the idea of independent parts, was still wholly unknown."—T. Tapper and P. Goetschius, *Essentials of music history*, pp. 33-36.—See also MILAN: 374-397.

ALSO IN: W. S. Pratt, *History of music*.—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsythe, *History of music*.

314-590.—Singing schools.—Music in ecclesiastical life.—Papal Choir or Schola Cantorum.—"The first school of song mentioned is that of Pope Sylvester established in Rome sometime between 314 and 335." It was during this period that the Papal Choir, or Schola Cantorum as it was then called, came into existence. The Schola Cantorum was a regularly constituted company of singers who lived in community, with a clergyman of high rank, usually a bishop, at its head. It was more a guild than a school and was attached to St. John Lateran, at that time the Papal Church. "Later schools are ascribed to Pope Hilarius (461-468) and others. The influence of the Gregorian system upon the artistic development of ecclesiastic music extended, undiminished, over a period of a thousand years (from 500 to 1600 A. D.), and to the present day it constitutes the basis of all Roman Catholic musical ceremony and service. The significance of music as a vital factor of ecclesiastic life was early recognized and its use and cultivation received serious attention almost from the beginning."—T. Tapper and P. Goetschius, *Essentials of music*, pp. 40, 43.

540-604.—Saint Gregory.—Reformations of church ritual and music.—Gregorian chant.—

"In course of time a more perfect system [of Church ritual and music] became desirable, and the efforts to bring this about seem to have centered next in Gregory, surnamed the Great (born about 540 A.D., pope from 590 to 604), who is credited with having reformed and reorganized the liturgical and musical service of the Catholic

reason every chant it contained was known as a *cantus firmus* (fixed chant). The distinction between the Ambrosian and Gregorian manner of singing appears to have rested largely upon the rhythm, which, in the former, was apparently far more natural and animated, conforming to an unconstrained declamation of the text. The Gre-

DOMINICA · 11 ·

Ā Populus sion ecce:
 Reges species decoris eius
 deus manifeste veniet.
 Ū Congrega te illi
 sanctos eius qui ordinave
 runt testamentum

NEUMES OF ST. GALL

Audi plebs inclita quomodo sit uocatus ad
 fidem xpi p[ro]tomargy hic ste phanus.
 E legerunt · ꝑ pro persecutio ribas exo
 jantem · D ne ihu AD V Veritas cum

ANGLO-SAXON NEUMES

Church. The music he established was called the Gregorian chant. . . . [The Gregorian chant is a sort of a free recitative.] All the intonations belonging to his liturgy were noted in (letters only) in a book called the *Antiphonary* which, bound by a chain to the altar of St. Peter's church in Rome, was to remain an inviolable guide for the music of the Roman Church for all time. For this

gorian chant, on the contrary, held less strictly to the natural rhythm of the words; . . . not only were two or more tones often sung to one syllable, but at times a whole melodic group accompanied a single vowel. [All language depends for intelligibility on quantity and accent; in ancient poetry it is quantity at fixed intervals, but in the modern it is accent at fixed intervals; and Gregory's

problem was to make his music a satisfactory vehicle for the singing of the Psalms in Latin.] Gregory increased the number of modes to eight by adding four subordinate ones, known as plagal, to the four authentic modes of Ambrose. The plagal modes differed from the authentic only that they proceeded from dominant to dominant (fifth step) instead of from key-note to key-note. . . . Besides notation in letters there was another system of which Gregory, and perhaps earlier writers, are known to have made some use. This was the so-called *neuma* [written above the text to indicate relative pitch] *script* (from *pneuma*, breath) and was said to have been invented by a monk, St. Ephraem, as early as the fourth century. . . . It was, at all events, the first device for indicating musical sounds ever invented that proved to be capable and worthy of development, and it was . . . the direct forerunner of our modern musical notation. . . . The neumas did not indicate any particular tone or time value, but merely the rising, falling, sustaining, or inflecting of the voice in a general way. They were consequently mnemonic rather than strictly notational. Finally—possibly as early as the seventh century—some conscientious copyist hit upon the simple expedient of drawing a line to guide him in placing his neumas accurately and neatly above the text. This probably purely accidental device was soon turned to account as a means of fixing the pitch of the tones themselves. The first line was fixed for the middle F of the bass and was identified by the corresponding letter (F), from which, . . . the present sign of the F Clef (:) has been derived. Shortly afterwards—about the ninth century—a second line was added, representing the fifth tone above F (that is, C) also marked with its letter, (F, the original of the modern C clefs). The F line was red, the C line either yellow or green. Later, a black line, for the tone A, was placed between these. . . . Thus the musical staff was gradually formed; and it grew until a few centuries later it became the so-called great staff of eleven lines—our present G and F staves with the C line between.”—T. Tapper and P. Goetschius, *Essentials of music*, pp. 36, 38-39.

ALSO IN: W. S. Pratt, *History of music*.—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsythe, *History of music*.

MEDIEVAL (ART-MUSIC)

900-1050.—Hucbald.—Attempts to multiply vocal parts.—First attempt known as *organum*, later *discantus*.—Guido of Arezzo.—“The time was come when those who revered music and believed in its wider power grew impatient of the narrow and monotonous mode of unison singing. . . . Certain it is that in the first decades of the tenth century, if not earlier, attempts were made to combine—or, rather, to multiply—the vocal parts. This was the most momentous step in all the ranges of music history, for it pointed out the only method of extending and amplifying the resources of musical expression; . . . nothing else could have unlocked the vast treasure . . . house of musical potentiality—could have started the process of evolution that has led to the truly marvellous art of our day. The individual associated with the new movement was Hucbald, or Ubaldu [systematizer of the organum], a learned Benedictine monk in the convent of St. Amand, in the French Netherlands, who lived from 848 to 930. Whether or not Hucbald originated these novel experiments of increasing the one-voice (unison) mode of singing the Gregorian intonations to a more ample body of two or more simultaneous melodies, or

merely assisted in systematising them is not known. [The Hucbald authorship of ‘Musica Enchiridis’ has been questioned.] . . . The first attempts at combining melodic parts were known originally by the name of *organum* [simultaneous progression of parallel 5ths], and later *discantus*. [The germ of counterpoint lay in experiments with combining of two voices.] These were of two kinds: the first consisted in an unaltered succession of parallel fifths or fourths and octaves. To the Gregorian melody (the *cantus firmus* [fixed song]), as lower-most part, a higher voice was added, singing exactly the same melody either in the fourth or fifth. In case the organum (or *discantus* [a term which in medieval times was applied to contrary motion]) was to embrace more than two parts, one or both of these voices was doubled in the next higher octave. . . . To the modern ear this method of multiplying parts . . . is repugnant. To those who first heard it, it was, no doubt, a welcome novelty. . . . In itself, as a specimen of combined melodies, the organum was worthless; but it soon led to other and more valuable results, as for instance; the so-called secular organum, in which different intervals were used, generally in consequence of holding the lower part stationary (on one tone) while the other intoned the *cantus*. . . . The second species, called *diaphony*, was of greater artistic promise. This consisted in a succession of changing intervals, only obtainable by the impulse of giving to each separate part a more distinct melodic movement, and of introducing other and more euphonious intervals; for example, the third. . . . It did not take long to develop this into actual polyphony [simultaneous melodies], the artistic multiplications of genuine melodic parts. . . . The novel practice of *diaphony* was indulged in by all the singers of the time, and it is probable that it gave rise to other experiments which may have threatened the purity and integrity of the sacred intonation. It was, no doubt, necessary and fortunate for the church that a gifted and authoritative musical mind should appear at this juncture to control and conduct the new technical achievement into safe and serious channels. This authority was Guido of Arezzo [systematizer of musical notation] (c. 995-1050), a Benedictine monk of the convent of Pomposa, Guido was such an eminent leader in musical matters that many of the important innovations of this era have been attributed to him, probably without foundation. It is evident, however, that he was instrumental in simplifying the confused theories of his day; in perfecting the notation; in regulating the technic of melody combinations; and, most vital of all, in establishing a scale system which has required no significant modification to this day, agreeing as it does in all essential points with the scientifically demonstrated major scale of modern music.”—T. Tapper and P. Goetschius, *Illustrated history of music*, pp. 43-48.

ALSO IN: E. Naumann, *History of music* (tr. by F. Praeger).—H. E. Woodbridge, *Oxford history of music, Polyphonic period, 330-1330*.—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*.—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsythe, *History of music*.

11th-13th centuries.—Part singing.—Organum.—Diaphony.—Discantus.—Invention of a new notation.—Franco of Cologne.—Mensural song.—Uneven time.—When the practice of part-singing became more general it was found necessary to fix the value of the notes of the different parts, and although the strictly measured bars of our time with their bar-lines were not then adopted, a near approach was made in this direction. When,

in the tenth and eleventh centuries, the organum and diaphony were chanted, the voices moved in the same direction, and it was then possible to sing in time without any special difficulty. But in the twelfth century a change took place, diaphony was merged into the Discantus . . . which was especially the case among the inhabitants of the northeast of France and the Netherlands. In these districts a practice . . . arose of embellishing the upper notes of the Discantus with ornaments, called in France, *Fleurettes* and in Italy, *Fioriture*.—Under such circumstances, the melody of the upper voice gained a considerable accession of movement compared to that of the lower voice, the second voice singing the *cantus firmus* [fixed song, plain chant], and on this account it was called *Tenor*. Under these conditions, a further united singing of the two divergent voices was impossible, unless governed by some fixed rules of measure. . . . Hence the invention of

uneven Tempo, or triple time, introducing it into Church music on the ground, which was entirely in keeping with the spirit of the mediæval ages, that the Holy Trinity teaches us to regard the number three as the symbol of perfection, and hence triple time was even to be regarded as the *tempus perfectum*. . . . The laws of part-writing laid down by Franco of Cologne were, in their essential elements, the same as those which govern modern harmony. . . . The germs of the new notation, forced into existence by the Mensural music, and which were to mark the varying durations of the tones of a melody, were known, however, previous to the time of Franco. He adopted therefore for his purpose the four . . . well-known characters, each representing a different value, viz., the *Longa* [7], the *Brevis* [■], the *Maxima* [7], . . . and the *Semibrevis* [♦].—E. Naumann, *History of music*, pt. 7, pp. 214, 216-217.—The earliest vocabulary of musical terms is in the prolix work

Viderunt omnes *S. ml.*

9TH CENTURY

Viderunt omnes

11TH CENTURY

Vide-runt omnes

14TH CENTURY

Viderunt omnes

12TH AND 13TH CENTURIES

Viderunt omnes

13TH CENTURY

Viderunt omnes

14TH CENTURY

Viderunt omnes

17TH CENTURY

DEVELOPMENT OF NOTATION

a new notation, or at least a re-modelling of the old system, had become a necessity. . . . We are indebted for the oldest and most trustworthy information extant on this subject to the learned Franco of Cologne [author of treatises on musical rhythm, and the theory of intervals, one copy of which is in the Bodleian Library, Oxford]. The exact period at which this celebrated master lived is not known, but most probably it was during the latter end of the twelfth and the early part of the thirteenth centuries. . . . It is curious that even up to a very recent date, the personality of Franco of Cologne was surrounded with much mystery, . . . but the researches of the Belgian historian [C. E. H. de] Coussemaker [1805-1876] . . . prove that besides Franco of Cologne, another Franco (of Paris) existed, whose period was but little anterior to that of . . . Franco. . . . This celebrated teacher zealously advocated the adoption of the Mensural song, [measured song] which he greatly improved. . . . ["Discantus positio vulgaris," an anonymous treatise written before 1150, is said to contain the earliest rules for "measured music"]. He also originated the

of Joannes Presbyter (late 11th century). "The discovery . . . of Discant is one of the greatest steps forward ever taken by the human mind. . . . It is not to be compared with such a mechanical invention as that of a locomotive, but rather—if comparison is possible, with some such fundamental discovery as that of a wheel. In both cases the discovery was probably not the work of one man, of one group of men, or even of one age, but was achieved by the slow effort of many minds and many ages, after a desperation of painful thought."—C. Forsyth, *Music and nationalism*, p. 67.

12th century.—Popular music of Middle Ages.—Troubadours and Minnesingers.—Jongleurs and Menestriers.—"As far back as we may go in the story of European civilization we find traces of the use of song in common life. The same instinct for musical expression that is universal among uncivilized men persists in civilized conditions. Song springs forth spontaneously as the voice of the ordinary sentiments of domestic and communal life, embodying the feelings belonging to whatever occupies man's interest with intensity. It beguiles labor and loneliness, and enlivens all

social festivity. It gives outlet to exuberant vitality, interacts with all sorts of bodily and mental effort, and brings to light that love for the beautiful and the ideal that is latent in healthy natures. It passes over readily into dancing—the rhythm and motion of the voice fitting closely with expressive movements of the body. It also turns easily to the use of whatever instruments the singer's wit suffices to fashion.”—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, p. 102.—“The slow and tedious progress made by Church music in its striving after artistic form, even after the great reforms introduced into the liturgical song by Gregory, . . . forms a strong contrast to the free . . . development of secular song among the people. The folk-songs, refrains, and roundelays which accompanied all the popular dances, the tales . . . and the ballads and serenades of the southern nations, although made by the people . . . contained in themselves the germs of a rich development, which, coming into contact at a later period with the achievements of art, attained to the most gratifying results. . . . In order to gain a more general understanding of European mediæval folk-lore and its musical setting . . . we must devote our attention to a study of the songs of the eleventh and twelfth centuries which are really the melodies of the troubadours and minstrels. . . . Specimens of the oldest secular mediæval folk-music, whether in the romances of the South, or among the popular ditties of the Northern Germans, are to be found in the songs of mountebanks, adventurers, itinerant jugglers, and strolling players, all of whom accompanied their songs on various musical instruments. In Germany these wandering musicians were generally tramps and vagrants, a class of humanity very characteristic of the Middle Ages. In Italy they were chiefly recruited from strolling players, from showmen who traversed the country exhibiting camels, monkeys, and dancing bears, from tricksters and vendors of molasses. . . . In France, more especially in Provence and Normandy, they were represented by the *Jongleurs* and *Menes-triers*, men who were indifferently buffoons, rope-dancers, or musicians, and also by . . . professional story-tellers who sometimes accompanied their recitals by music. In England they were known under the name of minstrels. It must be distinctly understood that the . . . beautiful melodies of Germany, Gaul, and Italy, sung by the wandering minstrels, were not their own original productions, but were the outpourings of the heart-felt emotions of the people themselves. The minstrels were but hawkers and disseminators of the tunes, carrying the themes and a knowledge of the musical elements from one people to another. But to their credit it must be said that it was owing to their skilful pipe and rota [a guitar-like stringed instrument] playing that a more lively style and many an original and singular rhythm were introduced while the comical vein of their quaint, humorous songs stimulated others to new and bolder attempts in musical contrivance. Notwithstanding the great favour with which these wanderers were regarded by the people . . . they never achieved any social distinction or attained any civil rights. True it is that their existence was tolerated, but all real protection of the law was withheld from them. . . . Even the Church withheld its sympathy and denied them the right to partake of the Christian sacrament. These drawbacks, however, did not prevent their congregating in hundreds at court festivals and fairs, on great market-days, and when celebrated pilgrimages were to be made; their rewards, either in money, food, or raiment, being usually very great. . . .

The strolling player, besides exercising his public calling, frequently acted in numerous other capacities; thus, he was the secret messenger of princes and nobles, the *courier d'amour* of lovers, the agent of merchants, and the bearer of news to the peasant from distant relatives. When the players moved about in companies, women and children formed part of the troupe. . . . Among the companies that roved through the South we find women and children skilfully using the well-known Oriental tambourine and Egyptian clapper in their wanton dances. Their rambling, dissolute life induced a certain moral laxity that brought upon them public censure.”—E. Naumann, *History of music*, pt. 8, pp. 226-229.—“During the eleventh and twelfth centuries mountebanks and strolling minstrels were engaged in the service of Troubadours and Minnesingers, a circumstance that contributed greatly to the development of secular mediæval music. At first their office was only that of instrumental accompanists to the poetising nobles and knights, as the latter were either incapable of accompanying themselves or considered such performances unbecoming their exalted station. Later on they were intrusted with the task of disseminating a knowledge of the songs and canzonets of their lordly masters; and so great was their success that the courtly Troubadours, stimulated by the skill with which the strollers manipulated the Rota and the Rebeck [a stringed instrument, the earliest known of the viol class], and their dextrous performance on the lute and fife, strove anxiously to acquire so effective an accomplishment, and from this time they numbered in their ranks many excellent instrumentalists. The honour of having been the pioneers of the courtly poetry and song belongs to the nobles of South-eastern France. It was there, . . . under the deep blue sky of Provence; that the romantic element, after the fall of Rome, had remained comparatively pure, without mingling with that which was foreign in the same degree as did the romanticism of more Northern France. The homely poetry and song of a contented people, gifted with the love of adventure and possessed of a cheerful, sensuous conception of the world, so excited the admiration . . . of the nobles, that they created for themselves a song akin to that of the peasant, giving to it, however, the stamp of their own individuality. The result was that their song was distinguished by a . . . more refined versification, nobler language and a somewhat improved melody . . . exercising a refining influence on the mind and morals of Christian mediæval chivalry. . . . The Troubadours did not disdain to accept gifts from their princes and noble ladies . . . but their poetising and song did not . . . descend, as with the *Jongleurs* to a mercenary profession, but practised and loved solely for itself, it rose to a self-dependent art. Prominent among the Troubadours of this time stands the name of *Count William of Poitiers* (1087-1127 A. D.)”—*Ibid.*, pp. 231-233.—See also TROUBADOURS.—“The movement of the Crusades, which convulsed the whole of the chivalric knighthood of Europe, naturally drew Germany into the vortex of its religious enthusiasm. . . . It was, however, but a part of Germany only that was at all influenced by this movement, for if we examine the lays of the Minnesingers of Southern Germany . . . we shall find that in the majority of cases they are of an entirely different character to those of the Troubadours. Indeed we may say that they were almost entirely independent of the Provençal influence, although the Northern German provinces . . . naturally felt though in a very slight degree, the effects of the

mental thrill which then electrified the whole of European chivalry. The case was different, however, with the Minnesingers of Lower and Central Germany. They, evidently, were first acted upon by the song of the Trouveres of Northern France. . . . The Lower German School therefore, before it came into contact with . . . that of Upper Germany, betrayed all the characteristics of its courtly origin, while throughout all ages the songs of Upper Germany preserved the stamp of their popular source, as true folk-music. . . . We may date the commencement of the German Minnesong from the time of Frederick the Red (1152-1190 A. D.). The songs of the Minnesingers did not, like the greater number of the courtly chansons of France, Spain and Italy, treat of the tender passion only. They embraced moral, religious, and even political topics of the period. . . . As a rule they . . . were not attended by bards like the Jongleurs or the Troubadours, but sang their own lays, often improvising words and music together. Those who were able to accomplish this were subsequently designated 'Mastersingers.'—*Ibid.*, pp. 238-239, 247.

ALSO IN: G. J. Aubry, *Trouveres and troubadours*.

12th-14th centuries.—Chansonnier, or Trouveres.—Count Thibaut.—Adam de la Halle.—"Jus de Robin et Marion."—Trobadores of Spain.—Minstrels of England.—Heinrich von Meissen.—"The poetry and song of the Provençals was gradually disseminated throughout France, and towards the latter end of the twelfth century we find the Troubadours flourishing in the North under the name of *Chansonnier*, (or *Trouveres*), among whom the name *Count Thibaut* . . . (1201-1253) King of Navarre is the most celebrated. . . . Besides . . . Thibaut, Adam de la Halle of Arras in Picardy (1240-1286 A. D.) deserves mention as one of the most noted Trouveres. . . . The favoured Chansonnier of Picardy is considered to have been the first to re-model the Pastourelle into a complete musical drama, and his 'Jus de Robin et Marion,' has often been sportively referred to as the first comic opera of France. But he is chiefly to be remembered by reason of the efforts which he made in part-writing. . . . Yet de la Halle was not alone in his endeavours to establish polyphony, for the Troubadours of Provence, and the Trouveres of Artois and Picardy of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, were not only melodists, but relatively harmonists and contrapuntists. . . . In Spain the *Trobadores* were chiefly to be found at the courts of Arragon and Castile, their melodies forcibly reminding one of their Provençal origin. . . . Poetry and song were introduced into England from Northern France, and here the knightly songsters, who like the Troubadours, fostered the love for national poetry and secular song, were known as Minstrels. In Italy the Provençal lay did not strike deep root . . . [which may be accounted for by the fact that the] original genius of Dante may have absorbed all the poetical interest of his nation. . . . The name of Heinrich von Meissen has attached to it a special significance in connection with the history of music. The last of the Minnesingers, he was born in 1260 A. D. at Meissen, and died in 1318 A. D. at Mayence. So constant and successful were his praises of women that by common acclamation he was named 'Frauenlob' i. e. woman's praise. The name Frauenlob stands out prominently in the history of the general development of art, not only as the last of the Minnesingers, but also as the connecting link between the dying courtly minstrelsy and the germinating civil Meistersong. The German Meis-

tersong seems to have originated at Mayence, from whence it became disseminated throughout the German lands." E. Naumann, *History of music*, pp. 235-236, 250.—"The rise of the Meistersong followed upon the decay of the Minnesong, the exponents of the former adopting, especially in lyric song, the forms of the latter. The Meistersong flourished for a period of nearly four centuries, and may be roughly said to be represented by the celebrated *Hans Sachs* (1494-1576). . . . In the sixteenth century schools for its propagation are known to have existed as far north as the Baltic Sea. Besides the celebrated school at Nuremberg, others were founded at Frankfurt, Ulm, Ratisbon, . . . Danzig, and many smaller cities. . . . In the seventeenth century the Meistersong, practised according to strict guild law, began to decay: one school, however, survived at Ulm as late as 1839 A. D."—*Ibid.*, p. 252.

12th century-1350.—Old French school.—Counterpoint.—Faux-bourdon.—Old masters: Leonin, Perotin, De Garlande, Franko of Paris, De Machault, and Adam de la Halle.—"During the first eleven centuries of the Christian era, the development of music was in the hands of various men of different nations. . . . Discanting, which arose in France, spread rapidly among other nations, as had been the case with *diaphony* and the sacred *organum*. Beginning with the twelfth century, however, there seems to be a rotation of nations whose composers really formed schools of music. . . . The [old] French school of polyphony is the real beginning of counterpoint [note against note, i. e., the setting of one or more parts against a given melody, so all the voices are of equal importance and independence] as an art, as well as a science. Its donation to the musical world was the union of the secular and the church methods as a result of the influence of the Trouveres upon the church music. The *faux-bourdon*, a progression of voices in sixths and thirds . . . was very much like organum except . . . its voice-progressions moved in the more tuneful intervals of the third and sixth. . . . [The discant (contrary motion of voices) led to counterpoint and this, in turn, to the establishment of a system of notation in which the different values of the notes in regard to time were definitely fixed.] Among the leading names [of this period] . . . are Leonin and Perotin, organists at Notre-Dame in Paris in the 12th century, [also De Garlande, Franko of Paris and De Machault. Adam de la Halle, 1240-1286 and De Machault, d. 1350, are the connecting links between the Troubadours and the archaic contrapuntists]."—A. J. Gantvoort, *Familiar talks on history of music*, p. 50.—Three art forms were developed in this period: the motet, rondellus (rondeau), and conductus.

1226-1622.—Old English school.—"Sumer is icumen in."—John of Dunstable.—Lutenist song writers.—Old masters.—England has the oldest known specimen of polyphonic writing: "Sumer is icumen in" (1226); no work within two centuries of its date attains a style so nearly intelligible to modern ears. England of the thirteenth century must have attained a comparatively high state of development. The tuneful character of "Sumer is icumen in" has something in common with the songs of the Troubadours. The few preserved compositions by John of Dunstable (pioneer composer, d. 1453) show the same general characteristics as the Old French school. The school of lutenist song writers stands by itself as something which has no parallel in the contemporary schools of music in Europe. It shone brilliantly for twenty-five years, 1507-1622; during

this period some thirty sets or volumes of song were issued beginning with Dowlands "First Booke of Songs Ayres" in 1507. Music of a characteristically English kind is united to some of the finest English verse. Some of the masters of the Old English school were Walter Odington (d. 1280), writer on music; Thos. Tallis (1515-1585), styled the father of English cathedral music; William Byrd (1543-1623) "bread up to music under Tallis"; Richard Farrant (16th century), composer of the anthems "Hide not thou thy face," and "Call to remembrance"; Orlando Gibbons (1583-1625), created doctor of music by the university of Oxford in 1622, the following year became organist at Westminster Abbey; and John Merbeck (d. 1583), organist at St. George's, Windsor.

ALSO IN: E. J. Fellowes, *Lutenist song writers*.

1350-1500.—Gallo-Belgic school.—Papal choir.—Fuga.—Canon.—Old masters: Guillaume Dufay, Gilles de Binche, Antoine de Busnois.—"At the beginning of the fourteenth century, this art [counterpoint] had begun to decline in importance in France, but had taken on new life in the Netherlands. This migration was due partly to political and social conditions. . . . In addition to this, the politico-religious disturbances which caused the removal of the Papal See from Rome to Avignon in 1305, brought from Italy the very best composers, who aided in the advancement of musical culture in the new center of the arts. . . . [When the Papal See was transferred from Rome to Avignon the Choir was left in Rome, and another choir was formed, mostly of the best French and Flemish singers.] Thus there came to be established what is now called the Gallo-Belgic School (1350-1430), the connecting link between the early French School and that of the Netherlands. The most brilliant exponent and master of the Gallo-Belgic school was Guillaume Dufay (1400-1474). He was the first master to formulate rules . . . for the 'imitations' so timidly introduced by the masters of the French school. [Dunstable of the English school and Dufay of the Gallo-Belgic were the principal founders of artistic counterpoint.] Such imitation was then called fuga, a polyphonic composition developed from a given theme or themes according to strict contrapuntal rules. The subject theme is first given out by one voice part which then proceeds with a counterpoint, while the subject, now called an answer, is repeated by another voice at an interval of a fourth or fifth until parts have answered one by one. Strict imitation was exemplified in the canon, a composition in two or more voice parts employing imitation. The melody of the leading voice at a few beats from its beginning is taken up by another voice and imitated precisely throughout its extent. To detail all the improvements which Dufay made in musical art would require too much time and space; but we must mention . . . that by him, . . . the pure four-part style of vocal writing was inaugurated. In his labors for the improvement of musical art, Dufay had the hearty coöperation of Gilles de Binche or Binchois (1400-1460). . . . The last great master of the Gallo-Belgic school was Antoine de Busnois (1440-1482). Dufay, Binchois and Busnois, with their following, form a bridge between the French school and that of the Netherlands, which latter we are now to consider."—A. J. Gantvoort, *Familiar talks on the history of music*, pp. 74-76.

ALSO IN: E. Naumann, *History of music* (tr. by F. Praeger).—H. E. Woodbridge, *Oxford history of music, Polyphonic period, v. 2.*—W. S. Pratt, *His-*

tory of music.—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsythe, *History of music*.

1450-1600.—School of the Netherlands.—Johannes Okeghem.—Josquin de Près.—Orlando Lassus.—Jan Pieters Sweelinck.—The school of the Netherlands comprised "the Dutch and the Belgian composers through whose efforts was developed that great school of vocal polyphony which finds its culmination on the one hand in Palestrina [see below: Modern: 1535-1674], and on the other in Handel and Bach. [See below: Modern: 1700-1827.] . . . The two hundred years from 1425-1625, during which the influence of this school was predominant, we shall, for the sake of convenience, divide into four overlapping periods, in each of which some great master is supreme. In the first of these periods the name of Johannes Okeghem (1425-1513), a pupil of Binchois, stands out above those of his contemporaries. He is considered the founder of the Netherlandic school, and is called the father of artistic counterpoint, because he developed the canonic style, the style of strict imitation, to its greatest ingenuity. . . . The great luminary of the second period of the Netherlands schools (1445-1525) was that most distinguished of Okeghem's pupils, Josquin de Près [first great composer]. . . . He is the first of the great Netherlands school who exhibits real geniality and appreciation of the aesthetic value of a dissonance in the expression of emotion as depicted in the text. . . . Among famous contemporaries of Josquin must be mentioned Mouton and Arcadelt. . . . The leading masters of the third period of the Netherlands school were largely the best pupils of Josquin, such as Gombert, Goudimel, de Rore, Willaert. [See below: Modern: 1527-1613.] . . . While the fourth period of the Netherlands school presents a number of excellent musicians, one name stands out brilliantly above all others, that of Orlando Lassus, the greatest of all Netherland masters. During the fourth period . . . there lived in Holland a musician, Jan Pieters Sweelinck [1562-1621] who attracted the notice of all the musical world. . . . He soon attained the reputation of being the greatest organist of his time, and so many young musicians came to study with him from all over Europe that he became the founder of a great organ school. [See also below: Modern: 1620-1722.] Among his pupils were Samuel Scheidt, . . . Adam Reinken, and . . . Dietrich Buxtehude, whose works deserve to be in the repertoire of every organist. . . . His vocal compositions deserve a place in the repertoire of ambitious choral-societies, as superb examples of the *a cappella* styles, [vocal music, unaccompanied] and direct precursors of the great vocal works of Bach. His chief title to lasting fame rests upon his development of the organfuge, a branch of composition wherein his first worthy successor was J. S. Bach."—A. J. Gantvoort, *Familiar talks on the history of music*, pp. 76, 80, 83-86.

MODERN (ART-MUSIC)

Introduction.—"The 16th century is perhaps the most fascinating of any before the 19th, since it was the meeting-point of mediaeval and modern life. Into it as towards a focus various lines of progress converged, only to be recombined and redirected. All Europe was stirred by the great mental movements of the Renaissance and the Revival of Letters, which originated further back, but were now hastened to maturity by certain events that gave an unexampled expansion to in-

tellectual and artistic interests."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, p. 111.

1500-1628.—German polyphonic school.—Growing importance of instrumental music.—Old masters: the two Fincks, Gallus, Hasler, and Aichinger.—The German polyphonic school was divided into two periods, the first showing Flemish influence, the latter Venetian; but in the bold use of dissonances the German masters went beyond their predecessors. "Without giving up emphasis upon the voice as the primary musical implement, it was perceived how advantageously mechanical implements might also be used themselves and in ways essentially unvoiced. In consequence, instrumental music . . . shook itself clear and set out upon a vigorous development that had marvelous later consequences. The two classes of instruments that took the lead were those with a key board, especially the organ, and those sounded by a bow, that is, the entire viol family. The problem of forms of composition for the organ remained unsolved far into the 17th century. . . . In Germany . . . increasing emphasis [was laid] on two particular forms, the true fugue, . . . and the chorale-elaboration."—*Ibid.*, pp. 218-219.—The chief composers showing Flemish influence are Heinrich Finck (d. 1519) and Herman Finck (1527-1558). Those showing Italian influence are Gallus (or Handl, 1550-1501), Hans Leo Hasler (1564-1612) and G. Aichinger (1565-1628).

1527-1613.—Venetian school.—Adrian Willaert.—Other masters: Zarlino, Merulo, and the two Gabrieli.—"For various reasons Venice stands out in the 16th century as one of the most interesting cities. She had long been foremost in commerce, her trade reaching far into the Orient on the one side and over all western Europe on the other. With her wealth came a . . . productive culture. Notable among her national institutions was the Church of St. Mark's founded in the 9th century. . . . Here the powerful patronage of the state developed a musical establishment that in the 16th century attained fame in all Europe. The peculiar eminence of Venice in the early 16th century was due to the genius of Adrian Willaert [(1480-1562) a pupil of Josquin De Près], choir-master at St. Mark's . . . who is commonly called the founder of the Venetian School."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, pp. 116-117.—"The presence of two organs in the church of San Marco is presumed to have suggested to Willaert the use of two distinct choirs for the antiphonal singing of the Psalms, and this led to his discovery of the fact that the effect thus produced was one of harmony rather than polyphony. In consequence he began the practice and study of harmony for harmony's sake, rather than as the result of an intertwining of the voice parts. He created a new style of part-writing in which the individual voice parts bore no melodic relation to each other, but combined to form *one* effect. . . . Willaert was also the creator (in its present form) of the madrigal, which originated as a love-song, or a song on a pastoral theme, in Provence, thence to be transplanted into Italy, where it had been in use for many years. . . . The most talented among the many Venetian musicians were Andrea Gabrieli (1510-1586). [Gioseffo Zarlino (1517-1500) theorist, Claudio Merulo (1583-1604), a great organist whose compositions are of permanent value, being among the earliest specimens of a distinct organ style and Giovanni Gabrieli (1557-1613).] . . . The elder Gabrieli (Andreas) had occasionally used instruments in his church compositions and the younger (Giovanni) added still others. [Through

the efforts of the Gabrielis, instrumental music thus gradually began an entirely independent existence.]"—A. J. Gantvoort, *Familiar talks on the history of music*, pp. 109-110, 113.—See also below: 1650-1739.

1535-1674.—School of Rome.—Papal choir.—Giovanni Pierluigi Sante, called "Palestrina."—Miracle plays.—Oratorio beginnings.—On the return of the papal see to Rome, the pope took his new Avignon singers with him to strengthen the old choir, which then became known as the Capella Papala or papal choir. It exemplified at that time, and has ever since initiated and perfected, practically all new developments in church music. When Gregorian melodies were still the sole music of the church, the choir set the standard for the rest of Christendom. After melody blossomed into polyphony it was in the Sistine choir that it received its most adequate interpretation. The Venetian school regarded the chord as a basis and gained their effects by means of modulation; the Roman masters restored greater freedom to the voices. The introduction of secular themes into church music had led to serious abuses. Palestrina (and other masters) proved that the contrapuntal style was not antagonistic to proper church music. Palestrina, (1514-1594) like Baini and others, was at St. Peter's several years before going to the Sistine Chapel and "may be claimed as a direct descendant of the Netherland School, for he was an early pupil of Goudimels' famous school in Rome. With Palestrina, polyphonic religious music was brought to its culmination, and it may be rightly claimed that no church music since his day has reached the truly religious height of Palestrina's Marcellus Masses ['Missa Marcelli,' a composition which revolutionized sacred music]. These works were written in 1563 at the request of Pope Pius IV, who wished to prove to the Council of Trent that music could be religious and popular at the same time. Palestrina and his followers. [Giovanni] Nanini (1540-1607), and [Gregorio] Allegri (1584-1662) . . . helped to give again to the Roman Catholic Church the purity and strength of the Gregorian type of expression. They also laid the foundations for the great chorus singing of the oratorios and operas of the next century."—A. S. Faulkner, *What we hear in music*, p. 83.—"Many converts of the church in the early Christian era were descended from the Greeks and Romans, and thus inherited a pronounced taste for theatrical display and representation, their plays being founded almost entirely upon their mythology. The Church recognizing the natural demand of the people for dramatic expression, attempted to satisfy it and to show at the same time her superiority. . . . Sacred plays were therefore used so that the mind might be reached through the senses. . . . Theatrical representations of the acts of Christ and the Apostles were also given, and variously termed 'moralities,' 'mysteries,' or 'miracle-plays.' . . . The clergy, being the guides of their congregations both in spiritual and social matters . . . desired that even the amusements of the people should be under church supervision; they arranged spiritual plays which were given for public instruction and edification and for religious purposes, on stages erected in the church edifices. Priests in appropriate costumes impersonated [the various characters]. . . . In the course of time the clergy, recognizing the fact that the congregation . . . did not enjoy the Church plays because they were not allowed to take part, permitted societies to be formed whose members might appear in them. . . . All these plays were . . . but allegories, and, as the congregation began

to take part in them, they became very popular, sometimes lasting several days and often, in the larger cities, employing several hundred actors. Soon the churches became too small, and a stage was erected in a field or some wide street; but the favorite place was the cemetery, presumably because its inhabitants could not object, and did not mind the disturbance. . . . Because the clergy were few and the people were many, jongleurs, buffoons and vagabonds began to take part in these sacred plays, and introduced all sorts of profane comic scenes. . . . The Church, seeing that the laity thus gave undue prominence to the worldly element, finally forbade such performances. . . . The musical members of these church plays were called 'Laudes spirituales,' i.e., spiritual praises. This form of sacred miracle-play, a relic of those times, may still be seen every ten years at Oberammergau. It remained for Filippo Neri [1515-1595], the priest who administered the last sacrament to Palestrina, to elevate the miracle-play into the Oratorio. Every kind of theatrical performance being forbidden during Lent, Neri conceived the idea of adding to his daily explanations of the Scriptures some choral music to illustrate them; so he asked certain Italian composers to help him by the compositions of these 'laudes spirituales,' or illustrative choruses. . . . When Palestrina took up this form of church music, this sacred play . . . was already called 'oratorio' after the name of the place where the plays were performed, the *oratory*, a room adjoining the church. The chorus work was all in the style of the Netherland school, polyphonic. The 'Passion according to Matthew' was thus enacted and while its four-part choruses are free from dramatic intention, they are really preparatory for the great oratorio choruses which were to follow in the days of Handel and Bach."—A. J. Gantvoort, *Familiar talks on the history of music*, pp. 126-128, 130-131.

ALSO IN: W. S. Pratt, *History of music*.—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsythe, *History of music*.—Zoe K. Pyne, *Palestrina*.

1540-1672.—School of Protestant Church music.—First Protestant hymnal.—Zwingli, Swiss reformer.—Protestant music in England.—"It is universally conceded that all of the arts of the Christian era, and especially music, owe much to the Roman Church; and it is not denied that the Protestant Church rather impeded than furthered their development. But this is scarcely true of music; for the Reformation and its consequences prepared a soil for this very art out of which it was to draw new vigour, and that at the moment when its trend, in Catholic environment, was in the direction of a new growth which Protestant conditions were calculated to foster most effectually. The significance of the Reformation in musical history is found in the fact that it led to the affiliation of both sacred and popular elements; that it thus brought the higher phases of music nearer to the people themselves, as a whole, and prepared music for that technically simpler and more direct emotional expression through which it was to attain its greatest power and develop its proper spirit. The Reformation, which wrought so many changes, also demanded a wholly different mode of musical practice. The music of contrapuntally interwoven parts, which reached such artistic perfection in the Catholic Church, was repudiated in favour of a simple, one-voice melodic style, externally similar to the early, unadorned chants . . . of the old church but of an entirely different, more popular character. The masses and other settings of the

liturgy, sung by clergy and trained choirs, were displaced by the chorale and sung by the congregation in unison. . . . The origin of the German chorale is ascribed to three different sources: First, to the old hymns and chants of the Latin Church. . . . Second, to the German sacred songs of earlier days, which were of a far more popular type than those of other countries. . . . Third . . . were the songs of earlier days, from which legacy of the minne-singers and the music-loving populace the most stirring and beautiful melodies were derived. . . . But, besides this practice of borrowing material for its music, . . . the Reformed Church soon began to compose its own chorale melodies. . . . History names Martin Luther himself in this connection and has accredited him with a large number of original chorales."—T. Tapper and P. Goetschius, *Illustrated history of music*, pp. 130-134.—"The great reformation movement in Bohemia, so strongly influenced by Wyclif, of which the leader was John Huss [1373-1415], gave to the world the first Protestant hymnal, for which Huss himself wrote hymns in Latin and Czech. Of his followers the Utraquists or Calixtines published a Czech hymnal in 1501, and the United Brethren in 1505, or twenty years before Luther. These hymnals were based on poetic versions of the Psalms, old Latin hymns, religious songs in the vernacular, and secular songs. Both Huss and Calvin established schools of sacred music in connection with their respective churches. The Swiss reformer [H.] Zwingli [1484-1531], was perhaps the most highly cultivated musically of all the reformers, as even in his childhood he had astonished his fellow-students and his masters by his great talent in instrumental and vocal music. He could play seven instruments and is known as the composer of several Reformation hymns."—H. and C. Dickinson, *Excursions in musical history*, pp. 129-130.—"Various fortunate circumstances caused the transition from Roman Catholicism to Protestantism in England to be gradual and moderate, with the happy result that the noble style of the Roman Church music of that age passed without change into the music of the Reformed Church. . . . Of those who came earliest into the field at this time . . . Christopher Tye . . . (died 1572) . . . held a most prominent position among musicians, and did great service to the cause of the art of the Reformed Church. . . . When the English Service-Book was compiled in 1550, the traditional plain song used in the old Church was adapted to it by John Merbecke [d. 1585], thereby confirming the musical identity of the old and new services. In the next generation . . . Thomas Tallis . . . (c. 1510-1585) occupied a foremost place. . . . His pupil, William Byrd (c. 1538-1623) . . . wrote admirable madrigals and instrumental music for keyed instruments as well as Church music of the finest and noblest quality."—L. Elson, *Modern music and musicians*, p. 28.

1575-1676.—School of Florence.—Opera, one of the oldest institutions.—Foundation of modern opera.—"La Rappresentazione di Anima e di Corpo."—Florentine monody.—"While [much] was going on within the Church, the musical world outside the church had not been idle. The spirit of the Renaissance fostered an admiration for everything handed down from the Greeks, which leads us to our next topic, the rise of the opera."—A. Gantvoort, *Familiar talks on history of music*, p. 132.—"It may seem strange to speak of the Opera as one of the oldest institutions in existence; yet our search for its origin leads us back to a time long antecedent to the beginning of the Christian era; and he who would read the story

of its infancy aright must collect its details from the history of ancient Greece; for it is as old as the drama itself. It was nurtured at Athens, in that glorious theatre, the acoustic properties of which have never yet been rivalled. Its earliest librettists were Aeschylus and Sophocles, and its earliest orchestra a band of lyres and flutes."—G. Grove, *Dictionary of music and musicians*, p. 435.—"The date which marks the end of the Renaissance, serves also as a beginning of a form of opera which has developed into the music drama of the present day. About 1575 there arose in Florence a group of Florentine nobles who were known as the 'Camerata.' This little band of ardent, musical enthusiasts, the most important of whom were . . . Jacopo Peri [1561-1633], and Giulio Caccini [1558-1615?], met in Florence at the home of Giovanni Bardi, Count of Vernio to discuss the possibilities of developing a new kind of musical art in the form of solo music with instrumental accompaniment. Their chief aim was to restore the style of the ancient Greek drama, and to have music, drama and interpretation on an equal footing. The result of their work was the invention of a kind of musical vocal expression half-way between speech and song, out of which came recitative and aria. These inventions mark the foundation of modern opera. The first practical results were the 'monodies' of [Peri] and the *Nuove Musiche* of [Giulio] Caccini [1550-1618]. The first application of the new recitative to an entire play was in 'Dafne,' composed by Peri and Caccini collaborating, with text by Rinuccini, in 1597. 'Euridice' by the same poet was set to music by Peri and made also by Caccini in 1600. The music of these two compositions has survived; that of 'Dafne' had been lost. . . . A religious allegorical piece by [Emilio del] Cavaliere [b. 1550?] called *Rappresentazione di Amina e di Corpo* [one of the first works dependent on instrumental accompaniment] was performed at Rome in 1600. This work has been called the first oratorio. It was given, like an opera, with action and costume. It comprised ninety members, consisting of choruses, solos and recitatives, with an instrumental prelude. . . . There was no intention on the part of the Florentine inventors . . . to create a form of art which should appeal to the ear and the sensibility on purely musical grounds. They did not dream of the subsequent career of the opera. They wished merely to throw off the trammels of counterpoint, and allow the single voice complete freedom of utterance. . . . The Florentine monody must therefore be studied not simply as the addition of music to dramatic poetry; . . . not even as an experiment in singing one part alone . . . but rather as the substitution of a free chord accompaniment in place of polyphonic parts. It was the introduction of the homophonic principle supplementing the contrapuntal, and hence the dawn of a new era in the history of music."—E. Dickinson, *Study of the history of music*, pp. 67-69.—"Without taking into consideration the many external causes which influenced and modified the character of various arts about the end of the sixteenth century, it might have been seen that a new departure in music was inevitable on internal and artistic grounds alone. The range of the art had been extremely limited so far; and though its limitations had conduced to the development of singularly perfect results, such advantages could not prevent men from wearying of apparent monotony, and becoming restive under restrictions which seemed to be hinderances to the fullest expression of their musical ideals. A reaction, such as in analogous situations in ordinary life drives men

accustomed to ease and refinement of surroundings to court hardship, danger, and privation, drove men of the highest taste and refinement, and such as were most thoroughly in touch with the spirit and movement of their age, to cut themselves adrift from the traditions of a perfectly mature art . . . and adopt a kind of music which was formless, crude and chaotic. . . . To the conservative musician of the early days of the seventeenth century the projects of the enthusiasts who founded modern music must have appeared, as radical reforms generally do, to be based on misconceptions—an outrage against all the best grounded principles of art. . . . The reformers, with the hopefulness characteristic of enthusiasts, thought they could dispense with all the fruits of past experience, and develop a new art on the basis of pure theoretic speculation. They gave up the subtleties of polyphonic writing and the devices which were natural to choral music; the beautiful effects obtainable by skillful combinations of voice parts; the traditions of a noble style, and the restrictions which made it consistent and mature; and they thought to make a new heaven and a new earth where secular expression should be free and eloquent without reference to past artistic experience as a guide to the artistic means. But they had to adopt unconsciously much that their predecessors had built up for them. . . . Even the earliest experiments were based upon a crude application of choral effects of which they could have no conception without the development of choral polyphony which their predecessors had laboriously achieved. Their first experiments were essentially steps made in the dark; and the first results that they achieved had the usual aspects of such steps in reform, and look purely infantile and absolutely ineffective by the side of the artistic works which they meant to supersede. But nevertheless the event proved the reformers to be perfectly right. For unless they had ventured as they did, . . . the ultimate building up of the marvellously rich and complicated edifice of modern art could never have been achieved."—C. H. Parry, *Evolution of the art of music*, pp. 125-126.

1607-1734.—Venetian opera school.—Claudio Monteverde.—Operatic orchestra.—Introduction of the aria.—"In following the history of the opera we find that no further progress was made at Florence, but our interest is transferred to Venice, where through the efforts of a musical genius, Claudio Monteverde, [pioneer of modern harmony] (1568-1643) opera achieved a success which brought it before the whole world. This remarkable composer was one of the boldest innovators in the history of music. The operatic orchestra had its beginning with him and his two operas 'Arianna' and 'Orfeo' produced in 1607 at the court of the duke of Mantua show the dramatic expression sought for by the Florentine *dilettanti* but with much greater musical expression and force. It was doubtless due, in a great part, to the stimulus of his example that operatic composition was so widely and so successfully cultivated in Venice. During this time the first public opera house was built in Venice. This was an epoch-making event, for it marks the beginning of opera as a public entertainment, whereas elsewhere it continued to be, for a long time, exclusively the property of princes and nobles, who used it on festal occasions for the entertainment of their guests. In Venice it was a popular matter, not a court affair. So popular was it that other opera houses were built, and before the year 1734 some four hundred operas of forty different

composers had been publicly performed in Venice. . . . [Francesco] Cavalli [c. 1599-1676], who became Monteverde's successor at St. Mark's in 1668, must be mentioned as the one Venetian composer, after Monteverde, who contributed essentially to the development of the dramatic style. (It was he who made the first deviation from the strict 'musical parlante' of the Florentines, by the introduction of the Aria.) He won a reputation which extended far beyond the bounds of Italy. After his time, opera in Venice began to emphasize the sensuous rather than the dramatic element, and with this change began its degeneration and downfall."—J. C. Fillmore, *Lessons in music history*, p. 66.—"At this time the great Roman composer [Giacomo] Carissimi [1604-1674] pursued similar lines taken by Cavalli but his efforts figured more in the Oratorio and cantata. His pupil [Marc' Antonio] Cesti [1620-c.1669] transferred to the opera all that Carissimi had brought out in the cantata and by so doing raised opera to a higher dignity than it had ever reached before. Although the rise of the Italian opera under Monteverde, Cavalli, Carissimi and Cesti has unique historic importance, the story of the early opera was by no means confined to Italy. Italy's musicians visited other countries or migrated to them, carrying with them the styles to which they were wonted. With these the Italian opera either competed or coalesced, and out of their varied interactions were gradually shaped the types of opera found in the 18th century."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, p. 180.

ALSO IN: D. G. Mason, *Art of music*, v. 14.—E. Naumann, *History of music*.—C. H. H. Parry, *Oxford history of music, music of the seventeenth century*, v. 3.—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*.—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsythe, *History of music*.—L. Schneider, *Claudio Monteverdi*.

1607-1737.—Evolution of the violin.—Guarneri, Stradivari, and Ruggeri family.—"Although in all stages of musical progress instruments are interesting, in the formal evolution of the art they were long remitted to a strictly subordinate place, vocal music supplying the ideal norms of procedure. . . . Experiments with instruments were made at first either to imitate vocal effects or for their mere support or incidental decoration. . . . As the 17th century approached, however, and much more as it proceeded, a new tendency asserted itself. The evolution of the violin took place between the middle of the 16th century and the first third of the 18th, culminating with the work of geniuses like Stradivari and Guarneri. The chief makers worked at Brescia or Cremona in northern Italy—a region offering superb materials, established traditions and fine instrument-making, and nearness to Venice, then the headquarters for artistic secular music. . . . At Cremona the great makers are more numerous and renowned. First stands the Amati family especially Andrea (d. 1611), his two sons Antonio and Geronimo and the noted son of the latter, Nicola Antonio Stradivari (d. 1737) . . . the Guarneri family . . . and the Ruggeri family. The rapid improvement of the violin and its larger relatives was due to the recognition of their remarkable artistic possibilities. The 17th century, therefore, witnessed the foundation of violin music and violin-playing, using both terms in the wide sense that includes all bowed instruments. Prior to 1650 there was little consensus as to the forms in which purely instrumental music should be written. . . . After that date composers tended to apply the term 'sonata' to pieces for a small group of instruments or for a solo instrument with accompani-

ment. Two varieties were distinguished, the 'sonata da chiesa' [several movements of contrapuntal writing]; and the 'sonata da camera' [dance forms]. . . . Thus instrumental composition worked itself free from the old imitation of vocal styles and launched out into forms that were perfectly suited to the instruments used."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, pp. 214-235, 238-239.

1620-1722.—School of German organists: Sweelinck, Reincke, Schütz, Schein, Froberger, Buxtehude, and Pachelbel.—"If Palestrina may be termed the musical father of Italian sacred music, the musical father of North Germany was Jan Pieterszoon Sweelinck (1562-1621). . . . He closely studied Italian music, and was greatly influenced by such masters as Zarlino and Gabrieli, not to speak of Frescobaldi, the founder of organ-playing. . . . His chief work as a pioneer was in his treatment of the organ, . . . his initiative in applying and improving it upon the principles of Frescobaldi, and the establishment of the great school in the Netherlands which trained many Germans, who carried the art into their native land. The cities of Hamburg and Lübeck (Germany) became the centers of a new instrumental school whose basis was the choral. "He had one pupil, Jan Reincke (or Reinken) [1623-1722] . . . also a Dutchman, who went to Hamburg and became one of the apostles of the new religion. . . . Some eighteen years after the birth of Sweelinck, three men were born in Germany within a short space of time, Heinrich Schütz (b. 1585-1672), Johann Heinrich Schein (b. 1586-1630), and Samuel Scheidt (b. 1587-1654), all of whom worked on the principles of the great Dutchman, [Sweelinck], Schütz being (like him) a direct pupil of Gabrieli at Venice. Schein (a predecessor of Bach as Cantor of the Thomas School in Leipzig) added largely to the literature of the Chorale, and principally devoted himself to unaccompanied choral writing on the Italian model. Scheidt (the German Frescobaldi) made the organ his chief medium of expression. Schütz, the greatest of the 'three S's' as they were termed, was wider in his sympathies and more experimental in his range. Three other masters of the organ intervened between the days of Sweelinck and those of Sebastian Bach: Johann Jacob Froberger (b. 1605-1667), Dietrich Buxtehude (b. 1637-1707), a Dane who held office at Lübeck, and Johann Pachelbel (b. 1653-1706) of Nuremberg."—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsythe, *History of music*, pp. 228-229.

ALSO IN: C. H. H. Parry, *Oxford history of music, music of the seventeenth century*, v. 3.

1630-1800.—German Singspiel.—Cradle of German opera.—Reinhard Keiser founder of the Great German school.—Early in the seventeenth century there arose, in Germany, the so-called school of comedy, with the dramatic representations made by students. This finally gave rise to the Singspiel and the Singspiel in turn to national German opera. "What the ballet did for French Opera and the masque for English opera, the singspiel did for German opera. In 1627 Italian opera was first imported into Germany by Heinrich Schutz (1585-1672) who set to music his German translation of Rinuccini's 'Dafne.' The true cradle of German opera was Hamburg, where Johann Theile (1646-1724) produced in 1678 his 'Adam and Eve,' the first singspiel ever produced in the German language. [Johann Hiller established the Singspiel on the basis of the older folksong during the years 1728-1804. In this period the form of the Singspiel rose to an artistic level.] The name of Reinhard Keiser (1674-1739) stands out as one of the most famous in early German opera.



GEORGE FREDERICK
HANDEL



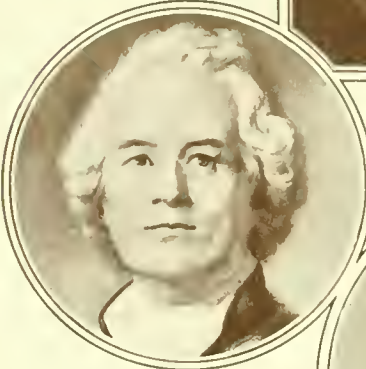
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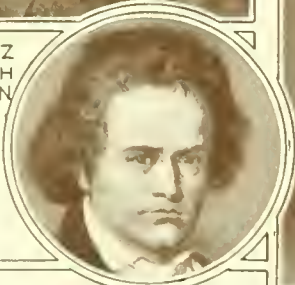
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RICHARD WAGNER



GIUSEPPE VERDI

GREAT MUSICIANS

He wrote over 116 operas for the Hamburg opera house and did so much to advance opera in Germany that he may well be called the founder of the great German school which has produced such famous composers."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, p. 188.—See also below: 1818-1880.

1645-1764.—Early French opera.—Giovanni Baptiste de Lully.—Jean Philippe Rameau, one of the founders of modern orchestration.—"Opera in France, . . . found its origin in the ballet. This was a semi-dramatic form of entertainment, greatly in favor in the French court, consisting of tableau, processions and dances with music both vocal and instrumental. The appearance in 1645 of an Italian opera troupe and Cavalli's visit to Paris in 1662 gave a musical impetus to the ballet. The first attempt at real French opera was made by [Robert] Cambert [1628-1677] in the 'Pastoral' in 1659 (text by Perrin) but no definite school of music was established until the advent of Giovanni Baptiste de Lully [1633-1687]. Lully, a native of Florence, was brought to Paris at the age of thirteen and through his musical ability, cleverness and versatility soon won the favor of Louis XIV. After the appearance in 1645 of the Italian opera the French people were prepared to receive with open arms the composer who would combine the more pleasing features of the Italian opera with the national characteristics of France. Lully proved to be the man and as a result his popularity procured for him a monopoly of French opera which made him the leading figure for nearly a hundred years. The French overture is established in the works of Lully; and dramatic truth in the French opera, which has always resisted the Italian tendency of sacrificing dramatic action to musical display, was made a permanent tradition. Jean Philippe Rameau (1683-1764), a musician of far greater genius and learning than Lully, made no essential change in the structure or style of the French grand opera. He increased the variety and expressiveness of the aria and recitative; he greatly enriched the harmony, and made a long step in advance through the greater importance given to the accompaniment. He so far revealed the latent power of the orchestra that he may be considered one of the founders of modern orchestration."—E. Dickinson, *Study of the history of music*, pp. 102-103.

ALSO IN: W. J. Henderson, *Masters of French music*.—A. W. Locke, *Music and the romantic movement in France*.—D. G. Mason, *Art of music*.—E. Naumann, *History of music*.—C. H. H. Parry, *Oxford history of music: Music of the seventeenth century*, v. 3.

1650-1739.—Later school of Venice.—Andrea and Giovanni Gabrieli.—"The Venetian school, after its earliest period produced two great composers from one family. These were Andrea Gabrieli (1510-1586) and his nephew Giovanni Gabrieli (1557-1613). The former followed Willaert's plan of writing for antiphonal choruses, but he employed most frequently three instead of two. The latter was more of an instrumental composer than his uncle, and hence conceived the idea of writing instrumental accompaniments. In his 'Surrexit Christus' he used an orchestral accompaniment of first and second violins, two cornets, and four trombones. This work of Giovanni Gabrieli's fairly marks the termination of the era of a *capella* (unaccompanied) polyphonic church music. The opera had been born, and so had the oratorio, and church music began to borrow ideas from them. Giovanni Legrenzi (1625-1600) increased Gabrieli's orchestra to nineteen violins, two

violins, three viole da gamba, four theorboes (lutes of large size), two cornets, one bassoon, and three trombones. Antonio Lotti (1667-1740) was an opera writer as well as a church composer. . . . His later works are full of passages in which the voices alternate with the instruments and there are accompanied solos and choruses. With Lotti, who used unaccompanied choruses occasionally, we bid a final farewell to the great period of a *capella* church music, and enter upon the era in which music for the church was made in the same way as other kinds."—W. J. Henderson, *How music developed*, pp. 78-79.

1650-1827.—Sonatists.—Scarlatti to Beethoven.—About 1650, composers began to apply the term "sonata" to pieces for a small group of instruments or for a solo instrument with accompaniment. Domenico Scarlatti (1685-1757) "may truly be called the father of the modern pianoforte school. . . . Domenico's operas have been forgotten, but his pieces 'for the Gravi-Cembalo,' (one of the predecessors of the pianoforte) are as alive today as when they were composed. . . . In treating the clavicembalo as a medium for solo performance Domenico Scarlatti was in some degree forestalled by a famous Frenchman, Francois Couperin [1631-1688] . . . who may be said to have fixed the style of the *Partita* or 'Suite de Pieces,' a cycle of dances of the period, which became the model of a multitude of similar compositions."—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsythe, *History of music*, pp. 222-223.—"It is from the Italians that our modern style of violin music sprang, but in the department of clavier sonata the Italians were not so prominent. . . . The clavier sonata was cultivated with greater musical success by the Germans. They, in their turn, were not so highly successful as violinists, and rather preferred the keyed instruments; perhaps because they were less attracted to melody than to harmony. Bach's sons and pupils were distinguished for their works of this order, more especially the second son, *Karl Philipp Emanuel* (1714-1788). Like all the representatives of his generation, he was affected to a certain degree by the Italian influence, springing from the universal popularity of the Italian opera throughout Europe. But he kept more of the artistic vigor and genuineness of his father than of his . . . contemporaries. He wrote an immense number of sonatas, which are the best representative works of their kind in the interval between the days of Bach and Handel and the time of Haydn; and it was his sonatas which Haydn especially studied in early years as models for his own efforts in the same line."—L. Elson, *Modern music and musicians*, pp. 40-41.—Secular music, through the labors of the seventeenth-century composers, gradually acquired definiteness of aim and technical resources; in the work of Josef Haydn (1732-1800) and Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1750-1791), it reached maturity of self-consciousness; and Ludwig van Beethoven (1770-1827) brought it to perfection. Haydn perfected the sonata form but his work belongs to the style and idiom, of a bygone generation, and seems to close an epoch; Mozart enriched it with his wonderful genius; Beethoven enlarged the forms, of Haydn and Mozart, and brought the sonata to a point which would seem to indicate the highest possible development. "The commanding position which Beethoven holds in the history of art cannot be stated in a single formula . . . In some of his works there is conformity to a type, in others a defiant assertion of individualism. The classic sonata form (symphony, quartet, solo sonata, etc.) . . . attained in him its complete maturity in outline and contents."—E. Dickin-

son, *Study of the history of music*, p. 172.—See also below: 1700-1827.

ALSO IN: E. J. Dent, *Alessandro Scarlatti: His life and works*.—O. Jahn, *Mozart* (tr. by P. D. Townsend).—A. F. Pohl, *Joseph Haydn*.—A. W. Thayer, *Beethoven* (tr. by H. E. Krehbiel).

1660-1694.—English music during the Restoration.—Henry Purcell.—Music declined, in England, after the death of Orlando Gibbons (1583-1625), the contributing causes were: the fanaticism of the Puritans; and the unsettled state of affairs during the reign of Charles I. Under the influence of Charles II and the inspiration of Henry Purcell, music attained its former importance and even rose to such a height that for a short time, England boasted a national school of opera. "The dramatic form that led toward the opera was the 'masque' originally imported from Italy in the 16th century, but specially developed by English poets. This was a piece of private theatricals in which members of high society in disguise (whence the name) acted out a mythological or other fanciful story with dialogue and declamation, much dancing, elaborate scenic effects and as time went on, considerable singing and incidental pieces for instruments. Throughout the century almost all leading English composers wrote masque music and thus gradually the musical masque became important sometimes under the Italian name opera. Its development into a national type of musical drama hardly came to pass but the operatic genius Purcell was influenced by it more or less."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, p. 188.—"Henry Purcell in 1675, when only a boy of seventeen, showed a master hand in his setting of *Dido and Aeneas*. . . . He showed the way clearly to the treatment of the solo voice as a dramatic exponent of a situation in aria form, as distinct from recitative. . . . What had been a tentative experiment in the hands of Lully [see above; MODERN: 1645-1764], became in his a vital force."—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsythe, *History of music*, pp. 220-221.

1675-1764.—School of Naples.—Alessandro Scarlatti.—"The line of progress in the development of opera in Italy next passes from Venice to Naples where the *bel canto* school was founded by Alessandro Scarlatti (greatest harmonist of Italy). The influence of Scarlatti (1659-1725) as composer (he practically created the language of classical music), teacher and director extended all over Europe and he with at least thirteen pupils attained European renown as opera writers and members of the Neapolitan school which dominated Italian opera in the 18th century." (See also below: 1813-1868.) The Neapolitan school had adopted the polyphonic Church style of the Venetians, the oratorio from Rome, and the musical drama from Florence, but the new school paid more attention to the melodic outline of the highest voice. "Under the Neapolitan regime the musical form in the opera—a succession of *da capo* arias separated by recitative—took precedence over the dramatic form to the utter disregard of the latter and not until the advent of Gluck (see below: 1700-1827) did reform set in."—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsythe, *History of music*, p. 222.—Leonardo Leo (1694-1744) was the first of the Neapolitan school to obtain complete mastery over modern harmonic counterpoint.

ALSO IN: E. J. Dent, *Alessandro Scarlatti: His life and works*.—D. G. Mason, *Art of music*.—E. Naumann, *History of music* (tr. by F. Praeger).

1700-1827.—Masters of music of the classical school: Bach, Handel, Gluck, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven.—"That part of musical history of which

[Johann Sebastian] Bach [1685-1750] and [George Frederick] Handel [1685-1759] are the chief ornaments is, even apart from them, a momentous period. In every branch of the musician's industry it is equally true that nothing remained at the end of that period exactly as it had been at the beginning; and the changes through which each branch of the art had to pass were such as affected its whole being and essence. Perhaps no half century has seen such radical alterations in ideals, in methods, both creative and interpretative, and in the relations between musicians and the outer world, as that period which roughly coincides with the first half of the eighteenth century. Stated in terms of the lifetime of one or two men, the rapidity of the changes seems remarkable; but when it is remembered that the death of Henry Purcell was only separated from the birth of Mozart by an interval of sixty-one years, it is easier to realize how extensive a phase of development had to be passed through in a space of time which, in any other history, would seem impossibly short for any transition less momentous than an actual revolution. And none of the great artistic revolutions fall into this period; that sudden substitution of the monodic style for the polyphonic which affected all countries alike, coincides, . . . with the junction of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and the operatic reforms which we associate with the name of Gluck lie just past the middle of the eighteenth. These crises, the two nearest in time to the lifetime of Bach and Handel, must each of them be kept in mind if we would study the influence and tendencies of the period that lies between them; for even a century after the old art of the motet and the madrigal had been superseded by the simpler yet more expressive methods of musical utterance, men were still far from realizing all that the change involved; . . . while in the latter years of the period under consideration, we are compelled to study the gradual progress of that operatic convention from which Gluck set the world free. . . . The two giants who dominate the earlier half of the eighteenth century had little or no direct . . . connexion with either of the revolutions referred to, although Handel had a good deal to say to the process by which opera was so conventionalized as to require complete reform. It was only in a slight degree that the various structural changes in music concerned the two greatest composers of their time. . . . The genius of the two men worked in exactly opposite directions; and if in studying Handel we seem to have our eyes turned always toward the past, in Bach we are continually brought face to face with idioms and turns of expression which are so much of the essence of modern music, that the student is tempted to imagine that the art has made no progress since Bach. . . . The various parallels and contrasts between the lives of Bach and Handel, and the methods of their work, . . . have a peculiar significance, since with these Masters began that supremacy of German music which lasted without a break from the year in which both were born down to the date of the death of Brahms, a period of 212 years. . . . The German supremacy once begun, we shall not go far wrong if we seek henceforth among German musicians the best illustrations of the various tendencies which swayed the world of music during this period. . . . All forms and all materials of music, . . . were in a state of fusion during the lifetime of Bach and Handel; two alone of the whole number attained in this period, their full growth and that point of their development beyond which no further progress was possible. These two forms

are the fugue and the oratorio; and the two, by something more than a mere coincidence, are inseparably connected with the names of Bach and Handel respectively. Bach's position in regard to the fugue is precisely that of Beethoven towards the sonata; that is to say, the form attained, in his hands, to an eloquence, a directness of expression, and a vitality, which gave the crowning touch to the structure upon which so many other hands had laboured. . . . In much the same way the oratorio found its highest and ultimate expression in the maturest work of Handel, . . . and it is generally held that the last great writer of oratorios, as well as the first, was Handel. With all other forms of music the case was different; the sonata . . . had to wait for a far later date before its perfection was reached under Beethoven; in the history of the opera our period is one of cold convention, without any kind of organic life; church music had many further stages of development to attain which were unguessed at by the men of Handel's days. . . . One of the most momentous changes which was taking place all through the lifetime of Bach and Handel was the transition from the strict counterpoint of their predecessors, to the free part-writing of their followers."—J. Fuller Maitland, *Oxford history of music*, v. 4, pp. 1-6.—"John Sebastian Bach (1685-1750), revered today as the 'father of modern music [Bach marks the culmination of the polyphonic period, as well as the beginning of the new homophonic-harmonic period], came of one of the most musical families in the history of the world. In the words of Robert Schumann 'To John Sebastian Bach, music owes as great a debt as does a religion to its founder.' The obligations of modern music to Bach are well summed up. As a writer for the organ and clavichord, of orchestral works, and of passion music he was a composer of distinction. His 'Well-tempered Clavichord,' a series of compositions written for the purpose of disseminating the system of equal temperament, and his 'Twenty-four Preludes and Fugues' have been the basis of education of every organist and pianist even down to our own day. His sacred cantatas and passion music stand above any ever written. His relation to the Protestant choral is analogous to Palestrina's relation to the Gregorian Chant. Among the five Passions which Bach is believed to have written, only two are preserved, namely, the Passions according to St. John and St. Matthew, the later being considered the greater of the two. To sum up in a single statement the greatness of Bach is to say that 'he was the culmination of all the greatness of the contrapuntal school, combined with the deep poetic insight into the true ideality of music. For this reason his works may be regarded as the embodiment of the science of music, yet they will always make a direct appeal to the human heart.'"—A. Faulkner, *What we hear in music*, p. 91.—"George Frederic Handel (1685-1750), [born Halle an der Saale] while contemporaneous with the great Bach and the German School, had also identified himself with the Italian opera of the day, directing and composing operas in London for a period of about 20 years. His place in history, however, as an opera writer belongs wholly to the eighteenth century Italian School. He wrote over forty operas and while they were superior to those of his contemporaries according to some opinions, they are practically not known today, owing to the poor libretti, obsolete musical and dramatic dialect. His contribution to music, therefore, as stated above, rests in the field of oratorio. 'The Messiah,' 'Samson,' 'Saul,' and 'Judas Maccabaeus'

are his greatest works. They mark the culmination of the oratorio form."—C. H. Parry, *Evolution of the art of music*, p. 206.—According to some authorities Handel's genius and overwhelming popularity seemed to inhibit the flow of native English talent for more than a century and a half. "About the middle of the eighteenth century the indolence of fashionable audiences and the short-sighted egotism of popular singers had reduced the opera to such a state of monotonous and mechanical dullness, that a reaction was inevitable. Slight changes and improvements were frequently attempted by various composers, but the name with which the most definite attempts at general reform are associated is that of Christoph Willibald Gluck (1714-1787). Gluck's position in musical history, particularly with respect to the development of the opera, is very similar to Wagner's in recent times. . . . But he labored under the obvious disadvantage of living at a time when the development of resources, such as are characteristic of regular modern music, was yet slender. The arts of orchestration were only just beginning to be understood and the arts of dramatic expression of the modern type were both limited in amount and but vague in general character, while the subtler possibilities of modulation were hardly thought of. Like Wagner he was not gifted with musical powers of any very exceptional caliber to start with . . . but he developed what he had with exceptional success under the influence of great dramatic and poetic sympathy and insight. His later work is unique in style and in the dignified sincerity with which he treats great and pathetic situations. Even when he had to compromise with popular taste, as in the excessive use of the ballet which was required by the French audiences, he succeeded in making it tell as part of the dramatic effect, and the same may be said of his use of arias which he dispensed with as much as possible in favor of a shorter and more concentrated form of solo; while he raised the recitative whenever possible to a high degree of dramatic interest."—L. Elson, *Modern music and musicians*, p. 43.—The central purpose of Gluck's reforms was to return to the principles laid down by Peri, and the members of the "Camerata" by restoring to the opera its real dramatic truth and power. (See above: Modern: 1575-1676.) His "Orfeo ed Euridice" was the first attempt at the revised style of opera. This was given in Vienna, in 1702, and was followed by "Alceste" in 1707. In 1773 Gluck went to Paris at the invitation of Marie Antoinette, where he met with great success in his "Iphigenie en Aulide." His radical ideas caused a great furor in Paris and the opposing champions of the Italian opera headed by Piccini pitted themselves against him in a desperate struggle for the supremacy of Italian opera. (See below: 1730-1816.) The controversy was one of the bitterest the musical world has ever known with a final victory for Gluck, the reformer of French opera. While Gluck founded no particular school of music his influence has been felt down to the days of Richard Wagner. "The artistic crisis which Mozart and Haydn represent is so important that the nature of musical advance made by them in the instrumental line may here be fitly summed up. Before their time, the only two branches in which first-rate and mature work of the harmonic kind had been done were the violin sonatas written chiefly by the great Italian violinists . . . and the clavichord sonatas. [See above: MODERN: 1650-1827.] The scope of movements was small and without much development, and the ideas even in the best examples

were rather indefinite. By the end of their time instrumental art had branched out into a very large number of distinct and complete forms; such as symphonies, concertos, quartettes, trios and sonatas for violin and clavier. . . . Between them they had completely transformed the treatment of the orchestra. . . . There is hardly any branch or department of art which does not seem to have been brought to high technical perfection by them; and if the world could be satisfied with the ideal of perfectly organized simplicity, without any great force of expression, instrumental art might well have stopped at the point to which they brought it. Joseph Haydn (1732-1809) was the first great man to trace out the course which instrumental music was to take after the death of the great J. S. Bach. So powerful was the impetus which he gave to the homophonic cyclic form, and so rapid its growth that he has been called the father of the symphony sonata and string quartet. Haydn saw very clearly the possibilities of instrumental music and the application of the sonata form to its various classes. Among Haydn's works we find nearly 700 instrumental pieces of which 125 are symphonies. His vocal works include masses, motets and oratorios. His oratorio 'The Creation' which rivals Handel's 'Messiah' and Mendelssohn's 'Elijah' has done as much to insure his fame as his instrumental works. Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756-1791) the great connecting link between Haydn and Beethoven was the most universal genius the musical world has ever known. He worked in every branch of the art known at his time, and in them all showed a sensitive, spontaneous musical temperament the most complete illustration in music history. Of his 49 symphonies, the E flat, G minor and the C major (Jupiter) are the greatest. As composer of opera, Mozart is still ranked among the first. His dramatic works show marked individual genius [and the simplicity of a highly trained mind] without much regard for the previous reforms of Gluck. His most popular operas 'The Marriage of Figaro,' 'Don Giovanni' and the 'Magic Flute' were never more studied and admired than at the present day."—C. H. Parry, *Evolution of the art of music*, pp. 247-248.—"The spirit of human equality which voiced itself at the close of the eighteenth century in the American and French Revolution influenced also all forms of art. One result was that artists who had before depended upon wealthy patrons for their maintenance now found means of support and inspiration in public patronage; another was that they turned their attention from classic subjects and ideals of abstract beauty to the consideration of every-day life and the thoughts of the every-day individual. In Germany, after Napoleon's overthrow, a vital national spirit arose which furnished still greater incentive to such study; and poets and musicians began to take for their subjects not only the real peasant life, but also the rich fund of traditions and myths perpetuated in German folk-lore. Thus arose the romantic school [see below: 1818-1880] . . . which rendered these subject to the intense expression of individual emotion."—C. G. Hamilton, *Outlines of music history*, p. 141.—"Ludwig van Beethoven (1770-1827) stands just at the turning-point of the ways of modern art, and combines the sum of past human effort in the direction of musical design with the first ripe utterance of the modern impulse—made possible by the great accumulation of artistic resources—in the direction of human expression. After him the course of things naturally changed. In the art of the century before him formality was prominent and expression very

restrained; in the times after him the conditions were reversed, and the instinct of man was impelled to resent the conventions of form which seemed to fetter his imagination, and began his wanderings and experiments anew in the irrepresible conviction that every road must lead somewhere. A new artistic crisis had been passed, similar to the crisis of Palestrina and Bach, but implying a still greater organization and a richer accumulation of actual resources than was available for either of the earlier masters."—C. H. Parry, *Evolution of the art of music*, p. 273.—"In mastery of form and affluence of invention he [Palestrina] holds a place among the foremost creative intellects in the history of art. The most powerful currents in the nineteenth century music (the romanticism of Schumann, Liszt, Berlioz; the Wagnerian music drama) to a large extent take their point of departure from Beethoven. No one disputes his pre-eminence as sonata and symphony writer. In these two departments he completes the movements of the eighteenth century in the development of the cyclical homophonic form, and is the first and greatest exponent of that principle of individualism which has given the later instrumental music its typical character."—E. Dickinson, *Study of the history of music*, p. 172.—"As Beethoven was such an intensely subjective composer, a knowledge of his personality and environment is indispensable for a complete appreciation of his works. Beethoven, Ludwig van (1770-1827), born on the Rhine, though his active career is associated with Vienna, may be called the first thinker in music; for at last the art is brought into correlation with man's other powers and becomes a living reflex of the tendencies and activities of the period. Notwithstanding the prodigious vitality of Bach's work, we feel that his musical sense operated abstractly like a law of Nature and that he was an unconscious embodiment, as it were, of a deep religious sentiment of his time and of the sturdy independence of his race. . . . Beethoven's music, however, in its intense personality and as a vivid expression of the ideals of his fellow men, was different from any the world had heard before. . . . He is the embodiment of that spirit of individualism of human freedom and self-respect which found its expression in the French Revolution, in our own American War of Independence and in the entire alternation of social standards. . . . He was the first musician to free himself from the enervating influence of having to write exclusively for aristocratic patronage. Such was the social emancipation of the period that he could address himself at first hand to a musical public eagerly receptive and constantly growing. . . . Since Beethoven's works compel a man to think for himself the constructive power of the creator must be met with an analogous activity on the part of the receptive hearer. The symphonies, for example, are more than cunningly contrived works of musical art; they are human documents of undying power to quicken and exalt the soul which will submit itself to their influence. Beethoven's great instrumental compositions are few in number in comparison with the voluminous and uneven output of his predecessors. Thus from Haydn we have 125 symphonies, from Mozart about 40, from Beethoven 9. . . . Condensation of subject matter, conciseness of style, a ceaseless exaltation of quality above quantity are the prominent features in Beethoven's work. . . . Beethoven's life is of supreme interest and importance, for his music is the direct expression of himself, of his joys and sorrows. . . . To touch . . . upon a few of the formal aspects of Beethoven's work, as far as ver-

bal analysis can help, it may be asserted that he is the acknowledged master of the Sonata Form as Bach was of the Fugue, and in his hands this form, and also the Air with Variations, were raised to a potency the influence of which is felt even to-day. . . . We are now in a position to approach . . . the mighty works of Beethoven which, though built upon the foundations of Haydn and Mozart, yet take us into an entirely new world of power and fancy. . . . Each of Beethoven's symphonies has its characteristic attributes and each is the work of a genius. . . . The First Symphony is somewhat experimental, composed when Beethoven was working out his technique of expression. . . . In the Third Symphony (Heroic) the complete Beethoven steps forth. It was his declaration of independence and in this work . . . he began a completely new line of activity. . . . The Fifth . . . is undoubtedly the most popular of them all, in the true sense of the term. . . . The Sixth or Pastoral, Beethoven's one excursion into the realm of tone-painting based on natural phenomena, is of interest more as a point of departure for the work of his successors than for its intrinsic message. . . . The Ninth Symphony, composed in the philosophic period of Beethoven's life, when he was attempting still greater heights, is a vast work, the first three movements purely instrumental, and the Finale, for the first time, in symphonic literature, a union of solo voices and chorus with the instrumental forces."—W. R. Spalding, *Music: An art and a language*, pp. 122-124, 126, 127, 129-131.—"As we take a last backward glance over the life of Beethoven, and over that larger life of the art of music in the classical period, of which it was the final stage, we cannot but be profoundly impressed by the unity and continuity of the whole evolution. From its first and tentative beginnings in the experiments of the Florentine reformers [see above: Modern: 1575-1676], secular music. . . . acquired . . . definiteness of aim and technical resources. . . . In the work of Haydn and Mozart, it reached the stage of maturity, of self-consciousness, . . . [and] was brought by Beethoven to its ripe perfection, its full flowering. . . . It reached the fullness of life beyond which it could have gone, only by breaking itself up into new types, as the old plant scatters forth seeds. And even these new types were dimly divined, and suggested to his successors, by Beethoven. Was it not his effort to express, in absolute music, the most various shades of personal, highly specialized feeling, . . . that inspired the romantic composers, Schubert, Schumann, Chopin, and their fellows to pursue even further the same quest? Was it not his feeling out toward novel dramatic effects in the combined chorus and orchestra, in the Ninth Symphony, that showed Wagner the path he must take? Was it not his attempts defeated by insufficient technical skill, to combine the polyphony of the Sixteenth century with the harmony and rhythmic structure of the nineteenth, that suggested to Brahms, more fully equipped, his great enterprise? Thus even the failures of a great man are full of promise; and Beethoven, and all his forerunners too, still live and speak to us in the music of to-day."—D. G. Mason, *Beethoven and his forerunners*, pp. 350-352.

ALSO IN: F. Chrysander, *Handel*.—O. Jahn, *Mozart* (tr. by P. D. Townsend).—A. W. Lock, *Music and the romantic movement in France*.—C. H. Parry, *Johann Sebastian Bach*.—C. F. Pohl, *Joseph Haydn*.—P. Spitta, *John Sebastian Bach* (tr. by B. Fuller-Maitland).—A. W. Thayer, *Life of Beethoven* (tr. by H. E. Krehbiel).

1730-1816.—Italian opera buffa.—Pergolesi to

Rossini.—"Towards the end of the seventeenth and the beginning of the eighteenth century, serious opera in Italy, had come to consist mainly of an interminable series of airs and duets relieved only by a final chorus. . . . In order to relieve the monotony . . . it had become customary to introduce between the acts an *interlude* in the form, sometimes of a *ballet*, sometimes of a little *comedy*—the characters being borrowed from the traditional Italian *Masque*. . . . The absolute freedom of treatment permitted in these little entr'actes released such exuberance of activity hitherto suppressed—that, . . . in the midst of the foregoing stagnation the life of music was renewed. Out of the free style of these slight compositions, fraught as they were with an irresistible buffoonery—though never divested of amiable feeling—there grew a more versatile originality—more variety in vocal style, a subtler feeling of the scene and richer instrumentation—than had ever existed before in opera properly so-called. Thus arose Opera Buffa. . . . This form and character of piece took root outside serious opera, and the two forms of opera went on independently. When fully developed Opera Buffa consisted of two acts—a grand finale coming in at the end of the first, and this division remained classical up to the last century. The new style began its flight with [Giovanni Battista] Pergolesi [1710-1736]. Rinaldo da Capua (. . . 1719) . . . applied to comic and half-comic opera a more finished style of instrumentation than his predecessors. . . . [Nicholas] Logroscino (. . . born about 1700), increased still further the proportions of the *finale*. [Thomas] Traetta (1727-1779), was bold in modulation and ingenious in his orchestration. . . . Guglielmi (1727-1803) is classed with Cimarosa [1749-1801] and [Giovanni] Paësiello [1741-1816] as among the greatest masters of the Italian school. . . . Nicholas Piccini (1728-1800) [of whom it can be said] . . . no composer revealed a greater elegance in melody or more touching grace of expression . . . was among those Italian composers that exercised a very important influence upon the French school. . . . Giuseppe Sarti, contemporary of Piccini—celebrated in the archives of Opera Buffa by the 'Gelosie villane' (1770); . . . and above all, by the 'Noces de Dorine,' containing a sextet which is one of the finest things in the repertory of Italian comic opera. . . . Giovanni Paësiello (1741-1816) wrote 'Frascatani' so rich in melody, . . . and the capital piece of buffoonery, 'Marchese Tulipano.' . . . Cimarosa (1740-1801) the greatest master of this period, and one of the greatest of all time. His *chef-d'oeuvre* in the comic vein is 'Il Matrimonio segreto,' an incomparable specimen of French gaiety without noisiness, combining a charming delicacy of expression with a deep feeling of the spirit of the scene. Soon after Cimarosa . . . another change in the direction of greater variety in expression began to prepare—and particularly a new wave of melody.—The tendencies of this change were caught up and set forth organically by [Gioacchino] Rossini [1792-1868] and carried on in new phases of expression by Bellini and Donizetti."—J. Goddard, *Rise and development of opera*, ch. 2, pp. 14-18, 22.—See also below: 1813-1868.—With the aria the Neapolitan school had given to music that form which was soon to bring about a general decline of dramatic music. Composers did not waste time in studying counterpoint and polyphonic writing when success was easily won by writing pretty melodies. (See also ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1600-1800.) "The original conception of the *opéra-comique* as a portrayal of the humorous side of life was main-

tained by a brilliant company of writers, the most racy of whom before Auber was François-Adrien Boieldieu (1775-1834). . . . The king of opéra-comique in the generation following Boieldieu was Daniel-François Auber (1782-1871). . . . His works combine in a representative degree those qualities of wit, grace and vivacity that especially characterize the lighter French drama. . . . Among other writers of opéra-comique the most successful in this period were Louis Hérold (1791-1833) and Adolph Adam (1803-1856).—E. Dickinson, *Study of the history of music*, pp. 299-300.—“Another striking fact in the history of the French opera of the nineteenth century is the great share given to its development by foreign musicians. Among the most distinguished writers of French opera beginning with Gluck, a German, are Cherubini, Spontini and Rossini, Italians [see above: Modern: 1730-1816] and Meyerbeer and Offenbach, Germans [see below: 1774-1866]. . . . The early education and the native habit of these Italian and German composers could not be outgrown, and the result of all the influences involved has been a form of music which, if not cosmopolitan, is eclectic rather than strictly French.”—*Ibid.*, p. 295.—See also below: 1830-1921.

1730-1816.—French Opéra Comique.—Master of this school: Gluck.—“The rapid development of German instrumental music, and the powers of dramatic expression revealed in the orchestra of Mozart, Beethoven and Weber, must be recognized as one of the chief vitalizing forces in the creation of the new French opera. [See also above: Modern: 1700-1827.] Add to these influences the strongly developed dramatic sense of the French people which from the days of Lully, separated the whole conception and treatment of the French opera from the Italian.”—E. Dickinson, *Study of the history of music*, p. 295.—“With the triumphant close of the campaign of Gluck, Paris became the head centre of European opera, and remained so throughout the greater part of the nineteenth century. . . . Notwithstanding what we now see to be the world-wide significance, of Mozart’s ‘Figaro’ and ‘Don Giovanni,’ Beethoven’s ‘Fidelio’ and Weber’s ‘Der Freischütz,’ . . . their success was at first local and temporary. The opera must pass through several important stages before the lyric drama of Wagner could effect its conquest, and the history of the opera in Paris may be considered as an inevitable preliminary so far at least as the education of public appreciation is concerned. The old, Italian ‘god and hero’ opera and the French grand opera of Lully had been drained by Gluck of whatever vitality they possessed; the old forms were but shells and could be discarded, and styles more suited, to the needs of the new age appeared in their stead. It is somewhat difficult to classify the numerous French operas of the nineteenth century among the several genres. Theoretically there are two categories—the grand opera—and the opéra comique. . . . The confusion lies in the second class, for the opéra comique, . . . [originated] in the eighteenth century in the vaudeville [during this first period the productions somewhat resemble the German Singspiel. It] gradually expanded and elevated its music and its subjects, and reduced the space given to the spoken dialogue, until in certain later works pathetic and cheerful scenes are mingled as in the higher grade of spoken comedy, and in some instances the subject is even tragic and the dialogue given in recitative. In such cases there is no apparent distinction between the grand opera and the opéra-comique, [the only comical thing is the name], and their designation depends merely upon the theatre.

—Académie de Musique or Opéra-Comique—in which they are performed.”—E. Dickinson, *Study of the history of music*, p. 293.

Also in: W. J. Henderson, *Masters of French music*.

1740.—Mannheim symphonists.—“There is yet another branch of instrumental music which was very slow in developing, but has come in later days to form one of the most conspicuous features of the art. . . . All the composers of the early part of the eighteenth century, even the giants, had been especially backward in feeling for orchestral effect. They used instruments of most diverse tone-quality in a purely contrapuntal manner, just as they would have used voices, or the independent parts of an organ composition . . . and it was not till they had to write independent instrumental movements that the requirements of instrumentation began to dawn upon them. The first occasions which induced composers to attempt independent orchestral movements of the harmonic kind were for the symphonies or overtures of operas. These had been written at first as by Scarlatti and Lully, for stringed instruments only, with the occasional addition of trumpet solos. . . . When these ‘symphonies’ or ‘overtures’ came to be played more often apart from the operas, both composers and performers began to realise that they were wasting opportunities by slovenliness. . . . Among the men who had an important share in the early development of orchestral music, a Bohemian violinist named [Johann W. A.] Stamitz [1717-1757, and his two sons, Anton and Karl], seem to have been most noteworthy. . . . He succeeded in developing the best orchestra in Europe and established a tradition which lasted long after he had passed away, even till Mozart came through Mannheim on his way to Paris, and had an opportunity of hearing what refined orchestral playing was like . . . with important results to the world in general. A similar line was pursued by the Belgian [François Joseph] Gossec [1734-1829] in Paris. . . . The enormous number of symphonies which were produced . . . in those days [these works are an indispensable connecting link between the Italian sonatists and the great German classical masters] . . . proves that public taste was gravitating strongly towards orchestral music. . . . By the time that Haydn and Mozart arrived upon the scene this scheme of instrumental music was fairly established, but it had been used by most composers before their time crudely, obviously and mechanically. . . . It was the superior artistic instinct of Mozart and Haydn which led them to . . . develop and organise the system of design to a very high degree of perfection.”—C. H. Parry, *Evolution of music*, pp. 206-207, 209-210, 241-242, 247.

1750-1870.—English music since Handel.—“That there was a remarkable school of music in England as early as the thirteenth century, is known definitely [see above: 1226-1622] . . . but the free expression of musical thought which was born with the opera in Florence was seriously handicapped in England by the Civil Wars of the seventeenth century, and the attitude of the Puritans under Cromwell. The English dramatic form of the seventeenth century was known as the Masque (as stated above) and the most prominent names of English composers, who contributed to this form of music, are: Henry Lawes (1595-1662); William Lawes (1582-1645), Pelham Humphrey (1647-1674) and Henry Purcell (1658-1695), the last great English composer until our present day. At the time of Handel, an English ‘Singspiel,’ commonly known as the ‘Ballad Opera,’ made its

appearance. . . . Several well known English musicians are associated with this form; among them being Henry Carey (1685-1743), said to be the composer of 'God Save the King,' Thomas Arne (1710-1778), composer of 'Rule Britannia' and Sir Henry Rowley Bishop (1786-1855). . . . During the early nineteenth century Michael Balfe (1808-1870) an Irishman, wrote some excellent operas and operettas, his most famous work being the 'Bohemian Girl.'—A. Faulkner, *What we hear in music*, pp. 136-137.—"In England the public insistence upon a continuation of the ideals and methods of Handel and Mendelssohn put composers for many years under a bondage that made progress impossible. The public refused a fair hearing to the claims of the new romantic school which was revolutionizing musical thought and production upon the continent, took its stand upon the classical traditions in instrumental music, discouraged opera and made religious music, in the Anglican anthem and the Handel-Mendelssohn oratorio, its paramount interest. . . . England has therefore done nothing of historic value in opera, symphony or piano music."—E. Dickinson, *Study of the history of music*, pp. 389-390.—"The word *renaissance* when applied to English musical conditions from about 1870 onwards is convenient but slightly inaccurate. It gives an easy group-symbol for a large and unexpected outburst of activity; but it does not either state or explain a fact. *Renaissance* means 'a being born again,' and that implies previous death. But the flame of life had never quite died out. . . . In its church and choral music especially there had always been a flicker of life which at least once in the reigns of Elizabeth and the first James, had blazed up into an astonishing vitality. However, it was not to be expected that the nation could go on living at this white heat. The flame burnt itself down, but not out; and the embers of a national art that had once been great enough to light up the wide spaces of the world smouldered through the eighteenth century and far into the nineteenth. . . . From about the time of Purcell's death onwards (1695) England was engaged in eating up as much of the world as possible. And the result was national indigestion. . . . Hence, began the artistic invasion of England. The foreigner was quick to see his opportunity in the preoccupations of the nation. . . . This deplorable state of affairs continued more or less down to the middle year of the last century. About that time certain forces came into play which have markedly changed the social and artistic conditions of England. And only in this sense can we say that there has been such a thing as a renaissance or rebirth of music. . . . The main fact on which we wish to dwell is that between the years 1870 and 1915 England has been able to assert her nationality in music. . . . In a short sketch like the present it is not possible to discuss fully the changed social conditions which brought about the English musical renaissance. One must, however, mention two forces which acting somewhat blindly on the individual yet produced great effects in the mass. The first of these was the recognition that the man who mattered was the man of the soil. From this recognition sprang the whole folk-song movement—a movement whose depth and importance are still very little understood in America. [See above: Folk-music and nationalism: England.] The second is the growth of healthy, liberal opinions and the partial reconsideration of the English caste-system. On this change the example of democratic American has undoubtedly had great influence. The result of this levelling upwards and downwards can be seen in the fact

that, whereas prior to 1870 the English composer was generally a scallywag, now he is a gentleman."—D. G. Mason, *Art of music*, v. 3, pp. 409-413.

1774-1864.—French Grand Opera.—Cherubini to Meyerbeer.—"The first of the naturalized Italians to contribute important works to the modern French school was Luigi Cherubini (1760-1842). He was born in Florence, enjoyed a strict training in the counterpoint of the Palestrina school, went to Paris in 1788 and became conspicuous as a writer of serious operas. He was successful with the public and was recognized as the most learned musician in France. . . . His importance is mainly historic as one of the founders of that higher form of French opera technically classed as *opéra-comique*, in which serious subjects are treated in a manner similar to that employed in the grand opera; preserving only the spoken dialogue. . . . The spirit of Gluck survived also in his disciple, Etienne-Henri Méhul (1763-1817), who shares with Cherubini the honor of leading the *opéra-comique* into that path of dramatic earnestness and musical breadth in which it has won such distinction. . . . A remarkable career was that of Gasparo Spontini (1774-1851), an Italian who came to Paris in 1803, threw himself into the current of opera set in motion by Gluck, and opened still another view by seizing subjects of an heroic, martial nature, and setting them forth with an unprecedented pomp of scenic parade and orchestral splendor. Such themes also hit a ruling taste during the Napoleonic régime, and Spontini has been generally described as the dramatic interpreter of the spirit of French imperialism. . . . The French grand opera entered upon a new career of glory under the guidance of Rossini, Auber and Meyerbeer. [Gioachino Rossini 1792-1868] made his permanent residence in Paris in 1824, revived some of his earlier works and modified them out of deference to French taste by pruning away some of their vocal redundancies, broadening the recitative and giving more space to concerted scenes and choruses. The climax of his effort to naturalize himself as a French composer was in his 'Guillaume Tell,' produced in the Academie in 1829. [See also below: 1813-1868.] In the development of the French heroic opera, on the way to its culmination in the hands of Meyerbeer, 'Tell' is a transition work. So also was its famous rival of 1828, Auber's 'La Muette de Portici.' . . . The history of French grand opera culminates in Giacomo Meyerbeer (1791-1864). He was a German Jew, born in Berlin; was a fellow pupil of Weber at Munich for a time and wrote one or two German operas; then went to Italy and adopted the Rossini manner; went to Paris in 1826, changed his direction a second time and built up the style by which he is now known. His chief works are 'Robert le Diable,' 'Les Huguenots,' 'Le Prophète,' . . . 'Dinorah' and 'L'Africaine.' The first three in this list are those which have given him his fame. The success of Meyerbeer's three chief operas was hardly less in Germany than in France. From the first appearance of 'Robert le Diable' until the opening of the Bayreuth theatre Meyerbeer dominated the German stage. The only composer in Meyerbeer's genre who could be called a rival was Jacques Halévy (1790-1862) whose grand opera, 'La Juive' compounded of elements very similar to those of Meyerbeer's 'historic' operas contains enough of dramatic force and musical beauty to give it an honored place upon the French stage."—E. Dickinson, *Study of the history of music*, pp. 297-298, 301-302.

ALSO IN: W. J. Henderson, *Masters of French*

music.—A. W. Locke, *Music and the romantic movement in France*.

1774-1908.—Early American music.—More recent development.—“American music was at first planted in a very sterile soil; both Pilgrims and Puritans were opposed to the development of the musical art, yet, by an irony of fate, their psalm-singing became the cradle which cherished the music of America. . . . There never was an innovation made in the Puritan or Pilgrim church, but that a vehement storm of opposition arose in some quarters. . . . Some believed it right to sing, but thought it wrong to sing the Psalms of David; others believed that Christians should not sing at all, but only praise God with their hearts; some believed it wrong for any but Christians to sing; and others thought that only one should sing, while the assembly should join in silence, and respond Amen. . . . It will readily be understood . . . that from such seeds . . . no very bountiful harvest of native compositions could result.”—L. Elson, *National music of America*, pp. 29, 38-39, 67.—“The first American composer was probably Francis Hopkinson (1737-91). [Mr. Oscar Sonneck, when chief of the Music Division of the National Library at Washington, revealed the fact that American music began with the publication of Hopkinson's “My Days Have Been So Wondrous Free.”] . . . William Billings (1740-1800), of Boston, was a composer of somewhat more advanced style. He was a tanner's apprentice at first, but he soon began chalking musical exercises on the sides of leather. By 1770 he published an original collection, ‘The New England Psalm Singer,’ which established his reputation. . . . Other hymn composers, of later date, were Oliver Holden, Samuel Holyoke, Jacob Kimball, Henry Oliver, Daniel Read and Lowell Mason [1792-1872].”—A. Elson, *Book of musical knowledge*, p. 288.—“The development of advanced musical interest in America seems anomalous when compared with contemporaneous European experience, though, if one were to go back far enough, some analogies might be found. In rapidity and variety, however, it is phenomenal. . . . [The] American situation is far too complex to lend itself to brief statement, but it has several points of interest. A change began to be seen about 1850. Before that time operatic singers and instrumental virtuosi had found welcome, but music of importance was exotic and sporadic. The influx of well-trained foreign musicians, the influence of native-born student who went abroad for culture, and the general rise of interest in literature and art—all these prepared the way for a healthy expansion. Soon after the Civil War the epochal activity of the great conductor Theodore Thomas (d. 1905) . . . spread a knowledge of orchestral music. . . . Hence, as regards the public performance of important musical works of all kinds, both the appliances and the popular interest to sustain them have advanced with [signal] rapidity. [“The Beggar's Opera,” written by John Gay, 1728, was the first musical play to be produced in America.] Now, New York, at least, is one of the most brilliant operatic centres in the world. A considerable number of . . . permanent orchestras are steadily at work, of which the New York Philharmonic is the oldest and the Boston Symphony . . . the most famous. . . . Choral societies of size and proficiency, are not infrequent, the oldest of importance being the Handel and Haydn Society of Boston founded in 1815. . . . Most of the principal cities are supplied with a notable array of dignified concerts. . . . In general the amount of this public musical life is greatest in the East, the

two chief foci being New York and Boston, but the area of activity has rapidly extended westward . . . and is now reaching the South and Far West as well. Ever since the time of Lowell Mason (d. 1872), working in Boston from 1828, elementary music has found place in some of the public schools. . . . Energetic work is in progress to standardize school instruction and to bring it into relation with the courses offered in higher institutions. . . . Among national societies one of the most efficient is the American Guild of Organists (incorporated in 1896). . . . The aim of the Manuscript Society (formed in 1888) is to foster original composition in all styles. The Music Teachers' National Association (founded in 1876) was designed to band together private teachers for mutual benefit. . . . Several of the great libraries, notably the Library of Congress in Washington, the Public Libraries of New York, Boston, Chicago and many other cities, and those of several universities, have given attention to the gathering of scholarly musical literature of several classes. The collection of instruments at the Metropolitan Museum in New York is famous as one of the largest and best-arranged in the world; others of importance are at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, and at the National Museum in Washington. In touching upon the status of composition in America it is necessary to bear in mind one or two factors that have greatly effected its development. One of these is the comparative recency of interest in the more advanced forms of music . . . and the extremely heterogeneous character of American population. In the pioneer days all the cultured inhabitants were immigrants, coming from diverse points of origin. In the middle period, before the war, homogeneity was being established, but upon different lines in different sections. As these sections have since been drawing together, a new flood of immigration has set in, so extensive and varied as to show that the complexity of races and mental aptitudes is to be far greater than ever before. Because of all this American music has never had a native or national basis like that found in practically all European countries. There is no unconscious folk-music that embodies the national temperament and life. Furthermore, American taste in music has been made extraordinarily eclectic, because . . . of all kinds of influences coming from every principal European country. . . . As knowledge increases, however, it is possible that this very cosmopolitanism of experience may bring forth a better blending of existing styles into one expressive of the most modern feeling that could be reached in any other country.”—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, pp. 648-650.—“The greatest American composer, who won an international reputation, was Edward MacDowell (1861-1908). MacDowell was a devoted student of American music and in several of his large works incorporated Indian themes. He was a modern disciple of program music. . . . The Dean of American composers was John Knowles Paine 1830-1906, who was for many years the Director of Music at Harvard University.”—A. S. Faulkner, *What we hear in music*, p. 140.—“It has often been remarked that the American composer has a rich field of folk music in songs and dances of the Indians, the Negroes, and the Creoles, and much of this material has attracted the attention of European composers as well as those of America. George W. Chadwick (1854), Arthur Foote (1853), Frederick Converse (1871), Charles M. Loefler, and Mrs. H. H. A. Beach, are Boston composers who, one may rightly say, are outgrowths of the Paine School. Other Ameri-

can composers are Walter Damrosch, 1862; Ethelbert Nevin, 1862-1901, who, as a writer of graceful songs and short piano compositions showed a rare individuality; and Victor Herbert, who although a native of Dublin, has won much fame in the United States as a conductor and composer of tuneful comic operas. His grand opera 'Natomá' 1910, shows an interesting use of Indian music. . . . Horatio Parker (1863-1919) one of America's foremost composers, was head of the Yale School of Music until his death, and until 1919, conductor of the New Haven Symphony Orchestra. Other American composers who are helping to develop music in this country are: Howard Brockway, Arthur Farell, Charles Wakefield Cadman, Henry K. Hadley, Henry Holden Huss, Edgar Stillman Kelly, George B. Nevin, Adolph Weidig, John A. Carpenter, Eric Delamarter, . . . Arne Oldberg [and Constantin von Sternberg].—*Ibid.*, p. 140.

ALSO IN: L. C. Elson, *History of American music*.—L. Gilman, *Edward Macdowell*.—J. F. Porte, *Edward MacDowell*.—O. Sonneck, *Early opera in America*.—O. Sonneck, *Miscellaneous studies in the history of music*.

1800-1903.—Growth of musical literature.—“Along with all other lines of intellectual development in the first decades of the [nineteenth] century, the scientific, philosophical and historical discussion of music grew steadily in dimensions and importance. On the side of science, acoustical problems were still further investigated, many . . . questions about rhythmic and metric structure brought into view, the modern doctrines of chord-building and harmonic progression reduced to more satisfactory form, and the systematic presentation of all the technical divisions of composition, . . . made more logical and complete. The leading theorists were almost all teachers at the Paris Conservatoire. . . . Charles Simon Catel (1773-1830) . . . was the first professor of harmony in the Conservatoire [and] his text-book (1802) was used there until about 1820. . . . Jérôme Joseph Momigny (1838) . . . advocated a system like Catel's, though justified by different reasoning. . . . He made the first clear statement of the doctrine of measure, phrase and period. Anton Reicha (1770-1836) . . . won his place chiefly as a teacher and a writer of orchestral and chamber works. In 1818 he followed [Etienne] Méhul (1763-1817) as professor of counterpoint at the Conservatoire. He published an extended treatise . . . and several other theoretical works. Luigi Cherubini (1760-1844) . . . professor at the Conservatoire . . . was recognized as the most powerful contrapunctist of his day. . . . Late in life, assisted by [Jacques] Halévy (1799-1862), he published a famous treatise on counterpoint that is a classic. Gottfried Weber (d. 1839) . . . was an enthusiastic musical student and organizer. Through a diligent use of authorities, . . . he elaborated a compendium of composition . . . which was the most important text book of the period. . . . The discussion of acoustical questions naturally connected itself with Theory and aesthetics. . . . The chief acousticians . . . were Ernst Florens Chladni (1756-1827) who has been called the father of modern acoustics; and Felix Savart (d. 1841), . . . the brilliance of [whose] researches . . . was made known through many technical papers in the *Annales de physique et de chimie*. Among the writers upon aesthetics were the critic [Johann] Rochlitz of Leipsic (d. 1842); Johann Friedrich Herbart (1776-1841); and Karl Christian Friedrich Krause (1781-1832). . . . The practical spirit of the period was illustrated by the energetic efforts to diffuse musical knowledge and

enlarge popular education . . . by various pedagogical plans like those of [Johann] Logier (1780-1846) and [Pierre] Galin (1786-1821). . . . In this period [middle of the nineteenth century] the modern spirit of scholarship became engaged in earnest upon the problems of music-history. At various places original research was prosecuted. . . . Manuscript music and other data were . . . collected, collated and sometimes published. Civil and ecclesiastical records began to be searched for statistical facts. Investigations of the sources thus provided the materials for sound history. . . . It was not until after 1850 that the results began to show in many comprehensive manuals. [François Joseph Fétis (1784-1871) was the most important of the scholars in the early part of the century. His greatest literary work was the 'Biographie universelle'—the first of the great biographical dictionaries. Edmond Henri de Coussemaker (1805-1876) was led by Fétis' writings to adopt historical work. He published invaluable monographs on 'Huchald,' 'Medieval instruments,' the 'Rise of Polyphony,' the 'Medieval Drama,' and 'Adam de la Hâle.' François Auguste Gevaert (1828-1908), one of the foremost of musical savants began his career as an operatic composer. In 1871 he succeeded Fétis as director of the conservatory at Brussels, and from this time on, devoted himself to research work on the history of music].—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, pp. 490-493.

1813-1868.—Italian bel canto.—Rossini, Donizetti, and Bellini.—“The clue to the history of the opera since its beginning is found in the struggle for control on the part of its two essential elements, viz., the musical and the dramatic. . . . The Italian opera, with a few notable exceptions, has always been controlled by the effort to give pleasure by means of abstract melody and seductive vocalism. Its prevailing characteristics have been artificiality and feebleness of plot, comparative neglect of the orchestral part, subordination of every other feature to tunefulness and vocal display. The Italian bel canto has been the ruling power. . . . The Italian grand opera of the eighteenth century had faded to an extent that seemed to forebode extinction in the hands of such men as Paisiello, Paër and Zingarelli. It suddenly burst forth with new splendor under Rossini, swept public taste along with it, and the Italian bel canto once more gave the law to the lyric stage. Gioachino Rossini (1792-1868), born in Pesaro, Italy, gained a European fame with 'Tancredi' (1813). Italy, Austria, Germany and Paris became successively the scenes of his conquests. . . . His strongest qualities lay in opera buffa. Hardly less noted as a wit and *bon vivant* than a musician, he has given in 'Il Barbiere di Siviglia' a real masterpiece of his class. It still remains unsurpassed. [See also above: modern: 1774-1864.] . . . A brilliant group of composers gathered around Rossini, continuing his methods and principles, contributing nothing essentially new. The most accomplished were Gaetano Donizetti (1798-1848) and Vincenzo Bellini (1802-1835). They were almost as gifted as their master in the invention of melody of the bewitching, often cloying Italian type, and although their immense popularity has declined . . . they still have a loyal body of adherents.”—E. Dickinson, *Study of the history of music*, pp. 283, 286-287, 280, 201.

1818-1880.—German romanticism.—Weber, Mendelssohn, Schumann.—Chopin's influence.—“The middle of the nineteenth century is known as the 'Romantic Period' in the history of music. 'Romantic music' is, in some sense, an offshoot of literature; a reflex of poetry expressed in musical

terms; a kind of impressionism which tends to reject formality, and aims at a direct rendering of its object; a desire to produce musical effects suggested by natural phenomena; an art eager, sensitive, impulsive, which seeks its ideal of beauty through emotional expression. . . . Literary Romanticism, about 1800, found a voice for the thoughts and feelings which by natural reaction had begun to invade the rationalistic world of the eighteenth century. It was not so much a protest against classical work as against some aspects of the reasoned taste in art that had sprung from the spirit of rationalism. It gave voice to a keen love of the past, especially of the religious aspect of past ages, and to a keen passion for nature. . . . In Germany as in France, a little later on, the growth of music proceeded on similar lines. German music followed the traces of German literature at an interval of a generation or so—while in France, more directly in accordance with the *École romantique*, music and literature came to be very nearly contemporaneous. On every side it is evident that music received, and in its peculiar way brought to efflorescence, modes of feeling which had their roots in literature. . . . A German 'Singspiel,' is a play of light texture in prose or verse copiously supplied with incidental music. A German 'Oper' is a musical play in which a minimum of dialogue is employed for the exposition of the situations, while music serves as the exponent of emotion. With the exception of [Carl Maria] Weber's *Euryanthe* and [Robert] Schumann's *Genoveva*, German operas up to Wagner are merely enlarged 'Singspiele.' . . . The triumph of romanticism [one characteristic of the Romantic school is the great advance in orchestral tone coloring, and a preference for dissonances] in operatic music begins with Weber's success *Der Freischütz* (1821). In the story of this opera . . . certain romantic elements, such as the mystery of the forest, the interference of demoniacal powers in the life of men, the redemption of a man's soul through a woman's devotion, appealed powerfully to the instincts of the German people and assisted in establishing Weber's work in the position of a national favourite [and through it Weber became the founder of the Romantic school of German opera].—E. Dannreuther, *Oxford history of music*, v. 6, pp. 2-3, 16-17.—Weber's style rises, in his three greatest works ("Der Freischütz," "Euryanthe," and "Oberon") to heights which show his kinship with the great classics and the great moderns. "Though Weber holds the first place in the opera of the romantic school, he was excelled in other branches of composition by his contemporary, Franz Schubert (1797-1828). Pure and classic as was the form of Schubert's symphonies and sonatas the very essence of romanticism is disclosed in them by sudden transitions from one key to another and by the unexpected modulations in his exquisite harmony. That wealth of melody in which he is perhaps without a rival, was the gift of romanticism in 'Song.'—Under Schubert the German lived (a song for single voice with piano accompaniment) was perfected and placed among the musical forms of music history."—G. Grove, *Dictionary of music and musicians*, v. 3, p. 150.—"The two greatest masters of the German romantic school were Felix Mendelssohn-Bartholdy and Robert Schumann. Both were men of wealth and education, and by virtue of their intellectual achievements, were well fitted to carry on the work of the Romantic school. Mendelssohn (1800-1847) . . . was from his earliest childhood surrounded by the best of musical training; and his work although anticipating the romantic feeling, still re-

fects the technical science of his predecessors. Mendelssohn wrote in all forms, save that of the opera. His largest works were the oratorios 'St. Paul' . . . and 'Elijah.' His symphonies, while following the classical models, are program music in that they are given definite titles, such as, 'The Reformation,' 'Scotch,' and 'Italian.' . . . Schumann and Mendelssohn both made use of the overture form as a vehicle for the expression of program music. They called their works in this form 'Concert Overtures.'"—A. S. Faulkner, *What we hear in music*, p. 105.—Mendelssohn had much in common with the classicists (see above: Modern: 1700-1827) and became head of a school whose chief representatives were Moritz Hauptmann (1792-1868), Ignaz Moscheles (1794-1870), Salomon Jadassohn (1831-1902), Karl Reinecke (1824-1910), and Hans Richter (1823-1884). "Robert Schumann (1810-1856) by reason of his two-fold activity as critic and composer . . . was a new force in music. Highly cultivated in literature, philosophy and poetry, he possessed a keen and discerning critical taste, and a literary style that was picturesque and eloquent. . . . For ten years, he was in touch with the public by reason of his editorship of the 'New Journal,' and by his championship therein of all that was good and progressive in the music of the day, did much for the encouragement of true art. His articles on Schubert, Mendelssohn, Gade, Chopin, Berlioz, Liszt, Brahms and others formed a new epoch in musical criticism, and helped the cause of Romanticism immeasurably. . . . His collected writings give a graphic illustration of his views on music, and form a supplement to his personality as expressed in his music. Schumann's most representative works include four symphonies and the 'Overture,' 'Scherzo and Finale,' the overtures 'Genoveva' and 'Manfred.' . . . In the field of song, Schumann is a worthy successor to Schubert, . . . but perhaps his most conspicuous service to music lies in his development of the short piece. In this direction he has cultivated a branch of expression, with an originality, a freedom and a richness that has no parallel in the Romantic movement except in Chopin."—W. Baltzell, *History of music*, pp. 410-412.—"Among Schumann's many able reviews of new music, showing the keenest critical insight, none exhibit a more just appreciation of an original talent than his article on some variations by a young composer who was destined to exert so deep and widespread an influence on piano style and piano composition. Chopin's romanticism, . . . is one of the most individual developments of the entire period. Frederic Chopin [composer of pianoforte lyrics] was born at Zelazowa-Wola, near Warsaw in Poland, on February 22, 1810 (of Polish descent on his mother's side and French on his father's side). Chopin was exceedingly patriotic . . . and gave many proofs of his devotion to Poland, which he never forgot in spite of years of absence. He was a pianist of extraordinary distinction in spite of the preëminence of Liszt. . . . Although he possessed great brilliancy, the most prominent trait in his playing was its all-pervading and inexhaustible fund of poetry. . . . Although Chopin composed a number of works in which he uses the orchestra, some chamber-music, and a set of Polish songs, he was first and last a composer for the piano. . . . He was thoroughly national as a composer; hence in some respects his mazurkas and polonaises are the most characteristic of his compositions. . . . Among romantic composers he has done more for the advancement of piano style than anyone except Liszt. . . . Chopin's influence has been immense not only on the com-

posers and pianists of France and Germany but also markedly among living composers in Russia. Chopin is the preëminent poet of the piano."—*Ibid.*, pp. 417-423.—See also below: 1830-1921.

ALSO IN: J. A. Fuller-Maitland, *Schumann*.—J. G. Huneker, *Chopin, the man and his music*.—W. A. Lampadius, *Life of Mendelssohn* (tr. by Gage).—A. W. Locke, *Music and the romantic movement in France*.—F. Niecks, *Life of Chopin*.—C. von Sternberg, *Tempo rubato*.—K. Storck, *Schumann's Briefe*.—M. M. von Weber, *Karl Marie von Weber*.

1818-1921.—German Lied.—"Just at the epoch when the most gigantic types of dramatic and choral writing were being undertaken, the smallest of the important vocal forms, the song, at length secured its destined maturity and eminence. The most original path breaker was undoubtedly Franz Schubert (1794-1828)."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, p. 608.—"In one sense there is no more pathetic story in musical annals than that of Schubert. . . . His lot was full of material misfortune. . . . Yet from his sixteenth year he poured forth a stream of works, over eleven hundred in all, such as no other composer has equaled. Among these were hundreds of songs that mark him as a prince in this beautiful branch of art, but among them, too, were remarkable instrumental and dramatic works, that bring him into relation with Beethoven on the one hand and Weber on the other; . . . he was a shining exponent of the new romanticism, though his favorite idiom of expression was instinctively regular and classical. As Schubert became known, his success with the song proved a mighty stimulus to other composers."—*Ibid.*, p. 432.—"Schubert in his short life of 31 years has left to the world some 650 songs, masses and part songs, besides a vast number of instrumental compositions including his ten symphonies the most popular of which is his 'Unfinished Symphony' and the Symphony in C Major, no. 10. His best known song 'Der Erlkönig,' was written at the age of eighteen. In this Schubert shows his dramatic power and an ability for adapting music to the sentiment of the text."—A. S. Faulkner, *What we hear in music*, p. 105.—"As a composer of songs Robert Schumann (1810-1856) stands by the side of the trio of great writers in this class of music. Schubert shows the greatest wealth of melody; Mendelssohn the most perfect roundness of form; but Schumann is by far the most profoundly and intellectually suggestive. [The peculiar place of Schumann as a song writer is indicated by his being called the "musical exponent of Heine."]"—*Ibid.*, p. 432.—About 1850 we find that important composers rarely failed to cultivate song-writing to some degree, and by this time several eminent specialists in the song field were in evidence like Karl Löwe (1796-1869), Robert Franz (1815-1892), Franz Abt (1819-1885), Adolf Jensen (1837-1870), Johannes Brahms (1833-1897). Later Hugo Wolf (1860-1903) transferred the principles of Wagner's music drama to the Lied and endowed the instrumental portion with symphonic power. Richard Strauss (1864-) cultivated the song, from the beginning of his career; and with such success, that in his best productions of this kind he reaches the level of the greatest lyric masters.

ALSO IN: W. Dahms, *Schubert*.—L. C. Elson, *German songs and song writers*.—H. Finck, *Richard Strauss, the man and his work*.—J. A. Fuller-Maitland, *Schumann*.—M. Kalbeck, *Johannes Brahms*.—D. G. Mason, *Romantic composers*.—E. Newman, *Hugo Wolf*.

1830-1900.—Berlin academicians.—"The modern importance of Berlin as the capital of Ger-

many began to develop after Napoleon's career was checked in 1813-15. In the outburst of patriotic aspiration following the War of Liberation, intellectual and artistic interests including music, received much attention. But those who happened to be leaders in musical matters chose to apply themselves almost exclusively to choral music of a somewhat antique type. Hence arose a Berlin group or school which long stood aloof from the exuberant instrumentalism of the Viennese group, and from the several phases of romanticism represented by Mendelssohn, Schumann and Chopin, as well as the radicalism of Wagner, Liszt and Berlioz. The Berlin Akademie became the stronghold of an extreme conservatism and it was not until toward the end of the period now under review (middle nineteenth century) that the liberal spirit came in which has since made Berlin one of the progressive musical capitals of the world. It may be that the attitude of certain Berlin masters, like Eduard Grell (1800-1886), Siegfried Dehn (1799-1858), and Friedrich Kiel (1821-1885) served a useful purpose as a counterpoise to the impulsive swing of style away from the traditions of the old vocal counterpoint."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, p. 601.—The followers of absolute music are: Joseph Rheinberger (1830-1901), Max Bruch (1838), Gustav Mahler (1860-1911), Max Schillings (1868) George Schumann (1866) and Max Reger (1873-1916).

ALSO IN: R. Braungart, *Monographien moderner musiker*, Max Schillings, v. 3.—J. A. Fuller Maitland, *Masters of German music*.—P. Stefan, *Gustave Mahler: Eine Studie über Persönlichkeit und Werk* (tr. by T. E. Clark).

1830-1908.—Spain.—"The remaining European country possessing musical interest is Spain. . . . It cannot be said to be of considerable importance if the number of their representatives in musical art be held to be an indication, although their gift in other subjects cannot be denied. But of whatever nature it may be, it has never to our knowledge, been disseminated beyond its respective borders; it cannot, therefore, expect any critical attention, since it has not submitted itself to the judgment of musical opinion either in the English, French, Italian, or German capitals. . . . Thus we see that the Spaniards with their brilliant poetry and their achievements in the plastic art, and even in music, possess few composers that have aspired to anything beyond the "fashionable" in music. These exceptions are Juan Arrieta, Baltasar Saldoni, and Pablo de Sarasate. The first, Arrieta, born in 1823 at Puente la Reina, . . . by the performance of his first opera, *Ildegonda* at Milan, . . . gained celebrity as a dramatic composer. He subsequently composed other operas and operettas; . . . the most popular of them the *Zarzuelas* (operettas), being well known through Spain. Baltasar Saldoni, born in 1807 at Barcelona, . . . a composer and musical savant of note, was educated in the music school of Montserrat. . . . He has written a number of organ compositions in the strict polyphonic style, and other sacred works. A symphony, entitled 'A mi Patria,' 'A Hymn to the God of Art,' Italian operas, and Spanish *Zarzuelas*, have secured him considerable favour. . . . We cannot take leave of Spain without referring to one of the greatest violinists of his day. Pablo de Sarasate, in 1844-1908 exhibits as a virtuoso, an almost marvellous perfection. His brilliant artistic conceptions of works such as those of Mendelssohn and Spohr, besides his arrangements and compositions of Spanish airs have gained him the greatest popularity."—E. Nau-
mann, *History of music*, v. 5, pp. 1203-1264.

ALSO IN: J. Altadill, *Memorias de Sarasate*.

1830-1921.—Modern France.—Berlioz.—Program music.—Gounod and Bizet.—Renowned organists.—Impressionism.—Debussy.—“The school of modern music in general, is a direct outgrowth of the romantic school. It may be said that as Richard Wagner’s works mark the culmination of the romantic school and are the foundation of modern opera, so Franz Liszt stands in the same relation to instrumental music. With the exception of the greatest modern German master, Johannes Brahms, and his followers, all modern instrumental music has been founded on the two principles of the romantic school, namely, program music and nationality. . . . In France, where the opera has held sway for so many generations, an awakened interest in purely instrumental forms is responsible for the remarkable instrumental school, where the most interesting development in modern music is now to be found. In Italy there also exists an independent instrumental school. The most important feature of the latter part of the nineteenth century has been the rise of the national schools of music.”—A. S. Faulkner, *What we hear in music*, pp. 121-122.—Berlioz [master of impressionist orchestration] is the one great composer who perfectly represents the romantic movement, not only in France, but in all Europe. . . . If ever an artist reflected the conditions of the epoch in which he lived, that man was Berlioz in whose character and music are mirrored all the complex features of the romantic revolution. . . . Berlioz stands out, not only among all other musicians in Paris, but among the whole group of artistic, literary, social, and political romanticists, as the most perfect exemplification of the romantic spirit. As Berlioz represented in his compositions . . . the most complete expression of romanticism . . . so Liszt, more than any other musician, understood all the kindred ramifications of romanticism in the philosophical and sociological, as well as artistic and literary, thought of his day. . . . If any reason need be given for considering [Franz] Liszt [1811-1886] as one of the protagonists of French musical romanticism, it may be remembered that he first appeared in Paris as an infant prodigy in 1823, and that after his father died in 1827, the sixteen-year old youth settled down to make his home in Paris and to win in a few years the reputation of a mature musician. . . . After 1848 he became permanently allied with the neo-German School of musical composition, and became, during his residence in Weimar, its actual leader. At the same time he continued his propaganda for the romantic school in France.”—A. Locke, *Music and the romantic movement in France*, pp. 110, 145-147.—See also below: 1843-1897, 1847-1921.—“Berlioz and Liszt were not content with the novel possibilities opened up by the infusion of the romantic spirit into the established forms. They desired rather, to bring about some sort of direct alliance of instrumental music with poetry. To effect this they chose to make use of the means of musical expression for purposes of illustration. Thus they came to lay stress upon the conjunction of music with some particular poem or some special order of ideas, and, in the construction of their pieces, to rely directly on suggestions received from literary or other non-musical sources. The result was the production of a curious hybrid, which has been called *Programme music*, i. e., music posing as an unsatisfactory kind of poetry.”—E. D. Dannreuther, *Oxford history of music*, v. 6, p. 111.—“In the case of Berlioz’s symphonies, the programme forms an important part of the artistic scheme and the

music is hardly intelligible without it. . . . Berlioz, who claimed to have ‘taken up music where Beethoven laid it down,’ deserves respect for the power and persistence of his efforts. About his originality there can be no contention. His aim was always high, his ambition unbounded. Whether he succeeded in expressing what he meant to express, as Beethoven almost invariably did, is another matter. After more than half a century of controversy, it is by no means easy to estimate the value or to gauge the genuineness of his claims.”—*Ibid.*, p. 112.—“As a master of the orchestra, however, there can be no doubt that Berlioz ranks among the first. His knowledge of the different instruments, surpassed that of even the virtuosi who played them; while his unlimited store of orchestral combination and color was inexhaustible. In France the change in the methods used by Gounod, while not so radical as that noticeable in Verdi, is still apparent. Charles Gounod (1818-1893) in his early operas shows the direct influence of Meyerbeer and the French Grand Opera School. In ‘Faust’ (1859), Gounod reached the zenith of his genius, and it is not strange that in this setting of the old Teutonic story, the influence of ‘Lohengrin’ should be apparent. ‘Faust’ remains the most universally popular opera of the French School. . . . (George) Bizet (1838-1875), the composer of ‘Carmen,’ was a devoted adherent to Wagner’s ideals as adapted to the French opera school, while the modern masters of the French school have all shown the direct influence of Wagner’s ‘Music of the Future.’ In Germany the direct followers of Wagner in opera are Carl Goldmark (1830-1915), Engelbert Humperdinck (1845) and Richard Strauss (1864).”—A. Faulkner, *What we hear in music*, p. 119.—“The drift of romanticism toward realism is easy to trace in all arts. There were, however, artists of all kinds who were caught up, so to speak, from the current into a life of the spirit, who championed neither the glory of the senses, as Wagner, nor the indomitable power of reason, as Brahms, but preserved a serenity and calm, a sort of confident, nearly ascetic rapture, elevated above the turmoil of the world, standing not with nor against, but floating above. Such an artist in music was Cesar Franck, (1822-1890), growing up almost unnoticed between Wagner and Brahms, now to be ranked as one of the greatest composers of the second half of the century.”—D. G. Mason, *Art of music*, v. 2, p. 469.—“Franck was a Belgian born at Liège—one of that long line of musicians who, though born elsewhere, has become thoroughly identified with French thought and standards; and there is much in his music which finds a parallel in the literary qualities of another Belgian artist, Maeterlinck, for in both is that same haunting indefiniteness, that same symbolic aspiration. . . . A distinct note of religious exaltation runs through much of his music. . . . He was universally acknowledged to be the greatest improviser on the organ since Bach himself. . . . Franck’s services to the development of music was twofold: 1st, as an inspired composer of varied works, which are more and more becoming understood and loved; 2d, as a truly great teacher, among his notable pupils being d’Indy, Chausson, Duparc, Repartz, and the gifted but short-lived Lekeu. . . . He was the first composer of the French School to use adequately the great forms of symphonic and chamber music which had been worked out hitherto by the Germans: Bach, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, etc. [See above: Modern: 1700-1827.] . . . Franck was likewise a pioneer in establishing in a sonata or symphony a new conception as to the relationship of

the movements. This he affected by the use of what may be called 'generative motives' which, announced in the first movement of a work, are found with organic growth, modulatory and rhythmic, in all the succeeding portions. Such a method of gaining unity had been hinted at by Beethoven in his Fifth Symphony, was further developed by Schumann and Liszt and, since the example of Franck, has become a recognized principle in all large cyclic works."—W. R. Spaulding, *Musical art and a language*, pp. 257-258.—The renowned organists of modern France are followers of Franck. The most prominent among them are Alexandre Guilmant (1837-1910), Theodore Dubois (1837), Charles Widor (1845) and Gabriel Fauré (1845). Conspicuous among the modern French opera composers are Jules Massenet (1842-1912) whose "Manon," "Thais," and "Jongleur de Notre Dame" have won great popularity. Other French dramatic composers are Gustave Charpentier (1860) with his operas "Louise" and "Julien," and Alfred Bruneau (1857) with "Le Rêve" and "L'Attaque du Moulin." The most versatile French composer of recent years was Camille Saint-Saëns (1835-1921), sometimes called the "supreme eclectic"; he wrote in all forms including opera and oratorio, and his style ranged from the severely classic to program music. It was his good fortune to have done more than any other since Berlioz, to foster instrumental music in France; and his literary gifts were as striking as his musical endowment. "The history of music records several cases in which a new movement, a new departure in musical thinking or musical expression was intimately connected with, and followed closely upon some new movement in other fields of art or literature. . . . The phenomenon or the new style in music now known by the name of 'impressionism' was born of the same spirit as the impressionism of the painters. . . . It was not until [about 1890] . . . that musicians began to fix and to convey aural impressions somewhat in the same manner as the painters had conveyed impressions of and for the eye. The musical movement also originated in France. Claude Debussy is really its founder and Maurice Ravel its most prominent living exponent. . . . The specifically musical features of the new style are the introduction of what the old theory called tones foreign to the harmony, that is, dissonances. But their dissonant character is disregarded as it were. They are treated as the old composers treated consonances. In fact, the ear soon becomes accustomed to them, and, if it follows the impressionist principles, regards merely their general effect and not their theoretical derivation or justification. In the same manner the conventional scales are abandoned. New scales like the succession of whole tones, are treated with the freedom of the conventional major and minor or the older church modes. The clear cut melodic construction of themes according to the older theory makes way for vague, intangible tone successions, which purposely avoid the points of reference and of crystallization which the older theory made the basis of its melodic conceptions. . . . Debussy's style crystallized in the nineties. But before that, Ernest Fanelli (born 1866) had produced works which employed some of the methods which later became characteristics of the impressionists. The score of Fanelli's symphonic tableaux, *Thebes*, founded on Gautier's *Roman de la Momie*, was begun in 1883. The work remained unknown until Fanelli was 'discovered' by Gabriel Pierné in 1912. Satie's *Ogives*, *Sarabandes* and *Gymnopédies*, all for piano, were written in 1886, 1887 and

1888 respectively. But the historical basis of musical impressionism,—for it has a historical foundation,—goes still farther back. The impressionist's stress on tonal color effects is only a logical development of the earlier romantic composer's attention to this phase of musical creation. About the middle of the century we find Liszt resorting to melodic formulas which prepare the way for impressionist melodies, and harmonically also there are premonitions in Liszt's works of what is to follow. Wagner's idea of the 'endless melody' of the orchestra is akin to the impressionist's theory of melodic structure. . . . The effect of the impressionist movement upon symphonic form has been just a continuation of the romanticist's departure from the strict rules of logical musical construction. As to the development of the orchestra and orchestral instruments, their influence has not, on the whole, been so marked."—O. Kinkeldey, *Beginning of musical impressionism* (*Symphony Society Bulletin*, Feb. 9, 1921).—"Achille Claude Debussy (1862-1920), one of the most unique figures of the twentieth century, . . . [has left to] the world music of unique and baffling originality. It is not easy to explain or locate the original sources of his art. . . . Debussy has seen nature and beauty in a way peculiarly his own, and has found new forms of expression. . . . What is most astonishing is the fact that underneath all this free poetic impressionism one discovers workmanship of unerring logic and precision. Yet there are analysts who deny the presence of 'form' in the music of Debussy. . . . He won the Grand Prix in 1884 with his cantata 'L'Enfant Prodigue.' . . . Debussy made an exquisite setting of Rossetti's poem, 'The Blessed Damozel' (1888). He composed his epoch-making reverie for orchestra, 'Prélude à l'Après-midi d'un Faune,' in 1892. 'Pelléas et Mélisande,' a music-drama of a strange and shadowy beauty, based on the play of Maurice Maeterlinck, and one of the most significant operas of recent times, was performed at the Opera Comique, Paris, April 30, 1902. Important songs, piano and orchestral works, followed. . . . Debussy had a finer harmonic sense, a freer, a more poetic spirit, than any other musician of his day in France."—O. Downes, *Lure of music*, pp. 177-179.—The followers of Debussy are Maurice Ravel and Paul Dukas, whose unique tonal combinations make them worthy of mention. "Today the composers of France surpass those of all other countries in originality and the varied character of their productions. We have mentioned but a few of an astonishing generation of creative artists. There is no brighter page in the history of modern music than that which records the contribution of France—a triumph in art which precedes the glorification of her spirit in other spheres, on other fields."—*Ibid.* p. 182.

Also in: H. Berlioz, *Mémoires* (tr. by R. and E. Holmes).—V. d'Indy, *César Franck* (tr. by R. Newmarch).—H. Finck, *Massenet and his operas*.—C. Gounod, *Mémoires d'un artiste*.—W. J. Henderson, *Modern musical drift*.—A. Hervey, *Saint-Saëns*.—J. G. Huneker, *Mezzotints in modern music*.—J. G. Huneker, *Overtones*.—La Mara, pseud., *Letters of Franz Liszt* (tr. by C. Bache).—F. Liebich, *Claude Achille Debussy*.—D. G. Mason, *From Grieg to Brahms*.—J. Massenet, *My recollections*.—L. Nauman, *Franz Liszt*.—E. Newman, *Richard Strauss*.—E. Rupp, *Charles Marie Widor*.—C. Saint-Saëns, *Musical memories*.—O. Séré, *Masters in music: Bizet*.—H. Tolhurst, *Gounod*.—A. Weismann, *Georges Bizet*.—A. E. Keeton, *Debussy: His science and his music* (*Living Age*, Oct. 30, 1909).

1842-1921.—Modern Italian school.—Verdi.—Music drama, and church music.—“Wagner marks the culmination of the romantic school and the beginning of the modern school, for every great opera since his day clearly reflects the influence of the ‘greatest musical personality since Beethoven.’”—A. S. Faulkner, *What we hear in music*, p. 119.—“Italy proved more responsive to Wagner’s influence than France. The performance of *Lohengrin* (1868) in Bologna, created much enthusiasm among the young musicians of northern Italy, but it was the septuagenarian Verdi who inaugurated the era of the music drama by his *Otello* . . . and *Falstaff*. . . . Strictly speaking he had been anticipated by Arrigo Boïto (1842) who, thrown under Wagner’s influence in Germany, had followed his example in being the poet and composer alike of *Mefistofele* . . . a version of the *Faust* legend. . . . Giuseppe Verdi is the representative of all the struggles and crises which Italian opera had to pass through in order to free itself from the fetters of conventionality and rise to dramatic truth. From first to last of all his works we meet this progress; each shows a step in advance, a new conquest, until perfection is reached in *Otello* and in *Falstaff*. . . . Verdi is numbered among the greatest dramatic composers of any time. . . . Although the plan of separating an artist’s work into periods is not desirable . . . yet with Verdi this division and his constant aspiration towards greater perfection is most apparent and characteristic, for no one could place *Nabucco* and *Ernani* beside *Rigoletto* and *Ballo in Maschera*, nor these beside *Aida* and *Otello*. . . . In *Otello* and *Falstaff* sentiment and dramatic truth reign supreme. . . . Verdi’s music too, had political importance. He is the musician of new Italy; his inspirations often express the cry of grief from a people oppressed by foreign rule; his songs stimulated youth to lofty enterprises and in a certain way contributed to the work of a nation.”—A. Untersteiner, *Short history of music*, pp. 288-291.—“The latest development of the music drama in Italy has been in the direction of so-called naturalism. This consists in the choice of brutal phases of life for illustration, told in short, concise forms which concentrate and hasten the dramatic action. . . . It is more than probable, indeed, that the reaction against the excessive length of the music drama, led to the great and sudden vogue of this school. The first impulse to naturalism was given by Pietro Mascagni (1863) in his two-act opera, *Cavalleria Rusticana* (*Rustic chivalry*), in 1890. . . . Two years later followed *I Pagliacci* (*The Clowns*) by Ruggiero Leoncavallo (1858-1919). . . . Their popularity has been approached only by Giacomo Puccini (1858) in *La Bohème* (*The Bohemians*) produced in 1896. Four years later his *Tosca* appeared and did much to strengthen the impression given by its predecessor—that in Puccini Italy possesses her most promising dramatic composer” [These works were followed by *Madame Butterfly*] and *The Girl of the Golden West*].—W. J. Baltzell, *History of music*, pp. 375-376.—The operas *The Secret of Suzanne* and *The Jewels of the Madonna* have placed their composer Ermanno Wolf-Ferrari (1876) in the high ranks of modern Italian opera writers. Other Italian orchestral composers include Giovanni Sgambati (1843-1914), a pupil of Liszt and a follower of Wagner, who dominated a symphonic school, practically the first of its kind in Italy since the seventeenth century, Giuseppe Martucci (1856-) Ferruccio Busoni (1866-) and Marco Bossi (1861-).—“In church music, the Italians of the last generation had

sunk to a very low plane being satisfied with trivial operatic melodies entirely unsuited to religious expression. Pope Leo X greatly encouraged the right development of religious music, by his edict that the Roman Catholic Church must return to the use of the Gregorian Chant. Don Lorenzo Perosi (1872), the director of the Papal Choir, has written many masses in the style of Palestrina, yet with modern expression, which have proved that religious music should be regarded as apart from the operatic school.”—A. S. Faulkner, *What we hear in music*, pp. 134-135.

ALSO IN: F. Crowset, *Verdi, man and musician*.—A. Visetti, *Verdi*.—F. M. Underwood, *United Italy*, pp. 334-335.

1842-1921.—Modern English composers.—“The group of able men who sprang rather suddenly, as it would seem, out of the dead level of mediocrity that had existed for one hundred and fifty years, includes Arthur S. Sullivan, Alexander C. Mackenzie, Charles V. Stanford, Frederick Cowen, Charles H. Parry and Edward Elgar. There are others hardly less worthy of conspicuous mention, such as Samuel Coleridge-Taylor, Arthur G. Thomas, Hamish McCunn, Edward German, Granville Bantock and Frederick Delius. The fame of Arthur Sullivan (1842-1900) rests upon his clever and delightful operettas of which *‘Trial by Jury,’* *‘Pinafore,’* *‘Patience,’* *‘The Pirates of Penzance’* and *‘The Mikado’* have won their composer international praise. . . . Alexander Mackenzie (1847-) born in Edinburgh, has produced notable work in oratorio, ode, . . . opera, compositions for orchestra, violin and piano. Charles V. Stanford (1852-) is of Irish birth; his best work is in vocal music, including compositions for the church, choral ballads . . . and dramatic works. . . . Frederick H. Cowen (1852-) is known favorably on the continent as well as at home for his romantic *‘Scandinavian symphony’*; . . . Charles H. Parry (1848-) is, in the view of many, the ablest of this company, considered in his versatile capacity as composer, teacher, historian and critic. Within a few years the very brilliant and challenging work of Edward Elgar (1857-) has made him for the time being one of the most talked-of composers of the day. His setting in oratorio form of Cardinal Newman’s *‘Dream of Gerontius’* was for a time the reigning sensation in circles devoted to choral music. Its intense dramatic contrasts and the emphasis upon the most advanced treatment of the orchestra as the chief means of effect seem in the minds of many to announce a new epoch in the history of the oratorio”—E. Dickinson, *Study of the history of music*, pp. 301-302.—Percy Grainger, born at Melbourne, Australia, (1882) and Cyril Scott (1879) are two of the youngest of the English composers who are devoting their attention toward the development of early English folk-music. Scott, however, while tending toward nationalism, shows a marked influence of the impressionism of the modern school, so that he is known in Europe as the “*English Debussy*.”

ALSO IN: R. J. Buckley, *Sir Edward Elgar*.—A. Lawrence, *Sir A. Sullivan, life story, letters and reminiscences*.—C. V. Stanford, *Pages from an unwritten diary*.—C. V. Stanford and C. Forsythe, *History of music*.

1843-1897.—Wagner, Liszt and Brahms.—“In the latter part of the nineteenth century the musical world was overshadowed by one of the greatest geniuses that the art has produced,—Richard Wagner. It seemed almost as if he summed up his works the whole range of musical possibilities,—almost as though he had reached the Ultima Thule, beyond which no progress was possible.

... It was in the proper union of music and action, ... with its endless melodic recitative, that Wagner's truly marvellous gifts found expression. ... The step from diatonic harmony to chromatic modulation was a natural one, and bound to come, even if it came slowly."—A. Elson, *Modern composers of Europe*, pp. 1, 3.—"It is to Richard Wagner (1813-1883) that we owe the renaissance in modern form of the primitive ideal of the opera as embodied in the works of Peri and Caccini [see above; Modern: 1575-1676.] Simple and formless as these now appear, they contain the germ of all that he has accomplished, apart from the question of means, even to the very name of music drama. This he revived because, in his opinion, the term had acquired a preponderantly musical signification which made it inappropriate for his later works in view of their dramatic character. ... The future master of the music drama, however, began by composing operas. ... Lohengrin ... was his last opera: all his later works were known as music dramas."—Baltzell, *History of music*, pp. 364-365, 369.—"So far as the musical stage is concerned Wagner sums up and completes the ideas and aspirations of Romanticism. He expresses them in *Tanhauser* and *Lohengrin*, transcends them in *Tristan*, departs from them in *Der Ring* and *Die Meistersinger*, and returns to them in *Parsifal*. ... Dramatic poet by instinct, by training supreme master of musical effect, Wagner was gradually led towards a new manner of blending music with the drama. ... The main object Wagner had in view was, as he put it, 'to reconcile the claims of poetry and music with the claims of that most contestable, most equivocal institution of our day, the opera.' ... Can the modern spirit produce a theatre that shall stand in relation to modern culture as the theatre in Athens stood to the culture of Greece? This is the complex problem that he set himself to solve. ... The main argument is as follows: Poetry, imitation, and music were united in the drama of the Greeks; the drama disappeared with the downfall of the Athenian State; the union of the arts was dissolved, each had an existence of its own, and at times sank to the level of a mere pastime. ... In our day each 'separate branch of art' has reached its limits of growth, and cannot overstep its limits without incurring the risk of becoming incomprehensible, fantastic, absurd. At this point each art demands to be joined to a sister art—poetry to music, imitation to both; each will be ready to forego special pretensions for the sake of an 'artistic whole,' and the musical drama may become for future generations what the drama of Greece was to the Greeks. The entire music-drama is musical in spirit and in detail."—E. Dannreuther, *Oxford history of music*, v. 6, pp. 333, 346-347, 349.—"The part assigned by the Greek dramatists to the chorus who expounded and commented on the events of the play was in his [Wagner's] scheme transferred to the orchestra. This he did by means of the *Leitmotiv* (leading motive). A *leitmotiv* is a characteristic theme or harmonic progression associated with each of the *Dramatis Personae* and which appears with such modification of mode, rhythm, or any of its component parts as the dramatic situation demands. It is not confined to personages alone; in *The Ring* of the *Nibelung*, for instance, the stolen gold, the ring formed from it, the sword which plays such an important part in *Die Walküre* and in *Siegfried* all have their corresponding motives. It is through these motives that Wagner is able to give his orchestra an all but articulate speech and to weld the music drama into an organic whole.

... Wagner had long cherished the plan of a festival theatre for the performance of his *Ring* of the *Nibelung*. ... The quiet town of Bayreuth therefore, as being a central point, was chosen and there in 1876 the *Festspielhaus* was opened with the first complete performance of the *Tetralogy*. It made a profound impression, but the expense of the undertaking was so great that it resulted in a heavy loss and the theatre was closed for a number of years. In 1882, however, it reopened with *Parsifal* and since then its triumphant career has been part of musical history."—W. J. Baltzell, *History of music*, pp. 370, 373.—"Side by side with Chopin's comparatively short and pathetic career ran the first half of [Franz] Liszt's long and showy one [1811-1886]. Like Chopin he brought into music a decidedly new national flavor. Like him he developed preciously into a masterly virtuoso and early sought Paris as headquarters. ... He stood forth, even in youth, as a consummate swayer of audiences and master of men, as an interpreter of the whole range of piano literature and ultimately as a versatile composer and an imperial force in musical progress. ... His eminence [was] partly due to his readiness to appreciate great art wherever found and to throw himself generously into its furtherance. ... As a player he ... reached a place of incontestable supremacy, and then as a teacher he stamped a deep impression upon the whole texture of musical thought. Liszt's technical accomplishments were so extraordinary that he expanded the range of pianism in several directions, almost stepping beyond the verge of what is germane to it, at least establishing a new standard of dexterity and eloquence for it. ... Liszt's service to piano music went much beyond the enrichment of technic."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, pp. 530-540.—"Liszt understood that to introduce new forms he must cause a necessity to be felt, in a word, produce a motive for them. He resolutely entered on the path which Beethoven, with the ... 'Choral Symphonies,' and Berlioz, with the 'Symphonie Fantastique' ... had suggested rather than opened; ... they had enlarged the compass of the symphony, but not transformed it, and it was Liszt who created the symphonic poem. This brilliant and fecund creation will be to posterity one of Liszt's greatest titles to glory, and when time shall have effaced the luminous trace of this greatest pianist who has ever lived it will inscribe on the roll of honour the name of the emancipator of instrumental music."—J. G. Huneker, *Liszt*, pp. 105-106.—"Saint Saëns rightly denies and ridicules the accusation that Liszt sought to set philosophical systems to music; and stoutly maintains that he translated into music none but poetical ideas. ... Be, however, the ultimate fate of his works what it may, there will always remain to Liszt the fame of a daring striver, a fruitful originator, and a wide-ranging quickener. ... The chief sources of information regarding this matter are Liszt's *Lettre d'un Bachelier ès Musique*, dated January, 1837, his review of Schumann's Op. 5, 11, 14, of the same year, likewise published in the *Revue et Gazette musicale*, and especially his essay *Berlioz and his Harold Symphony*, of 1885."—*Ibid.*, pp. 311, 316, 276.—"The one other personality in modern music that assumes any proportions beside the overshadowing figure of the Bayreuth master is Johannes Brahms. As it would seem necessary for the detractors of any cause or movement to find an opposing force that they may pit against the object of their disfavor, so did the anti-Wagnerites, headed by Hanslick (celebrated critic, Brahms's champion and anti-Wagnerite) gather round the

unconcerned Brahms with their war cries against Wagner. . . . So opposed are the ideals and methods of these two leaders of modern musical thought that comparisons become . . . stupidly odious. To the reflective classicist of intellectual proclivities Brahms will remain the model, while Wagner rests, on the other hand, the guide of those beguiled by sensuous color and dramatic freedom."—D. G. Mason, *Art of music*, v. 2, p. 436.—"Johannes Brahms (1833-1897) famed both as composer and pianist, . . . was comparatively unknown when at the age of twenty Schumann brought him into public notice by hailing him as the successor of Beethoven. Unlike most composers, Brahms was mature from the very beginning. . . . Unaffected by the pomp and glow of the ultra-romantic tendency initiated by Berlioz and culminating at present in the works of Richard Strauss, he remained true to the great classical school (of absolute music) which rests on Bach and Palestrina. Unlike the modern impressionistic school, his art is based on essentially musical ideas and their contrapuntal treatment; it is architectural; [Brahms is the greatest contrapuntist since Bach. His practice of welding together the working out and recapitulation sections of his movements in a closer union than any of his predecessors, is an innovation which cannot fail of having results in the future]. In such a scheme, color is subordinate to thematic interest, hence his instrumentation often appears heavy and austere to those who look for the brilliancy and tone painting of Liszt or Wagner. His music in general is founded on Bach and Beethoven [see above: MODERN: 1700-1827]. His works for the piano are large and orchestral in style. . . . Though Brahms' four symphonies have become reasonably familiar, his piano works have not even yet achieved widespread popularity. . . . Brahms never wrote for the stage but was active in all other departments of music. . . . It is perhaps too soon to deliver an authoritative judgment as to the ultimate rank that Brahms will take among the great composers of the past. There is no doubt, however, that he is one of the commanding figures of the last century [and a transitional bridge between Beethoven and the modern composers] and that he has enriched the world with a mass of noble music, [the first composer since Beethoven to sound the sublime], all of which deserves to be known for its elevation and consummate mastery of detail."—W. J. Baltzell, *History of music*, pp. 430-441.—Von Bülow classed Brahms with Bach and Beethoven as "one of the three great B's."

ALSO IN: W. E. Ashton, *Life of Richard Wagner*.—H. S. Chamberlin, *Richard Wagner*.—H. T. Finck, *Wagner and his works*.—J. Fuller-Maitland, *Brahms*.—J. G. Huneker, *Franz Liszt*.—M. Kalbeck, *Johannes Brahms*.—E. Newman, *Wagner as a man and an artist*.—R. Wagner, *Mein Leben*.

1847-1921.—Neo-German school.—Program music.—"Along artistic line the strongest influence in Wagner's favor came from the cordial and faithful enthusiasm of Liszt and the circle of which he was the centre. Liszt had won his leadership as a piano-virtuoso, but after settling at Weimar in 1848, . . . he turned his energies more and more to conducting and composition. He became the apostle of musical progress, transformation, even revolution . . . while other groups in Germany were conservative in tendency—the Weimar circle became noted for its radicalism. He began several lines of progress which ultimately gave character to the succeeding period, with its tendency to reconstruct the whole fabric of musical style."—W. S. Pratt, *History of music*, pp. 574-575.—Liszt

transferred the principle of Wagner's dramatic style to the realm of instrumental music; and originated the form known as the *Symphonic Poem*, which became the most important factor in the development of modern program music. "Liszt himself never did more than 'suggest' the subject of his inspiration by a title; he never went into detailed description of what he 'meant' and he never indicated a course of events. . . . An occasional lapping over the boundaries of one art into the province of another does not make such an incursion a rule, much less a principle. . . . Genius, trespassing occasionally against the realm of another art, will always know and has always known just how far to go; how to be a tactful visitor, not a rude interloper. With a composer of mere talent this instinct of artistic propriety is not always strong enough to prevent esthetic absurdities. . . . We need only eliminate Liszt's titles or to remove the dramatic signification of Wagner's music to perceive that there still remains good, solid, beautiful music, music *per se*; also we would not have whole Wagner programs in our symphony concerts. . . . What the past has left us has been sifted from generation to generation. Only the very great works in music . . . have stood the test of time; they have stood this severest of tests because they were free and true human utterances."—C. von Sternberg, *Liszt's program idea* (*Musical America*, Apr. 28, 1917, p. 13).—There exist today in the German school of music two distinct classes: The followers of absolute music as exemplified in Johannes Brahms; and the followers of the program music of Wagner and Liszt. Strauss is at present the central figure in Germany for musical controversy. Although educated in the classical school he has abandoned its forms and styles and has adopted the methods of the "programme school" and has become "the freest of modern tone-poets." "Strauss is undoubtedly a musical genius of extraordinary endowment and intellect and commands a wide range of original resources. His harmonies are rich; his melodies often peculiar but quite as often filled with the spirit of classic naturalness and beauty; his rhythms are vital, energetic, and novel; his counterpoint infinitely scholarly and free; and his orchestration extremely opulent and vivid. He is almost as complete a master of the climax as was Richard Wagner, but his contrasts are more often striking than wholly pleasurable. Strauss is apparently sincere in his artistic attitude and serious in his aims, though so revolutionary and daring that he sometimes arouses the suspicion of aiming for effect only. His most pretentious creations are his symphonic poems, Don Quixote, Sinfonia domestica, and his operas, Salome, Elektra, Rosenkavalier, etc. His songs, already numerous, are exceedingly impressive and often of fascinating beauty and emotional depth."—T. Tapper and P. Goetschius, *Essentials in music history*, pp. 318-319.—Among the composers of the program school are Carl Goldmark 1830-1915, Engelbert Humperdinck (1854-), Felix Weingartner (1863-), and Hugo Wolf (1860-1902), whose early death was a great loss to the world of music.—"The wildest radical" in modern Germany is Arnold Schoenberg, born in 1874. "His earlier compositions, including the large vocal-orchestral 'Gurrelieder,' were fairly direct in style. In recent years, however, he has employed wildly dissonant harmonies in a most surprising way. . . . His piano pieces have made audiences think that he must have written them as a joke. But in spite of their jumbled character, they show a marked dramatic force, even though they are too radical for those who appreciate the

more orderly work of Strauss. [Schoenberg's music is not founded on direct harmonic forms but on extensions and adaptations of these forms.] The 'Five Orchestral Pieces' form another much-discussed and much-abused work. Like the piano pieces, they are for the most part too wildly radical to be classed as music. But some of them, especially the first one entitled 'Presentiments,' show a dramatic power of utterance that prevents Schoenberg from being disregarded."—A. Elson, *Book of musical knowledge*, p. 245.

ALSO IN: W. J. Henderson, *Modern musical drift*.—La Mara, pseud., *Liszt's Briefe* (tr. by C. Bache).—J. C. Lüsztig, *Felix Weingartner*.—L. Naumann, *Franz Liszt*.—E. Newman, *Hugo Wolf*.—O. G. Sonneck, *Miscellaneous essays in the history of music*.

1909.—Copyright on dramatico-musical compositions in the United States. See COPYRIGHT: 1700-1909.

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS: Primitive.—Early wind and stringed instruments. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Wind instruments; Stringed instruments; MUSIC: Primitive: First music; Mexico, Ancient; Ancient: c. B. C. 4000-525.

Hydraulus.—Organ. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Wind instruments; 18th century: Organ; 19th century: Organ.

Piano, and its forerunners. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Stringed instruments; 19th century: Piano.

Evolution and perfection of the violin. See MUSIC: Modern: 1607-1737.

Player piano. See INVENTIONS: 20th century: Player piano.

MUSIC-HALL CONVENTION, Kentucky (1898). See KENTUCKY: 1895-1900.

MUSKETEERS, History of. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 26.

MUSKETS. See RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: Origin of small arms.

MUSKHOGEAN (MASKOKI) FAMILY.—"Among the various nationalities of the Gulf territories the Maskoki family of tribes occupied a central and commanding position. Not only the large extent of territory held by them, but also their numbers, their prowess in war, and a certain degree of mental culture and self-esteem made of the Maskoki one of the most important groups in Indian history. From their ethnologic condition of later times, we infer that these tribes have extended for many centuries back in time from the Atlantic to the Mississippi and beyond that river, and from the Apalachian ridge to the Gulf of Mexico. With short intermissions they kept up warfare with all the circumjacent Indian communities and also among each other. . . . The irresolute and egotistic policy of these tribes often caused serious difficulties to the government of the English and French colonies, and some of them constantly wavered in their adhesion between the French and the English cause. The American government overcame their opposition easily whenever a conflict presented itself (the Seminole War forms an exception), because, like all the Indians, they never knew how to unite against a common foe. The two main branches of the stock, the Creek and the Cha'hta [or Choctaw] Indians, were constantly at war, and the remembrance of their deadly conflicts has now passed to their descendants in the form of folk lore. . . . The only characteristic by which a subdivision of the family can be attempted, is that of language. Following their ancient topographic location from east to west, we obtain the following

synopsis: First branch, or Maskoki proper: The Creek, Maskokálgi or Maskoki proper, settled on Coosa, Tallapoosa, Upper and Middle Chatahuchi [Chatahoochee] rivers. From these branched off by segmentation the Creek portion of the Seminoles, of the Yámassi and of the little Yamacraw community. Second, or Apalachian branch: This southeastern division, which may be called also 'a parte potiori' the Hitchiti connection, anciently comprised the tribes on the Lower Chatahuchi river, and, east from there, the extinct Apalachi, the Mikasuki, and the Hitchiti portion of the Seminoles, Yámassi and Yamacraws. Third, or Alibamu branch, comprised the Alibamu villages on the river of that name; to them belonged the Koasáti and Witumka on Coosa river, its northern affluent. Fourth, Western or Cha'hta [Choctaw] branch: From the main people, the Cha'hta, settled in the middle portions of the State of Mississippi, the Chicasa, Pascagoula, Biloxi, Huma, and other tribes once became separated through segmentation. The strongest evidence for a community of origin of the Maskoki tribes is furnished by the fact that their dialects belong to one linguistic family. Maskóki, Maskógi, isti Maskóki, designates a single person of the Creek tribe, and forms, as a collective plural, Maskokálgi, the Creek community, the Creek people, the Creek Indians. English authors write this name Muscogee, Muskogee, and its plural Muscogulgee. The first syllable, as pronounced by the Creek Indians, contains a clear short a. . . . The accent is usually laid on the middle syllable: Maskóki, Maskógi. None of the tribes are able to explain the name from their own language. . . . Why did the English colonists call them Creek Indians? Because, when the English traders entered the Maskoki country from Charleston or Savannah, they had to cross a number of streams or creeks, especially between the Chatahuchi and Savannah rivers. Gallatin thought it probable that the inhabitants of the country adjacent to Savannah river were called Creeks from an early time. . . . In the southern part of the Cha'hta territory several tribes, represented to be of Cha'hta lineage, appear as distinct from the main body, and are always mentioned separately. The French colonists, in whose annals they figure extensively, call them Mobilians, Tohomes, Pascogoulas, Biloxis, Mougoulachas, Bayogoulas and Humas (Oumas). They have all disappeared in our epoch, with the exception of the Biloxi [Major Powell, in the Seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology, places the Biloxi in the Siouan Family], of whom scattered remnants live in the forest of Louisiana, south of the Red River."—A. S. Gatschet, *Migration legend of the Creek Indians*, v. 1, pt. 1.—"The Natches, a residue of the well-known nation of that name, came from the banks of the Mississippi, and joined the Creeks less than one hundred years ago. The original seats of the Uchees were east of the Coosa and probably of the Chatahoochee; and they consider themselves as the most ancient inhabitants of the country. They may have been the same nation which is called Apalaches in the accounts of De Soto's expedition: . . . The four great Southern nations, according to the estimates of the War Department . . . consist now [1836] of 67,000 souls, viz.: The Cherokees, 15,000; the Choctaws (18,500), the Chicasas (5,500), 24,000; the Muskhogeas, Seminoles, and Hitchitees, 26,000; the Uchees, Alibamons, Coosadas, and Natches, 2,000. The territory west of the Mississippi, given or offered to them by the United States in exchange for their lands east of that river, contains 40,000,000 acres, exclusively of what may be allotted to the Chicasas."—A. Gallatin, *Synopsis of the Indian tribes* (Archæ-

ologia Americana, v. 2, sect. 3).—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Southeastern area; 1893-1899; SEMINOLES.

MUSQUAKKIUK, North American Indian tribe. See SACS.

MUSQUITO COAST. See MOSQUITO COAST.

MUSQUITO INDIANS. See MOSQUITO INDIANS.

MUSSET, Louis Charles Alfred de (1810-1857), French poet. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1885.

MUSSOLINI, Benito (1883-), Italian statesman. Arrested for agitation against the government during the war with Turkey, 1912; carried on revolutionary propaganda in Romagna and Tuscany, 1914; became a nationalist at the outbreak of the World War and founded the newspaper, *Popolo d'Italia*, 1914; served in the World War; organized the Italian Fascisti, 1921; became premier, October, 1922. See ITALY: 1920-1922; 1922 (June-August); (October-December).

MUSSOORIE, town of British India in the Dehra Dun district of the United Provinces. A conference was held here in 1920 between British and Afghan delegates. See AFGHANISTAN: 1920 (April-July).

MUSSULMANS. See MOHAMMEDANISM.

MUSTAFA I (1501-1639), Turkish sultan, 1617, 1622-1623.

Mustafa II (1664-1704), Turkish sultan, 1695-1703. See HUNGARY: 1683-1699.

Mustafa III (1717-1773), Turkish sultan, 1757-1773. See HUNGARY: 1768-1774.

Mustafa IV (1770-1808), Turkish sultan, 1807-1808.

MUSTAFA KEMAL (1870-), Turkish pasha. Commanded Third Army, 1917; succeeded Liman Pasha after the conquest of Palestine; organized a Nationalist army and became head of the Nationalist government; practically absolute ruler of Angora, Turkey; conducted counter-offensive against the Greeks in Asia Minor, 1921. See TURKEY: 1910-1920; 1921 (March-April); Secret treaties; EGYPT: 1907-1911; GREECE: 1921; 1922 (August-September); SEVRES, TREATY OF: 1920.

MUSTARD GAS. See POISON GAS: Description of a gas shell.

MUSTERS, Commissions of, commission in feudal England for compulsory registering of persons liable to military service. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 30.

MUTATION THEORY. See EVOLUTION: Mutation theory of De Vries.

MUTHUL, Battle of the (109 B.C.). See NUMIDIA: B.C. 118-104.

MUTINA, Battles of (72 B.C., 43 B.C.). See SPARTACUS; ROME: Republic: B.C. 44-42.

MUTINY.—The following is a list of important mutinies:

Cæsar's legions (47 B.C.). See ROME: Republic: B.C. 47-46.

English fleet at Nore. See ENGLAND: 1797.

Sepoy mutiny in India. See INDIA: 1857, to 1857-1858.

Russian fleet. See RUSSIA: 1905 (April-November).

German navy. See GERMANY: 1918 (March-November); (October-November); (November).

MUTINY ACT.—In 1689 the parliament (called a Convention at first) which settled the English crown upon William of Orange and Mary, "passed the first Act for governing the army as a separate and distinct body under its own peculiar laws, called 'The Mutiny Act.' [See also MILITARY LAW: Mutiny Act.] . . . The origin of the first Mutiny Act was this. France had declared war against

Holland, who applied under the treaty of Nimeguen to England for troops. Some English regiments refused to go, and it was felt that the common law could not be employed to meet the exigency. The mutineers were for the time by military force compelled to submit, happily without bloodshed; but the necessity for soldiers to be governed by their own code and regulations became manifest. Thereupon the aid of Parliament was invoked, but cautiously. The first Mutiny Act was very short in enactments and to continue only six months. It recited that standing armies and courts martial were unknown to English law, and enacted that no soldier should on pain of death desert his colours, or mutiny. At the expiration of the six months another similar Act was passed, also only for six months; and so on until the present practice was established of regulating and governing the army, now a national institution, by an annual Mutiny Act, which is requisite for the legal existence of a recognised force, whereby frequent meeting of Parliament is indirectly secured, if only to preserve the army in existence."—W. H. Torriano, *William the Third*, ch. 7.—"These are the two effectual securities against military power: that no pay can be issued to the troops without a previous authorisation by the commons in a committee of supply, and by both houses in an act of appropriation; and that no officer or soldier can be punished for disobedience, nor any court-martial held, without the annual re-enactment of the mutiny bill."—H. Hallam, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 3, ch. 15.

ALSO IN: T. B. Macaulay, *History of England*, v. 3, ch. 2.

MUTSUHITO (1852-1912), mikado of Japan, 1868-1912. See JAPAN: 1863-1868; 1868-1894; 1894-1912.

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

MUTTERSCHUTZ MOVEMENT (1905). See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1867-1921.

MUTUAL FIRE INSURANCE. See INSURANCE: Fire: Development in the United States.

MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE. See INSURANCE: Life: Development in the United States.

MUYSCAS, South American Indian tribe. See CHIBCHAS.

MUZAFFAR-ED-DIN (1853-1907), shah of Persia, 1896-1907. See PERSIA: 1905-1907.

MWANGA (d. 1903), king of Uganda, 1884-1903. See UGANDA: 1897-1898.

MWANZA, port on lake Victoria Nyanza, Tanganyika, Africa. It was occupied by the Allies in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 12.

MYCALE, Battle of. See GREECE: B.C. 479: Persian wars: Mycale.

MYCENÆ, ancient city and powerful stronghold of Argolis, Greece, southwest of Corinth. It was founded by Perseus. During the Persian wars it fought on the Greek side at Plataea. Mycenæ was a rival of Argos, the long warfare between them ending in 468 B.C., when the city was dismantled and its inhabitants dispersed. See GREECE: Mycenæ and its kings; B.C. 480: Persian Wars: Thermopylæ; ARGOS; ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Excavations and antiquities: Mycenaean area; EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization; SCULPTURE: Greek sculpture; HOMER; HERACLEIDÆ.

MYCERINUS, king of Egypt in the fourth dynasty. See EGYPT: Old empire and the middle empire.

MYCIANS, race so-called by the Greeks, who lived anciently on the coast of the Indian ocean, east of modern Kerman. They were known to

the Persians as Maka.—Based on G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies: Persia, ch. 1.*

MYLÆ, Naval battle of (260 B. C.). See PUNIC WARS: FIRST; ROME: REPUBLIC: B. C. 264-241.

MYONNESUS, Naval battle of (190 B. C.). See SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 224-187.

MYRES, John Linton (1869-), English historian. See HISTORY: 33.

MYRMIDONS.—According to Greek legend these people lived in Thessaly, their supposed ancestor being Myrmidon, the son of Zeus and Eurymedusa, whom Zeus wooed in the form of an ant, hence the name. Another legend says that when all the inhabitants of the island of Ægina had died of the plague except King Æacus, at his prayer Zeus changed the ants into men and that the Myrmidons went later to Thessaly. Myrmidons accompanied Achilles to the Trojan War as his soldiers. The name is now given to subordinates who execute orders of their superior without scruple, or mercy.

MYRON (born c. 450 B. C.), Greek sculptor. Pupil of Ageladas, founder of the Peloponnesian school; his most famous works are the runner, "Ladas," and the "Discobolus." See SCULPTURE: GREEK: B. C. 5th century; EDUCATION, ART: EGYPT.

MYRONIDES (fl. 457 B. C.), Athenian general. See GREECE: B. C. 458-456.

MYSIANS, ancient tribe of Asia Minor. See PHRYGIANS; THRACE: PEOPLE.

MYSORE, native state in southern India. (See INDIA: MAP.) It has an area of 20,475 square miles, and a population (1921) of 5,976,000. Mysore has rich gold fields, yielding 95 per cent of the gold of India. Sandal-wood carving is the chief industry. The present state was founded in 1610 and became powerful under Deva Raja. The dynasty was overthrown by Hyder Ali, who after a brief but brilliant reign, was defeated at Seringapatam in 1799. (See also INDIA: 1780-1783; 1785-1793; 1798-1805.) The British changed the capital from Seringapatam to Bangalore, and administered the country from 1831 to 1881, when it was restored to native rule by a treaty. The administration is carried on under the Maharaja of Mysore by the Diwan, or prime minister, assisted by two councillors. The administrative headquarters are at Bangalore. The dynastic capital is Mysore. In 1921 the population of the city was 83,932. Kanarese and Telugu are the chief languages.—Based on *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, xviii.—See also INDIA: 1662-1748; 1767-1769.

MYSORE WARS (1767-1805), wars of Hyder Ali and Tipoo Saib against the British. See INDIA: 1767-1769; 1780-1783; 1785-1793; 1798-1805.

MYSTERIES, Ancient religious. See ELEUSINIAN MYSTERIES.

MYSTIC SHRINE. See MASONIC SOCIETIES: Masonic bodies.

MYSTICISM, QUIETISM.—"There is probably no more misused word in these our days than 'mysticism.' It has come to be applied to many things of many kinds: to theosophy and Christian science; to spiritualism and clairvoyance; to demonology and witchcraft; to occultism and magic; to weird psychical experiences, if only they have some religious colour; to revelations and visions; to other-worldliness, or even mere dreaminess and impracticability in the affairs of life; to poetry and painting and music of which the motif is unobvious and vague. . . . Against all this stands the perfectly clear traditional historical meaning, handed down in the Christian Church throughout the centuries, not subject to confusion of thought until recent times. Here it is necessary to explain

that in the Latin Church the word used was not 'mysticism,' but 'contemplation.' The word 'mystic' was originally used in connexion with the Greek mysteries, as the Eleusinian. The Christian use of the word is due to the writer now known as pseudo-Dionysius, probably of the fifth century, who gave the title 'Mystical Theology' to the little treatise that was the first formulation of a doctrine on the subject. Though this treatise was at an early date translated into Latin and became well known in the West, the old word 'contemplation' held its ground, so that 'mystical' did not become current until the later Middle Ages, and 'mysticism' is a quite modern word. Consequently, 'contemplation' is the word that will be met with in St. Augustine, St. Gregory, and St. Bernard, to designate what is now commonly called 'the mystical experience.'—D. E. C. Butler, *Western mysticism*, pp. 2-3.—"Mysticism, in the religious sense, is the historic title for a special discipline or frame of the soul, through which it seeks to be literally at one with the highest reality of which it knows. The aim is not merely to understand, but to enter into, or become, this First Reality. . . . The true type, and parent-nerve, of mysticism, seems to be found in the Hindoo and Buddhist systems, where the First Reality is regarded as a bare abstract unity, without differences. The pilgrim puts off, husk by husk, the illusion of this motley world and the evil of phenomenal existence, in order at last, after many phases, to be drawn into the One. [See also BUDDHISM: Nirvana.] The hindrance is desire, which is left behind after a long training. . . . With the Neo-Platonists, the last great masters of Greek thought, the One figures at the apex of their system, lying beyond not only Soul and Mind but existence itself; and their chief, Plotinus, had rare and short ecstasies in which he attained to union with it."—O. Elton, *Note on mysticism* (*Fortnightly Review*, Sept., 1904).—"We find that in the 4th century the Church was troubled by a sect called Massalians or Euchites, who placed the whole of religion in the habit of mental prayer; alleging as their authority the Scripture precept 'That men ought always to pray, and not to faint.' They were for the most part monks of Mesopotamia and Syria; there were many of them at Antioch when St. Epiphanius wrote his Treatise against heresies, [in] 376. They held that every man is from his birth possessed by an evil spirit or familiar demon, who can only be cast out by the practice of continual prayer. . . . The Massalians did not openly separate from the Church; they were condemned, however, by two Councils—one at Antioch in 391, the other at Constantinople in 426. Delusions of the same kind were reproduced from time to time in the Oriental Church; and, as is commonly the case, the originators of error were followed by a race of disciples who advanced considerably beyond them. The Hesychasts, or Quietists of Mount Athos in the 14th century, seem to have been fanatics of an extreme type. They imagined that, by a process of profound contemplation, they could discern internally the light of the Divine Presence—the 'glory of God'—the very same which was disclosed to the Apostles on the Mount of Transfiguration. Hence they were also called Thaborites. The soul to which this privilege was vouchsafed had no need to practise any of the external acts or rites of religion. . . . The theory of abstract contemplation, with the extraordinary fruits supposed to be derived from it, travelled in due course into the West, and there gave birth to the far-famed school of the Mystics, of which there were vari-

ous ramifications. The earliest exponent of the system in France was John Scotus Erigena, the contemporary and friend of Charles the Bald. . . . Erigena incurred the censures of the Holy See; but the results of his teaching were permanent. . . . The Mystics, or Theosophists as some style them, attained a position of high renown and influence at Paris towards the close of the 12th century. Here two of the ablest expositors of the learning of the middle age, Hugh and Richard of St. Victor, initiated crowds of ardent disciples into the mysteries of the 'via interna,' and of 'pure love'—that marvellous quality by which the soul, sublimated and etherialized, ascends into the very presence-chamber of the King of kings. . . . The path thus traced was trodden by many who were to take rank eventually as the most perfect masters of spiritual science; among them are the venerated names of Thomas à Kempis, St. Bonaventure, John Tauler of Strasburg, Gerson, and St. Vincent Ferrier. . . . Under the various appellations of Beghards, Fratricelli, Cathari, Spirituals, Albigenses, Illuminati, Guerinets, and Quietists, the self-same delusion has been sedulously propagated in different parts of Christendom, and with the same ultimate consequences. A revival of the last-named sect, the Quietists, took place in Spain about the year 1675, when Michel de Molinos, a priest of the diocese of Saragossa, published his treatise called 'The Spiritual Guide,' or, in the Latin translation, 'Manuductio spiritualis.' . . . Molinos was arrested and imprisoned, and in due time the Inquisition condemned sixty-eight propositions from his works; a sentence which was confirmed by a Papal bull in August, 1687. Having undergone public penance, he was admitted to absolution; after which, in 'merciful' consideration of

his submission and repentance, he was consigned for the rest of his days to the dungeons of the Holy Office. Here he died in November, 1692. . . . The principles of Quietism had struck root so deeply, that they were not to be soon dislodged either by the terrors of the Inquisition, or by the well-merited denunciations of the Vatican. The system was irresistibly fascinating to minds of a certain order. Among those who were dazzled by it was the celebrated Jeanne Marie De la Mothe Guyon," whose ardent propagation of her mystic theology in the court circles of France—where Fenelon, Madame de Maintenon, and other important personages were greatly influenced—gave rise to bitter controversies and agitations. In the end, Madame Guyon was silenced and imprisoned and Fenelon was subjected to humiliating papal censures.—W. H. Jervis, *History of the Church of France*, v. 2, ch. 4.—The German mind welcomed mysticism. Elizabeth of Hungary, the pious land-gravine of Thuringia, aided in its spread in the thirteenth century. In Meister Eckart (c. 1260-1327), scholastic mysticism became practical and philosophical. His followers were numerous. His disciple, Tauler, visited Jan van Ruysbroeck (1294-1381), father of mysticism in the Netherlands. Mystical theology with chemicastrological speculations is exhibited in T. B. von Hohenheim, known as Paracelsus (1493-1541), whose theories, mingled with those of Schwenkfeld (1490-1561), Franck (1500-1545), and Weigel (1533-1588), influenced Jakob Böhme (Boehme, Behmen Behmont), father of the chief developments of theosophy in modern Germany.—See also CHRISTIANITY: The beginnings; EUROPE: Ancient; GREEK civilization; Spread of Hellenism; BRAHMANISM; VEDANTISM; NEOPLATONISM; SWEDENBORG.

MYTHOLOGY

Meaning of the word.—Folk lore in relation to history.—"In dealing with the folklore of any country, it is important to note the general bearing of anthropological conditions. The earliest inhabitants, to whom part of the folklore belonged, and the later peoples, to whom part belonged, have both arrived at their ultimate point of settlement in the country where we discover their folklore after being in touch with many points of the world's surface. They are both world-people as well as national people—they belonged to anthropology before they came under the dominion of history. This important fact is often or nearly always neglected. We are apt to treat of Greek and Roman and Briton, of Cretan, Scandinavian, and Russian, as bounded by the few thousands of years of life which have fixed them with their territorial names, and to ignore all that lies behind this historic period. There is, as a matter of fact, an immense period behind it, reckoned according to geological time in millions of years, and this period, longer in duration, more strenuous in its influences upon character and mind, containing more representatives in peoples, societies, and races than the later period, has affected the later period to a far greater extent than is generally conceded or understood. We cannot understand the later period without knowing something of the earlier period. . . . Early beliefs cannot properly be separated from the society of which they form a component part. We require to know not only what beliefs a particular people possess, but in what manner these beliefs generate custom and rite and take their place among the influences which affect the social organism. . . . If the several items of custom and belief preserved by

tradition are really ancient in their origin, they must be floating fragments, as it were, of an ancient system of custom and belief—the cultus of the people among whom they originated. This cultus has been destroyed, struggling unsuccessfully against foreign and more vigorous systems of religion and society. To be of service to history each floating fragment of ancient custom and belief must not only be labelled 'ancient,' but it must be placed back in the system from which it has been torn away."—G. L. Gomme, *Folklore as an historical science*, pp. 208-209, 306-307.—See also HISTORY: 12; 13.

Myths affected by race.—"No one is likely to confound a Homeric myth with a myth from the Edda, nor either with a myth from a Brahmana, though in all three cases the substance, the original set of ideas, may be much the same. In all three you have anthropomorphic gods, capable of assuming animal shapes, tricky, capricious, limited in many undivine ways, yet endowed with magical powers. So far the mythical gods of Homer, of the Edda, of any of the Brahmanas, are on a level with each other, and not much above the gods of savage mythology. This stuff of myth is *quod semper, quod ubique, quod ab omnibus*, and is the original gift of the savage intellect. But the final treatment, the ultimate literary form of the myth, varies in each race. Homeric gods, like Red Indian, Thlinket, or Australian gods, can assume the shapes of birds. But when we read, in Homer, of the arming of Athene, the hunting of Artemis, the vision of golden Aphrodite, the apparition of Hermes, like a young man when the flower of youth is loveliest, then we recognise the effect of

race upon myth, the effect of the Greek genius at work on rude material. Between the Olympians and a Thlinket god there is all the difference that exists between the Demeter of Cnidos and an image from Easter Island. Again, the Scandinavian gods, when their tricks are laid aside, when Odin is neither assuming the shape of worm nor of raven, have a martial dignity, a noble enduring spirit of their own. Race comes out in that, as it does in the endless sacrifices, soma drinking, magical austerities, and puerile follies of Vedic and Brahmanic gods, the deities of a people fallen early into its sacerdotage and priestly second childhood. Thus race declares itself in the ultimate literary form and character of mythology, while the common savage basis and stuff of myths may be clearly discerned in the horned, and cannibal, and shape-shifting, and adulterous gods of Greece, of India, of the North. They all show their common savage origin, when the poet neglects Freya's command and tells of what the gods did 'in the morning of Time.'—A. Lang, *Custom and myth*, pp. 26-27.

ALSO IN: A. Lang, *Myth, ritual and religion*, v. 1, pp. 4-38.

African.—Fetichism.—Totemism.—"Africa, so far as it is neither Musliman nor Christian, comprises two great ethnical divisions which present very diverse religious phenomena: Kafirs, Hottentots and Bushmen in the south; Negroes in the centre, the east and west. There are further marked differences between the Negroes of the Soudanese or western group and those of the Bantu or eastern group. . . . The religion of the South Africans seems poor and sterile, perhaps because it has been but imperfectly studied hitherto. Trees and animals are held to be the ancestors of man, and it is chiefly in animal forms that the dead appear to the living. . . . Among the Negroes, Fetichism, or as it is called in the basin of the Niger *Jujûism* (from *juju*, a fetich), is predominant. The fetich is a material object, natural or artificial, in which the ancestral spirit, which has become the protecting spirit of a group or tribe, has taken up its abode. Fetichism is so deeply implanted in the souls of the Negroes that they even adapt to it the more enlightened creeds taught them, such as Christianity or Islamism. . . . The Bantu Negroes, who live in the regions of the great lakes, are divided into totemic clans; the members of a clan may neither kill their totem, nor marry a wife of their own clan. Totemism is also to be found in British East Africa and in Madagascar, with a strongly developed system of magic."—S. Reinach, *Orpheus*, pp. 154-156.

American Indian.—Creation myths.—Birds.—Serpent.—Great Hare.—"The mythologies of the Red Man are infinitely more rich in creative and deluge myths than those of any other race in the two hemispheres. Tales which deal with the origin of man are exceedingly frequent, and exhibit every phase of the type of creative story. Although many of these are similar to European and Asiatic myths of the same class, others show great originality, and strikingly present to our minds the characteristics of American aboriginal thought. The creation-myths of the various Indian tribes differ as much from one another as do those of Europe and Asia. In some we find the great gods moulding the universe, in others we find them merely discovering it. Still others lead their people from subterranean depths to the upper earth. In many Indian myths we find the world produced by the All-Father sun, who thickens the clouds into water, which becomes the sea. . . . The serpent and the bird appear sometimes separately, sometimes in strange combination, in North American mythology. The bird

is always incomprehensible to the savage. Its power of flight, its appearance in the heavens where dwell the gods, and its musical song combine to render it in his sight a being of mystery, possessing capabilities far above his own. From it he conceives the idea of the winged spirit or god, and he frequently regards it as a messenger from the bright regions of the sun or the sky deity. . . . The eagle appears to have been regarded with extreme veneration by the Red Man of the north. . . . Some writers think that the serpent symbolized the Indian idea of eternity, but it is unlikely that such a recondite conception would appeal to a primitive folk. . . . Among the Indians the serpent also typified the lightning. The rapidity and sinuosity of its motions, its quick spring and sharp recoil, prove the aptness of the illustration. The brilliancy of the serpent's basilisk glance and the general intelligence of its habits would speedily give it a reputation for wisdom, and therefore as the possessor of *orenda*, or magic power. . . . Algonquins believed that the lightning was an immense serpent vomited by the Manito, or creator, and said that he leaves serpentine twists and folds on the trees that he strikes. The Pawnees called the thunder 'the hissing of the great snake.' . . . As the emblem of the fertilizing summer showers the lightning serpent was the god of fruitfulness; but as the forerunner of floods and disastrous rains it was feared and dreaded. . . . As in all mythologies, godhead is often attached to the conception of the bringer of culture, the sapient being who first instructs mankind in the arts of life, agriculture, and religion. American mythologies possess many such hero-gods, and it is not always easy to say whether they belong to history or mythology. . . . We discover one of the first class in Michabo, the Great Hare, the principal deity of the Algonquins. In the accounts of the older travellers we find him described as the ruler of the winds, the inventor of picture-writing, and even the creator and preserver of the world. . . . In the autumn, ere he takes his winter sleep, he fills his great pipe and smokes, and the smoke which arises is seen in the clouds which fill the air with the haze of the Indian summer. . . . The great life-giving god of the Creeks and other Muskogean was Esaugetuh Emisee, whose name signifies, 'Master of Breath.' The sound of the name represents the emission of breath from the mouth. He was the god of wind, and, like many another divinity in American mythology, his rule over that element was allied with his power, over the breath of life—one of the forms of wind or air. Savage man regards the wind as the great source of breath and life. . . . North America is rich in thundergods. Of these a typical example is Haokah, the god of the Sioux. . . . The Dakota Indians worshipped a deity whom they addressed as Waukheon (Thunder-bird). This being was engaged in constant strife with the water-god, Unktahe, who was a cunning sorcerer, and a controller of dreams and witchcraft. Their conflict probably symbolizes the atmospheric changes which accompany the different seasons."—L. Spence, *Myths of the North American Indians*, pp. 106, 110-112, 119-120, 122-126.—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN; Cultural areas in North America.

Arabian and Persian.—Jinn.—Solomon.—Mountains of Kaf.—Peries.—Deevis.—"The Muslims, in general, believe in three different species of created intelligent beings: Angels, who are created of light; Genii, who are created of fire; and Men, created of earth. . . . No man ever obtained such absolute power over the Jinn as Suleyman Ibn Daood (Solomon, the son of David). This he did by virtue of a most wonderful talisman, which is

said to have come down to him from heaven. It was a seal-ring, upon which was engraved 'the most great name' of God, and was partly composed of brass and partly of iron. . . . By virtue of this name engraved on his ring, Suleyman compelled the Jinn to assist in building the Temple of Jerusalem, and in various other works. . . . The Mountains of Kaf, which bound the Circumambient Ocean and form a circular barrier round the whole of our earth, are described by interpreters of the Kur-an [Koran] as composed of green chrysolite, like the green tint of the sky. . . . They are the chief abode of the Jinn, or Genii.—E. W. Lane, *Arabian society in the Middle Ages*, p. 25.—Persian mythology is closely connected with Arabian. "In the realms of supernatural light sits enthroned Ormuzd, the first-born of beings; around him are the six Amshaspands, the twenty-eight Izeds, and the countless myriads of Ferohers. In the opposite kingdom of darkness Aherman [Ahriman] is supreme, and his throne is encompassed by the six Arch-Deevis, and the numerous hosts of inferior Deevis. Between these rival powers ceaseless warfare prevails; but at the end the prince of darkness will be subdued, and peace and happiness prevail beneath the righteous sway of Ormuzd. From this sublime system of religion probably arose the Peri- or Fairy-system of modern Persia. . . . The Peries and Deevis of the modern Persians answer to the good and evil Jinn of the Arabs. . . . The same Suleymans ruled over them as over the Jinn, and both alike were punished for disobedience. It is difficult to say which is the original; but when we recollect in how much higher a state of culture the Persians were than the Arabs, and how well this view accords with their ancient system of religion, we shall feel inclined to believe that the Arabs were the borrowers, and that by mingling with the Persian system ideas derived from the Jews, that one was formed by them which is now the common property of all Moslems. In like manner we regard the Mountains of Kaf, the abode alike of Jinn and of Peries and Deevis, as having belonged originally to Persian geography. The fullest account of it appears in the Persian romance of Hatim Tai, the hero of which often visited its regions. From this it would seem that this mountain-range was regarded as, like that of the ancient Greek cosmology, surrounding the flat circular earth like a ring, or rather like the bulwarks of a ship, outside of which flowed the ocean; while some Arab authorities make it to lie beyond, and to enclose the ocean as well as the earth. . . . According to some, its height is two thousand English miles. Jinnestan is the common appellation of the whole of this ideal region. Its respective empires were divided into many kingdoms, containing numerous provinces and cities. Thus in the Peri-realms we meet with the luxuriant province of Shad-u-kam (*Pleasure and Delight*), with its magnificent capital Juherabad (*Jewel-city*), whose two kings solicited the aid of Caherman against the Deevis, also the stately Amberabad (*Amber-city*), and others equally splendid. The metropolis of the Deev-empire is named Ahermanabad (*Aherman's city*); and imagination has lavished its stores in the description of the enchanted castle, palace, and gallery of the Deev monarch, Arzshenk."—T. Keightley, *Fairy mythology*, pp. 14-16.

Babylonian and Assyrian.—Great triad.—Marduk.—Ishtar.—Pantheon of Assyria.—Winged bulls.—"At the head of the company of the gods may be set the great triad of deities Anu, Bēl and Ea, whose spheres of influence together embraced the entire universe. Anu was the god of heaven, Bēl the god of the earth and of mankind,

and Ea the god of the Abyss of water beneath the earth. . . . After these three deities with their world-wide dominion may be set a second triad, consisting of the two great gods of light, Sin and Shamash, and the god of the atmosphere, Rammān. Sin, the Moon-god, identified also with Nannar, had two centres of worship, the temple E-gish-shirgal in Ur, and the temple E-khul-khul in Kharran, of which the former was the more ancient. In Ur the worship of the Moon-god was celebrated from remote antiquity, and in influence and splendour his cult appears to have eclipsed that of Shamash, the Sun-god, whose worship was centred in the cities of Sippar and Larsa, in two great temples each of which bore the name of E-babbara, 'the bright house.' . . . The most prominent deity in the company of the Babylonian gods was Marduk, who, as the local god of Babylon, naturally claimed the highest respect from the men of his own city. . . . In intimate association with Marduk may be mentioned Nabū, the god of Borsippa, a city which is marked to-day by the mound of Birs Nimrūd, and which, built a little to the south-west of Babylon on the opposite bank of the Euphrates, was in its later period little more than a suburb of the capital. . . . Another prominent deity was Nergal, whose temple, E-shidlam, in the city of Kūtū, or Cuthah, was one of the oldest and largest sanctuaries in Northern Babylonia. In general character Nergal was the god of battle. . . . A god who was in later times closely associated with Nergal is Ninib. The reading of his name is conjectural, and his original character is also a matter of some uncertainty, but under the Assyrian kings his personality was more clearly indicated. By them he was regarded as a god of battle and the chase, and it was to Nergal and Ninib that they ascribed the gift of their mighty weapons. The Fire-god, Nusku, may also be mentioned among the more important deities, in view of the prominent position he occupies in the magical works of the Babylonians. The Babylonian goddesses, with one exception, are not very imposing figures, nor are their characters very sharply defined or differentiated. Their position corresponded to some extent with the inferior position of women in Babylonia. . . . There is one very striking exception to this general rule, namely the goddess Ishtar. This deity in her own person appears to have absorbed the power and influence which were, at times, ascribed to other goddesses. She was identified with the Sumerian goddess Ninni, and in the Assyrian inscriptions she becomes the wife of the national god Ashur; she was also referred to as 'Bēlit,' i.e. 'the Lady,' and in this character she assumed the titles and prerogatives of the wife of Bēl. In course of time the name 'Ishtar' was employed as a generic term for goddess. In Babylonia, moreover, she was known by two different local names, which represented two quite distinct and separate characters. Under the title Anunitu she was worshipped as the goddess of battle at Agade and also at the city called Sippar of Anunitu; and under this aspect she was regarded as the daughter of Sin the Moon-god and of Ningal his wife. At the great temple of E-ana at Frech, on the other hand, she was worshipped as the goddess of love and identified with Nanā; and in this character she was regarded as the daughter of Anu and Anatu. It was in her gentler character as the goddess of love that she became connected in legend with Dumuzi, or Tammuz, her lover who died in early youth, and for the sake of whose recovery she descended to the realm of the dead. She was served at Erech by numerous priestesses attached to her worship, and the rites practised at her shrine, a later form of which is described by Hero-

dotus, were performed in her honour as the goddess of love. . . . The identification of the planets with some of the greater gods was probably neither a very early nor primitive development, but one which took place after the Babylonian company of the gods had been definitely formed."—L. W. King, *Babylonian religion and mythology (Books on Egypt and Chaldaea, v. 4, pp. 14, 17-18, 21-25)*.—"The Pantheon of Assyria, as befitted the religious system of a nation of soldiers, was more highly organized than that of the kindred people of Babylonia, the ranks and relationships of the gods who comprised it were more definitely fixed, it was considerably more compact than that of the southern kingdom, and its lesser luminaries were fewer. . . . The state religion of Assyria centres in Asshur, nor was any deity ever so closely identified with an empire as he. On the fall of the Assyrian state, Asshur fell with it. Moreover, all the gods of Assyria may be said to have been combined in his person. In Babylonia, Merodach [Marduk] was a leader of hosts. In Assyria, Asshur personified these hosts, that is, the other Assyrian gods had become attributes of Asshur, and we can only understand the remaining Assyrian gods if we regard them as lesser Asshurs. . . . We find temples to him broadcast over Assyria. Indeed as Assyrian history advances, we see different cities alluded to as the chief centre of his worship, and he resides now at Asshur, now at Calah, now at Nineveh, now at Khorsabad. Wherever the Kings of Assyria took up their official residence there Asshur was adored, and there he was supposed to dwell. He was not symbolized by an idol, or any man-like statue, which would serve to give the populace an idea of his physical likeness, but was represented by a standard consisting of a pole surrounded by a disc enclosed with two wings. Above the disc was the figure of a warrior with bent bow and arrow on string. This well symbolized the military nature of the Assyrian nation and of its tutelary deity. . . . Next to Asshur in the affections of the Assyrian people stood Ishtar. As a goddess in Assyria she was absolutely identical with the Babylonian Ishtar, her favourite shrines in the northern kingdom being Nineveh, Arbela, and the temple of Kidmuru, also in Nineveh. . . . She appeared in dreams to the war-loving Kings of Assyria, encouraging and heartening them with words of cheer to further military exploits. Fire was her raiment, and, as became a goddess of battle, her appearance was terrific. She consumed the enemies of Assur-banipal with flames. Still, strangely enough, in the religious texts, influenced probably by Babylonian sources, she was still to a great extent the mild and bountiful mother of nature. . . . Dagan the fish-god, who . . . was the same as Oannes or Ea, strangely enough rose to high rank in Assyria. Some authorities consider him of Philistian or Aramean origin, and do not compare him with Ea, who rose from the waters of the Persian Gulf to enlighten his people, and it is evident that the Mesopotamian-Palestinian region contained several versions of the origin of this god, ascribing it to various places. In the Assyrian pantheon he is associated with Anu, who rules the heavens, Dagan supervising the earth. It is strange to observe a deity whose sphere must originally have been the sea, presiding over the terrestrial plane, and this transference it was which cost Dagan his popularity in Assyria, for later he became identified with Bel and disappeared almost entirely from the Assyrian pantheon. . . . Ramman enjoyed much greater popularity in Assyria than in Babylonia, for there he exercised the functions of a second Asshur, and was regarded as destruction personified. . . . The

weapons of Ramman are lightning, deluge, hunger, and death, and woe to the nation upon whom he visits his wrath, for upon it he visits flood and famine. Thus his attributes as a storm-god are brought into play when he figures as a war deity. . . . As for Bel, whose place Merodach usurped in the Babylonian pantheon, he was also recognized in Assyria, and Tiglath-pileser I built him a temple in his city of Asshur. . . . Ea was of course accepted into the Assyrian pantheon because of his membership in the old Assyrian triad, but he was also regarded as a god of wisdom, possibly because of his venerable reputation; and we find him also as patron of the arts, and especially of building and architecture. Threefold was his power of direction in this respect. The great Colossi, the enormous winged bulls and mythological figures which flanked the avenues leading to the royal palaces, the images of the gods, and, lastly, the greater



ASSYRIAN CONCEPTION OF ASSHUR

Carved about 4,000 years ago

buildings, were all examples of the architectural art of which he was the patron. . . . The winged bulls so closely identified with ancient Chaldean mythology were probably associated with Merodach. These may have represented the original totemic forms of the gods in question, but we must not confound the bull forms of Merodach and Ea with those winged bulls which guarded the entrances to the temples. These, to perpetrate a double 'bull,' were not bulls at all but divine beings, the gods or genii of the holy places. The human head attached to them indicated that the creature was endowed with humanity and the bull-like body symbolized strength. When the Babylonian translated the word 'bull' from the Akkadian tongue he usually rendered it 'hero' or 'strong one.' It is thought that the bull forms of Ea and Merodach must have originated at Eridu, for both of these deities were connected with the city. The Babylonians regarded the sky-country as a double of the plain in which they dwelt, and they believed that the gods as planets ploughed their way across the azure fields of air. Thus the sun was the 'Bull of Light.'

and Jupiter, the nearest of the planets to the ecliptic, was known as the 'Planet of the Bull of Light.'—L. Spence, *Myths and legends of Babylonia and Assyria*, pp. 203, 206-207, 212-213, 216-218, 227, 229, 289-290.—See also BABYLONIA: Creation myths.

Celtic: Pre-Roman.—"The same great gods were, no doubt, adored by all the Celts not only of Great Britain and Ireland, but of Continental Gaul as well. Sometimes they can be traced by name right across the ancient Celtic world. . . . Just as the Olympians struggled with the Giants, the Æsir fought the Jotuns, and the Devas the Asuras, so there is warfare in the Gaelic spiritual world between two superhuman hosts. On one side are ranged the gods of day, light, life, fertility, wisdom, and good; on the other, the demons of night, darkness, death, barrenness, and evil. . . . The first are ranged as a divine family round a goddess called Danu, from whom they took their well-known name of *Tuatha Dé Danann*, 'Tribe' or 'Folk of the Goddess Danu.' The second owned allegiance to a female divinity called Domnu; their king, Indech, is described as her son, and they are all called 'Domnu's gods.' The word 'Domnu' appears to have signified the abyss or the deep sea, and the same idea is also expressed in their better-known name of 'Fomors,' derived from two Gaelic words meaning 'under sea.' The waste of water seems to have always impressed the Celts with the sense of primeval ancientness; it was connected in their minds with vastness, darkness, and monstrous births—the very antithesis of all that was symbolized by the earth, the sky, and the sun. Therefore the Fomors were held to be more ancient than the gods, before whom they were, however, destined to fall in the end. . . . Gaelic tradition recognizes two divine dynasties anterior to the *Tuatha Dé Danann*. The first of these was called 'The Race of Partholon.' Its head and leader came—as all gods and men came, according to Celtic ideas—from the Other World, and landed in Ireland with a retinue of twenty-four males and twenty-four females upon the first of May, the day called 'Beltaine,' sacred to Bilé, the god of death. . . . Following the race of Partholon, came the race of Nemed, which carried on the work and traditions of its forerunner. . . . The most ancient divinity of whom we have any knowledge is Danu herself, the goddess from whom the whole hierarchy of gods received its name of *Tuatha Dé Danann*. . . . All the other gods are, at least by title, her children. The greatest of these would seem to have been Nuada, called *Argellam*, or 'He of the Silver Hand.' He was at once the Gaelic Zeus, or Jupiter, and their war-god. . . . After Nuada, the greatest of the gods was the Dagda, whose name seems to have meant the 'Good God.' . . . The Dagda had several children, the most important of whom are Brigit, Angus, Mider, Ogma, and Bodb the Red. Of these, Brigit will be already familiar to English readers who know nothing of Celtic myth. Originally she was a goddess of fire and the hearth, as well as of poetry, which the Gaels deemed an immaterial, supersensual form of flame. But the early Christianizers of Ireland adopted the pagan goddess into their roll of saintship, and, thus canonized, she obtained immense popularity as Saint Bridget, or Bride. . . . Her Christian attributes, almost all connected with fire, attest her pagan origin. She was born at sunrise; a house in which she dwelt blazed into a flame which reached to heaven; a pillar of fire rose from her head when she took the veil; and her breath gave new life to the dead. . . . With so little of her

essential character and ritual changed, it is small wonder that the half-pagan, half-Christian Irish gladly accepted the new saint in the stead of the old goddess."—C. Squire, *Mythology of the British islands*, pp. 43, 48, 65, 67, 50-51, 54, 56, 228-229.—"The institution of Druids [see Druids] was supposed to have come originally from Britain; but the British druids are never mentioned by Cæsar. They sat down at a certain time of the year, in the borders of Britain, in a consecrated grove of the island Mona (now Anglesey); whither all, from every quarter, among whom was controversy, came together, and acquiesced in their judgments and decrees. . . . The druids held nothing more sacred than the mistletoe, and the tree on which it grew, provided it were an oak. Therefore, they chose out solitary groves, wherein were no trees but oaks, nor performed any ceremonies without the branches or leaves of that tree. So that from thence (if we regard the Greek signification) they may very well be thought to have taken the name of *Druidæ*."—J. Ritson, *Memoirs of the Celts or Gauls*, pp. 71, 95-96.—"Brittany, the ancient Armorica, retains perhaps as unmixed a population as any part of Western Europe. Its language has been, however, like the Welsh and the Celtic dialects, greatly affected by the Latin and Teutonic. The ancient intercourse kept up with Wales and Cornwall by the Bretons, who were in a great measure colonists from these parts of Britain, caused the traditions and poetry of the latter to be current and familiar in Little Britain, as that country was then called. . . . The origin of the Breton Korrigan, as they are called, has been sought, and not improbably, in the Gallicenæ or ancient Gaul. . . . The Korrigan, our authority further states, can predict the future, assume any form they please, move from place to place with the rapidity of thought, [and] cure maladies by the aid of charms which they communicate to their favourites. Their size is said not to exceed two feet, but their proportions are most exact; and they have long flowing hair, which they comb out with great care. Their only dress is a long white veil, which they wind round their body. Seen at night, or in the dusk of the evening, their beauty is great; but in the daylight their eyes appear red, their hair white, and their faces wrinkled; hence they rarely let themselves be seen by day. They are fond of music, and have fine voices, but are not much given to dancing. Their favourite haunts are the springs, by which they sit and comb their hair. . . . At Carnac, near Quiberon, says M. de Cambry, in the department of Morbihan, on the sea-shore, is the Temple of Carnac, called in Breton 'Ti Goriquet' (*House of the Gories*), one of the most remarkable Celtic monuments extant. It is composed of more than four thousand large stones, standing erect in an arid plain, where neither tree nor shrub is to be seen, and not even a pebble is to be found in the soil on which they stand. If the inhabitants are asked concerning this wonderful monument, they say it is an old camp of Cæsar's, an army turned into stone, or that it is the work of the Crions or Gories. These they describe as little men between two and three feet high, who carried these enormous masses on their hands; for, though little, they are stronger than giants. Every night they dance around the stones; and woe betide the traveller who approaches within their reach! he is forced to join in the dance, where he is whirled about till, breathless and exhausted, he falls down, amidst the peals of laughter of the Crions. All vanish with the break of day."—T. Keightley, *Fairy mythology*, pp. 419-420, 431, 440-441.—"In

all lands whither the Celts came as conquerors there was an existing population with whom they must eventually have made alliances. They imposed their language upon them—the Celtic regions are or were recently regions of Celtic speech—but just as many words of the aboriginal vernacular must have been taken over by the conquerors, or their own tongue modified by Celtic. So must it have been with their mythology. Celtic and pre-Celtic folk alike had many myths, and these were bound to intermingle, with the result that such Celtic legends as we possess must contain remnants of the aboriginal mythology, though it, like the descendants of the aborigines, has become Celtic. It would be difficult, in the existing condition of the old mythology, to say this is of Celtic, that of non-Celtic origin, for that mythology is now but fragmentary. The gods of the Celts were many, but of large cantiles of the Celtic race—the Celts of Gaul and of other parts of the continent of Europe—scarcely any myths have survived. A few sentences of Classical writers or images of divinities or scenes depicted on monuments point to what was once a rich mythology. These monuments, as well as inscriptions with names of deities, are numerous there as well as in parts of Roman Britain, and belong to the Romano-Celtic period. In Ireland, Wales, and north-western Scotland they do not exist, though in Ireland and Wales there is a copious literature based on mythology. Indeed, we may express the condition of affairs in a formula: Of the gods of the Continental Celts many monuments and no myths; of those of the Insular Celts many myths but no monuments. The myths of the Continental Celts were probably never committed to writing. They were contained in the sacred verses taught by the Druids, but it was not lawful to write them down; they were tabu, and doubtless their value would have vanished if they had been set forth in script.”—J. A. Macculloch, *Celtic mythology* (L. H. Gray, ed., *Mythology of all races*, v. 3, introduction, p. 7).

Celtic: Roman.—“The influences of Roman civilization and religion were fatal to the oral mythology taught by Druids, who were ruthlessly extirpated, while the old religion was assimilated to that of Rome. The gods were equated with Roman gods, who tended to take their place; the people became Romanized and forgot their old beliefs. Doubtless traditions survived among the folk, and may still exist as folk-lore or fairy superstition, just as folk-customs, the meaning of which may be uncertain to those who practise them, are descended from the rituals of a vanished paganism; but such existing traditions could be used only with great caution as indexes of the older myths. . . . There is no evidence that all the Gauls worshipped a few gods. Many local deities with similar functions but different names is the evidence of the inscriptions, and these are grouped collectively by Caesar and assimilated to Roman divinities. There are many local Mercuries, Minervas, Apollos, and the like, each with his Celtic name attached to that of the Roman god. Or, again, they are nameless, as in the case of the Yorkshire inscription, ‘To the god who invented roads and paths’—an obvious Mercury. Caesar adds, ‘The Gauls declare that they are descended from Dispatier, and this, they say, has been handed down by the Druids.’ . . . A British goddess Sul, equated with Minerva at Bath, is mentioned by Solinus (third century A.D.) as presiding over warm springs. In her temple perpetual fires burned and never grew old, for where the fire wasted away it turned into shining globes.

The latter statement is travellers’ gossip, but the ‘eternal fires’ recall the sacred fire of St. Brigit at Kildare, tended by nineteen nuns in turn, a day at a time, and on the twentieth by the dead saint herself. The fire was tabu to males, who must not even breathe on it. This breath tabu in connexion with fire is found among Parsis, Brahmins, Slavs, in Japan, and formerly in Rügen. The saint succeeded to the myth or ritual of a goddess, the Irish Brigit, or the Brigindo or Brigantia of Gaulish and British inscriptions, who was likewise equated with Minerva. . . . The sixth century Byzantine historian Procopius has a curious story about the island of ‘Brittia,’ which was divided by a wall from north to south. West of the wall none could live, so foul was the air, so many the vipers and evil beasts; but in its inhabited part dwelt Angles, Frisians, and Britons. The island lay between Britannia and Thule. Thule is probably Scandinavia; Britannia, which is, strictly speaking, Britain, is confused with the region lying between Brittany and the mouths of the Scheldt and Rhine. Brittia is Britain; the wall is the Roman Wall, shown on Ptolemy’s map running north and south at the present Scottish border, because Scotland was represented as lying at right angles to England. The region beyond the wall, mountainous, forest-clad, and inaccessible, was easily conceived as a sinister place by those who heard of it only vaguely. Procopius then says that on the coast of the Continent fishermen and farmers are exempt from taxation because it is their duty to ferry souls over to Brittia, doing this in turn. At midnight they hear a knocking at their door and muffled voices calling; but when they reach the shore, they see only empty boats, not their own. In these they set out and presently perceive that the boats have become laden, the gunwale being close to the water; and within an hour Brittia is reached, though ordinarily it would take a day and a night to cross the sea.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 8-9, 11, 15-16.

Celtic: Christian era.—“In Wales and Ireland, where Roman civilization was unknown, mythology had a better chance of survival. Yet here, as in Gaul, it was forced to contend with triumphant Christianity, which was generally hostile to paganism. Still, curiously enough, Christian verity was less destructive of Celtic myths than was Roman civilization, unless the Insular Celts were more tenacious of myth than their Continental cousins. Sooner or later the surviving myths, more often fragments than finished entities, were written down; the bards and the *filid* (learned poets) took pride in preserving the glories of their race; and even learned Christian monks must have assisted in keeping the old stories alive. . . . In the two heroic cycles—those of Cúchulainn and Fionn respectively—the . . . Celtic magic and glamour are found. . . . The main sources for the study of Irish mythology are the documents contained in such great manuscripts as the *Book of Leinster* and the *Book of the Dun Cow* (*Leabhar na Uidhre*), written in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, but based on materials of older date. Later manuscripts also contain important stories. Floating tales and traditions, fairy-and-folklore, are also valuable, and much of this material has now been published. Among the British Celts, or those of them who escaped the influence of Roman civilization, the mythological remains are far less copious. Here, too, the euhemerizing process has been at work, but much more has the element of romance affected the old myths. They have become romantic tales arranged, as in the *Mabinogion*, in definite

groups, and the *dramatis personae* are the ancient gods, though it is difficult to say whether the incidents are myths transformed or are fresh romantic inventions of a mythic kind. Still, the Welsh *Mabinogion* is of great importance, as well as some parts of Arthurian romances, the poems about Taliesin, and other fragments of Welsh literature."—*Ibid.*, pp. 17-19.—"Of the Irish manuscripts, the earliest . . . is in the possession of the Royal Irish Academy. Unluckily, it is reduced to a fragment of one hundred and thirty-eight pages, but this remnant preserves a large number of romances relating to the old gods and heroes of Ireland. Among other things, it contains a complete account of the epical saga called the *Táin Bó Chuailgne*, the 'Raiding of the Cattle of Cooley,' in which the hero, Cuchulainn, performed his greatest feats. This manuscript is called the Book of the Dun Cow, from the tradition that it was copied from an earlier book written upon the skin of a favourite animal belonging to Saint Ciaran, who lived in the seventh century. . . . Far more voluminous, and but little less ancient, is the Book of Leinster, said to have been compiled in the early part of the twelfth century by Finn mac Gorman, Bishop of Kildare. This also contains an account of Cuchulainn's mighty deeds which supplements the older version in the Book of the Dun Cow. . . . The Welsh documents cover the same period as the Irish and the Scottish. Four of these stand out from the rest, as most important. The oldest is the Black Book of Caermarthen, which dates from the third quarter of the twelfth century; the Book of Aneurin, which was written late in the thirteenth; the Book of Taliessin, assigned to the fourteenth; and the Red Book of Hergest, compiled by various persons during that century and the one following it. . . . The last—the Red Book of Hergest—is far larger. In it are to be found . . . the so-called Mabinogion, stories in which large portions of the old British mythology are worked up into romantic form. The whole bulk, therefore, of the native literature bearing upon the mythology of the British Islands may be attributed to a period which lasted from the beginning of the twelfth century to the end of the sixteenth."—C. Squire, *Mythology of the British islands*, pp. 9-12.—See also CELTS: Religion.

Chinese.—Gods and goddesses.—"In the earliest times there was an 'age of magic' followed by an 'heroic age,' but myths were very rare before 800 B. C., and what is known as primitive mythology is said to have been invented or imitated from foreign sources after 820 B. C. In the eighth century B. C. myths of an astrological character began to attract attention. . . . The most conspicuous figure in Chinese cosmogony is P'an Ku. He it was who chiselled the universe out of Chaos. According to Chinese ideas, he was the offspring of the original dual powers of Nature, the *yin* and the *yang*. . . . Some accounts describe him as the actual creator of the universe—'the ancestor of Heaven and earth and all that live and move and have their being.' . . . P'an Ku is pictured as a man of dwarfish stature clothed in bearskin, or merely in leaves or with an apron of leaves. He has two horns on his head. In his right hand he holds a hammer and in his left a chisel (sometimes these are reversed), the only implements he used in carrying out his great task. Other pictures show him attended in his labours by the four supernatural creatures—the unicorn, phoenix, tortoise, and dragon; others again with the sun in one hand and the moon in the other, some of the first fruits of his stupendous labours.

. . . The Chinese pantheon has gradually become so multitudinous that there is scarcely a being or thing which is not, or has not been at some time or other, propitiated or worshipped. . . . Buddhism and its mythology have formed an important part of Chinese thought for nearly two thousand years. . . . The principal gods of Buddhism are Jan-t'eng Fo, the Light-lamp Buddha, Mi-lo Fo (Maitrēya), the expected Messiah of the Buddhists, O-mi-t'o Fo (Amitabha or Amita), the guide who conducts his devotees to the Western Paradise, Yüeh-shih Fo, the Master-physician Buddha, Ta-shih-chih P'u-sa (Mahastama), companion of Amitabha, P'i-lu Fo (Vairochana), the highest of the Threefold Embodiments, Kuan Yin, the Goddess of Mercy, T'isang Wang, the God of Hades, Wei-t'o (Vihārapāla), the Dēva protector of the Law of Buddha and Buddhist temples, the Four Diamond Kings of Heaven, and Bodhidharma, the first of the six Patriarchs of Eastern or Chinese Buddhism. . . . On the right and left sides of the entrance hall of Buddhist temples, two on each side, are the gigantic figures of the four great *Ssu Ta Chinkang* or *T'ien-wang*, the Diamond Kings of Heaven, protectors of governors of the continents lying in the direction of the four cardinal points from Mount Sumeru, the centre of the world. . . . Mu Kung or Tung Wang Kung, the God of the Immortals, was also called I Chün Ming and Yü Huang Chün, the Prince Yü Huang. The primitive vapour congealed, remained inactive for a time, and then produced living beings, beginning with the formation of Mu Kung, the purest substance of the Eastern Air, and sovereign of the active male principle *yang* and of all the countries of the East. His palace is in the misty heavens, violet clouds form its dome, blue clouds its walls. Hsien T'ung, 'the Immortal Youth,' and Yü Nü, 'the Jade Maiden,' are his servants. He keeps the register of all the Immortals, male and female. Hsi Wang Mu was formed of the pure quintessence of the Western Air, in the legendary continent of Shên Chou. She is often called the Golden Mother of the Tortoise. . . . Chang Tao-ling may rightly be considered as the true founder of modern Taoism. . . . He is generally represented as clothed in richly decorated garments, brandishing with his right hand his magic sword, holding in his left a cup containing the draught of immortality, and riding a tiger which in one paw grasps his magic seal and with the others tramples down the five venomous creatures: lizard, snake, spider, toad, and centipede. Pictures of him with these accessories are pasted up in houses on the fifth day of the fifth moon to fend calamity and sickness. . . . The Four Kings of Heaven, *Ssu Ta T'ien-wang*, reside on Mount Sumeru (Hsü-mi Shan), the centre of the universe. It is 3,360,000 *li*—that is, about a million miles—high. Its eastern slope is of gold, its western of silver, its south-eastern of crystal, and its north-eastern of agate. The Four Kings appear to be the Taoist reflection of the four *Chin-kang* of Buddhism already noticed. Their names are Li, Ma, Chao, and Wên. They are represented as holding a pagoda, sword, two swords, and spiked club respectively. Their worship appears to be due to their auspicious appearance and aid on various critical occasions in the dynastic history of the T'ang and Sung Periods. . . . Tou Mu, the Bushel or Goddess of the North Star, is worshipped by both Buddhists and Taoists. . . . Tsao Chün is a Taoist invention, but is universally worshipped by all families in China—about sixty millions of pictures of him are regularly worshipped twice a month—at

new and full moon. 'His temple is a little niche in the brick cooking-range; his palace is often filled with smoke; and his Majesty sells for one farthing! He is also called 'the God of the Stove.' . . . The God of Riches is universally worshipped in China; images and portraits of him are to be seen everywhere. Talismans, trees of which the branches are strings of cash, and the fruits ingots of gold, to be obtained merely by shaking them down, a magic inexhaustible casket full of gold and silver—these and other spiritual sources of wealth are associated with this much-adored deity. He himself is represented in the guise of a visitor accompanied by a crowd of attendants laden with all the treasures that the hearts of men, women, and children could desire. The God of Longevity, Shou Hsing, was first a stellar deity, later on represented in human form. . . . The deity is a domestic god, of happy mien, with a very high forehead, usually spoken of as Shou Hsing Lao T'ou Tzu, 'Longevity Star Old-pate,' and is represented as riding a stag, with a flying bat above his head. He holds in his hand a large peach, and attached to his long staff are a gourd and a scroll. The stag and the bat both indicate *fu*, happiness. The peach, gourd, and scroll are symbols of longevity. . . . The dragons are spirits of the waters. . . . In China the dragon, except as noted below, is not a power for evil, but a beneficent being producing rain and representing the fecundating principle in nature. He is the essence of the *yang*, or male, principle. 'He controls the rain, and so holds in his power prosperity and peace.' . . . The imperial dragon has five claws on each foot, other dragons only four. . . . There is the celestial dragon, who guards the mansions of the gods and supports them so that they do not fall; the divine dragon, who causes the winds to blow and produces rain for the benefit of mankind; the earth-dragon, who marks out the courses of rivers and streams; and the dragon of the hidden treasures, who watches over the wealth concealed from mortals. The Buddhists count their dragons in number equal to the fish of the great deep, which defies arithmetical computation, and can be expressed only by their sacred numerals. . . . The Sea-dragon Kings live in gorgeous palaces in the depths of the sea, where they feed on pearls and opals. There are five of these divinities, the chief being in the centre, and the other four occupying the north, the west, the south, and the east. . . . As Mary is the guiding spirit of Rome, so is Kuan Yin of the Buddhist faith. According to a beautiful Chinese legend, Kuan Yin, when about to enter Heaven, heard a cry of anguish rising from the earth beneath her, and, moved by pity, paused, as her feet touched the glorious threshold. Hence her name 'Kuan (Shih) Yin' (one who notices or hears the cry, or prayer, of the world). Kuan Yin was at one time always represented as a man; but in the Tang dynasty and Five Dynasties we find him represented as a woman, and he has been generally, though not invariably, so represented since that time. . . . Other gods are feared, she is loved; others have black, scornful faces, her countenance is radiant as gold, and gentle as the moonbeam; she draws near to the people and the people draw near to her. Her throne is upon the Isle of Pootoo [P'u T'ou], to which she came floating upon a water-lily. She is the model of Chinese beauty. . . . Either singly or in groups the Eight Immortals, Pa Hsien, of the Taoist religion are one of the most popular subjects of representation in China; their portraits are to be seen everywhere—on porcelain vases, teapots, teacups, fans,

scrolls, embroidery, etc. Images of them are made in porcelain, earthenware, roots, wood, metals. The term 'Eight Immortals' is figuratively used for happiness. The number eight has become lucky in association with this tradition, and persons or things eight in number are graced accordingly. . . . The legend of the Eight Immortals is certainly not older than the time of the Sung dynasty (A. D. 960-1280), and is probably to be assigned to that of the Yuan dynasty (1280-1368)."—E. T. C. Werner, *Myths and legends of China*, pp. 71, 76-77, 93, 118, 120, 136, 139, 142, 144, 166, 171-172, 208-210, 251-252, 288.—See also CHINA: Religions of the people.

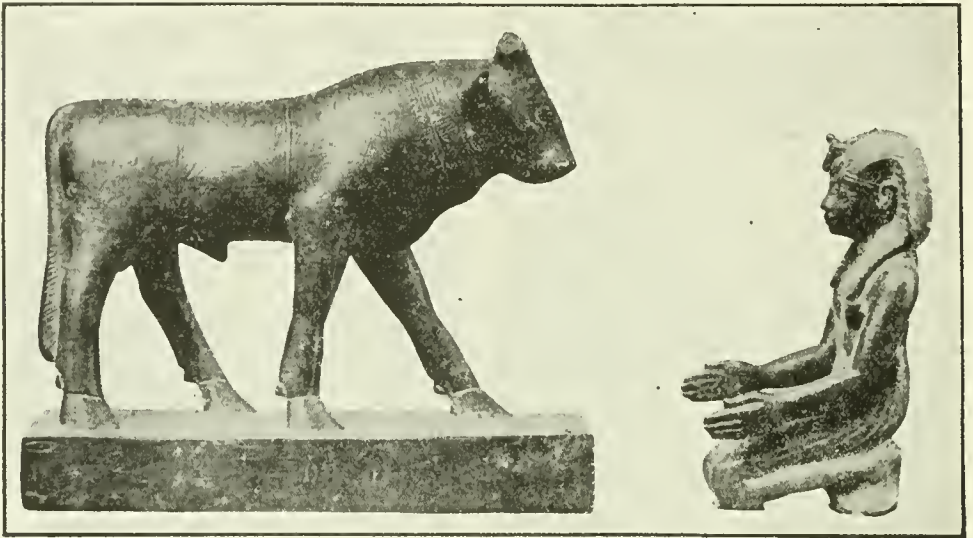
Eastern Asia.—"The vast majority of the inhabitants of Annam, not less than of Burma and Siam, are nominally Buddhist; but there are deities of Brāhmanic origin, alongside of demons with human passions and prejudices and abundance of obvious nature-myths. . . . Buddha Gotama . . . in countless shrines, temples, and monasteries, is not regarded as an idol to be worshipped, but as a model to be followed; he was yet a mere man, and his death was ascribed by early tradition to an overheavy meal of pork. This is still more apparent in the Amitābha of China, who has been transplanted to Tongking and Annam. He has not yet become a Buddha, but reigns in unending glory in Ching-tu, the Pure Land, the Western Paradise, where those who attain salvation will live in unalloyed happiness. Amitābha is the Omīto-fu, the name which, as a simple invocation, is inscribed on tablets and walls of multitudes of temples, and carved on the rocks and cliffs of a hundred caverned hills. Amitābha, we are told, was like Prince Siddhārtha (the royal name of the Buddha), only that, instead of being merely a prince, he was a rich and powerful monarch, who abdicated, and becoming an ascetic under the name of Fa-tsang, attained the state of a Bodhisattva, or one destined hereafter to become a Buddha. . . . [Among the Bodhisats attendant on the Buddha are Manju-śri and Avalokiteśvara, the former the personification of wisdom; the latter of overruling love.] In the popular Buddhism of China, Japan, and (to a lesser extent) Annam, there is the curious figure of a female Bodhisattva, named Kuan-yin. Kuan-yin is the divine person known to foreigners in China and Japan as the 'Goddess of Mercy.' . . . Kuan-yin is not only a Bodhisattva, but stands on the left, the honourable side, of Amitābha, and probably receives a greater amount of voluntary reverence in China than any other figure in Buddhist worship. . . . Chinese Buddhists, and with them those of Annam, believe that the original seat of Kuan-yin's worship was a rocky hill near the harbour of Cape Comorin in Southern India."—J. G. Scott, *Mythology of all ages*, v. 12, pp. 258, 261-262.

Egyptian.—Gods and goddesses.—Sacred animals.—"Even to the ancients Egypt was antiquity, and the Greeks sought in the dateless mysteries of the Egyptian religion for the fountain of all that was most mysterious in their own. Curiosity about the obscure beginnings of human creeds and the first knowledge of the gods was naturally aroused by that spectacle of the Pantheon of Egypt. Her highest gods were abstractions, swathed, like the Involuti of the Etrurians, in veils of mystic doctrine; yet in the most secret recess of her temples the pious beheld 'a crocodile, a cat, or a serpent, a beast rolling on a purple couch.' . . . The foreign traveller in the time of the pyramid-builders, as in the time of Rameses II., or of the Ptolemies, or of the Roman domination, would have found a crowd of gods in

receipt of honour and of sacrifice. He would have learned that one god was most adored in one locality, another in another, that Ammon Ra was predominant in Thebes; Ra, the sun-god, in Heliopolis; Osiris in Abydos, and so forth. He would also have observed that certain animals were sacred to certain gods, and that in places where each beast was revered, his species was not eaten, though it might blamelessly be cooked and devoured in the neighbouring nome or district, where another animal was dominant. Everywhere, in all nomes and towns, the adoration of Osiris, chiefly as the god and redeemer of the dead, was practised. While these are the general characteristics of Egyptian religion, there were inevitably many modifications in the course of five thousand years. If one might imagine a traveller endowed, like the Wandering Jew, with endless life, and visiting Egypt every thousand, or every five hundred years, we can fancy some of the changes in religion which he would observe. . . . While cer-

hostile. There was the presence of the animal in the most sacred *penetralia* of the temple; and there was the god, conceived of, on the whole, as anthropomorphic, but often represented in art, after the twelfth dynasty, as a man or woman with the head of a bird or beast. These points in Egyptian religion have been the great puzzle both of antiquity and of modern mythology. . . . Once more, and by a nearer approach to what is probably the truth, the beast-gods were said to be survivals of the badges (representing animals) of various tribal companies in the forces of Osiris. Such were the ideas current in Græco-Roman speculation, nor perhaps is there any earlier evidence as to the character of native interpretation of animal-worship."—A. Lang, *Myth, ritual and religion*, v. 2, pp. 83, 91-93, 97-98.

"The god who personated Chaos before the time of created things was 'Nu,' the god of the primeval waters. He was represented as the heavens in which floated 'Ra,' the Sun god, in the solar bark.



A KING MAKING AN OFFERING BEFORE THE APIS BULL

(British Museum)

tain gods, who retained permanent power, appear in the oldest monuments, sacred animals are also present from the first. The gods, in fact, of the earliest monuments were beasts. Here is one of the points in which a great alteration developed itself in the midst of Egyptian religion. Till the twelfth dynasty, when a god is mentioned (and in those very ancient remains gods are not mentioned often), 'he is represented by his animal, or with the name spelled out in hieroglyphs, often beside the bird or beast.' 'The jackal stands for Anup (Anubis), the frog for Hekt, the baboon for Tahuti (Thoth). It is not till after Semitic influence had begun to work in the country that any figures of gods are found.' By 'figures of gods' are meant the later man-shaped or semi-man-shaped images, the hawk-headed, jackal-headed, and similar representations with which we are familiar in the museums. The change begins with the twelfth dynasty, but becomes most marked under the eighteenth. . . . The strangest feature in the rites of Egypt was animal-worship, which appeared in various phases. There was the local adoration of a beast, or bird, or fish, to which the neighbours of other districts were indifferent or

. . . Ra was one of the principal deities, the sun being to the Egyptians the source of life and light, and the night typical of death and darkness. . . . Ra was called 'Lord of life'; he had no consort, all his acts he performed alone. He was looked upon at his rising as the giver of all good things, when he was named 'Harmakhis,' or 'Horus,' whose symbol, the hawk, was supposed to soar nearest to the sun; he is also called 'Khepera' in the morning, when he is shown as a figure with a scarabæus on his head and outspread wings. The true meaning of 'Kheper' is to 'become,' so the sun begins as 'Kheper,' becomes 'Ra' at noon in his full strength and heat, and 'Atum,' or 'Tûm,' when he sets. Tûm was worshipped in the Delta, and the town of Pi-tûm, or Pithom, was dedicated to him. So Ra passed each day through the heavens fighting against 'Set,' the god of darkness, whom he vanquished every night, and by his reappearance in the morning showed the triumph of good over evil. Although worshipped throughout all Egypt, the principal shrine of the god Ra was at Heliopolis, or On. Obelisks were dedicated to him because they pointed to the sky, and the hieroglyphic sign for Heliopolis is an

obelisk. Ra is generally represented as a man with a hawk's head, on which he bears the disk of the sun encircled by the uræus, or asp, the emblem of eternity. In one hand he carries the jackal-headed staff of power, the 'user,' in the other the symbol of life, the 'ankh.' 'Sa Ra' was used as the title of all the kings of Egypt, and meant the 'Son of the Sun,' showing the belief in the divine origin of the kings. 'Shu' is the 'Divider of the Water,' or 'Uplifter of the Atmosphere.' He is pictured as a man kneeling with the sun's disk or the feather of truth upon his head; his hands are outstretched holding up the sky, which is personified by the goddess 'Nut,' whose body, painted blue, usually covered with stars, forms the vault of the sky, her feet touching the horizon on one side and her hands stretched across to the other. In these scenes, in front of Shu, 'Geb,' the earth, lies, as if trying to rise, but prevented from doing so by Shu, the Divider, who divides the earth from the sky. Shu is the father of Seb, or Geb, and Nut is his mother. The emblem of Seb is a goose, which is supposed to have laid the egg from which the world was made. . . . 'Ptah' is named 'Father of the Mighty Fathers,' 'The Opener or Creator.' He created himself, and is 'Lord of Truth,' and 'King of both Lands,' meaning the Upper and the Under World. Kheper, the beetle, or scarabæus, was his emblem. In the same way as this beetle rolls up with its hind legs a large ball of earth, in order to conceal its eggs, so Ptah the Creator, as 'Ptah Tanen,' is supposed to have formed the Sun egg and the Moon egg, and is the counterpart of Seb, who, as the goose, laid the Earth egg. Ptah is a figure swathed as a mummy in a close-fitting cap with a scarab on the top and a long, bell-shaped tassel, the 'menat,' at his back. He holds the 'tet,' or 'Column of Stability,' in his hand. His name is found on some of the earliest monuments, and his chief seat of worship was at Memphis. Ptah also was a builder. . . . 'Amen' may mean the 'secret one,' and is one of the forms of Ra reappearing every day. He was revered as one of the greatest of the gods, and had many titles: such as 'The Ruler of Thrones,' 'Chief of all the Gods,' 'Lord of Kings,' 'Maker of Men,' 'Farmer of Flocks,' 'Maker of Herbage,' 'Who maketh the Cattle to live,' 'Lord of the Everlasting,' 'The Creator.' . . . Amen-Ra is depicted under the form of a man, with two tall feathers on his head, which rise from a stiff cap having the horns of a ram curled over the ears. He holds the sceptre and the 'ankh,' or symbol of life, in his hand. At Thebes a live ram was kept in the temple, and was held sacred and revered as being the reincarnation of this god. The goddess Mut was the wife of Amen-Ra and daughter of Ra. She is entitled 'The Lady of Heaven,' and 'The Eye of Ra.' She is represented with a head-dress in the form of a vulture surmounted by the crowns of Upper and Lower Egypt. . . . Sekhet (or more correctly Sekhmet) was the wife of Ptah; she is typical of the scorching, destructive power of the sun, and carries a knife in her hand wherewith to destroy the wicked in the next world. She has the head of a lioness or cat, and was especially honoured at Memphis. Bast (now read Ubastet), her sister, 'The Lady of Life,' represents the milder rays of the sun, and is also drawn as a woman, carrying a musical sistrum in her hand, and with the head of a lioness or cat. The saying, 'kindly as Bast and terrible as Sekhet,' which is inscribed in the temple of Isis at Philæ, refers to these two sisters. Bast was principally worshipped at Bubastis, in the Delta. . . . Nefer-Tum was the son of one of these

sisters; he wears a lotus on his head, and is connected with the Resurrection, and appears in the Memphite Triad. The goddess Hathor, the 'Great Mother,' and protectress of earthly mothers, was good and beautiful, lovely and gentle, the goddess of love and joy; her names are innumerable. She is represented as a woman, with a head-ornament of cow's horns; for the divine Cow was her symbol. She is often shown standing at the western gate of the tomb to feed and protect the mummy as it enters the kingdom of the Under World. The worship of Hathor is very ancient, and was carried on in many temples. Her principal temple, built by the Ptolemies and Romans, is at Dendera, and magnificent ceremonies took place there. . . . Neith was worshipped as the goddess of Art and Learning, and also as the mother of Ra. She is depicted as a tall, graceful woman, wearing the crown of Lower Egypt, and as inventor of the art of weaving bears the sign of a shuttle on her head; she also carries bows and arrows in her hand. The chief centre of her worship during the XXVII Dynasty was at Saïs, in the Delta. She is supposed to be of Libyan origin, as the Libyans used a shuttle as a device, and is connected with Sebek, the Crocodile god, being sometimes represented as nursing two of these creatures. Neith is considered to be the goddess of the air and of the three seasons, spring, summer, and winter. Maat, the goddess of truth and justice, was not worshipped in any particular temple. She wears a large ostrich feather, the emblem of truth, on her head; this feather was weighed in the balance against the heart of the deceased. . . . Set, Sutekh, or Typhon, the god born on the third epagomenal day, was looked upon as a very evil god. Bad air, bad seasons, unwholesome food, eclipses of the sun and moon, and all wicked deeds were ascribed to him. The people used to make offerings to propitiate him, but in the XIX Dynasty his worship ceased, and his name was scratched out of all monuments, as he came to be despised as much as he had formerly been feared. He was painted red—a mark of hatred. The ass is supposed to be an emblem of Set, although the curious beast's head given to him is a purely imaginary one. . . . Taur, or Taurt, the goddess of Evil, is a frightful figure of a fat woman with a head and tail, sometimes of a hippopotamus, sometimes of a crocodile; her one good quality was that she assisted Hathor when presiding at births, and stood beside her at the western doors of the tombs, possibly awaiting the second birth into the Under World. Another god was Bes, who was a most extraordinary creature. He stands on crooked legs, dressed in a large skin with its tail hanging down behind him. He has huge ears and a great beard, and in paintings stands full face with his tongue hanging out, and on his head a cap with tall feathers. He was said to come from Punt; his head-dress resembles that of the goddess Anakt. Sometimes he carries a great knife and a shield, and is called the god of Death, War, and Battles. He is seen at one time as an old man, and at another with the long lock of hair which is the symbol of youth. As the guardian of infants, he is supposed to amuse them by his funny figure, and is seen carrying a little baby on his shoulder, and in his hand a cup of food. . . . The jackal-headed god Anubis is called 'The Guardian of the Tombs' and 'Opener of the Way,' under the name of Up-uat. He had the special charge of embalming, and in the Judgment Hall held the balance on which was weighed the heart against the feather of truth. Anubis was also guide of the roads of the north and south. Wooden figures of

Anubis were often placed on the lids of the mummy-cases in the tombs. Sebek, the Crocodile god, personifies the destroying power of the sun, and was worshipped at Ombos (Kom Ombo), and had a shrine in that temple. . . . Sebek was a deity of Thebes, and was also honoured at Tarnis, where Petrie found evidences of his worship. There he was more or less identified with Set, or Sutekh. . . . The god of the Nile, or Hapi, is usually depicted as a fat creature, half man and half woman, of a blue color, with a bunch of lotus flowers on the head, and papyrus stalks and water-plants in the hand, holding a jar from whence water pours out, which is typical of the inundation of the Nile. . . . Thoth, or Tahuti, was the 'God of Letters' and 'Scribe of the Gods.' He was one of the lunar deities, and was connected with divisions of times and seasons. He is often seen carrying in his hand a staff marked with the cubit with which he measured the world, and hence was called 'The Measurer.' He invented numbers, and counted the duration of 'millions of years.' The first month of the year was dedicated to him. As scribe to the gods, he is seen with a reed and writing-tablet. All their sacred books, charms, and formulæ, besides books on magic and medicines, and letters to the gods on earth and to those in the Under World, were written by him. He was stationed with Anubis at the entrance to the Under World to lead the souls of the departed through the Hall of Judgment, and to record in writing all their good and evil deeds. The Cynocephalus, or Ape, 'Opener of the Way,' was one of the emblems of Thoth. The ibis was also sacred to him, and he is always represented with the head of that bird. His chief temple was at Hermopolis, where many mummies of the ibis are found. Khensu is a deity very similar to Thoth, though represented with the hawk's head surmounted with the lunar disk. He is the 'Traverser,' or 'Messenger,' and is sometimes called Khensu Thoth. His great temple is at Thebes, begun by Rameses III., and finished in the XXI Dynasty. Ymhetep, or 'Coming in Peace,' is always seen as a seated figure holding a scroll of papyrus on his knee. He practised medicine and magic, and recited formulæ. He was worshipped till a late period as Æskulapios by the Greeks. Osiris (Asar), 'Lord of the Under World' and 'Judge of the Dead,' is one of the principal gods of Egypt, and his worship, with that of his wife Isis, lasted till a very late period of history; his birthday was kept as a festival, and was the day of the first rising of the Nile. He was the son of Geb, the father of the gods, and was born on the first epagomenal day. His titles are endless,—'The Manifester of Good,' 'The Benevolent and Beneficent Power,' 'The Lord of Life,' etc., etc.—and he is given 49 names in the Book of the Dead. He is said to have been born a king, and when he was 28 years old he travelled through the world seeking to do good, teaching the people agriculture and giving them laws. . . . Osiris' life was held as a pattern for others, and to show that, though all men must die, their good deeds and virtues live after them, while they themselves are rewarded in a future state. Osiris is represented as swathed in burial wrappings, his crossed hands holding the flail and crook, symbols of sovereignty and dominion, and wearing on his head a crown like that of Upper Egypt, with feathers at each side. Isis (Ast), wife of Osiris, usually appears as a woman wearing a head-dress in the form of a throne, or with the horns of Hathor and the disk of the sun. . . . The two goddesses of Upper and Lower Egypt—Nekhebyt the Vulture, and Uazyt the Asp—are seated side

by side on two horizons when they form part of the royal title. The Vulture wears the crown and plumes of Upper Egypt, and has outspread wings like the beetle Horbehetet. The Asp wears the crown of Lower Egypt, and is also winged. . . . Sphinxes were placed at the entrance of temples to guard them from the approach of any evil thing. The Sphinx is one of the manifestations of the Sun god, Ra Harmakhis, 'Sun of the Morning,' 'Banisher of the Mists of the Night.'—Lady 'Amberst of Hackney, *Sketch of Egyptian history from the earliest times to the present day*, pp. 61-70, 75.—See also RELIGION: B.C. 2000-200; EGYPT: Religion.

Germanic: Sources of knowledge.—"Germanic paganism survived Celtic paganism by five centuries; we are, therefore, much better informed as to the former. . . . Documents may be divided into three groups: (1) the texts of classic authors, especially Cæsar and Tacitus; (2) the work which set forth Scandinavian or Norse mythology, Sagas and Eddas; (3) popular customs and traditions, some collected and observed at a relatively recent period, others known by prohibitions of the church, and by a species of interrogatory compiled for the use of priests who received the confessions of German converts to Christianity."—S. Reinach, *Orpheus*, pp. 125-126.

Germanic: Identification of Germanic gods with Roman.—"One of the documents most often quoted upon the Celtic religion is a passage in Cæsar's 'De Bello Gallico,' where the conqueror of Gaul describes what he conceives to be the principal gods of the vanquished people:—"The God they worship most of all is Mercury, and his statues are numerous. The Gauls [Celts] regard him as the inventor of the arts, and the guide who directs the wayfarer and the voyager; they also attribute to him great influence in the acquiring of riches and in commerce. After him come Apollo, Mars, Jupiter, and Minerva. These they regard pretty much the same as do other nations. Apollo drives away sickness, Minerva instructs the novice in the arts and handicrafts, Jupiter has the lordship of the heavens, Mars that of war, and before going into battle they consecrate to him whatever spoil they hope to obtain.' If we take this passage literally, it would seem that the Gauls had five gods almost identical with the great deities of the Romans—Mercury, Apollo, Mars, Jupiter and Minerva, any difference they might have being in name only. This doctrine seems to be corroborated by Roman inscriptions, where the Gaulish names are found alongside those of the Roman gods, as epithets or surnames. . . . To understand Cæsar, it must be admitted that in the language he uses, the word 'god' designates beings whose real existence is considered as indisputable, and whom one cannot, without manifest error, regard as simple conceptions of the human mind, fictions more or less fanciful, more or less logical. . . . It is difficult, therefore, to satisfy us by attempting to show that two divinities, one Roman, born from the union of Roman and of Greek mythology, the other Gallic, sprung from the genius peculiar to the Celtic race, are identical with each other. It is not enough that the two divine figures exhibit certain points of coincidence; they must have if not complete concordance, agreement at least upon all the principal points. . . . Their Jupiter, for instance, holds the thunderbolt in his right hand, as his characteristic insignia; the Gauls had also a god who controlled the thunder. Upon this simple indication the Romans concluded that the Gaulish god was identical with their own Jupiter. Because, in fact, the two gods, one na-

tional, the other foreign, were endowed with a common attribute, they were one and the same; and this they concluded without considering the differences which, on other more important points, these two mythical figures might present. . . . Cæsar has, then, affirmed the identity of five great Roman gods with the great gods of the Gauls, and this identity has been admitted after Cæsar. . . . The most celebrated of these divine triads worshipped in Gaul is that referred to by Lucan in his well-known lines. . . . The gods who form it are Teutates, Esus, Taranis or Taranus. They were gods of death and night, the evil parent gods, whom the Irish called Fomorians. . . . After recording the fact that they had a god identical, in his opinion, with the Roman Mars, Cæsar continues: 'When they resolve on battle, they usually dedicate to this god all the spoil they hope to obtain; and after a victory they immolate everything that has life in his honour.' . . . Toutatis or Teutates is thus a god to whom the Gauls offered up their prisoners of war. It is one of the names or personifications of the parent god who reigned over the dead. They believed that by a special favour he could spare the Gaul whose days were threatened, if a substitute were sent into the other world to him, as, for instance, a captive offered up in sacrifice. Taranis or Taranus, is a counterpart of Teutates or Toutatis. The derivation of his name clearly shows him to be a god of the thunderbolt: *taran* being the thunderbolt in Welsh, in Cornish, and Breton. . . . Taranus is the god of Death, father of the gods of Life. Hence it is that in Gaul, as Lucan informs us, human sacrifices were offered up to him. Esus, of which another form *Æsus* has come down to us on a British coin, has been rightly placed by Lucan in the same triad, human sacrifice being offered to him also. The wood he is seen cutting in the Gallo-Roman bas-relief in the museum of Cluny was, doubtless, destined for the sacrificial altar. In the reign of Tiberius, 14 to 37 of the present era, which was about the time this work of art was executed, human sacrifice was no longer permitted in Gaul. . . . It is Lug whom Cæsar identifies with the Roman Mercury already confused at that period with the Greek Hermes. Lug resembles this Mercury-Hermes in that he is the god of the Arts and of Commerce. . . . The Gaulish god whom Cæsar called Mercury was an original mythological conception, resembling Mercury-Hermes in certain particulars, differing from him in others; he is a warrior god, for instance. The Gauls had other names for him besides Lugus: several of them being compounded of the root SMER, the meaning of which has not yet been determined."—H. D'Arbois de Jubainville, *Irish mythological cycle and Celtic mythology* (tr. by R. I. Best), pp. xi, xiii-xv, 213-217.

"German and Celts agreed in the practice of helping the sun by lighting brands, especially at the beginning of spring and in the solstices, and by carrying about and finally immersing fiery wheels. . . . The moon was identified with the Diana of the Romans, the nocturnal huntress and queen of sabbaths. One of the questions put by Burchard, Bishop of Worms, in the year 1000 A. D., ran thus: 'Hast thou believed in the existence of a certain female who, like her whom the folly of the vulgar calls Holda, rides about at night on certain beasts, in company with demons transformed into women? This is affirmed by certain creatures deceived by the devil.' The question is repeated in other catechisms, with this difference, that Holda—the *Frau Holle*, or *Holde*, of German legends—is called 'Diana, goddess of the

heathen. . . . In the popular texts, Holle is a genius of water and the atmosphere. At noon in summer she may be surprised, like the Greek Artemis, bathing in a spring; in winter she causes snow to fall by shaking the eiderdown of her bed. But she is more especially a witch, the queen of witches, terrible and cruel, who carries off the souls of unhaptized children. In this character she was also identified with Herodias. . . . The week of seven days called by the names of the planets had been generally adopted throughout the Roman Empire by the end of the second century; the Germans adopted it in the fourth century, substituting the names of the Germanic divinities for those of the Roman gods. The *dies Martis* became *Tuesday* in English (the day of *Tiu* or *Tyr*, the Germanic Mars); the German *Dienstag* is derived from a surname of this god, *Thingsus*, which is found in Latin dedications by German soldiers. The *dies Mercurii* is in English *Wednesday*, the day of Woden; the German say *Mittwoch*, 'the middle of the week.' *Jovis dies*, in English *Thursday*, in German *Donnerstag*, attests that Thor or Donar, the god of thunder, was identical with Jupiter. *Veneris dies* (*Friday*, *Freitag*), proves that Freya was identified with Venus. . . . In the Eddas, Tyr-Mars is the son of Odin-Mercury, and, like him, a warrior-god. It must be noted that the name of Tyr (*Tiu* in Anglo-Saxon, *Ziu* in High German) is etymologically identical with the Sanscrit *Dyaus* and Greek *Zeus*; he was therefore originally the celestial god. . . . If we remember that according to Cæsar the Gauls believed themselves to be the descendants of a nocturnal god approximating to Pluto, it is difficult not to trace a connection between the Celtic conception and that of the Germans. . . . In addition to Mercury, Hercules and Mars, Tacitus believed that the goddess Isis was to be found among the Germans (*Germania ix.*). A portion of the great tribe of the Suevi offered sacrifices to this alien divinity, according to him; he adds that the ship which was her symbol, attests the fact that she came from beyond the seas. Tacitus was evidently thinking of the 'bark of Isis' which was offered annually to the goddess in the Roman worship of this Egyptian divinity. Similar customs are to be found among the Germans of the Middle Ages (twelfth century). The people, dancing and singing, followed a ship mounted on wheels, 'which contained,' says a chronicler, 'I know not what evil genius.' The hypothesis of the introduction of Isis-worship into Germany must be left to Tacitus; the ceremony described was one of those 'sacred processions' on a car or in a boat which recur in various countries, as, for instance, in the Græco-Roman worship of Cybele. A goddess of Abundance, adored on the sea-coast, might very well have had for her emblem a boat or an oar, like the Germanic Nehalennia, whose carved altars have been discovered in Holland, near the mouths of the Rhine. . . . Tacitus has given the name of this goddess of Sleswig; she was called *Nerthus* (the subterranean) and the Roman historian rightly identifies her with the Earth Mother, the Cybele or Mother of the Gods of the Asiatic Greeks. Her procession was in the nature of an agrarian festival, designed to promote the awakening of Nature in the springtime. Similar rites are still observed in Germany; the beneficent divinity is represented by effigies, the king and queen of the May, who are greeted with dance and song. . . . The Germanic Freya, the wife of Odin, identified with Venus in the name of Friday (*Veneris dies*, *Freitag*) is probably merely a goddess of fecundity, and the Nerthus of Tacitus and the

so-called Isis are perhaps her local designations or epithets. Tacitus further mentions a few secondary gods, for instance, in a sacred wood of the Waldgebirge (*Germania* xliii.): 'The direction of the ceremonial,' he says, 'is confided to a priest dressed as a woman. The objects of this cult are gods who, in the Roman Olympus, would be Castor and Pollux. There are no statues and no traces of a foreign influence: but the gods worshipped are certainly two young brothers.' Diodorus says that the 'Celts on the Ocean coast' (*i.e.*, the Germans) worshipped the Dioscuri. . . . We know hardly anything of other Germanic divinities, such as the *Tanfana* and *Baduhenna* of Tacitus, and the numerous mother-goddesses with barbaric names which occur by the hundred in inscriptions found in the Rhine Valley. Those in which the letter H occurs are certainly Germanic and not Celtic; but the conception of these goddesses, generally grouped in threes, seems to have originated in Gaul, where fairies played an important part, and whence they passed into German folk-lore. . . . Scandinavian mythology has certain points in common with the Germanic conceptions which we know from earlier texts. First of all the names: Odin, Tyr, Thor, Freya, and perhaps too the idea of Yggdrasil, which resembles the Irminsul of the Saxons. Then the idea that the world will perish by fire is found in Celtic mythology; it may therefore have been borrowed by the Germans at an early date from the Celts. . . . The story of the fatal mistletoe is Celtic and British, not Norwegian, for there is no mistletoe, or hardly any, in Norway."—S. Reinach, *Orpheus*, pp. 126-132, 141.

Grecian.—Anthropomorphic character.—"The abode of the gods was on the summit of Mount Olympus, in Thessaly. A gate of clouds, kept by the goddesses named the Seasons, opened to permit the passage of the Celestials to earth, and to receive them on their return. The gods had their separate dwellings; but all, when summoned, repaired to the palace of Jupiter, as did also those deities whose usual abode was the earth, the waters, or the underworld. It was also in the great hall of the palace of the Olympian king that the gods feasted each day on ambrosia and nectar, their food and drink, the latter being handed round by the lovely goddess Hebe. Jupiter, or Jove (Zeus), though called the father of gods and men, had himself a beginning. Saturn (Cronos) was his father, and Rhea (Ops) his mother. Saturn and Rhea were of the race of Titans, who were the children of Earth and Heaven, which sprang from Chaos. . . . There is another cosmogony, or account of the creation, according to which Earth, Erebus, and Love were the first of beings. Love (Eros) issued from the egg of Night, which floated on Chaos. By his arrows and torch he pierced and vivified all things, producing life and joy. Saturn and Rhea were not the only Titans. There were others, whose names were Oceanus, Hyperion, Iapetus, and Ophiom, males; and Themis, Mnemosyne, Eurynome, females. They are spoken of as the elder gods, whose dominion was afterwards transferred to others. Saturn yielded to Jupiter, Oceanus to Neptune, Hyperion to Apollo. Hyperion was the father of the Sun, Moon, and Dawn. He is, therefore, the original sun-god, and is painted with the splendor and beauty which were afterwards bestowed on Apollo. . . . Ophiom and Eurynome ruled over Olympus till they were dethroned by Saturn and Rhea. . . . The representations given of Saturn are not very consistent; for on the one hand his reign is said to have been the golden age of innocence and purity, and on the other he is

described as a monster who devoured his children. Jupiter, however, escaped this fate, and when grown up espoused Metis (Prudence), who administered a draught to Saturn which caused him to disgorge his children. Jupiter, with his brothers and sisters, now rebelled against their father Saturn and his brothers the Titans; vanquished them, and imprisoned some of them in Tartarus, inflicting other penalties on others. Atlas was condemned to bear up the heavens on his shoulders. On the dethronement of Saturn, Jupiter with his brothers Neptune (Poseidon) and Pluto (Dis) divided his dominions. Jupiter's portion was the heavens, Neptune's the ocean, and Pluto's the realms of the dead. Earth and Olympus were common property. Jupiter was king of gods and men. The thunder was his weapon, and he bore a shield called Ægis, made for him by Vulcan. The eagle was his favorite bird, and bore his thunderbolts. Juno (Hera) was the wife of Jupiter, and queen of the gods. Iris, the goddess of the rainbow, was her attendant and messenger. The peacock was her favorite bird. Vulcan (Hephestos), the celestial artist, was the son of Jupiter and Juno. He was born lame, and his mother was so displeased at the sight of him that she flung him out of heaven. Other accounts say that Jupiter kicked him out for taking part with his mother in a quarrel which occurred between them. . . . Mars (Ares), the god of war, was the son of Jupiter and Juno. Phœbus Apollo, the god of archery, prophecy, and music, was the son of Jupiter and Latona, and brother of Diana (Artemis). He was god of the sun, as Diana, his sister, was the goddess of the moon. Venus (Aphrodite), the goddess of love and beauty, was the daughter of Jupiter and Dione. Others say that Venus sprang from the foam of the sea. The zephyr wafted her along the waves to the Isle of Cyprus, where she was received and attired by the Seasons, and then led to the assembly of the gods. . . . Venus possessed an embroidered girdle called Cestus, which had the power of inspiring love. Her favorite birds were swans and doves, and the plants sacred to her were the rose and the myrtle. Cupid (Eros), the god of love, was the son of Venus. He was her constant companion; and, armed with bow and arrows, he shot the darts of desire into the bosoms of both gods and men. . . . Minerva (Pallas, Athene), the goddess of wisdom, was the offspring of Jupiter, without a mother. She sprang forth from his head completely armed. Her favorite bird was the owl, and the plant sacred to her the olive. . . . Mercury (Hermes) was the son of Jupiter and Maia. He presided over commerce, wrestling, and other gymnastic exercises, even over thieving, and everything, in short, which required skill and dexterity. He was the messenger of Jupiter, and wore a winged cap and winged shoes. He bore in his hand a rod entwined with two serpents, called the caduceus. Mercury is said to have invented the lyre. . . . Ceres (Demeter) was the daughter of Saturn and Rhea. She had a daughter named Proserpine (Persephone), who became the wife of Pluto, and queen of the realms of the dead. Ceres presided over agriculture. Bacchus (Dionysus), the god of wine, was the son of Jupiter and Semele. He represents not only the intoxicating power of wine, but its social and beneficent influences likewise, so that he is viewed as the promoter of civilization, and a lawgiver and lover of peace. The Muses were the daughters of Jupiter and Mnemosyne (Memory). They presided over song, and prompted the memory. They were nine in number, to each of whom was assigned the presidency over some particular department of literature art, or science. . . . Pan was the god of flocks and



IVORY AND GOLD STATUE OF PALLAS ATHENE IN THE PARTHENON

(Reconstruction)

shepherds. His favorite residence was in Arcadia. The Satyrs were deities of the woods and fields. They were conceived to be covered with bristly hair, their heads decorated with short, sprouting horns, and their feet like goats' feet. Momus was the god of laughter, and Plutus the god of wealth."—T. Bulfinch, *Mythology*, pp. 3-9.—"In the gods of Greece, when represented in ideal art and in the best religious sentiment, as revealed by poets and philosophers, from Homer to Plato, from Plato to Porphyrus, there is something truly human and truly divine. It cannot be doubted that the religion of Apollo, Athene, Artemis, and Hermes was, in many respects, an adoration directed to the moral and physical qualities that are best and noblest. Again, even in the oldest Greek literature, in Homer and in all that follows, the name of the chief god, Zeus, might in many places be translated by our word 'God.' [See RELIGION: Course of development in highly organized religions.] . . . 'Homer and Hesiod named the gods for the Greeks; so Herodotus thought, and constructed the divine genealogies.' . . . Xenophanes very early proclaimed that men had made the gods in their own likeness, as a horse, could he draw, would design his deity in equine semblance. But the detection by Xenophanes of the anthropomorphic tendency in religion could not account for the instinct which made Greeks, like other peoples, as Aristotle noticed, figure their gods not only in human shape, but in the guise of the lower animals. For that zoomorphic element in myth an explanation, as before, will be sought in the early mental condition which takes no great distinction between man and the beasts. . . . If Apollo was originally the sun-god, it is certain that his influence on human life and society was as wide and beneficent as that of the sun itself. He presides over health and medicine, and over purity of body and soul. He is the god of song, and the hexameter, which first resounded in his temples, uttered its latest word in the melancholy music of the last oracle from Delphi. . . . He is the god of sudden death; he is amorous and revengeful. The fair humanities of old religion boast no figure more beautiful; yet he, too, bears the birth-marks of ancient creeds, and there is a shadow that stains his legend and darkens the radiance of his glory."—A. Lang, *Myth, ritual and religion*, v. 2, pp. 163, 166-167, 206-208.—See also RELIGION: Course of development, etc.; B. C. 750-A. D. 30; AMAZONS; ARGONAUTIC EXPEDITION; ARGOS; ELEUSINIAN MYSTERIES; HOMER AND THE HOMERIC POEMS; TROY.

Indian: Unparalleled length of life.—"The mythology of India claims unique interest by virtue of its unparalleled length of life. It is true that not even the discoveries at Boghaz Kyoï render it prudent for us to place the *Rgveda* at an earlier period than 1500 B. C., and in part at least that collection may come from three centuries later, so that as contrasted with the dates of Egyptian and Babylonian records the earliest monument of Aryan mythology is comparatively recent. In mass of content and in value for mythology, however, these cannot compare with the *Rgveda*. Of still more importance is the fact that from the period of the *Rgveda* to the present day, a space of some thirty-five hundred years, we have a mythology which is in constant but organic development."—A. B. Keith and A. J. Carnoy, *Mythology of all races*, v. 6, p. 5.—"Every superstition reigns or has reigned in India. Animism manifests itself in ancestor-worship, in the adoration of the heavenly bodies, mountains, rivers—the Ganges in particular—trees, plants, shells, stones, implements, &c. Totemism has left its traces not only in certain alimentary

restrictions—the cow—but in the widespread worship of a host of deities in animal form—such as the elephant-headed Ganesha—in the myths of creation and the deluge. Even in the present day certain tribes, whose languages are non-Aryan, are divided into clans distinguished by the names of animals, within the limits of which inter-marriage is forbidden. There were formerly in the Brahmanical caste, certain classes where union was forbidden, which may indicate a totemistic survival. Magic, the basis of all ritual, has not ceased to flourish in India. These are characteristics common to all primitive civilisations. But there are in India two popular conceptions, related by a logical bond, which are nowhere else to be found in such a highly developed form. They are the belief in the *transmigration of souls and a redeeming asceticism*."—S. Reinach, *Orpheus*, p. 48.—"A large class of sacred writings in Sanskrit verse, ascribed to Vyasa, contains the whole body of Hindu mythology. There are, however, eighteen principal Puranas, as they are named from the Sanskrit word *pura*, meaning, of old. . . . In the Puranic mythology the Vedic gods have prominent places. Indra ranks next in position to the Trimurti. He is represented as a white man riding on a white elephant, holding the *vajra* (thunderbolt) in one of his right hands. Surya is a ruddy man seated on a lotus in a chariot drawn by a horse with seven heads or by seven horses. Holding in each of two hands, a lily, he makes, with two others, the *mudras*, or signs forbidding fear and bestowing blessing. Agni rides upon a blue ram or he-goat. In one right hand he carries a spear or battle-axe. Sometimes his handsome face is shown three times upon one head, and his limbs consist of seven arms and three legs. The sacred cord, *zenaar*, or *poita*, is tied round his neck. Vayu, or Pavana, is a white man, with blue robes, seated upon an antelope or upon an inverted lotus. Varuna is a white man, seated on Makara, a sea-monster something like a crocodile. Yama is represented as a green or blue man, with red or yellow robes seated on a blue buffalo. Kuvera is a white man riding a white horse or seated upon a pedestal, a self-moving aerial chariot, a present from Brahma. Soma usually rides in a four-wheeled chariot, drawn by an antelope, though this appears to represent the Hindu or Puranic god, Chandra, also. We will now shortly consider other Hindu gods. Saraswati, the consort, *sakti*, or *prakriti*, of Brahma is shown as a lovely woman, with a crescent on her brow, or seated upon a swan or peacock. Vishnu had eight reincarnations, or descents, called *avatars*, in which different forms were assumed. . . . There are numerous additional forms of Vishnu, such as those where, as Narayana, he is lying upon a great leaf which floats upon the water, and where with a tiny Lakshmi he reposes upon the serpent Ananta, or Sesha, the infinite. Siva, with his *sakti* Parvati, are often represented together. Siva and Parvati, or Devi, show two forms, one terrible, the other benign. When Siva is alone he shows generally five heads, each having a third eye and four arms bearing a *mrigu*, or antelope, a *trisula*, or trident, a *pasa*, or cord, and a *shanka*, or shell. . . . The *sakti* of Vishnu, Lakshmi, or Sri, is a lovely woman, who is also Ramba, the ideal female, goddess of plenty and good luck. When Vishnu in his eighth incarnation is Krishna, she is Radha and Rukmeni, and when, in the other form, he is Rama, she is Sita. So that Sita, Radha, and Lakshmi, in one ideal, present to the Hindu women, not only the beauty of Venus, but all those qualities which are held in high honour by true womanhood everywhere, and perhaps all the more because Lakshmi

is the mother of Kama-Deva, the god of love. . . . Another *sakti*, Parvati, allied, as we have seen, to Siva, is distinguished by her dual aspect of kindness and terror. Under several names her qualities are indicated. The most popular and the most terrible are Parvati, Durga, Kali, the black, Kumari and others. In these characters she is stern and destructive. On her softer side as Devi, the bright, and Rambha the Hindu Venus, she is kind. In Rambha she unites with Lakshmi, and so she does when, as Anna Purna, the food-giver, she benefits mankind. She was the mother of Ganesa, the short, fat god, with an elephant's head, the Hindu god of wisdom, whose father was Siva. It is said that his father, being mad with anger, cut the boy's head off, and, to save his life, stuck on the head of a passing elephant. Ganesa's image is always in the home, and though he was only the lord of the Ganas, or inferior deities, temples are dedicated to him, where his images are multiplied and invoked. The other son of Siva, Karttikeya, had no mother, but the Pleiades, or *Krittikas*, were his nurses, hence his name, though he is also known as Mangala and Subrahmanya. He is the Indian god of war, in which capacity he is red; at other times, as regent of the planet Mars, he is yellow. He rides upon a peacock, bearing an arrow in one hand and a bow in the other. . . . Krishna was born in the night, and his name means black; on his breast grew a curl of hair, the peculiar *Sri-vatsa*, which distinguishes him; but he may be otherwise distinguishable by his colour; he is often painted blue. The *Blahabhārata* gives prominence to his marvellous exploits. . . . Rama-chandra, the husband of Sita, was another great hero, whose story is told in the 'Ramayana.' His bow and arrow distinguish him in the scenes where he appears. Temples have been built to him all through the land, but in Oudh he is pre-eminent."—J. F. Blacker, *A B C of Indian art*, pp. 41-48.—The Vedas are the most ancient of Hindu holy books and were composed, according to accepted opinion, about 1000 or 1500 B. C. There are four Vedas: Rig-Veda; Yajur; Sama-Veda; and Atharva-Veda. The latter is the Veda of prayers, charms and spells.

Indian: Primitive elements.—"The gods of the Vedas are, on the whole, of the usual polytheistic type, though their forms mix into each other like shadows cast by a flickering fire. The ideas which may be gathered about them from the ancient hymns have, as usual, no consistency and no strict orthodoxy. . . . Indra is mainly concerned with thunder and other atmospheric phenomena; these are his department; but Vayu is the wind or the god of the wind, and Agni as fire or the god of fire is necessarily not unconnected with the lightning. The Maruts, again, are the storm-winds, or gods of the storm-winds; Mitra and Varuna preside over day and night; Ushas is the dawn or the goddess of dawn, and Tvashtri is the mechanic among the deities, corresponding more or less closely to the Greek Hephestus. Though many of these beings are still in Vedic poetry departmental powers with provinces of their own in external Nature, they are also supposed to be interested not only in the worldly, but in the moral welfare of mankind, and are imagined to 'make for righteousness.' . . . The natural conclusion, after a rapid view of Vedic deities, seems to be that they are extremely composite characters, visible only in the shifting rays of the Indian fancy, at a period when the peculiar qualities of Indian thought were already sufficiently declared. The lights of ritualistic dogma and of pantheistic and mystic and poetic emotion fall in turn, like the changeful hues of sunset, on figures as melting and shifting as the clouds

of evening."—A. Lang, *Myth, ritual and religion*, v. 2, pp. 126-127.

Japanese: Characteristics.—"The ancient religion of the Japanese is called *Kami no michi* (way, or doctrine, of the gods; *i. e.*, theology). The Chinese form of the same is Shinto. Foreigners call it Shintoism, or Sintoism. . . . Only a very few Shinto temples, called *Miya*, have preserved the ancient purity of the rites and dogmas during the overshadowing influences of Buddhism. In Japanese mythology the universe is Japan, the legends relating to Japan exclusively. All the deities, with, perhaps, a few exceptions, are historical personages; and the conclusion of the whole matter of cosmogony and celestial genealogy is that the Mikado is the descendant and representative of the gods who created the heavens and earth (Japan). Hence the imperative duty of all Japanese is to obey him."—W. E. Griffis, *Mikado's empire*, p. 96.—"Ama-terasu is the central figure in Japanese mythology, for it is from the Sun Goddess that the Mikados are descended. In the cycle of legends known as the Period of the Gods, we are introduced to the Sacred Treasures, we discover the origin of the Japanese dance, and in imagination wander through the High Plain of Heaven, set foot upon the Floating Bridge, enter the Central Land of Reed-Plains, peep into the Land of Yomi, and follow Prince Fire-Fade into the Palace of the Sea King. Early heroes and warriors are always regarded as minor divinities, and the very nature of Shintoism, associated with ancestor worship, has enriched those of Japan with many a fascinating legend. . . . The fox takes an important place in Japanese legend, and the subject is of a far-reaching and complex kind. Inari was originally the God of Rice, but in the eleventh century he became associated with the Fox God, with attributes for good and evil, mostly for evil, so profuse and so manifold in their application that they cause no little confusion to the English reader. All foxes possess supernatural powers to an almost limitless degree. They have the power of infinite vision; they can hear everything and understand the secret thoughts of mankind generally, and in addition they possess the power of transformation and of transmutation. The chief attribute of the bad fox is the power to delude human beings, and for this purpose it will take the form of a beautiful woman, and many are the legends told in this connection."—F. Hadland Davis, *Myths and legends of Japan*, pp. xvi, 93.

Latin American.—Maya gods.—Aztec gods.—Zuni fetichism.—Peruvian myths.—Bernal Diaz, the old "conquistador," described the appearance of the idols which Cortés destroyed in Mexico—"idols in the shape of hideous dragons as big as calves," idols half in the form of men and half in the form of dogs, and great serpents worshipped as divinities. However, grotesque as these statues were, and as those remaining in Mexico and Central America are, they are not without artistic merit. They may be compared to the Dravidian sculpture of Southern India. "It was to the Maya—the people who occupied the territory between the isthmus of Tehuantepec and Nicaragua—that the civilization of Central America owed most. . . . The designation by which Quetzalcoatl was known to the Maya was Kukulcan, which signifies 'Feathered Serpent,' and is exactly translated by his Mexican name. . . . In Mexico Quetzalcoatl . . . was not only the Man of the Sun, but the original wind-god of the country. The Kukulcan of the Maya has more the attributes of a thunder-god. In the tropical climate of Yucatan and Guatemala the sun at midday appears to draw the clouds

around it in serpentine shapes. From these emanate thunder and lightning and the fertilising rain, so that Kukulcan would appear to have appealed to the Maya more as a god of the sky who wielded the thunderbolts than a god of the atmosphere proper like Quetzalcoatl, though several of the stelæ in Yucatan represent Kukulcan as he is portrayed in Mexico, with wind issuing from his mouth. . . . In Yucatan the sun-god was known as Kinich-ahau (Lord of the Face of the Sun). He was identified with the Fire-bird, or Arara, and was thus called Kinich-Kakmo (Fire-bird; lit. Sun-bird). He was also the presiding genius of the north. Itzamna, one of the most important of the Maya deities, was a moon-god, the father of gods and men. In him was typified the decay and recurrence of life in nature. Chac, the rain-god, is the possessor of an elongated nose, not unlike the proboscis of a tapir, which of course is the spout whence comes the rain which he blows over the earth. He is one of the best represented gods on both manuscripts and monuments, and presides over the east. . . . A sinister figure, the prince of the Maya legions of darkness, is the bat-god, Zotzilaha Chimalman, who dwelt in the 'House of Bats,' a gruesome cavern on the way to the abodes of darkness and death. He is undoubtedly a relic of cave-worship pure and simple."—L. Spence, *Myths of Mexico and Peru*, pp. 143, 167-168, 170-172.—"As a matter of fact, the Aztec gods, though bedizened with the attributes of mortal conjurers, and with the fur and feathers of totems, are, for the most part, the departmental deities of polytheism, each ruling over some province of nature or of human activity. Combined with these are deities who, in their origin, were probably ideal culture-heroes, like Yehi, or Qat, or Prometheus. The long and tedious myths of Quetzalcoatl and Tezcatlipoca appear to contain memories of a struggle between the gods or culture-heroes of rival races. . . . Beginning with Huitzilopochtli, as perhaps the most famous, it is to be observed that he indubitably became and was recognized as a god of battles, and that he was also the guide and protector who (according to the Aztec painted scriptures) led the wandering fathers through war and wilderness to the promised land of Mexico. . . . It was not by swallowing a berry, as in Finland, but by cherishing in her bosom a flying ball of feathers that the devout woman, Coatlicue, became the mother of Huitzilopochtli. . . . By another myth, euhemeristic in character, Huitziton (the name is connected with *huitzilin*, the humming-bird) was the leader of the Aztecs in their wanderings. On his death or translation, his skull gave oracles, like the head of Bran in the Welsh legend. . . . The position of Huitzilopochtli as a war-god, guardian, and guide through the wilderness is perfectly established, and it is nearly as universally agreed that his name connects him with the humming-bird, which his statue wore on its left foot. He also carried a green bunch of plumage upon his head, shaped like the bill of a small bird. . . . The name of the patron goddess of the flower-wearers in feasts was Coatlicue or Coatlan, which is also the name of the mother of Huitzilopochtli; its meaning is 'serpent petticoated.' . . . Tezcatlipoca is a god with considerable pretensions to an abstract and lofty divinity. His appearance was not prepossessing; his image, as Bernal has described it, wore the head of a bear, and was covered with tiny mirrors. Various attributes, especially the mirror and a golden ear, showed him forth as the beholder of the conduct of men and the hearer of prayer. . . . Tezcatlipoca, like most of the other gods, revived, and came back from the sky to earth. At a place called Tulla he encoun-

tered another god or medicine-man, Quetzalcoatl, and their legends become inextricably entangled in tales of trickery, animal metamorphosis, and perhaps in vague memories of tribal migrations. . . . In Mexico the rain-god (Tlaloc, god of waters) was propitiated with sacrifices of children. 'If the children wept and shed abundant tears, they who carried them rejoiced, being convinced that rain would also be abundant.' The god of the maize, again (Cinteotl, son of the maize-goddess), had rites resembling those of the Greek Pyanopsis and Eiresione. . . . A less lovely set of Olympians than the Aztec gods it is difficult to conceive. Yet, making every allowance for Catholic after-thoughts, there can be no doubt that the prayers, penances, and confessions described at length by Sahagun indicate a firm Mexican belief that even these strange deities 'made for righteousness,' loved good, and, in this world and the next, punished evil."—A. Lang, *Myth, ritual and religion*, v. 2, pp. 68-70, 76-77, 79, 81.—"Another Mexican tribe, the Zuñis, furnishes the most striking example of totemism complicated by fetichism, or the fetich is the intermediary, the mediator between the Zuñi and his animal god. The Zuñis have also a cosmogony, a history of the creation of the world, and elaborate initiations or mysteries which have ever been compared with those of the Greeks."—S. Reinach, *Orpheus*, p. 159.—"The Incan Peruvians believed that all things emanated from Pachacamac, the all-pervading spirit, who provided the plants and animals (which they believed to be produced from the earth) with 'souls.' The earth itself they designated Pachacama (Earth Mother). Here we observe that Pachacamac was more the maker and moulder than the originator of matter, a view common to many American mythologies. . . . The world of visible things is thus Mamapacha (Earth-Mother), under which name the ancient Peruvians worshipped the earth. Pachacamac, on the other hand, is not the earth itself, the soil, but the spirit which animates all things that emerge therefrom. From him proceed the spirits of the plants and animals which come from the earth. Pachamama is the mother-spirit of the mountains, rocks, and plains, Pachacamac the father-spirit of the grain-bearing plants, animals, birds, and man. In some localities Pachacamac and Pachamama were worshipped as divine mates. . . . It is easy to see how such a conception as Pachacamac, the spirit of animated nature, would become one with the idea of a universal or even a partial creator. . . . Pachacamac was alternatively known as Pacharuar, the 'maker' of all things—sure proof of his amalgamation with the conception of the creative agency. As such he had his symbol in the great Coricancha at Cuzco, an oval plate of gold, suspended between those of the sun and the moon, and placed vertically, it may be hazarded with some probability, to represent in symbol that universal matrix from which emanated all things. Elsewhere in Cuzco the creator was represented by a stone statue in human form. . . . It cannot be too strongly emphasised that the cultures and mythologies of old Mexico and Peru were evolved without foreign assistance or intervention, that, in fact, they were distinctively and solely the fruit of American aboriginal thought evolved upon American soil."—L. Spence, *Myths of Mexico and Peru*, pp. 256-257, 303-304, 328.—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN; Cultural areas in Mexico and Central America; Maya area; MUSIC: Primitive; Mexico; PERU: 1200-1527.

Oceanic: Polynesian myths.—"In the beginning the gods dwelt in an upper sky-world, below which there was nothing but a wide-spread sea.

Into this a deity cast a stone, which ultimately became the world, where, after some of the heavenly beings had descended, mankind later appeared. For the fullest versions of this myth we must turn to Samoa, on the western verge of the Polynesian area. . . . The simple statement that the heavens and the earth, sun, moon, plants, and animals were all made or created by some deity is found in one form or other in every Polynesian group. . . . Of all the myths from the Polynesian area, probably none have been more frequently quoted than those which recount the deeds and adventures of the demigod Maui. Among the Polynesians themselves almost every group had its own versions of the tales, and the large number of variants, many of which have fortunately been recorded, make the Maui cycle one of the most important for the

one of which may be called Papuan, the other Melanesian. The former is best represented among the Kai tribes of the region north of Huon Gulf in German New Guinea, as well as by the Baining and Sulka of northern New Britain. . . . The Melanesian stratum on the other hand, is perhaps best developed in eastern Melanesia, *i. e.*, Santa Cruz, the Banks Islands, the New Hebrides, and Fiji."—*Ibid.*, pp. 122-123, 148.

Oceanic: Indonesian myths.—"In Indonesia itself, on the other hand, a larger number of distinct racial types are present, for we have here the Negrito, Indonesian, and Malay, as well as not inconsiderable elements from Semitic (Arabian) and Hindu sources. . . . Corresponding to the Maui cycle in Polynesia in universality, characteristic quality, and popularity, but differing entirely in type, are the Indonesian trickster tales centring about the mouse-deer (*kantjil* or *pelanduk*), the tarsier ape, or the tortoise. . . . In these tales or fables (for very many of them are indeed such) the mouse-deer usually plays the leading part in Borneo, Java, and Sumatra, as well as among the Malays of the Malay Peninsula; whereas in Celebes and Halmahera the same exploits are often attributed to the ape. Sundry other tales of a like character seem to be recorded only of the ape, and others again only of the tortoise. The order of the incidents varies considerably in different regions, although the series usually starts with a tricky exploit which rouses enmity and pursuit."—*Ibid.*, p. 153.

Oceanic: Australian myths.—"When we come to compare the Australian myths with those of the other portions of the Pacific area, one or two points seem to stand out clearly. Resemblances to Melanesia, both in general type and in specific details, are most marked in the southern and eastern portions of the continent. Only here, apparently, do we meet with such themes as the swan-maiden or the arrow-chain; and it is here that the animal stories are most abundant, and that we find cosmogonic tales referring to the creation of both the world and of man. . . . The tales which explain the origin of the individual habits, markings, or cries of animals and other living creatures are quite as typical, on the whole, for Australia as are the Maui myths for Polynesia, the wise and foolish brothers for Melanesia, or the trickster stories for Indonesia."—*Ibid.*, p. 302.

Roman.—Gods and goddesses.—Animism.—Fetiches.—Although the Romans adopted the gods and goddesses of Greece, there were certain divinities peculiar to Roman mythology. For example: "Saturn was an ancient Italian deity. It was attempted to identify him with the Grecian god Cronos, and fabled that after his dethronement by Jupiter he fled to Italy, where he reigned during what was called the Golden Age. In memory of his beneficent dominion, the feast of Saturnalia was held every year in the winter season. . . . Faunus, the grandson of Saturn, was worshipped as the god of fields and shepherds, and also as a prophetic god. His name in the plural, Fauns, expressed a class of gamesome deities, like the Satyrs of the Greeks. Quirinus was a war god, said to be no other than Romulus, the founder of Rome, exalted after his death to a place among the gods. Bellona, a war goddess. Terminus, the god of landmarks. His statue was a rude stone or post, set in the ground to mark the boundaries of fields. Pales, the goddess presiding over cattle and pastures. Pomona presided over fruit trees. Flora, the goddess of flowers. Lucina, the goddess of childbirth. Vesta (the Hestia of the Greeks) was a deity presiding over the public and private



MONOLITH FOUND ON EASTER ISLAND

study of this whole area."—R. B. Dixon, *Oceanic mythology*, pp. 18, 21, 41.

Oceanic: Melanesian myths.—"In contrast to Polynesia we find in Melanesia almost no signs of origin myths. With a few exceptions the Melanesians regard the earth as having always existed in the form in which it is today. One of these exceptions is the belief in a primeval sea which was co-extensive with the universal and out of which a sea serpent summoned the dry land. This belief is also found in Polynesia, Micronesia and Indonesia. Other myths of origin are the belief in the direct or indirect origin of man from birds, or clots of blood, or sprouts of sugar cane. . . . One of the most noteworthy features of Melanesian mythology is the prominence of tales relating either to two culture heroes, one of whom is, as a rule, wise and benevolent, while the other is foolish and malicious. . . . Many of the evil or harmful things in the world were the work of the foolish brother. . . . The material on the mythology of Melanesia, though incomplete and fragmentary, appears rather clearly to prove the existence of two distinct strata,



ODIN
(After statue by Rudolf Maison)

hearth. A sacred fire, tended by six virgin priestesses called Vestals, flamed in her temple. . . . Liber is the Latin name of Bacchus; and Mulciber of Vulcan. Janus was the porter of heaven. He opens the year, the first month being named after him. He is the guardian deity of gates, on which account he is commonly represented with two heads, because every door looks two ways. His temples at Rome were numerous. In war time the gates of the principal one were always open. In peace they were closed. . . . The Penates were the gods who were supposed to attend to the welfare and prosperity of the family. Their name is derived from Penus, the pantry, which was sacred to them. Every master of a family was the priest to the Penates of his own house. The Lares, or Lars, were also household gods, but differed from the Penates in being regarded as the deified spirits of mortals. The family Lars were held to be the souls of the ancestors, who watched over and protected their descendants. The words Lemur and Larva more nearly correspond to our word Ghost."

the Greeks, but their ideas as to the origin of the world and of another life. [See above: Grecian.] On this last subject they had certain popular conceptions which have survived to this day, Orcus, the devourer of corpses, perhaps a wolf originally, became the *orco* of the Italians, the *ogre* of our fairy-tales. The Roman Pluto, *Dis pater*, is represented with a mallet, wherewith to stun the dead, probably in imitation of the Etruscan Charon, who was rather an executioner than a ferryman."—S. Reinach, *Orpheus*, pp. 96-98, 101.

Scandinavian.—The great ash-tree, Ygdrasill, which sprung from the body of the frost-giant, Ymir, supports the universe. Its three immense roots extend into Asgard, dwelling of the gods; into Jotunheim, dwelling of the giants; and into Niffleheim, region of darkness and cold. By the root leading to Asgard sit the three Norns, or fates. The chief god is Odin; "Asgard is the name of the abode of the gods, access to which is only gained by crossing the bridge Bifrost (the rainbow). Asgard consists of golden and silver palaces, the dwell-



KING GORM'S STONE, WITH LATER RUNES
Jellinge, Jutland

—T. Bulfinch, *Mythology*, pp. 10-11.—"Italian animism is differentiated from that of the Greeks by an entire absence of imagination. Instead of Gods and goddesses, it created powers, *numina*, without genealogical connection or history. For us these are hardly more than names, the sterile exuberance of which is un instructive. Rome was all the more prepared to adopt the legends of the Greek gods, because she had so few of native growth. . . . Personifications such as Health, Fortune, Youth, belong to a class of genii without any legends, products of animism and of the tendency to abstraction. These are not altogether lacking in Greek mythology, but that of the Romans is positively overburdened with them. The reverses of coins struck under the Empire form a veritable museum of cold abstractions. A material object inhabited by a spirit is a fetich. Primitive Rome had fetiches instead of idols. A lance was the first image of the god of war, a flint that of Jupiter. . . . The mysterious object called the Palladium of Rome, which more or less resembled an armed Minerva (*Pallas*), was a fetich confided to the care of the vestals; later, a tradition grew up that it had been brought from Troy by Aeneas. . . . The Romans adopted not only the myths of

ings of the gods, but the most beautiful of these is Valhalla, the residence of Odin. When seated on his throne he overlooks all heaven and earth. Upon his shoulders are the ravens, Hugin and Munin, who fly every day over the whole world, and on their return report to him all they have seen and heard. At his feet lie his two wolves, Geri and Freki, to whom Odin gives all the meat that is set before him, for he himself stands in no need of food. Mead is for him both food and drink. He invented the Runic characters, and it is the business of the Norns to engrave the runes of fate upon a metal shield. . . . Valhalla is the great hall of Odin, wherein he feasts with his chosen heroes, all those who have fallen bravely in battle, for all who die a peaceful death are excluded. The Valkyrie are his messengers, and their name means 'Choosers of the slain.' When they ride forth on their errand, their armor sheds a strange flickering light, which flashes up over the northern skies, making what men call the 'Aurora Borealis,' or 'Northern Lights.' . . . The Valkyrie are warlike virgins, mounted upon horses and armed with helmets and spears. Odin, who is desirous to collect a great many heroes in Valhalla, to be able to meet the giants in a day when the final contest must

come, sends down to every battlefield to make choice of those who shall be slain. . . . Thor, the thunderer, Odin's eldest son, is the strongest of gods and men. . . . From Thor's name is derived our word Thursday. Frey is one of the most celebrated of the gods. He presides over rain and sunshine and all the fruits of the earth. His sister, Freya, is the most propitious of the goddesses. She loves music, spring, and flowers, and is particularly fond of the Elves (fairies). . . . Bragi is the god of poetry, and his song records the deeds of warriors. His wife, Iduna, keeps in a box the apples which the gods, when they feel old age approaching, have only to taste of to become young again. Heimdall is the watchman of the gods, and is therefore placed on the borders of heaven to prevent the giants from forcing their way over the bridge Bifrost (the rainbow). He requires less sleep than a bird, and sees by night as well as by day a hundred miles around him. So acute is his ear that no sound escapes him, for he can even hear the grass grow and the wool on a sheep's back. . . . There is another deity who is described as the calumniator of the gods and the contriver of all fraud and mischief. His name is Loki. He is handsome and well made, but of a very fickle mood and most evil disposition."—T. Bulfinch, *Mythology*, pp. 330-332.

Slavic.—Baltic myths.—"Extant data treat of the period immediately preceding the introduction of Christianity, when the Slavic nations, inhabiting a wide-spread region and already possessed of some degree of civilization, had made considerable progress from their primeval culture. Hence no inferences may be drawn from the mythology of one Slavic nation as to the religion of the Slavs as a whole. The most ample evidence, relatively speaking, is found regarding the religion of the Elbe Slavs, who adopted Christianity as late as the twelfth century. . . . The closest kindred of the Slavs are the Baltic peoples—the Prussians and Yatvyags (both long extinct), the Lithuanians, and the Letts. Their early history is unknown, but we have reason to believe that they are the Aestii of Tacitus and Jordanes; and two divisions of them, the Galindae and Sudeni, are mentioned by the geographer Ptolemy as living south of the Venedae, *i.e.*, the Slavs who were later driven from the Baltic shores. Like the Slavs, the Baltic peoples seem to have been part of the Aryan hordes of Sarmatians who formed a portion of the ethnological congeries somewhat vaguely termed Scythians; and since those Scythians with whom we are here concerned were very closely related to the Indo-Iranian race, in certain regards Baltic religion is strikingly similar to the Iranian, as it is set forth in our earliest documents. Arrived on the Baltic

coast, these peoples became subject, like so many other invaders, to the influences of the races whom they found settled there, this being especially marked in the case of the Letts, who, near neighbours of the Finno-Ugric Esthonians, received marked changes in their religion; while Scandinavian elements, from Norse sojourners and traders, must not be overlooked. The territory of the Baltic peoples stretched, roughly speaking, from the Vistula to the Dvina, and occupied approximately the districts now known as East Prussia, Courland, Kovno, Pakov, Vitebsk, Vilna, Suwalki, and Grodno, though the boundaries have fluctuated widely and have shown a constant tendency to contract. With the exception of the Lithuanians, who erected a considerable kingdom in the Middle Ages, only to share the unhappy fate of Poland, the Baltic peoples have played little part in history. In a backward of civilization, retaining in extraordinary measure the primitive forms of their tribal organization, their mode of life, their religion, and their language, they were no match for those who sought to subdue them, though they fared less hardly at the hands of the Slavs than at those of the Germans. If, then, we find a paucity of Baltic mythology, we are justified in assuming that it was destroyed by the oppressor. . . . In Russian and Slovak folk-tales the sun is represented as a ruler of twelve realms, or as served by twelve maidens, ever young and fair. The real destroyer of the tower was Perkunas, god of thunder and the chief Baltic deity; and in this connexion it may be noted that the Lithuanian name for a prehistoric celt is Perkuno kulka ('Perkunas's ball'), a term which, like Perkuno akmu ('Perkunas's stone'), is also applied to a belemnite. The parallel with the hammer of Thor in Eddic mythology at once suggests itself. The other myth is still briefer. Perkune Tete, 'mother of lightning and thunder,' we are told, receives at night the weary, dusty sun, whom she sends forth on the morrow, bathed and shining."—J. Machal, *Slavic mythology* (L. H. Gray, ed., *Mythology of all races*, v. 3, pp. 221, 317-319).

See also PAGANISM; PRIESTHOOD: Among primitive peoples; RELIGION; HISTORY: 12; 13; AMAZONS; EDDAS; ELEUSINIAN MYSTERIES; HOMER AND THE HOMERIC POEMS; KALEVALA; VEDAS.

MYTILENE, island. See LESBOS.

MYTILENE, capital of the island of Lesbos in the Ægean sea, on a promontory in the southeastern part of the island. (See GREECE: Map of ancient Greece; TURKEY: Map of Asia Minor.) An important city of the Aeolian Greeks in ancient times; it revolted from Athens and was subdued in 427 B. C. See GREECE: B. C. 406; B. C. 420-427: Peloponnesian War: Phormio's sea-fights; ATHENS: B. C. 428-427.

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NAARDEN, town in the province of North Holland, Netherlands, thirteen miles southeast of Amsterdam.

1572.—Massacre by Spaniards. See NETHERLANDS: 1572-1573.

1673.—Captured by William of Orange. See NETHERLANDS: 1672-1674.

NAASSENES, ancient sect of gnostics. See Gnostics.

NABAS, town in southeastern part of Southwest Africa. It was taken by the British in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 1.

NABATHEANS, or Nabatæns.—"Towards the seventh century B. C., the name Edomite sud-

denly disappears, and is used only by some of the Israelitish prophets, who, in doing so, follow ancient traditions. Instead of it is found the hitherto unknown word, Nabathean. Nevertheless the two names, Nabathean and Edomite, undoubtedly refer to the same people, dwelling in the same locality, possessing the same empire, with the same boundaries, and the same capital, Selah [Petra]. Whence arose this change of name? According to all appearances from an internal revolution, of which we have no record, a change in the royal race and in the dominant tribe."—F. Lenormant, *Manual of ancient history*, bk. 7, ch. 4.—"This remarkable nation [the Nabatheans, or Nabatæans] has often

been confounded with its eastern neighbours, the wandering Arabs, but it is more closely related to the Aramæan branch than to the proper children of Ishmael. This Aramæan or, according to the designation of the Occidentals, Syrian stock must have in very early times sent forth from its most ancient settlements about Babylon a colony, probably for the sake of trade, to the northern end of the Arabian gulf; these were the Nabatæans on the Sinaitic peninsula, between the gulf of Suez and Aila, in the region of Petra (Wadi Mousa). [See also SYRIA: B. C. 64-63.] In their ports the wares of the Mediterranean were exchanged for those of India; the great southern caravan route, which ran from Gaza to the mouth of the Euphrates and the Persian gulf, passed through the capital of the Nabatæans—Petra—whose still magnificent rock-palaces and rock-tones furnish clearer evidence of the Nabatæan civilization than does an almost extinct tradition.—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 5, ch. 4.—See also JEWS: B. C. 166-40.

ALSO IN: H. Ewald, *History of Israel*, v. 5, p. 351.

NABLUS, town in Palestine, thirty-three miles north of Jerusalem. The population in 1922 was estimated at 20,000. It is near the site of the ancient Shechem. It was attacked by the British in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: e, 15.

NABOB, NAWAB, NAUWAB.—Under the Mogul empire, certain viceroys or governors of provinces bore the title of Nawab, as the Nawab Vizier or Wuzzer of Oude, which became in English speech Nabob, and acquired familiar use in England as a term applied to rich Anglo-Indians. It is also a title of honor given by the Mohammedans to their men of note.

NABONASSAR, king of Babylonia, 747-733 B. C. See CHRONOLOGY: Babylonian reform under Nabonassar.

NABONIDUS, king of Babylonia, 556-538 B. C. See BABYLONIA: Decline of the empire; Invasion by Cyrus the Persian; JEWS: B. C. 604-536.

NABOPOLASSAR, king of Babylonia, 625-605 B. C. Founder of the Chaldean empire. See ASSYRIA: Fall of the empire; BABYLONIA: Later empire; CHALDEA.

NABUCO, Joaquim (1840-1910), Brazilian diplomat and writer. Ambassador to England, 1901-1905, and to the United States, 1905-1910; president of the third international conference of American republics at Rio de Janeiro, 1906. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

NACHTIGAL, Gustav (1834-1885), German explorer of central Africa. Imperial commissioner in West Africa, 1884; annexed Togoland and the Cameroons for Germany, 1884. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1889; CAMEROONS: Occupation by Germany.

NACIONALISTA PARTY, political organization in the Philippine islands. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1907.

NADIR SHAH, or Kuli (1688-1747), shah of Persia, 1736-1747. Invaded India, 1730. See BALUCHISTAN: 18th century; INDIA: 1662-1748; PERSIA: 1490-1887.

NAEFELS, or Nöfels, Battles of (1388, 1799). See SWITZERLAND: 1386-1388; FRANCE: 1799 (August-December).

NAEGELI, Karl Wilhelm (1817-1891), Swiss botanist. Propounded the theory of orthogenesis. See EVOLUTION: Mutation theory of De Vries.

NÆVIUS, Gnæus (264-c. 104 B. C.). Roman dramatist and satirist. See LATIN LITERATURE: B. C. 264-160.

NAGASAKI, city in southwestern Japan. In 1920 the population numbered 176,534. It is one

of the leading seaports and important coaling stations of the country. Before 1600, it was the center of Japanese trade with the Portuguese and other Europeans. During the Tokugawa era, after the closing of Japan, it remained the only port open to Occidental trade. It was opened to American trade in 1857.—See also JAPAN: 1573-1625; 1857-1862; Map.

NAGEL, Charles (1849-), American cabinet officer. Secretary of commerce and labor, 1900-1913. See U. S. A.: 1909 (March): Inauguration of President Taft.

NAGOYA, capital of the province of Owari, Japan, ninety-four miles east of Kyoto. In 1920 the population numbered 429,997. See JAPAN: Map.

NAGPUR, division of the Central Provinces, British India, comprising the districts of Nagpur, Bhandara, Chanda, Wardha, and Balaghat. It was annexed by the British in 1854. See INDIA: 1848-1850; Map.

NAHANARVALI, barbarian invaders of Gaul. See LYGIANS.

NAHOAS, tribe of South American Indians. See GUATEMALA: Aborigines and their culture.

NAHUAS, North and Central American Indian stock. See CENTRAL AMERICA: Aborigines; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in Mexico and Central America: Aztec area; MEXICO: Aboriginal peoples.

NAIRI, ancient forbears of the Kurds and Medes. See KURDISTAN AND THE KURDS.

NAIRS, tribe of hillmen in India. See INDIA: People.

NAISSUS, Battle of (269). See GOTHs: 268-270.

NAJARA, or Navarette, Battle of (1367). See FRANCE: 1360-1380.

NAKATOMI FAMILY, Shinto high priests in medieval Japan. See JAPAN: 550-708.

NAMANGAN, Battle of (1876). See RUSSIA: 1850-1881.

NAMAQUA, tribe of Hottentots. See HOTTENTOTS; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF.

NAMAQUALAND, region of southwestern Africa, extending along the west coast for over 600 miles. It is now included in Southwest Africa. See SOUTHWEST AFRICA, PROTECTORATE OF.

NAMBUCO CHO PERIOD. See JAPAN: 1334-1574.

NAMUR, town in Belgium, the capital of the rich agricultural and mining province of the same name. (See NETHERLANDS: Map of the Netherlands and Belgium.) The city, built on a picturesque site at the junction of the Cambre with the Meuse, is an industrial center. In 1021, the population was 31,328 for whom iron and brass foundries, leather, glass cutlery and other manufactures provided employment. Namur dates from early medieval times; but probably the rocky promontory which stretches out between the two rivers, was a strong camp of the Belgæ before the Roman period. Don Juan of Austria made the city his headquarters in the sixteenth century, and late in the seventeenth century Vauban built a great fort on the promontory, after the place had been taken by the French.

1692.—Siege and capture by the French. See FRANCE: 1602.

1695.—Siege and recovery by William of Orange. See FRANCE: 1605-1606.

1713.—Ceded to Holland. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714; NETHERLANDS: 1713-1715.

1746-1748.—Taken by the French and ceded to Austria. See BELGIUM: 1740-1747.

1888.—Rebuilding of Vauban fort.—Vauban Fort was replaced by a modern fortress composed of encircling forts, nine in number, built on eleva-

tions at distances of from three to five miles from the city.

1914-1918.—World War.—In 1914 the forts were destroyed by the Germans, and Namur was held by them until 1918. It was the region of the German atrocities at the beginning of the war and the scene of the French offensive in 1918. See BELGIUM: 1914-1918: German occupation; WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: e; m; 1918: II. Western front: x; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.; a, 3; a, 4.

NANA SAHIB (c. 1825-c. 1860), one of the leaders of the Sepoy mutiny in India in 1857. See INDIA: 1848-1856; 1857 (May-August); 1857-1858 (July-June).

NANAK, or Nanek (1469-1539), founder of the Hindu sect of Sikhs. See SIKHS.

NANCHO, branch of the imperial family in Japan during the fourteenth century. See JAPAN: B. C. 600-A. D. 1853.

NANCY, city of northeastern France. In 1921, the population was 113,226. It was besieged several times during the Middle Ages; Charles the Bold was defeated here by René II and lost his life, 1477. It was occupied by the French in 1552. From 1814 to 1815 it was occupied by the nations allied against Napoleon. See BURGUNDY: 1476-1477; FRANCE: 1547-1559; NETHERLANDS: 1473-1477.

NANKING, city of southeastern China. It is the capital of the province of Kiangsu and has long been famous for its porcelain and silk manufactures. It is an important literary and missionary center. The population in 1921 was 380,200.

1842.—Treaty ending the opium war and opening Chinese ports. See ASIA: 1500-1900; CHINA: 1830-1842; OPIUM PROBLEM: 1840.

1853-1864.—Capital of Taiping rebels. See CHINA: 1850-1864.

NANSEN, Fridtjof (1861-), Norwegian Arctic explorer, naturalist and diplomat. Led a North Pole expedition, 1893-1896; appointed ambassador to England, 1906; high commissioner of the League of Nations to act in its behalf in securing repatriation of prisoners of war in Russia and Central Europe, 1910; one of the commissioners in charge of famine relief in Russia, 1921. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1867-1901; Chronological summary: 1888; 1893; 1896; 1900; Map of Arctic regions; SPITZBERGEN: 1906-1921; LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Achievements of the council; RUSSIA: 1910; INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: Russian famine relief.

NANSHAN, Battle of (1904). See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

NANTES, first city of Brittany, in western France on the Loire, capital of the department of Loire-Inférieure. (See BRITTANY: 818-912.) In 1921, it had a population of 183,704.

Origin of name. See VENETI OF WESTERN GAUL.

1598.—Edict of Henry IV. See FRANCE: 1598-1599.

1685.—Revocation of the edict. See FRANCE: 1681-1698; 1789: Survey of France on the eve of revolution: Résumé of causes.

1793.—Unsuccessful attack by the Vendéans.—Crushing of revolt and frightful vengeance of Terrorists.—Demoniac Carrier and his Noyades. See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December): Civil War; 1793-1794 (October-April).

NANTES, Edict of, edict issued by Henry IV of France, April 13, 1598. It ended the religious wars of the country by putting the Huguenots on an equality with the Catholics in political rights, but was revoked in 1685. See FRANCE: 1598-1599;

1681-1698; 1789: Survey of France on the eve of revolution: Résumé of causes.

NANTEUIL, town of France, in the department of the Seine and Marne, south of Chaumont-Thierry. It was captured by the Germans in 1914 and retaken by the French in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: p; 1917; II. Western front: h, 1, ii.

NANTICOKES, tribe of North American Indians. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

NANTUCKET, island in the Atlantic ocean, eighty-eight miles southeast of Boston. See AMERICA: Map of early colonial grants.

NANTWICH, Battle of. See ENGLAND: 1644 (January-July).

NAPATA, ancient Ethiopian capital. See ETHIOPIA.

NAPIER, John (1550-1617), Scotch mathematician. Invented logarithms. See SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance.

NAPIER OF MAGDALA, Robert Cornelis, 1st Baron (1810-1890), British field marshal. Served in the Chinese War, 1860; commanded the expedition to free English captives in Abyssinia, 1868; appointed commander-in-chief in India, 1869. See ABYSSINIA: 1854-1889.

NAPLES, city in Italy, on the western coast, about 150 miles southeast of Rome. It was the capital of the former kingdom of Naples, and is now an important seaport. In 1921 the population numbered 780,220.—See also CITY PLANNING: Italy.

Origin of city. See NEAPOLIS AND PALÆPOLIS.

Schools.—In the first century of the Roman empire, "Neapolis [modern Naples] had its schools and colleges, as well as Athens; its society abounded in artists and men of letters, and it enjoyed among the Romans the title of the learned, which comprehended in their view the praise of elegance as well as knowledge."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 40.

536-543.—Siege and capture by Belisarius.—Recovery by the Goths. See ROME: 535-553.

554-800.—Dukedom. See ROME: 554-800.

8th-9th centuries.—Duchy of Beneventum. See BENEVENTUM; AMALFI.

1000-1080.—Norman conquest.—Grant by pope as fief of the church. See ITALY (Southern): 1000-1090.

1127.—Union of Apulia with Sicily and formation of kingdom of Naples or the Two Sicilies. See ITALY: 1081-1194.

1183-1250.—Rule of Frederick II. See ITALY: 1183-1250.

1224.—University founded. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 890-1345; Other universities.

1282-1300.—Separation from Sicily.—Continuance as separate kingdom under House of Anjou.—Adhesion to name "Sicily." See ITALY (Southern): 1282-1300; TWO SICILIES, KINGDOM OF. 1312-1313.—Hostilities between King Robert and Emperor Henry VII. See ITALY: 1310-1313.

1313-1330.—King Robert's leadership of the Guelphs in Italy.—His part in wars of Tuscany.—Invitation to become lord of Florence. See ITALY: 1313-1330; FLORENCE: 1301-1313.

1343-1389.—Troubled reign of Joanna I.—Murder of her husband, Andrew of Hungary.—Political effects of the Great Schism in the church.—War of Charles of Durazzo and Louis of Anjou.—Interfering violence of Pope Urban VI. See ITALY (Southern): 1343-1389.

1386-1414.—Civil war between Durazzo and Angevin parties.—Success of Ladislas.—His capture, loss, and recapture of Rome. See ITALY (Southern): 1386-1414.

1414-1447.—Renewal of civil war.—Defeat of Angevins and acquisition of crown by Alfonso, king of Aragon and Sicily.—League with Florence and Venice against Milan.—War with the Visconti. See ITALY: 1412-1447.

1447-1454.—Claim of King Alfonso to duchy of Milan.—War with Milan and Florence. See MILAN: 1447-1454.

1451-1454.—Allied to Venice and Savoy against Florence and Milan. See MILAN: 1447-1454.

1458.—Separation of crown from those of Aragon and Sicily.—Left to an illegitimate son of Alfonso.—Revived French claims. See ITALY: 1447-1480.

1494-1496.—Invasion and temporary conquest by Charles VIII of France.—Retreat of the French.—Venetian acquisitions in Apulia. See ITALY: 1492-1494; 1494-1496; VENICE: 1494-1503.

1501-1504.—Perfidious treaty of partition between Louis XII of France and Ferdinand of Aragon.—Their joint conquest.—Their quarrel and war.—French expelled.—Spaniards in possession. See ITALY: 1501-1504.

1504-1506.—Relinquishment of French claims. See ITALY: 1504-1506.

1508-1509.—League of Cambrai against Venice. See VENICE: 1508-1509.

1528.—Siege by the French and successful defense. See ITALY: 1527-1529.

1528-1570.—Under Spanish viceroys.—Ravages of Turks along coast.—Blockade and peril of the city.—Revolt against the Inquisition.—Alva's repulse of the French. See ITALY (Southern); 1528-1570; FRANCE: 1547-1550.

1647-1654.—Revolt of Masaniello.—Under-takings of duke of Guise and the French. See ITALY: 1646-1654.

1713.—Kingdom ceded to House of Austria. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

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

1734-1735.—Occupation by Spaniards.—Cession to Spain, with Sicily, forming a kingdom for Don Carlos, first of the Neapolitan Bourbons. See ITALY: 1715-1735; FRANCE: 1733-1735.

1742.—Neutrality of kingdom in the War of the Austrian Succession enforced by England. See ITALY: 1741-1743.

1744-1745.—War of the Austrian Succession.—Neutrality broken.—Allied with Spain and France against Austria. See ITALY: 1744; 1745.

1749-1792.—Under Spanish-Bourbon régime. See ITALY: 1749-1792.

1769.—Seizure of papal territory.—Demand for suppression of the Order of the Jesuits. See JESUITS: 1761-1766.

1793.—Joined in coalition against revolutionary France. See FRANCE: 1793 (March-September).

1796.—Armistice with Bonaparte.—Treaty of peace. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October); (October).

1798-1799.—Attack of King Ferdinand IV upon the French at Rome.—His defeat and flight.—French occupation of the capital.—Creation of Parthenopean Republic. See FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-April); AUSTRIA: 1798-1806.

1799.—Expulsion of the French.—Restoration of the king. See FRANCE: 1799 (August-December).

19th century.—Education legislation and reform. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Italy.

1800-1801.—King's assistance to the Allies.—Saved from Napoleon's vengeance by interces-

sion of Russian tsar.—Treaty of Foligno. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (June-February).

1801.—Treaty of Florence with France. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (June-February).

1803.—French occupation of Taranto, Brindisi and Otranto. See FRANCE: 1802-1804.

1805 (April).—Joined in third coalition against France. See FRANCE: 1805 (January-April).

1805-1806.—Napoleon's edict of dethronement against the king and queen.—Its enforcement by French arms.—Joseph Bonaparte made king of the Two Sicilies. See FRANCE: 1805-1806 (December-September).

1808.—Crown resigned by Joseph Bonaparte (now king of Spain), and conferred on Joachim Murat. See SPAIN: 1808 (May-September).

1808-1809.—Murat on the throne.—Expulsion of the English from Capri.—Popular discontent.—Rise of Carbonari.—Civil war in Calabria. See ITALY (Southern): 1808-1809.

1812.—Extent of empire in Europe.—Map of Napoleon's campaign. See EUROPE: Modern: Map of central Europe in 1812.

1814.—Desertion of Napoleon by Murat.—His treaty with the Allies. See ITALY: 1814.

1815.—Murat's attempt to head an Italian national movement.—His downfall and fate.—Restoration of the Bourbon Ferdinand. See ITALY (Southern): 1815; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1815.—Accession to Holy Alliance. See HOLY ALLIANCE.

1820.—Demand for constitution from Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1815-1840.

1820-1821.—Insurrection.—Concession of a constitution.—Perjury and duplicity of the king.—Intervention of Austria to overthrow the constitution.—Merciless re-establishment of despotism. See ITALY: 1820-1821; VERONA, CONGRESS OF. 1820-1822.—Congresses of Troppau, Laybach and Verona.—Austrian intervention sanctioned. See VERONA, CONGRESS OF.

1820-1860.—Rise of the Camorra to power. See CAMORRA: 1820-1860.

1830.—Death of Francis I.—Accession of Ferdinand II. See ITALY: 1830-1832.

1848.—Abortive revolt. See ITALY: 1848-1849.

1859-1861.—Death of Ferdinand II.—Accession of Francis II.—Overthrow of his kingdom by Garibaldi.—Its absorption in kingdom of Italy. See ITALY: 1856-1859; 1859-1861.

1874.—Establishment of bank. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1860-1910.

1898.—Revolutionary outbreak.—Bread riots. See ITALY: 1898.

1918.—Bombed by Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VIII. Aviation.

NAPLES SCHOOL OF MUSIC. See MUSIC: Modern: 1675-1764.

NAPO, or Quijo, tribe of South American Indians. See ANDESIANS.

NAPOLEON I (Napoleon Bonaparte) (1769-1821), Emperor of the French, 1804-1814. Born on the island of Corsica; second lieutenant in the La Fère regiment of artillery, 1785-1791; with French revolutionary forces in Corsica, 1793; in the occupation of Marseilles and at the siege of Toulon, 1793; imprisoned for advancing the Jacobin cause until after coup of 9th Thermidor, 1794; took part in the defense of the Tuilleries, 1795; succeeded Barras as commander of the Army of the Interior, 1795; married Josephine de Beauharnais, 1796; led Italian campaign, 1796-1797; one of the three members of the provisional government, 1799, which drew up the Constitution of the Year VIII; First Consul, 1799; proclaimed consul for life, 1802; crowned emperor, 1804, and king of Italy, 1805;

declared war against England and the Continental Coalition, 1802; renewed the struggle against Austria, Prussia, and Russia, 1809; defeated by Allies and exiled to Elba, 1814; returned to France and was again defeated at Waterloo, 1815; died at St. Helena, 1821; body conveyed to France, 1840. See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December); 1795 (October-December), to 1815.

Campaigns in Austria and Italy. See AUSTRIA: 1798-1806.

Campaigns in Egypt, Syria and Palestine.—Capture of Malta.—Return from Egypt.—Elected First Consul of France.—Foreign policy altered by turn of events in Egypt.—Characteristics of his régime. See FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-August); 1799 (November); (November-December); 1800 (January-June); 1801-1809; HOSPITALERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM: 1565-1878; EUROPE: Modern: Map of central Europe in 1812.

Made president of Cisalpine republic.—Stirred up revolutions in Italy and Holland.—Constitutions.—“Act of Mediation” in Switzerland. See FRANCE: 1801-1803; SWITZERLAND: 1803-1848.

Codified laws of France.—Formation of centralized government.—Completion of the Louvre.—Sale of Louisiana to the United States. See FRANCE: 1801-1804; ADMINISTRATIVE LAW: Administrative law in France; LOUVRE: 1548-1921; LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.

Control of church in France.—Relations with Pope Pius VII. See CONCORDAT: 1515-1801; PACAPY: 1808-1814; ROME: Modern city: 1808-1814.

Foreign policy as revealed by instructions to French ambassador in London.—War against England.—Plans for invasion of England. See FRANCE: 1802-1804; 1805 (March-December).

Proclaimed emperor.—Strength and weakness of his empire.—Divorce and remarriage. See FRANCE: 1804-1805; 1806 (January-October); 1807 (July-December); 1810-1812.

Intervention in Germany after Treaty of Lunéville.—Policy of aggrandizement in Germany.—His designs in Prussia and his invasion. See GERMANY: 1801-1803; 1805-1806; 1806 (January-August); (October); (October-December).

Continental tariff system. See CONTINENTAL SYSTEM OF NAPOLEON; TARIFF: 1789-1826.

Scheme of incorporating Venetian territory in kingdom of Italy. See FRANCE: 1805-1806 (December-September).

Campaign in Spain. See SPAIN: 1808 (September-December).

Attitude towards the Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1806-1810.

Attitude towards Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1807.

Plan for partition of Turkish empire. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1920.

Renewed struggle with Austria.—Victory at Wagram.—Campaign against Russians. See AUSTRIA: 1809-1814; GERMANY: 1806-1807; 1809 (July-September); EUROPE: Modern: Map of central Europe in 1812.

Advance on Moscow.—Return from Russia and measures for creating new army.—Attitude of the people on eve of campaign of 1814.—Battle of the Nations.—Retreat beyond the Rhine.—Campaign of 1814 against the Allies.—Desertion by Murat in Italy. See RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September); (September); (October-December); FRANCE: 1812-1813 (December-March); 1814 (January-March); GERMANY: 1813 (October); (October-December); ITALY: 1814.

Abdication.—Departure for Elba and his return to France.—Defeat at Waterloo.—Entry into Paris and final abdication.—Surrender to the English and captivity at St. Helena. See FRANCE:

1814 (March-April); (April-June); 1814-1815; 1815 (June); (June-August).

Influence upon political and social state of Europe. See EUROPE: Modern: Diffusion of French revolutionary ideas; FRANCE: 1815.

Military tactics. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 18.

NAPOLEON III (Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte) (1808-1873), Emperor of the French. Lived in exile, 1815-1830; made an unsuccessful attempt to organize a revolution among the French soldiers at Strassburg, 1836; made a descent on France near Boulogne, 1840; captured and imprisoned until 1846, when he escaped; made member of the National Assembly after the fall of Louis Philippe in 1846; elected president of the republic, December, 1848; proclaimed emperor, 1852; declared war on Germany, 1870, and imprisoned at Wilhelmshöhe, 1870-1871; lived at Chiselfhurst, England, 1871-1873. See FRANCE: 1830-1840; 1848 (April-December), to 1870 (September).

Coup d'état of December 2, 1851.—Proclaimed emperor. See FRANCE: 1851-1852.

Character and reign. See FRANCE: 1852-1870.

Allied with Sardinia in war against Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1856-1859; ITALY: 1856-1859.

Attempted assassination. See ENGLAND: 1858-1859.

Commercial treaty with England. See FRANCE: 1860.

Designs in Mexico. See MEXICO: 1861-1867.

Declared war on Germany. See FRANCE: 1870 (June-July); GERMANY: 1866-1870; EUROPE: Modern: Wars of the Great Powers (1848-1878).

Taken prisoner at Sedan by the Germans. See FRANCE: 1870 (August-September); (September).

NAPOLEONIC WARS (1800-1815). See FRANCE: 1800, to 1815 (June-August); GERMANY: 1806 (October); (October-December); 1806-1807; 1807 (February-June); 1809 (January-June); (July-September); 1809-1810 (April-February); 1812-1813; 1813 (April-May); (August-October); (October); RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September); (September); (October-December); AUSTRIA: 1809-1814.

NAQSHBANDIYAH, Mohammedan religious order of dervishes. See DERVISHES.

NARA, or HEIJO, EPOCH. See JAPAN: 645-833.

NARBONNE, city of France, in the department of Aude, on the Canal de la Robine, five miles from the Mediterranean sea.

Founding of the city.—“In the year B. C. 118 it was proposed to settle a Roman colony in the south of France at Narbo (Narbonne). . . Narbo was an old native town which existed at least as early as the latter part of the sixth century before the Christian era. . . The possession of Narbo gave the Romans easy access to the fertile valley of the Garonne, and it was not long before they took and plundered Tolosa (Toulouse), which is on that river. . . Narbo also commanded the road into Spain.”—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 1, ch. 22.—See also COMMERCE: Ancient: 200-600.

437.—Besieged by Goths. See GOTHS: 419-451.

719.—Capture and occupation by Moslems. See CALIPHATE: 715-732.

752-759.—Siege and recovery from Moslems. See CALIPHATE: 752-759.

NAREW, or Narev, river in Poland, flowing into the Bug, near Warsaw. Along its course are several strongly fortified cities which were captured from the Russians by the Germans in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: c, 3; 1915: III. Eastern front: a, 6; g, 7; h, 1.

NARISCI, ancient German tribe. See **MARCOMANNI AND QUADI**.

NARODNA ODBRANA, Serbian political organization. See **WORLD WAR**: Diplomatic background; 16.

NARONGOMBE, Battle of. See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: VII. East African campaign; a.

NARRAGANSETT BAY, inlet of the Atlantic ocean along the coast of Rhode Island. It contains Rhode Island, Prudence and other islands.

1660-1663.—Connecticut boundary dispute. See **RHODE ISLAND**: 1660-1663.

1877.—Harbor improvements. See **RHODE ISLAND**: 1877-1887.

NARRAGANSETTS, tribe of North American Indians. See **ALGONQUIAN FAMILY**; **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America: Eastern woodland area; **NEW ENGLAND**: 1637; 1674-1675; 1675 (October-December); 1676-1678; **RHODE ISLAND**: 1636.

1638.—Sale of lands to Roger Williams. See **RHODE ISLAND**: 1636-1661.

1880.—Repeal of law recognizing tribal authority in Rhode Island. See **RHODE ISLAND**: 1867-1887.

NARRATIVE POETRY. See **BALLAD**: Definition; **EPIC**.

NARSES, Narseh, or Narseus, king of Persia, 293-303. Attacked the Romans in 296 and was defeated by them. See **PERSIA**: 226-627.

NARSES (c. 478-573), Byzantine general. In joint command with Belisarius in the war against the Goths, 538-539; appointed chief in command in Italy, 551; prefect of Italy, 554-567. See **ROME**: Medieval city: 527-565; 535-553; 554-800.

NARVA, Battle of (1700). See **SWEDEN**: 1697-1700.

NARVAEZ, Panfilo de (c. 1480-1528), Spanish soldier. Aided in conquest of Cuba, 1511; sent to capture Cortés, 1520; obtained grant to govern Florida, 1528. See **FLORIDA**: 1528-1542; **MEXICO**: 1510-1520.

NARVAL SUBMARINE. See **SUBMARINES**: 1800.

NASAMONIANS, ancient African tribe. See **AFRICA**: Races of Africa: Prehistoric peoples.

NASEBY, Battle of. See **ENGLAND**: 1645 (June).

NASHE, or Nash, Thomas (1567-1601), English satirical pamphleteer, poet and dramatist. See **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 1530-1660.

NASHVILLE, capital of Tennessee, on the Cumberland river. It is the second city of the state. The population in 1920 was 118,342.

1779-1784.—Origin and name of city. See **TENNESSEE**: 1785-1700.

1850.—Convention held to consider the questions at issue between the North and the South. See **U. S. A.**: 1850 (June).

1862.—Occupied by Union forces. See **U. S. A.**: 1862 (January-February: Kentucky-Tennessee); (February-April: Tennessee).

1864.—Under siege.—Defeat of Hood's army. See **U. S. A.**: 1864 (December: Tennessee).

1897.—Exposition to celebrate Tennessee's admission into the Union. See **TENNESSEE**: 1807.

1907.—Surrender of charter and evasion of prohibition law. See **TENNESSEE**: 1887-1908.

NASI, title of the president of the Jewish Sanhedrin.

NASIR KHAN, ruler of Baluchistan, 1730-1795. See **BALUCHISTAN**: 1730-1795.

NASIR-UD-DIN, Nassir-ed-Din, or Nasr-ed-Din, (1831-1896), shah of Persia, 1848-1896. See **PERSIA**: 1896.

NASIR-UD-DIN-SABUKTIGIN, ruler of India, 977-997. See **INDIA**: 997-1290.

NASKAPI, North American Indian tribe. See **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America: Mackenzie area.

NASRULLA KHAN (1875-), amir of Afghanistan, 1919. Sentenced to imprisonment for life because of complicity in the death of his brother, Habibullah, 1919. See **AFGHANISTAN**: 1919.

NASR-UL-MULK, prime minister of Persia. See **PERSIA**: 1908-1909.

NASSAU, Fort, fur trading post on the Hudson river below the present site of Albany. See **NEW YORK**: 1614-1621.

NASSAU, House of.—“We find an Otho, Count of Nassau, so long ago as the beginning of the 10th century, employed as general under the Emperor Henry I . . . in subduing a swarm of savage Hungarians, who for many years had infested Germany. . . . The same fortunate warrior had a principal hand afterwards in reducing the Vandals, Danes, Slavonians, Dalmatians, and Bohemians. Among the descendants of Otho of Nassau, Walram I and III more particularly distinguished themselves in the cause of the German emperors; the former under the victorious Otho I, the latter under Conrad II. It was to these faithful services of his progenitors that, in a great measure, were owing the large possessions of Henry, surnamed the Rich, third in descent from the last mentioned Walram, and grandfather to the brave but unhappy Emperor Adolphus [deposed and slain at the battle of Gelheim, in 1298 (see **GERMANY**: 1273-1308)]. The accession, by marriage, of Breda, Vianden, and other lordships in the Netherlands, gave the Nassaus such a weight in those provinces that John II of Nassau-Dillemburg, and his son Engelbert II, were both successively appointed governors of Brabant by the Sovereigns of that State [Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, and his son-in-law, the Emperor Maximilian]. . . . The last, who was likewise honoured with the commission of Maximilian I's Lieutenant-General in the Low-Countries, immortalized his fame, at the same time that he secured his master's footing there, by the glorious victory of Guinegate [or Guinegate, or the 'Battle of the Spurs' (see **FRANCE**: 1513-1515)].”—J. Breval, *History of the house of Nassau*, pp. 2-3.—Engelbert II., dying childless, “was succeeded by his brother John, whose two sons, Henry and William of Nassau, divided the great inheritance after their father's death. William succeeded to the German estates, became a convert to Protestantism, and introduced the Reformation into his dominions. Henry, the eldest son, received the family possessions and titles in Luxembourg, Brabant, Flanders and Holland, and distinguished himself as much as his uncle Engelbert, in the service of the Burgundo-Austrian house. The confidential friend of Charles V., whose governor he had been in that Emperor's boyhood, he was ever his most efficient and reliable adherent. It was he whose influence placed the imperial crown upon the head of Charles. In 1515 he espoused Claudia de Chalons, sister of Prince Philibert of Orange, ‘in order,’ as he wrote to his father, ‘to be obedient to his imperial Majesty, to please the King of France, and more particularly for the sake of his own honor and profit.’ His son René de Nassau-Chalons succeeded Philibert. The little principality of Orange, so pleasantly situated between Provence and Dauphiny, but in such dangerous proximity to the seat of the ‘Babylonian captivity’ of the popes at Avignon, thus passed to the family of Nassau. The title was of high antiquity. Already in the reign of Charle-

magne, Guillaume au Court-Nez, or 'William with the Short Nose,' had defended the little town of Orange against the assaults of the Saracens. The interest and authority acquired in the demesnes thus preserved by his valor became extensive, and in process of time hereditary in his race. The principality became an absolute and free sovereignty, and had already descended, in defiance of the Salic law, through the three distinct families of Orange, Baux, and Chalons. In 1544, Prince René died at the Emperor's feet in the trenches of Saint Dizier. Having no legitimate children, he left all his titles and estates to his cousin-german, William of Nassau [the great statesman and soldier, afterwards known as William the Silent], son of his father's brother William, who thus at the age of eleven years became William the Ninth of Orange."—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 1.—The Dutch branch of the House of Nassau is now represented by the royal family of Holland. The possessions of the German branch, in the Prussian province of Hesse-Nassau, after frequent partitioning, were finally gathered into a duchy, which Prussia extinguished and absorbed in 1866.—See also GERMANY: 1861-1866; 1866; Map; ORANGE; The principality; GUELDERLAND: 1070-1473; LUXEMBURG: 1780-1914.

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *Orange* (Macmillan's Magazine, Feb., 1875).—Baron Maurier, *Lives of all the princes of Orange*.

NAT TURNER'S INSURRECTION (1831). See SLAVERY: 1828-1832; U.S.A.: 1829-1832.

NATAGES, Indian tribes of New Mexico, Texas and Arizona. See APACHE INDIANS.

NATAL, maritime province of the Union of South Africa (see SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF). It has a seaboard of 360 miles on the Indian ocean. In 1844 it was annexed to Cape Colony but the next year it was allowed a separate government. It was made a distinct colony in 1856; the province of Zululand was annexed to it in 1897; and the districts of Vryheid, Utrecht, and part of Wakkerstroom in 1903. In 1921 the population was 1,420,398. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Climatic conditions; Lack of railway and industrial development; ZULULAND.

Name. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1486-1806.

1763.—Ceded to England by Treaty of Paris. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties which ended war.

1834-1843.—Founding of colony as a Dutch republic.—Its absorption in British dominions. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881.

1897.—Represented at colonial conference in London. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1897.

1899.—Invasion by the Boers. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (September-October).

1900.—Expulsion of Boers by British. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (May-June).

1902.—Represented at imperial conference in London.—Agreed to contribute to maintenance of navy. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1902.

1906-1907.—Revolt of Zulus. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1906-1907.

1907.—Represented at imperial conference in London.—Formulation of constitution and discussion of defense. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1907.

1908-1909.—Decision to join Union of South Africa.—Framing of constitution. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1908-1909.

1909.—Represented at imperial defense conference.—Naval program. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: British imperial defense conference.

1910-1921.—Incorporated in Union of South Africa.—Part played in World War.—The colony became an original province of the Union, 1910. During the latter part of the World War Natal with the other provinces supplied the military forces necessary for its defense and the British troops were recalled. The forces of the province were demobilized in 1920. The Union's Army of Defense became responsible for the military administration of the Cape, and England's troops were permanently withdrawn in 1921.

1919.—Educational system.—Schools for Europeans and natives. See EDUCATION: Modern: 20th century: General education: South Africa.

1921.—Electoral System. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 1921.

NATCHESAN FAMILY.—When the French first entered the lower Mississippi valley, they found the Natchez [Na'htchi] occupying a region of country that now surrounds the city which bears their name. "By the persevering curiosity of Gallatin, it is established that the Natchez were distinguished from the tribes around them less by their customs and the degree of their civilization than by their language, which, as far as comparisons have been instituted, has no etymological affinity with any other whatever. Here again the imagination too readily invents theories; and the tradition has been widely received that the dominion of the Natchez once extended even to the Wabash. History knows them only as a feeble and inconsiderable nation, who in the 18th century attached themselves to the confederacy of the Creeks."—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, v. 2, p. 97.—"Chateaubriand, in his charming romances, and some of the early French writers, who often drew upon their fancy for their facts, have thrown an interest around the Natchez, as a semi-civilized and noble race, that has passed into history. We find no traces of civilization in their architecture, or in their social life and customs. Their religion was brutal and bloody, indicating an Aztec origin. They were perfidious and cruel, and if they were at all superior to the neighboring tribes it was probably due to the district they occupied—the most beautiful, healthy and productive in the valley of the Mississippi—and the influence of its attractions in substituting permanent for temporary occupation. The residence of the grand chief was merely a spacious cabin, of one apartment, with a mat of basket work for his bed and a log for his pillow. . . . Their government was an absolute despotism. The supreme chief was master of their labor, their property, and their lives. . . . The Natchez consisted exclusively of two classes—the Blood Royal and its connexions, and the common people, the Mich-i-mioki-quipe, or Stinkards. The two classes understood each other, but spoke a different dialect. Their customs of war, their treatment of prisoners, their ceremonies of marriage, their feasts and fasts, their sorceries and witchcraft, differed very little from other savages. Father Charlevoix, who visited Natchez in 1721, saw no evidences of civilization. Their villages consisted of a few cabins, or rather ovens, without windows and roofed with matting. The house of the Sun was larger, plastered with mud, and a narrow bench for a seat and bed—no other furniture in the mansion of this grand dignitary, who has been described by imaginative writers as the peer of Montezuma!"—J. F. H. Claiborne, *Mississippi*, v. 1, ch. 4.—In 1729, the Natchez, maddened by insolent oppressions, planned and executed a general massacre of the French within their territory. As a consequence, the tribe was virtually exterminated within the following two years.—Based on C. Gay-

arre, *Louisiana, its colonial history and romance, 2d series, lect. 3, 5*.—"The Na'htchi, according to Gallatin, a residue of the well-known nation of that name, came from the banks of the Mississippi, and joined the Creek less than one hundred years ago. The seashore from Mobile to the Mississippi was then inhabited by several small tribes, of which the Na'htchi was the principal. Before 1730 the tribe lived in the vicinity of Natchez, Miss., along St. Catherine Creek. After their dispersion by the French in 1730 most of the remainder joined the Chicasa and afterwards the Upper Creek. They are now in Creek and Cherokee Nations, Indian Territory. The linguistic relations of the language spoken by the Taensa tribe have long been in doubt, and it is possible they will ever remain so."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report, Bureau of Ethnology*, p. 96.—See also LOUISIANA: 1719-1750; MUSKOGEEAN, OR MASKOKI, FAMILY; CHEROKEES.

NATCHEZ, city in Adams county, Mississippi, on the Mississippi river, about 100 miles southwest of Jackson.

1862.—Taken by Union forces. See U. S. A.: 1862 (May-July: On the Mississippi).

NATCHEZ INDIANS. See NATCHESAN FAMILY.

NATCHITOCHEs, North American Indian tribe. See TEXAS: Aboriginal inhabitants.

NATECOETS, tribe of South American Indians. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

NATION, Carrie (1840-1911), American temperance advocate. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1893-1904.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES, United States, incorporated in 1863. See NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL.

NATIONAL AFRICAN COMPANY. See NIGERIA, PROTECTORATE OF: 1882-1890.

NATIONAL ARMENIAN COMMITTEE, organized by Clara Barton in 1896 to aid Armenian sufferers. See TURKEY: 1896 (January-March).

NATIONAL ARMY CAMPS, United States. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VIII. United States and the war: i, 6.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY: France (1789-1791). See FRANCE: 1789 (June); (October); 1791 (October); 1792 (August-September); (September-November).

Germany (1848). See GERMANY: 1848 (March-September); 1848-1850.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF COLORED PEOPLE, United States, organized in 1909. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1905-1921.

NATIONAL BANK SYSTEM, United States. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1861-1864.

NATIONAL BOARD OF FARMERS' ORGANIZATIONS. See AGRICULTURE: Modern: United States: Effects of World War.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC WELFARE COUNCIL, United States. See PAPACY: 1919 (April).

NATIONAL CHEAP TRANSPORTATION ASSOCIATION. See U.S.A.: 1873-1874.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE, United States (1904). See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1904-1916.

NATIONAL CIVIC FEDERATION: Purpose and early history.—The Federation was organized in 1900 in Chicago. The executive committee was composed of Franklin MacVeagh, Archbishop Ireland, Samuel Gompers, John Mitchell, D. J. Keefe, John W. Stahl, and Benjamin Ide Wheeler. The prospectus, published at the time, stated the purpose of the organization to be as follows: "To

organize the best brains of the nation in an educational movement toward the solution of some of the great problems related to social and industrial progress; to provide for study and discussion of questions of national import; to aid thus in the crystallization of the most enlightened public opinion; and, when desirable, to promote legislation in accordance therewith." It was decided to take up for discussion, through national conferences, the three subjects of industrial arbitration, taxation and municipal ownership. The first conference, that on industrial arbitration, was held at Chicago, in December, 1900, and resulted in the organization of the Industrial Department, with A. C. Bartlett, of Chicago, chairman. In the following June a national conference on taxation was held in Buffalo, resulting in the formation of the Department on Taxation, with Edwin R. A. Seligman as chairman. It was the intention to hold the Conference on Municipal Ownership in New York the following December, but in the meantime a number of large strikes, especially the Steel Strike, the National Machinists' strike and a threatened Anthracite Coal Strike absorbed so much of the energy and attention of the active members of the Federation at that time that the Public Ownership Conference was postponed for the time being. Through the work done by the committee in connection with the coal and steel strikes, Senator Hanna became interested in the organization, and in December of that year was made President of the organization. His selection for that office, together with the appointment of other men of national reputation on the committee, attracted the attention of the country to the organization. For two years following that department was the only one prominent before the public, and its work in the prevention of strikes and lockouts was naturally regarded as the only purpose of the organization. The conferences held during this period were naturally confined to the subject of conciliation and collateral phases of the work. As national labor disturbances then became less frequent after two years of this special work the organization was able to resume its original programme, holding itself, however, in readiness to concentrate its energies on the industrial work at any time the need might arise. It was at this time that the national conference on immigration was called, and the Department of Immigration organized. After that a national commission on Municipal Ownership was formed, and by that time the public began to take interest in the broader aspects of the organization. Later came the establishment of the Industrial Economics Department, which has taken up some of the most important problems of the day, including Socialism and Trusts and Combinations. The holding of a national conference on Political Reform resulted in the organization of a department especially devoted to these subjects.—Based on *National Civic Federation Review*, Mar., 1909.

1907.—National conference at Chicago.—Action on trusts. See TRUSTS: United States: 1907: National conference; 1908-1909.

1913-1920.—Law plan proceedings.—The Civic Federation's plans of model laws were published in 1913. The next year, they drafted a bill for the regulation of public utilities. Pamphlets were printed by them in 1916, on the problems of federal, state, and industrial pensions, as well as the minimum wage law. In 1917 they organized the League for National Unity as a special branch to consider war policies. Their next efforts, in 1919, were studies on the laws of France, town planning and reparation of damages caused by the World War, and the labor situation in Great Britain and France. In

the document on profit-sharing by American employers, 1920, are examples of the same from their observations in England, as well as types in France.

NATIONAL CONSERVATION COMMISSION, United States (1908). See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States, 1907-1910.

NATIONAL CONVENTION: France (1792-1795). See FRANCE: 1792 (September-November); 1794 (June-July); 1795 (October-December).

United States.—Presidential nominations. See ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL; United States: Nomination by national conventions; Work of the nominating convention.

NATIONAL COVENANT, Scotland (1638). See SCOTLAND: 1638; PRESBYTERIAN CHURCHES: 1557-1646.

NATIONAL DEBTS. See DEBTS, PUBLIC.

NATIONAL DEFENSE, Council of, United States.—"Prior to the outbreak of the Great War, recognition was had of the need for some organ that should have as its function the formation of a general war programme and the correlation of the activities of the several branches of the Government for its execution, should the United States ever be called upon to engage in a conflict that would measurably tax its resources. To this end there was drafted as early as 1912 a bill providing for the creation of a body to be known as the Council of National Defense. . . . [It] provided for a body composed of *ex officio* members representing the two Houses of Congress, the President, and the War and Navy Departments. . . . As the possibility of the United States' being drawn into the war became progressively more apparent, this idea of a Council of National Defense was revived in a modified form and provision was made for its establishment by a clause inserted in the Army Appropriation Act of March 20, 1916. [See U.S.A.: 1917-1919: Effect of the war.] This Act provided for the creation of a body to be known as the Council of National Defense to consist of the six Secretaries—of War, the Navy, the Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor. [See WORLD WAR: 1917: VIII. United States and the war: i, 11.] . . . The Act made an immediate appropriation of \$200,000 for the support of the Council and its work. . . . Although the Act authorizing the establishment of the Council and the Advisory Commission [subordinate agency of the Council] was approved on August 20, 1916, it was not until October 11 of that year that the two bodies were formally organized. The Secretary of War was designated as Chairman of the Council, and Walter S. Gifford, Statistician of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, was appointed Director. The Advisory Commission was constituted by the appointment of the following members: Daniel Willard, President of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company; Hollis Godfrey, President of the Drexel Institute of Philadelphia; Howard E. Coffin, Vice-President of the Hudson Motor Company, of Detroit; Dr. Franklin H. Martin, President of the General American College of Surgeons of Chicago; Bernard M. Baruch, a banker of New York; Julius Rosenwald, President of Sears, Roebuck and Company, of Chicago; and Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, of Washington. . . . The chief service rendered by the Council, and particularly by its Advisory Commission, was that of furnishing the means through which the officers of the administrative Departments could get into immediate touch with the industrial interests of the country. . . . In a number of instances, notably in the case of the War Industries Board and the Commercial Economy Committee, the units originally established by the Council of

National Defense were taken over by the President and made independent agencies or integral parts of such agencies. . . . The Council became steadily more restricted until at the termination of hostilities it was playing a comparatively unimportant part in the general organization for the prosecution of war. In view of this the Council turned its attention to the consideration of the problems of reconstruction to be met after the war. . . . Of more immediate importance in respect to the work of reconstruction was the creation by the Council in February, 1919, of a new service known as the Reconstruction and Research Division of the Council. This Division . . . had as its prime purpose to act as a clearing house for information regarding reconstruction conditions and problems and the action being taken by the several branches of the Federal Government, the state governments, and other agencies for meeting these conditions and problems."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government organization in war time and after*, pp. 9-14, 17-18.—See also PRICE CONTROL: 1917-1919; RAILROADS: 1916-1920.

ALSO IN: *Industrial Management*, Jan., 1920.—W. Pollock, *Heirs of the councils of national defense* (*National Municipal Review*, July, 1919).

NATIONAL DEFENSE ACT (1916). See NATIONAL GUARD, UNITED STATES.

NATIONAL DEMOCRATIC PARTY: Poland. See POLAND: 1877-1905.

United States. See DEMOCRATIC PARTY, UNITED STATES.

NATIONAL FARMERS' ALLIANCE, formerly a political party in the United States. "The National Farmers' Alliance was formed in 1880 when the Grange was in a weakened condition as a result of its political activity. It originated in Illinois; it was not secret; and its purpose was to unite the farmers for protection against class legislation. Each State organization was practically independent and consequently there was little upon which to build up a national union. 'Dakota, Missouri and New York were its outlying posts, within which the transportation question furnished a common bond.' Minnesota and Nebraska were its chief strongholds. This organization was commonly referred to as the 'Northern' Alliance. The most powerful of the organizations was the National Farmers' Alliance and Industrial Union, usually known as the 'Southern' Alliance. As early as 1875 an organization was formed in Texas. After an interval of inactivity it was revived in 1880, but in 1886 the breakup of this body seemed imminent. Through the efforts of . . . C. W. Macune correspondence was opened with the representatives of the National Farmers' Alliance and the Louisiana Farmers' Union. In January, 1887, internal differences were skillfully avoided by the proposal of a general movement for the 'organization of the cotton belt of America.' A fusion with the Louisiana Farmers' Union was arranged and the name of National Farmers' Alliance and Co-operative Union was adopted."—F. E. Haynes, *Third party movements since the Civil War*, pp. 228-229.—"The National Farmers' League was organized in 1890, with purposes mainly political. Its political order was as follows: to favor the issue of Treasury notes, Government loans to individuals, the increase of the circulating medium to \$50 per capita, free and unlimited coinage of silver, Government ownership and operation of railroads, election of Senators by popular vote, and an income tax; to oppose national banks, and alien ownership of land. At first it planned to graft itself on an existing party, but failing in this, a new political party was formed, combining with

the agricultural classes the various labor classes of the cities. This party, the Peoples' or Populist, . . . has had conventions and candidates since 1892."—*Cyclopedia of American government*, v. 1, p. 711.—The Alliance ceased to be a political party but has continued as an agricultural organization.—See also KANSAS: 1880-1890; NEBRASKA: 1874-1880; NORTH DAKOTA: 1892-1896; NORTH CAROLINA: 1870-1892; U.S.A.: 1866-1877.

NATIONAL GUARD.—French military system under municipal control, which existed from 1789 to 1871. As an organization for local defense it had long existed in many French towns but was not introduced into Paris until 1789. It was then called the Garde Bourgeois, as it was composed almost entirely of bourgeois volunteers. It was to maintain order at home, but might be used for the defense of the country against foreign invasion, in which case all able bodied male citizens between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one might be called. As a result of the insurrection in Paris (1789), caused by Louis XVI's refusal to comply with the request of the assembly to withdraw the troops and to authorize the formation of a civic guard in Paris Lafayette was appointed general of the citizen-militia and hastened to organize that body under the name of the National Guard. In a short time there were 300,000 men enrolled. "At the head of this force Lafayette struggled for two years to preserve public tranquillity and to enforce the laws decreed by the Assembly. . . . It required the utmost exertions of Lafayette to restrain the constant turmoil of the masses; . . . he only succeeded at all in doing so by having the National Guard on continual patrols."—T. Wright, *History of France*, p. 462.—The National Guard was very vacillating in its party adherence. Loyal to the king at the beginning, it later became a devoted follower of Robespierre. It was abolished by the government in 1827, but reorganized in 1830, when Lafayette was again commander by order of Louis Philippe. It formed an important part of the armed force of the kingdom, but in the Revolution of the 24th of February, 1848, "to a shot fired upon the Guard of the Foreign Office, the troops answered by a volley which cut down fifty inoffensive bystanders. . . . At the sight of their bodies . . . the people of the faubourgs flew to arms. . . . In the riot that arose the National Guard did nothing. Revolution followed, . . . [and Louis Philippe abdicated]."—Duruy, *History of France*, pp. 560, 562, 564.—They were dissolved in 1851, reorganized in 1855, served against the Germans in the War of 1870-1871, and later in 1871 took part in the Communist struggle. After a succession of changes the Guard was superseded by the military organization of 1870.—See also FRANCE: 1789 (July); (October); 1791 (July-September); 1792 (June-August); 1795 (October-December).

NATIONAL GUARD, United States.—"Prior to 1903 there existed, in the various states, and as a part of the military system of the United States, a loosely controlled force variously known as 'The National Guard,' 'The State Militia,' or more properly as 'The organized militia.' Membership in this organization was voluntary and without pay. The men were bound only by the terms of a rather lax enlistment period of three years. Each state controlled its own forces and governed them in accordance with the provisions of its own Constitution. In 1903 came Federal supervision and oversight through the agency of the Dick bill passed by Congress. . . . While The National Defense Act of June 3, 1916, is a distinct advance from the scheme as laid down under the Dick bill, it carries along some of the defects of that meas-

ure and helps to perpetuate the faulty National Guard system. . . . The National Guard is now required to conform to the standards of the Regular Army in physical qualifications and discipline, which includes training and drill. . . . The enlistment period has been increased from three years to six years. Three years of this 'shall be in an active organization,' and the remaining three years 'in the National Guard reserve'—Should he [the guardsman] join prior to the calling out of the guard by the President, his obligation is to the State and his status is that of a National Guardsman not in the active service of the United States. Upon the call of the President his status automatically changes, and his obligation is then not to the State, but to the Federal government. He, in other words, becomes a National Guardsman in the active service of the United States, and as such he is subject to 'such laws . . . as may be applicable to members of the (Regular and) Volunteer Army.'"—*National guard, its status and its defects (Review of Reviews, Aug., 1916)*.—See also WORLD WAR: 1917: VIII. United States and the war: i, 1; i, 5; i, 7.

NATIONAL GUILDS LEAGUE. See GUILD SOCIALISM.

NATIONAL HEALTH COUNCIL (1920). See PUBLIC HEALTH: United States: National Health Council.

NATIONAL HOUSING ASSOCIATION (1910). See HOUSING: United States: National Housing Association.

NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCES, 1919. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1910-1920.

NATIONAL INSTITUTION FOR THE YOUNG BLIND, France (1784). See EDUCATION: Modern: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Blind.

NATIONAL INSTITUTION OF EX-SOLDIERS. See ITALY: 1910 (January).

NATIONAL INSURANCE ACT, England (1911). See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Great Britain; 1911-1913.

NATIONAL LABOR UNION, United States (1866). See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1825-1875; U.S.A.: 1866-1872.

NATIONAL LIBERTY PARTY. See U.S.A.: 1904 (May-November).

NATIONAL LIBRARY OF FRANCE. See LIBRARIES: Modern: France.

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Municipal program formed, etc.

NATIONAL MUSEUM OF THE UNITED STATES. See SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

NATIONAL PARTY: Greenback.—"Third party," or Anti-imperialists. See GREENBACK PARTY; U.S.A.: 1900 (May-November).

NATIONAL PIKE, road running through Maryland and West Virginia. See CUMBERLAND ROAD.

NATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS (1870). See PRISON REFORM: United States: National prison congress.

NATIONAL PROGRESSIVE REPUBLICAN LEAGUE (1911). See U.S.A.: 1911-1912 (June).

NATIONAL PROVIDENT FUND ACT (1910). See NEW ZEALAND: 1906-1909.

NATIONAL REPUBLICAN PARTY, organized in 1828. See U.S.A.: 1825-1828.

NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL.—"The National Research Council is a cooperative organization of the scientific men of America. . . . It is established under the auspices of the National

Academy of Sciences and enjoys the coöperation of most of the major scientific and technical societies of the country, its membership being largely composed of appointed representatives of forty or more of these societies. The Council was organized in 1916 to coordinate the research facilities of the country for work on war problems, and in 1918, by executive order of the President of the United States, it was reorganized as a permanent body. Its essential purpose is the promotion of scientific research and of the application and dissemination of scientific knowledge for the benefit of the national strength and well-being. In the character of its organization and support it differs materially from other similarly-named organizations which have been established in recent years in several other countries, notably England, Canada, Australia, Japan, and Italy. These organizations are all government-supported and to some extent government-controlled. The American National Research Council, is now [1920] entirely supported from other than governmental sources, and is . . . controlled by its own chosen officers.

. . . It is composed of a series of major divisions arranged in two groups. One group comprises seven divisions of science and technology. The other group comprises six divisions of general relations, representing foreign, government, states, and educational relations, research extension, and research information. The Council maintains two series of publications, one called *Bulletins*, the other *Reprints and Circulars*, and the publication of the *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. . . The financial support of the administrative work of the Council is assured by a gift of five million dollars recently made by the Carnegie Corporation. Part of this gift is to be devoted to the erection of a suitable building in Washington for the joint use of the Council and the National Academy of Sciences, and the rest is to serve as an endowment for the Council."—V. Kellogg, *National research council (International Conciliation [pamphlet], Sept., 1920)*.—See also U. S. A.: 1917-1919: Effect of the war.

NATIONAL SECURITY LEAGUE. See U. S. A.: 1918 (November).

NATIONAL SERVICE, Ministry of. See ENGLAND: 1917: National service registration; IRELAND: 1917.

NATIONAL SILVER PARTY. See U. S. A.: 1896: Party platforms and nominations: National Silver party.

NATIONAL STEEL COMPANY (1899). See TRUSTS: United States: Earlier combinations in steel production.

NATIONAL SYMBOLS. See FLAGS.

NATIONAL TRADES UNION, United States (1834). See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1825-1875.

NATIONAL VOLUNTEERS, Irish (1913). See IRELAND: 1913-1916; 1914-1916.

NATIONAL WAR LABOR BOARD. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1917-1919.

NATIONALISM AND INTERNATIONALISM: Nationalism defined.—"Nationalism is an organization of people living the same intellectual and moral life, economic and social, civil and political. Therefore it is accomplished with the naturalization of the ideas and costumes of the diverse popular masses, educating and co-ordinating these ideas and varied social habits in the heterogeneous ethnical groups, in order to establish a vital tie of organic life with uniformity of political laws. And inasmuch as the different ethnical groups . . . and relations can only unite themselves politically in

the camp of Democracy, therefore it is logical that Nationalism is only possible through the applications, development and synthesis of the Democratic principles."—L. Di Berardino, *Nationalism of the new democracy*, p. 5.—"Probably no word has been spoken more often in the political discussions of recent years than the word 'nation' or 'nationality.' No principle has been more frequently referred to by all sides in arguing for right and wrong than that each nation is entitled to settle its own affairs. One may assert that there has been many a declaration of independence for nationalities that corresponds to the American Declaration of Independence for the individual, that each nation has a right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness in its own right just as the individual American claimed that right for himself. We are assured over and over again that the next peace must be based upon the principle of nationality. This means apparently that each nation, however small, must be permitted to manage its own affairs, without interference from any outside nation. All of these discussions presuppose an agreement as to what a nation is and the existence of definite criteria for deciding conflicting claims between peoples that believe a group of people to belong to its own rather than to another nation. That these criteria are not altogether clear in different cases is evident from numerous discussions. Both France and Germany claim Alsace and Lorraine, one on the basis of language and the desire of the inhabitants, the other on the ground of formal connection earlier in history, and community of race. In Ireland the same dispute exists in another form. Are the Orangemen to be regarded as Irish when they prefer to be English, or shall they determine their own affiliations? Here the question is different since it turns on whether a discordant element in a community is to be regarded as part of the community or as independent. The problem of criteria presents itself at many points on the borders between the central and eastern and southeastern peoples. Are the inhabitants of the Dalmatian Islands Italian because they speak the language and because their land formed part of the Roman and, later, part of the Venetian Empire? Are the people of Dobrudja Roumanians or Bulgarians? Is the Macedonian, Serb or Greek or Bulgarian? Are Little Russians really Russian or are they a separate people because of their different religion and slightly different language? These and many similar problems must be settled before the world can be properly partitioned and made safe for democracy or guaranteed a permanent peace. But before any one of them can be solved or even given a basis for adequate discussion, we must decide what a nation is and discover suitable criteria of nationality."—W. B. Pillsbury, *Psychology of nationality and internationalism*, pp. 1-3.—No true historian would minimize the sufferings which have often been endured by "submerged nationalities." But whether the status of the individual citizen or the group as a whole is materially improved by emergence as a nation may sometimes be doubted, in view of recent experiences. "The Balkan states . . . are all and several still in the pickpocket stage of dynastic statemaking, comparable with the state of Prussia before 'Frederick the Great Pickpocket' came to the throne. And now . . . Czechs, Slovaks, Slovenes, Ruthenians, Ukrainians, Croats, Poles and Polaks are breathlessly elbowing their way into line with these minuscular Machiavellians. Quite unchastened by their aching experience in adversity they are all alike clamoring for national establishments stocked up with all the time-tried contrivances for discomfort and defeat. With one

hand they are making frantic gestures of distress for an 'outlet to the sea' by means of which to escape obstruction of their overseas trade route by their nationally minded neighbors, while with the other hand they are feverishly at work to contrive a customs frontier of their own, together with other devices for obstructing their neighbors' trade and their own, so soon as they shall have any trade to obstruct. Such is the force of habit and tradition. In other words, these peoples are aiming to become nations in full standing."—T. Veblen, *Modern point of view and the new order* (*Dial*, Jan. 11, 1919, p. 21).

Chief source of imperialism. See EUROPE: Modern: Imperialism.

Cause of war. See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: c.

Patriotism in ancient world.—Medieval feudal groups.—"The first records of emotions which may properly be called national are to be found in the Old Testament. The twelve confederated tribes of Israel (or at least what was left of them after the exile) in Judea and the diaspora possessed a lively and varied conviction of common interests, a common origin, and a glorious future. The Greek towns and their colonies, scattered as they were, had not only their local patriotism, but a general feeling of superiority and a certain theoretical solidarity indicated by the comprehensive name Hellenes. Of the love of country the Roman writers have much to say. Cicero declares that of all social bonds those that unite each of us with the commonwealth are the dearest and strongest. 'Parents are dear, children are dear, as are our relatives and friends; but our fatherland embraces in itself all our love for every one' (*De officiis*, I, xvii, 57). The writings of the Stoics, together with some passages in the later Hebrew prophets, afford us the earliest conscious protests against patriotism. The vast extension of the Roman Empire and the incoming of cosmopolitan religions, such as Mithraism, proselyting Judaism, Neoplatonism, and Christianity, must have undermined the older patriotism which had grown up in the city states, for this could not fail to suffer from the rivalry of these more inclusive competing loyalties. The Middle Ages had their special group loyalties, corresponding to the manor and the monastery, the commune and the guild, together with the supreme mystical entity of the Holy Catholic Church. The shifting feudal combinations and the weakness of the kings must have left little scope for anything corresponding to modern national feeling."—J. H. Robinson, *What is national spirit* (*Century Magazine*, Nov., 1916, p. 59-60).—See also EUROPE: Middle Ages: Political background; Background of Protestant Reformation.

Rise of the nation as an organic unit.—"Nationality, though a word to-day in common employment, is not to be found in Johnson's two folios of 1755, where you will only discover *Nation* and *National*, the latter being defined as 'bigotted to one's own country.' . . . But if you consult the New English Dictionary, 1905, you will find that eleven columns are devoted to this root and its various derivatives, which are now 'in widest commonality spread.' . . . The problem, vexed and troublesome as it is, of rival nationalities is in Europe a modern trouble. Lord Acton, in an illuminating, though, as indeed his work is apt to be, toughish, discourse on Nationality, contributed fifty-seven years ago to the *Home and Foreign Review*, and now to be studied in that volume of his essays called *The History of Freedom and other Essays*, wrote as follows:—"In the

old European system the rights of nationalities were neither recognised by governments nor asserted by the people. The interest of the reigning families, not those of the nations, regulated the frontiers; and the administration was conducted generally without any reference to the popular desires. Where all liberties were suppressed, the claims of national independence were necessarily ignored, and a princess, in the words of Fénelon, carried a monarchy in her wedding portion. The eighteenth century acquiesced in this oblivion of corporate rights on the Continent, for (*mark these words: much turns on them*) the Absolutists cared only for the *State*, and the Liberals only for the individual. The Church, the nobles, and the nation had no place in the popular theories of the age, and they devised none in their own defence, for they were not before the Revolution openly attacked. The aristocracy retained its privileges and the Church her property, and the dynastic interest which overruled the natural inclination of the nations and destroyed their independence, nevertheless maintained their integrity. The national sentiment was not wounded in its most sensitive part. . . . In time of war, as there was no national cause at stake, there was no attempt to arouse national feeling. . . . The art of war became a slow and learned game. The monarchies were linked not only by a natural community of interests, but by family alliances. A marriage contract sometimes became the signal for an interminable war, whilst family connections often set a barrier to ambition. After the Wars of Religion came to an end at the peace of Westphalia in 1648, the only wars were those which were waged for an inheritance or dependency, or against countries whose systems of government exempted them from the common law of dynastic States. . . . Those countries were England and Holland."

—*Nationality and the League of Nations* (*Contemporary Review*, Sept., 1919, pp. 241-243).—When the new nations did begin to appear, they took a slightly different character from those of ancient times. (See EUROPE: Modern: Rise of nation-state, etc.) The modern nation always began as a combination to resist oppression, and to establish ideals. In the ancient nationalism the nation grew first and the ideals came later, while in the modern nationality, the ideals were first and the nation emerged later to make those ideals staple. When the ancient civilizations fell as such, the ideals still lived on, they were sustained by many people, and when severe troubles became too great, the old ideals were revived to form the foundation of new organizations and to warrant organized uprisings. Almost all of the very modern states are the incorporations of these ideals, although they alone did not create the state until some urgency forced the group to realize their existence. Occasionally some of the cities in Italy advanced towards ideals, although they were more fully carried out by Switzerland, and the Netherlands in the sixteenth century. "England . . . had a gradually increasing consciousness of being a distinct people from a very early time. . . . It developed gradually and never had occasion to burst forth in any single expression. . . . It increased during periods of external conflict and was subordinated to class and religious allegiances during periods of internal strife. . . . The development of Nationalism in England is particularly important, [for there] . . . resistance to an aggressor or oppressor have been singularly lacking. . . . It gives evidence that the spirit of Nationality may develop to the full in a people who have usually been moved by a desire to co-operate by the sym-

pathetic instincts rather than by the more active protective or aggressive impulses. . . . In France, loyalty to the nation as a whole has alternated with adherence to the local group. . . . At times, as when Jeanne d'Arc stirred the nation, the National spirit is brought to the fore. On the whole, however, in medieval and modern France to the death of Louis XIV, the consciousness of unity is a common dependence on the reigning family. . . . In Germany the problem is still more difficult and the situation varies from time to time. The personal allegiance is . . . the most important element. . . . In neither Germany nor Italy was there a nation in the sense that we find one in Switzerland, in Holland and in England. . . . Not until the latter part of the eighteenth century . . . [do] we first find full recognition of the nation as an organic unit. . . . Patrick Henry . . . proclaimed the beginning of the New American Nationalism by saying 'I am not a Virginian, but I am an American.'—L. Di Berardino, *Nationalism of the new democracy*, pp. 3-5.

Development of international idea.—Meaning of term.—"Internationalism does not appear as a distinct phenomenon earlier than the nineteenth century. Throughout the historic period there have been various manifestations of the coöperative spirit. Some have seen adumbrations of internationalism in such gatherings as the Amphictyonic Council of Greece, the ecumenical councils of the Christian Church and the Crusades. But a little reflection upon the nature and objects of these gatherings will show that they have few of the elements of internationalism. There could be no internationalism until there were nations in the modern sense of the word. During the Middle Ages there was, under the ægis of the Catholic Church, a kind of imperial unity, which bound the various peoples of Europe together. The articles of religious faith and practice were prescribed for all and enforced by means of a complete hierarchical system. Latin, which was the language of the church, the universities and the courts, enabled the educated men of Italy, France, Germany and England to communicate freely. The feudal system, by preventing the centralization of civil authority, contributed to the imperialism of the church. . . . The seed-bed of internationalism was a group of nations in Western Europe 'growing side by side, and too nearly equal in power for any one of them to hope to maintain supremacy over any other.' . . . Here there grew up in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries what might be termed concurrent nationalism, that is, a neighborhood of states nearly equal in power. . . . Under the influence of the nationalistic spirit commerce came to be regarded as an affair of the state and subject to its directing hand. . . . The nationalistic spirit found expression in the economic doctrine of the day which was that what one nation gained in international trade, the other lost. National development at the expense of one's neighbor was the principle of the mercantilist school of economists. But the physiocrats of France took a broader view of the situation. They saw that government restrictions were hindering that free outlet of products which would result in increased national prosperity. They wanted less paternalism and a greater freedom for capital. Their doctrine of *laissez faire* exercised a great influence over Adam Smith and the classical school of English economists who advocated greater liberty in international trade and prepared the way for those freer relations which the nations enjoy today."—J. C. Faries, *Rise of internationalism*, pp. 18-21.—"For good or evil, the

modern world is a large-scale world, and its most characteristic features connected with finance, industry, and commerce, are to a great extent international. Science, art, philanthropy, literature—even sport—are now fast assuming an international character. Never before have the communities and races of men met and mingled together as they are meeting and mingling today. The modern world is essentially international. Internationalism is as inevitable as gravitation. Side by side with internationalism we have nationalism. . . . The road to sound internationalism lies through a healthy nationalism. . . . Today we are actually witnessing these two principles, nationalism and internationalism, in active ferment. . . . A right understanding of the meaning and value of Nationality is an indispensable preliminary to any attempt at a solution of the international situation."—Takashi Hara, *Through nationalism to internationalism* (*Outlook*, June 16, 1920).—"Internationalism is the embodiment of a new conception of the advantages of rational coöperation in the whole field of human endeavor. It shows how men tend to act when the human understanding is freed from the shackles of narrow provincialism and grasps the possibility of a practical world unity . . . the coöperation between governments or their citizens, which tends to coördinate their efforts toward material or moral betterment in the interests of the whole social order. . . . Internationalism seeks the coördination of effort of every group, no matter what its 'interest may be; . . . it is the carrying over into the world field of the efforts of the local or national group, . . . a socializing process tending to establish social equilibrium in the race. Internationalism is a modern social phenomenon whose rise comes largely within the last fifty years. . . . It is not true to say that there was no progress in the development of a common organization for Europe, even in the period before the French revolution. Governments had acquired the habit of holding frequent consultations over questions affecting common interests; and if they had not yet succeeded in maintaining peace for even a consecutive period of ten years during three centuries, at least they were increasingly desirous of doing so, and more than once expressed the pious hope that their latest territorial adjustment might lead to permanent peace by being accepted as 'part of the public law of Europe.' The work of Grotius and his successors had in a quite remarkable way endowed Europe with an accepted body of international law. . . . There was a succession of schemes for the creation of a central European authority, all of which came to nothing, but each of which marked an advance upon its predecessor in its realization of the essential elements of the problem. Europe was ready to welcome the serious attempt at confederation with which the Nineteenth Century opened."—R. Muir, *Nationalism and internationalism*, pp. 153-154.—See also INTERNATIONAL LAW: Grotius and the early jurists; 1648-1714; 1713-1800; LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Former projects; ALX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses; 3.

Rise of Internationalism.—"The first great international congress was the Congress of Vienna in 1815. It was called together to restore the equilibrium of Europe. . . . The congress is interesting as showing the forces of an old and a new order in conflict. . . . It fell to England to hold the first [1851] of a long series of world's fairs which have done much toward bringing together the men of different nations in such a way that their national egotism has been modified, and their admiration of the skill of others has been aroused. . . . At the second Paris Exposition in

1867, a new feature was introduced. . . . M. Le Play whose interest in the social conditions of the working classes had led him to make one of the earliest attempts at a scientific study of the standard of living . . . [attempted] to bring together in conference during the exposition, those interested in the material, intellectual and moral welfare of mankind. . . . The chief aim of the international exposition at Vienna, in 1873, was to collect examples of every human industry, showing how the producers themselves lived and worked. . . . In connection with the Paris Exposition of 1878 an definite attempt was made to stimulate the meeting of international congresses on various subjects and the success was such as to warrant the establishment of a policy which has continued through succeeding fairs. . . . The French government issued invitations to the nations of the world to participate in an international exposition in 1889. . . . There were fifteen divisions, embracing belle lettres, beaux-arts, history and archæology, mathematics, physical and chemical science, natural science, geography, political economy and legislation, hygiene, social economy, education, civil engineering and public work, agriculture, industry and commerce. During this exposition sixty-nine international Congresses were held. . . . The world's Columbian Exposition in Chicago . . . 1893 . . . [planned] for a more widely representative assemblage of statesmen, jurists, financiers, scientists, literati, teachers and theologians than had ever yet been convened. [It was called The World's Auxiliary Congress.] . . . [At the] Paris Exposition of 1900 we find the fullest expansion of the international Congress as an adjunct of the World's fair. . . . At the Louisiana Purchase Exposition in St. Louis, 1904, a different plan of congresses was adopted. . . . The whole realm of human knowledge and activity was reviewed under the following classification: (1) Normative Science, (2) Historical Science, (3) Physical Science, (4) Mental Science, (5) Utilitarian Sciences, (6) Social Regulation, (7) Social Culture. [These were divided into 128 sections.] . . . There were two addresses in each of the 128 sections followed by ten-minute papers, the speakers were chosen equally from American and European scientists and experts. It will thus be seen . . . that the World's fairs . . . have stimulated the rise of internationalism."—J. C. Faries, *Rise of internationalism*, pp. 28, 32, 38-39, 41-42.—"At the present time, a world, shocked by the tragic spectacle of the late [World War], has formally adopted the general aims of internationalism. The right of small nations to determine their own destiny within wide limits is universally conceded; the principle that the policies of large races should be subordinated to the common welfare of the entire human race is vigorously upheld. . . . Yet side by side with such phenomena there is going on a significant intensification of nationalistic values and a correlative acceleration of those processes which inevitably bring nations face to face with the tragic necessity of choosing between dishonor and war."—G. V. Kracht, *Fundamental issue between nationalism and internationalism*, (*International Journal of Ethics*, Apr., 1920).—Since 1918 "the nationalist tendencies which had controlled Europe's political development in the Nineteenth Century were in no way checked by the derangements of the war. On the contrary, they were intensified, in spite of an idealistic effort at the peace conference to restrain nationalist energies and acquisitiveness by freezing national boundaries and creating an international police power. . . . The peace makers at Paris constructed a new interna-

tional organism—the League of Nations. But the treaties left Europe more intensely nationalised than ever."—J. H. Rose, *Development of the European nations*, pp. 399, 420.—"Any effective League of Nations must necessarily curtail national sovereignty. Kant perceived and faced the difficulty more than a century ago; nor did he shrink from the logical conclusion. 'There can be, according to reason, no other way of advancing from the lawless conditions which war implies than by States yielding up their savage lawless freedom, just as individuals have done, and yielding to the coercion of law.' He argues, in effect, that among States, as among individuals, the larger and truer liberty can be secured only by a curtailment of that lawless licence which he declared to be 'the negation of civilization and the brutal degradation of humanity.' To imagine that there can be a League of Nations without some curtailment of national sovereignty is not only to nourish an immediate delusion but to lay up for the future inevitable disappointment."—J. A. R. Marriott, *European commonwealth*, p. 367.

Internationalism vs. national sovereignty.—"I would not in the least minimize the difficulties attendant upon the successful working of an international order. . . . Questions of justice, of proper balance, true representation, the protection of national rights, the enforcement of decrees, etc., all remain for solution and settlement. But what I would maintain is, that, great as these are, they do not constitute the real barrier in the way. . . . The obstacle is from within; the sense of impracticability, of visionariness, into which we allow ourselves to be discouraged, is due to causes which lie beyond the mere structural problem. *There exists a feeling, or, better, a feeling-complex against international organization.* People say they wish it, and with the upper fringe of their intellect they really may approve of it, but emotionally they repudiate it. They are carried forward by reason and humanitarian ideals, and then drawn back and down by a feeling-undertow . . . of resistance to giving up the nation's *absolute* right to determine its course as seems best to itself. That undertow of feeling makes itself manifest at every proposal to do away with the old system of armaments and balance of power; it . . . makes itself felt even when the most internationally minded ministers are at the helm. There are always reservatory clauses in the treaties they make. We will arbitrate everything excepting honor. We will arbitrate everything excepting the Monroe Doctrine (or whatever the Doctrine may be of the particular nation in question). We can not abandon certain absolute rights. We can not give up the nation's sovereignty. Every overt attempt at a practical inauguration of an international organization has met with an undertow of resistance of this kind. . . . The great enemy of the nation today is the war-system. International organization is not only compatible with nationalism, but is today the sole salvation of the nation from the new terrible internationalism of the modern system of war. The relation of war to the group, its protective value in the past, has under modern conditions been completely transformed. What the group once may have had to fear from the alien enemy,—death of its manhood, spoliation of its treasure, control of its economic resources, the suppression of its individuality,—that the modern nation has to fear from the modern imperialism of war. *But while all these changes in group-relations and in the meaning of war have been effected, patriotism or group-passion has remained unchanged.* . . . The great barrier, the key-barrier,

of the psychological impasse toward internationalism is not the instinctive passion of group-love in itself, as many have believed, but survival-ideas, old meanings now false, with which group-love has been firmly associated. Hence the need, the supreme need, of the age is the redefinition of nationalistic ends. . . . The sovereignty of the state means that the state is an ultimate and absolute source of judgment, that it is the supreme arbiter of what it shall do and not do. . . . Now the real freedom of the group, which alone defines its positive end, is, just as in the case of the individual, the freedom for the full development of capacities and potencies. The positive end of the nation, and so the true ideal of nationalistic policy, will then be the freest development of the group along the line of its peculiar individuality, its characteristic genius. This and this alone a true nationalistic policy should be bent upon making possible. And amongst the basic conditions which make a nation's life possible is certainly self-determination. Full and untrammelled freedom for the unfolding of the various capacities of the group, as the absolutely necessary condition for such unfolding, is thus assuredly an indispensable, a supreme group-good. Such freedom of self-determination we call autonomy, and the freedom-value that autonomy represents is vital to the state. But sovereignty is something more; sovereignty goes far beyond the claim for self-determination. . . . A nation's autonomy is violated only when it is forced to yield to caprice; autonomy is quite compatible with yielding to law and reason. But a nation's sovereignty means its absolute independence of any law or reason but its own. That is, any infringement whatsoever of this absolute independence of the state, any yielding to a superior law, is a violation of the state's philosophical meaning. What kind of vicarious emotional satisfaction such an attribute can afford to the members of the state, we will not undertake to say. Certainly it represents nothing beyond that, it stands for no life-value, for no positive value of any kind; and what is more, its direct and inevitable implication is the war-system."—H. Slo-nimsky, *Nationalistic ideals and internationalization* (*Johns Hopkins Alumni Magazine*, Jan., 1919).

Views of Nietzsche and Treitschke regarding nationalism. See **WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: h, 2.**

Arabian and Turkish nationalism.—Connection with Mohammedanism. See **PAN-TURANISM.**
Balkan national movement a cause of Balkan War. See **BALKAN STATES: 19th century.**

Dualism and nationalism in Hungary. See **HUNGARY: 1897-1910.**

Attitude of India toward the Montagu-Chelmsford proposals. See **INDIA: 1918-1920.**

National spirit revealed in early Sinn Fein attitude. See **IRELAND: 1905-1916.**

Growth of national idea in Italy. See **ITALY: 1856-1859; 1870-1901; 1910-1911.**

Kurdish nationalism fostered by Turks to stir up hatred of Armenians. See **KURDISTAN AND THE KURDS.**

Awakening of Rumanian national spirit after European revolutions of 1848.—Creation of Greater Rumania. See **RUMANIA: 19th century; 1828-1858; 1919: Creation of Greater Rumania.**

Status in 1921. See **EUROPE: Modern: Far-reaching effects of the World War.**

Also in: Lord Acton, *History of freedom and other essays.*—F. Boas, *Nationalism in Europe.*—W. Cunningham, *Western civilization in its economic aspects*, bk. 5.—G. R. Davies, *National evolution.*

lution.—L. Dominian, *Frontiers of language and nationality in Europe.*—S. Herbert, *Nationality and its problems.*—D. J. Hill, *World organization as affected by the nature of the modern state.*—E. H. Krehbiel, *Nationalism, war and society.*—R. Muir, *National principle and the war.*—A. F. Pollard, *Factors in modern history.*—J. H. Rose, *Nationality in modern history.*—R. W. Seton-Watson et al., *War and democracy.*—A. J. Toynbee, *Nationality and the war.*—Idem, *New Europe.*—A. E. Zimmern, *Nationality and government.*

NATIONALISM IN MUSIC. See **MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism.**

NATIONALIST HISTORIANS. See **HISTORY: 29.**

NATIONALIST MOVEMENT: Australia. See **AUSTRALIA: 1917; 1919-1920.**

Austria-Hungary. See **AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1903-1905.**

Balkan states. See **BALKAN STATES: 19th century.**

Egypt. See **EGYPT: 1875-1882; 1907-1911; 1921: Lord Milner's report made public.**

Hungary. See **HUNGARY: 1847-1849.**

India. See **INDIA: 1905-1910; 1905-1922; 1907-1921; 1921-1922.**

Ireland. See **IRELAND: 1873-1879; 1885-1891; 1918.**

Italy. See **ITALY: 1910-1911.**

Jugo-Slavia. See **JUGO-SLAVIA: 1868-1917; 1918 (April-October); 1918.**

Korea. See **KOREA: 1919; 1919-1922.**

Persia. See **PERSIA: 1908-1909.**

Philippine islands. See **PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1913-1917.**

South Africa. See **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1920-1921.**

Turkey. See **TURKEY: 1921 (January-February).**

Venezuela. See **VENEZUELA: 1913.**

See also **SOCIALISM: 1887-1891; EUROPE: Modern: Conflicting currents before the World War; New balance of power; NATIONALISM AND INTERNATIONALISM: Rise of the nation; etc.**

NATIONALITY REGULATIONS, British. See **BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921: Empire patent.**

NATIONALIZATION: England. See **ENGLAND: 1919-1920: Labor crisis.**

Russia. See **RUSSIA, SOVIET CONSTITUTION OF. NATIONALRATH**, legislative body of the Swiss federal government. See **SWITZERLAND: 1848-1890.**

NATIONS, Battle of the, name given to the battle of Leipzig, fought October 16-19, 1813. See **GERMANY: 1813 (October).**

NATIONS OF THE UNIVERSITIES. See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: Nature of medieval universities: 1201-1679; 1231-1339.**

NATION-STATE. See **EUROPE: Modern: Rise of the nation-state, etc.**

NATURAL HISTORY, American Museum of.—"The American Museum of Natural History was founded and incorporated in 1869 for the purpose of encouraging and developing the study of natural science, of advancing the general knowledge of kindred subjects, and to that end of furnishing popular instruction. The construction provides for a self-perpetuating board of trustees, not to exceed twenty-five in number, who hold office for terms of five years, with the Mayor, the Comptroller, and the President of the Park Board serving as trustees ex-office. . . . The building, which is the property of the city of New York is one of the largest municipal structures in the city, and has

cost over \$5,000,000. . . . The American museum is particularly famous as possessing the largest collection in the world of gems and gem material, the finest and most complete exhibits illustrating the evolution of the horse, the finest series of bird habitat groups, an extensive collection of meteorites, and the largest and best collections of fossil vertebrates and material showing all phases of the life of primitive man. . . . In addition to its work in securing and exhibiting natural history specimens, the institution maintains a Department of Public Education which works in conjunction with the city's public schools and institutions for the blind, giving lectures and circulating loan collections, slides and motion picture films. For teaching the blind, special apparatus including relief globes and maps, are used. From its Department of Public Health, located on the sixth floor, it distributes specimens of living bacteria to accredited institutions and individuals all over the world, while the institution is forced through lack of building space to keep the great majority of its collections in storage rooms, this material is available for study by persons interested."—J. Caccarajo, *Guide to the municipal government of the city of New York*, pp. 64-66.

NATURAL RESOURCES, Conservation of. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES.

NATURAL SELECTION. See EVOLUTION: Classification of theories; Historical development of the idea; Darwin's theory of natural selection.

NATURALISM: In drama. See DRAMA: 1871-1921.

In education. See EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: Basedow, etc.; 1712-1778.

In literature. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1921: Realistic school; GERMAN LITERATURE: 1900-1922.

In music. See MUSIC: Modern: 1842-1921: Modern Italian school.

NATURALIZATION: Definition.—"Naturalization is the act of investing an alien with the rights and privileges of a native-born citizen or subject. It is of two kinds, collective and personal."—C. P. Daly, *Naturalization*, p. 1.

Growth of idea of citizenship.—Relationship to naturalization.—"The word citizenship . . . comes down to us from the Greeks, through the Romans and across the Middle Ages. . . . In the ancient civilization the citizen was a member of a haughty exclusive class. Below him, and subject to him, stood all others in the state who were outside of this class. Among the Greeks admission to citizenship was easy at first, but difficult after Grecian civic life had reached a higher degree of organization [so difficult that in Sparta, according to Herodotus, there were two instances of naturalization]. In Rome, under the Republic, citizenship was conferred by vote of the people. [See ROME: Republic: B. C. 275.] There were perfect and less perfect citizens. [See ISOPOLITY.] All the private rights of citizenship belonged to citizens of the lower class, but the honour of the magistracy were denied them. Later, when the Caesars ruled, citizenship in whatever form was abolished. . . . The code of Justinian divided all persons into subjects and slaves. The Middle Ages inherited the political forms and names of Greece and Rome, both republican and monarchical. The Italian republics were based on aristocracy. . . . The Republic of Holland was built upon great land-holders. The Swiss republics were little groups of cousins united by blood relationship. [Around them loomed the colossal monarchies of medieval Europe, with the throne for the sun and the nobility for the sideral system.] . . . All through the past the distinction

between a citizen and a subject was this, that the latter was governed, the former also governed; so that a citizen might be a subject, many subjects were not citizens. . . . The essential principle of American citizenship is . . . that no man, and no set of men, shall be politically dependent on any other man or set of men, but each shall be armed for self-defense. The weapon of this self-defense is the ballot."—C. Martyn, *Christian citizenship*, pp. 12-14.—"Citizenship can be acquired after birth by naturalization. This . . . involves the change from the allegiance and sovereignty of one state to that of another. It is defined as the reception of an alien into the citizenship of a state through a formal act on application of the favored individual. This is naturalization in the ordinary sense. Besides this method of naturalization it may also take place through marriage, legitimation, resumption, option, acquisition of domicile, or appointment as a government official. It is a customary rule also in international law that the inhabitants of conquered and ceded territory lose one nationality and acquire another by the annexation of the territory to that of the conquering state. This is often known as collective naturalization or citizenship. Naturalization is regulated by municipal law, but it is also a matter of importance in connection with international law as questions of legal nationality may become of serious importance involving grave matters of international policy and action. The doctrine of perpetual allegiance which once prevailed in several countries may be considered as no longer existing, while the right of expatriation is generally conceded in fact if not in principle. It does not always follow that naturalization, which is an act of municipal law, grants all rights alike to the naturalized citizen and to one native-born. The Constitution of the United States, for instance, restricts the presidency of the nation to native-born citizens. . . . All naturalized citizens while in foreign countries are entitled to the same protection as to persons and property which is due native-born citizens. . . . The right of protection goes, however, with the right to demand the allegiance and support from the naturalized citizen on the part of the state. The necessity for special treaties on the subject of naturalization will be evident when it is realized that some states still take the ground that a renunciation of nationality without the consent of the government is punishable or results in practical exile from the original state."—C. H. Stockton, *Outlines of international law*, pp. 181, 183.

American republics.—Laws of citizenship.—The following convention was adopted and signed at Rio de Janeiro, 1906. (See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.)

Article I. If a citizen a native of any of the countries signing the present Convention, and naturalized in another, shall again take up his residence in his native country without the intention of returning to the country in which he has been naturalized, he will be considered as having resumed his original citizenship and as having renounced the citizenship acquired by the said naturalization.

Art. II. The intention not to return will be presumed to exist when the naturalized person shall have resided in his native country for more than two years. But this presumption may be destroyed by evidence to the contrary.

Art. III. This Convention will become effective in the countries that ratify it three months from the dates upon which said ratifications shall be communicated to the Government of the United

States of Brazil; and if it should be denounced by any one of them, it shall continue in effect for one year more, to count from the date of such denouncement.

Art. iv. The denouncement of this convention by any one of the signatory States shall be made to the Government of the United States of Brazil and shall take effect only with regard to the country that may make it.

Austria.—"An alien acquires the right of citizenship by being named a public functionary. The government can also confer those rights upon an alien who has been previously authorized to exercise a profession after ten years' residence. No one can exercise any profession in Austria without permission of the authorities. Mere admission into military service does not give the right of naturalization. The wife of an Austrian becomes an Austrian subject by her marriage."—*Opinions of the Principal Officers of [United States] Executive Department, Relating to Expatriation, Naturalization and Change of Allegiance, pamphlet, p. 110.*

Belgium.—According to the new naturalization law passed on May 15, 1922, for "ordinary naturalization" an applicant must be twenty-two years of age; and must have lived in Belgium for three years, or in the colonies for at least five years. Should a foreigner marry a Belgian woman, the required residence in the country before naturalization is shortened to two years. No foreigner, who has "ordinary naturalization" is allowed to vote or hold a public office. For this *grande* naturalization is necessary and to become a *grande* citizen the candidate must be twenty-five years of age and have been a resident of Belgium for ten years. Every man must report for military service twenty years from the date of public registration of his birth and must serve in the army for twelve months, after which a few months' service in the cavalry is required. The length of this service is imposed in accordance with the weight and build of the individual. A child born to a Belgian father in a foreign land, is a Belgian citizen, even though he remains abroad, until he renounces his Belgian citizenship, but a child of the second generation is not a citizen unless he declares his intent. By a special treaty between Belgium and France a child whose father is unknown is a Belgian, if born on the Belgian side of the frontier; but if born on the French side of the frontier is French. A Belgian woman who marries a foreigner does not thereby lose her nationality, unless she assumes the nationality of her husband. If by his own free will a man gives up his citizenship, he can never become a Belgian citizen again.—See also BELGIUM, CONSTITUTION OF: Title II.

France.—"In order to be naturalized in France an alien must . . . be of full age and get permission to become domiciled; after three years' domicile he may obtain a certificate of naturalization. Other methods of obtaining French citizenship are: (1) by ten years' continuous residence; or (2) by marriage with a French woman and one year's authorized domicile; or (3) by rendering important service to the state and one year's authorized domicile. The effects of naturalization apply also to infant children, who may, however, within one year after obtaining their majority renounce French nationality. The law of France requires every Frenchman to perform military service in person, and imposes a penalty on anyone who emigrates without having served his time in the army. The requirements of universal service have been the guiding principle in the modification of the law which now enforces French citizenship on

those born within the territory of the Republic. . . . Every individual who has been born in France of a foreigner, and who at the time of his majority, is domiciled in France, is a Frenchman; unless, during the year that follows his majority . . . he has declined to be French, and has proved that he has preserved the nationality of his parents by a certificate in due form from his government, which will remain annexed to his declaration, and unless he has also produced . . . a certificate proving that he has complied with the call to serve under the flag in compliance with the military laws of his country, excepting cases provided for in treaties. . . . A Frenchman may . . . divest himself of his nationality [see EXPATRIATION] . . . by naturalization abroad; by accepting a public office under a foreign Government without permission of his own Government; by accepting military service under a foreign government without the authorization of his own Government."—C. Phillipson, *Wheaton's elements of international law, pp. 258, 260.*

Germany: Imperial constitution.—**New constitution.**—The imperial constitution makes no provision with reference to the acquirement or loss of citizenship. (See GERMANY: Constitution of the empire; 1885.) "All children born to German parents are German citizens, whether they are born on German soil or abroad . . . whether born in the State wherein the father or mother has citizenship, or in one of the other federated states. . . . A child born in wedlock acquires . . . the citizenship of the father; a child born out of wedlock acquires the citizenship of the mother. . . . If the father of an illegitimate child is a German, and the mother does not possess the State citizenship of the father, the child acquires, through legitimation effected in accordance with the legal provisions covering such matters, the State citizenship of the father. . . . Marriage with a German invests the wife with the State citizenship of the husband. . . . Citizenship may be granted or conferred by an administrative act, performed by an administrative authority of the State, competent under the law. . . . Citizenship acquired through marriage does not revert on the death of the husband; . . . a divorce . . . has no effect on the citizenship acquired through marriage. A German who has lost his citizenship in one of the States without acquiring citizenship in another, . . . is 'staatenlos.' . . . His marriage would place his wife and children . . . in the same status. . . . A German who has acquired citizenship in several states transfers such citizenship to his wife and their children. . . . Acquiring of citizenship in one of the German States by a citizen of another German state must be attended by some formal act performed by the state into whose civic fellowship he is to be received. . . . A certificate of naturalization may be granted to foreigners only when they are capable of disposing of their property under the laws of their home land, unless lack of such capacity be supplanted by the consent of the father, or guardian, . . . [and they] have led an unblemished life; [when they] find a dwelling or lodging of their own in the place where they propose to settle, [and when they] are in a position to sustain themselves and those belonging to them. If a foreigner is appointed to service of the Empire, he acquires the citizenship of the State in which he has his service domicile. . . . A certificate of naturalization must not be refused by that federated State to which they apply for citizenship, to foreigners who are appointed to the imperial service, draw a salary from the imperial treasury, and have their domicile in a foreign land."—B. E.

Howard, *German empire*, pp. 139, 141, 142, 144, 154.—See also EXPATRIATION.

Great Britain.—"At present the law is laid down in the British Nationality and Status of Alien Acts, 1914 and 1918, which consolidated and amended the previous law as from Jan. 1, 1915. . . . Any alien who has resided in the United Kingdom for not less than one year immediately preceding the application and has previously resided in any part of His Majesty's dominions for four years during the last eight years before the application, may apply to the Secretary of State (the Home Secretary) at the Home Office, Whitehall, London, for a certificate of naturalization. . . . The applicant must produce satisfactory evidence that—(a) he has resided within His Majesty's dominions for not less than the qualifying period of five years or that he has within the last eight years before the application been for not less than five years in the Service of the Crown. A period spent in the service of the Crown may if thought fit be regarded as equivalent to residence; (b) he is of good character and has an adequate knowledge of the English language; and (c) he intends to reside in His Majesty's dominions or to enter or continue in the service of the Crown. [See BRITISH EMPIRE: Citizenship and naturalization.] Subject to the provisions of the Act of 1918, which prohibit the naturalization of Germans for ten years after the war, the Secretary of State has an absolute discretion in granting or refusing the application, and there is no appeal from his decision. He has also power to accept four year's residence or five years' service as a qualification, although not within the eight years' limit. A woman formerly a British subject may on the death of her alien husband or dissolution of her marriage with him recover her rights as a British subject on application without fulfilling the conditions as to residence, and special provision is made by the Act of 1918 for the protection or denaturalization of the wives and infant children of aliens who may be denaturalized. The effect of a certificate when granted is to give to the person naturalized all the rights, powers, and privileges of a natural-born subject as from the date of the grant, but subject to the corresponding obligations, duties, and liabilities, and subject to any statutory disabilities. Where a certificate of naturalization has during the war been granted to an enemy alien who was not a British subject by birth, it may be revoked, if, after formal inquiry, such revocation seems desirable. A committee for the purpose of such inquiry is established, or if thought fit the inquiry may be held by the High Court. In cases of doubtful nationality special certificates may be granted to quiet the doubts. . . . [See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1911.] The self-governing Dominions are not bound to recognize a certificate granted elsewhere, until their legislatures have adopted the Act, and they may at any time rescind their adoption of it. A wife takes the nationality of her husband, so that a female British subject marrying an alien becomes an alien and a female alien marrying a British subject becomes a British subject. The wife of a man ceasing to be a British subject may remain a British subject by making a declaration of her desire. The death alone of the husband does not alter the nationality of his widow, who, if she was a British subject before her marriage, must make an application as stated above before regaining British nationality. Children under 21 follow the nationality of their father, and if he ceases to be a British subject they also become aliens, unless by the law of the new nationality

they are not naturalized in that country or elsewhere. The marriage of a widow being a British subject with an alien does not affect the nationality of her children by the former husband and they remain British subjects, whether residing within His Majesty's dominions or not. They may, however, cease to be British subjects on other grounds. Any child whose father has so ceased to be a British subject may resume his British nationality by making a declaration to that effect within one year after attaining majority. A British subject not under disability who becomes naturalized in a foreign country ceases to be a British subject. A natural-born British subject who during his minority became also a subject of a foreign State, or a natural-born British subject born out of H. M. dominions may, if of full age and not under disability, cease to be a British subject by making a declaration of alienage. As, under the laws of certain countries, e.g. Russia and Germany, natives of those countries retain their former nationality though naturalized [in England], provision is made for conventions with foreign States to enable naturalized subjects to divest themselves of their status as such subjects, and after an Order in Council announcing any such convention naturalized British subjects of the State may during the period provided in the convention make a declaration of alienage and shall be regarded as a subject of the State to which they originally belonged. A declaration of alienage is not retrospective so as to discharge any previous obligation, right, or liabilities as a British subject, and cannot at common law be made during the war for the purpose of becoming an enemy alien."—*New Hazell Annual and Almanack*, 1922, pp. 78-79.

Spain.—"The following are Spaniards: Persons born in Spanish territory: Children of a Spanish father and mother, even though they were born out of Spain. Foreigners who may have obtained naturalization papers. Those who, without such papers, may have acquired a domicile in any town in the Monarchy. Children while they remain under the parental authority, have the nationality of their parents. In order that children born of foreign parents on Spanish soil may enjoy the benefits granted them, . . . it shall be an indispensable requisite that the parents declare, in the manner and before officials . . . that they choose on behalf of their children, the Spanish nationality. . . . Children of foreign parentage born in Spanish domains must state within the year following their majority or emancipation, whether they desire to enjoy the Spanish nationality granted them. . . . A Spaniard who loses his status as such by becoming naturalized in a foreign country, can recover it upon returning to the Kingdom by declaring to the official in charge of the civil registry of the domicile which he elects, that such is his wish. . . . A married woman follows the condition and nationality of her husband. A Spanish woman who marries a foreigner may upon the dissolution of the marriage recover Spanish nationality [by making a declaration to the official in charge of the civil registry of the domicile which she elects, that she wishes to regain her Spanish citizenship]. . . . In order that foreigners who have obtained naturalization papers or acquired a domicile in any town in the Monarchy, may enjoy Spanish nationality, they must first waive their former nationality, swear to support the constitution of the Monarchy and record themselves as Spaniards in the civil registry."—F. C. Fisher, *Civil code of Spain*, pp. 5-6.—See also EXPATRIATION.

United States: Law relating to the Five Civilized Indian Tribes. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1901-1902.

United States: Naturalization Act.—Citizenship Act of March 2, 1907.—The following is the partial text of the act of 1906, as amended in 1909, 1910, 1913, and 1918. The act provided—

“Section 1. . . . That the Bureau of Naturalization, under the direction and control of the Secretary of Labor, shall have charge of all matters concerning the naturalization of aliens. That it shall be the duty of the Bureau of Immigration to provide, for use at the various immigration stations throughout the United States, books of record, wherein the commissioners of immigration shall cause a registry to be made in the case of each alien arriving in the United States from and after the passage of this act of the name, age, occupation, personal description (including height, complexion, color of hair and eyes), the place of birth, the last residence, the intended place of residence in the United States, and the date of arrival of said alien, and, if entered through a port, the name of the vessel in which he comes. And it shall be the duty of said commissioners of immigration to cause to be granted to such alien a certificate of such registry, with the particulars thereof. [See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1910-1920.] . . .

“Sect. 3. That exclusive jurisdiction to naturalized aliens as citizens of the United States is hereby conferred upon the following specified courts: United States circuit and district courts now existing or which may hereafter be established by Congress in any State. United States district courts for the Territories of Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Hawaii, and Alaska, the supreme court of the District of Columbia, and the United States courts for the Indian Territory; also all courts of record in any State or Territory now existing, which may hereafter be created, having a seal, a clerk, and jurisdiction in actions at law or equity or law and equity, in which the amount in controversy is unlimited. That the naturalization jurisdiction of all courts herein specified—State, Territorial, and Federal—shall extend only to aliens resident within the respective judicial district of such courts. . . .

“Sect. 4. That an alien may be admitted to become a citizen of the United States in the following manner and not otherwise: First: He shall declare on oath before the clerk of any court authorized by this act to naturalize aliens, or his authorized deputy, in the district in which such alien resides, two years at least prior to his admission, and after he has reached the age of eighteen years, that it is bona fide his intention to become a citizen of the United States and to renounce for ever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty, and particularly, by name, to the prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty of which the alien may be at the time a citizen or subject. And such declaration shall set forth the name, age, occupation, personal description, place of birth, last foreign residence and allegiance, the date of arrival, the name of the vessel, if any, in which he came to the United States, and the present place of residence in the United States of said alien: *Provided, however,* That no alien who, in conformity with the law in force at the date of his declaration, has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States shall be required to renew such declaration. Second. Not less than two years nor more than seven years after he has made such declaration of intention he shall make and

file, in duplicate, a petition in writing, signed by the applicant in his own handwriting and duly verified, in which petition such applicant shall state his full name, his place of residence (by street and number, if possible), his occupation, and, if possible, the date and place of his birth; the place from which he emigrated, and the date and place of his arrival in the United States, and, if he entered through a port, the name of the vessel on which he arrived; the time when and the place and name of the court where he declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States; if he is married he shall state the name of his wife, if possible, the country of her nativity and her place of residence at the time of filing his petition; and if he has children, the name, date, and place of birth and place of residence of each child living at the time of the filing of his petition: *Provided,* That if he has filed his declaration before the passage of this act he shall not be required to sign the petition in his own handwriting. The petition shall set forth that he is not a disbeliever in or opposed to organized government, or a member of or affiliated with any organization or body of persons teaching disbelief in or opposed to organized government, a polygamist or believer in the practice of polygamy, and that it is his intention to become a citizen of the United States and to renounce absolutely and forever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty, and particularly by name to the prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty of which he at the time of filing of his petition may be a citizen or subject, and that it is his intention to reside permanently within the United States, and whether or not he has been denied admission as a citizen of the United States, and, if denied, the ground or grounds of such denial, the court or courts in which such decision was rendered, and that the cause for such denial has since been cured or removed, and every fact material to his naturalization and required to be proved upon the final hearing of his application. The petition shall also be verified by the affidavits of at least two credible witnesses, who are citizens of the United States, and who shall state in their affidavits that they have personally known the applicant to be a resident of the United States for a period of at least five years continuously, and of the State, Territory, or the District of Columbia, in which the application is made for a period of at least one year immediately preceding the date of the filing of his petition, and that they each have personal knowledge that the petitioner is a person of good moral character, and that he is in every way qualified, in their opinion, to be admitted as a citizen of the United States. At the time of filing his petition there shall be filed with the clerk of the court a certificate from the Department of Labor, if the petitioner arrives in the United States after the passage of this act, stating the date, place, and manner of his arrival in the United States, and the declaration of intention of such petitioner, which certificate and declaration shall be attached to and made a part of said petition. Third. He shall, before he is admitted to citizenship, declare on oath in open court that he will support the Constitution of the United States, and that he absolutely and entirely renounces and abjures all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty, and particularly by name to the prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty of which he was before a citizen or subject; that he will support and defend the Constitution and laws of the United States against

all enemies, foreign and domestic, and bear true faith and allegiance to the same. Fourth. It shall be made to appear to the satisfaction of the court admitting any alien to citizenship that immediately preceding the date of his application he has resided continuously within the United States five years at least, and within the State or Territory where such court is at the time held one year at least, and that during that time he has behaved as a man of good moral character, attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States, and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same. In addition to the oath of the applicant, the testimony of at least two witnesses, citizens of the United States, as to the facts of residence, moral character, and attachment to the principles of the Constitution shall be required, and the name, place of residence, and occupation of each witness shall be set forth in the record. Fifth. In case the alien applying to be admitted to citizenship has borne any hereditary title, or has been of any of the orders of nobility in the kingdom or state from which he came, he shall, in addition to the above requisites, make an express renunciation of his title or order of nobility in the court to which his application is made, and his renunciation shall be recorded in the court. Sixth. When any alien who has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States dies before he is actually naturalized the widow and minor children of such alien may, by complying with the other provisions of this act, be naturalized without making any declaration of intention. Seventh. Any native-born Filipino of the age of twenty-one years and upward who has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States and who has enlisted or may hereafter enlist in the United States Navy or Marine Corps or the Naval Auxiliary Service, and who, after service of not less than three years, may be honorably discharged therefrom, or who may receive an ordinary discharge with recommendation for reenlistment; or any alien, or any Porto Rican not a citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upward, who has enlisted or entered or may hereafter enlist in or enter the armies of the United States, either the Regular or the Volunteer Forces, or the National Army, the National Guard or Naval Militia of any State, Territory, or the District of Columbia, or the State militia in Federal service, or in the United States Navy or Marine Corps, or in the United States Coast Guard, or who has served for three years on board of any vessel of the United States Government, or for three years on board of merchant or fishing vessels of the United States of more than twenty tons burden, and while still in the service on a reenlistment or reappointment, or within six months after an honorable discharge or separation therefrom, or while on furlough to the Army Reserve or Regular Army Reserve after honorable service, may, on presentation of the required declaration of intention petition for naturalization without proof of the required five years' residence within the United States. . . . Any alien who, at the time of the passage of this act, is in the military service of the United States, who may not be within the jurisdiction of any court authorized to naturalize aliens, may file his petition for naturalization without appearing in person in the office of the clerk of the court and shall not be required to take the prescribed oath of allegiance in open court. The petition shall be verified by the affidavits of at least two credible witnesses who are citizens of the United States, and who shall prove

in their affidavits the portion of the residence that they have personally known the applicant to have resided within the United States. The time of military service may be established by the affidavits of at least two other citizens of the United States, which together with the oath of allegiance, may be taken in accordance with the terms of section seventeen hundred and fifty of the Revised Statutes of the United States after notice from and under regulations of the Bureau of Naturalization. Such affidavits and oath of allegiance shall be admitted in evidence in any original or appellate naturalization proceeding without proof of the genuineness of the seal or signature or of the official character of the officer before whom the affidavits and oath of allegiance were taken, and shall be filed by the representative of the Government from the Bureau of Naturalization at the hearing as provided by section eleven of the act of June twenty-ninth, nineteen hundred and six. Members of the Naturalization Bureau and Service may be designated by the Secretary of Labor to administer oaths relating to the administration of the naturalization law; and the requirement of section ten of notice to take depositions to the United States attorneys is repealed, and the duty they perform under section fifteen of the act of June twenty-ninth, nineteen hundred and six (Thirty-fourth Statutes at Large, part one, page five hundred and ninety-six), may also be performed by the Commissioner or Deputy Commissioner of Naturalization: *Provided*, That it shall not be lawful to make a declaration of intention before the clerk of any court on election day or during the period of thirty days preceding the day of holding any election in the jurisdiction of the court: *Provided further*, That service by aliens upon vessels other than of American registry, whether continuous or broken, shall not be considered as residence for naturalization purposes within the jurisdiction of the United States, and such aliens can not secure residence for naturalization purposes during service upon vessels of foreign registry. During the time when the United States is at war no clerk of a United States court shall charge or collect a naturalization fee from an alien in the military service of the United States for filing his petition or issuing the certificate of naturalization upon admission to citizenship and no clerk of any State court shall charge or collect any fee for his service unless the laws of the State require such charge to be made, in which case nothing more than the portion of the fee required to be paid to the State shall be charged or collected. A full accounting for all of these transactions shall be made to the Bureau of Naturalization in the manner provided by section thirteen of the act of June twenty-ninth, nineteen hundred and six. Eighth. That every seaman, being an alien, shall, after his declaration of intention to become a citizen of the United States, and after he shall have served three years upon such merchant or fishing vessels of the United States, be deemed a citizen of the United States for the purpose of serving on board any such merchant or fishing vessel of the United States, anything to the contrary in any act of Congress notwithstanding; but such seaman shall, for all purposes of protection as an American citizen, be deemed such after the filing of his declaration of intention to become such citizen. . . . Ninth. That for the purpose of carrying on the work of the Bureau of Naturalization of sending the names of the candidates for citizenship to the public schools and otherwise promoting instruction and training in citizenship responsibilities of

applicants for naturalization, as provided in this subdivision, authority is hereby given for the reimbursement of the printing and binding appropriation of the Department of Labor upon the records of the Treasury Department from the naturalization fees deposited in the Treasury through the Bureau of Naturalization for the cost of publishing the citizenship textbook prepared and to be distributed by the Bureau of Naturalization to those candidates for citizenship only who are in attendance upon the public schools, such reimbursement to be made upon statements by the Commissioner of Naturalization of books actually delivered to such student candidates for citizenship, and a monthly naturalization bulletin, and in this duty to secure the aid of and cooperate with the official State and national organizations, including those concerned with vocational education and including personal services in the District of Columbia, and to aid the local Army exemption boards and cooperate with the War Department in locating declarants subject to the Army draft and expenses incidental thereto. Tenth. That any person not an alien enemy, who resided uninterruptedly within the United States during the period of five years next preceding July first, nineteen hundred and fourteen, and was on that date otherwise qualified to become a citizen of the United States, except that he had not made the declaration of intention required by law, and who during or prior to that time, because of misinformation regarding his citizenship status, erroneously exercised the rights and performed the duties of a citizen of the United States in good faith, may file the petition for naturalization prescribed by law without making the preliminary declaration of intention required of other aliens, and upon satisfactory proof to the court that he has so acted may be admitted as a citizen of the United States upon complying in all respects with the other requirements of the naturalization law. Eleventh. No alien who is a native, citizen, subject, or denizen of any country, State, or sovereignty with which the United States is at war shall be admitted to become a citizen of the United States unless he made his declaration of intention not less than two nor more than seven years prior to the existence of the state of war, or was at that time entitled to become a citizen of the United States, without making a declaration of intention, or unless his petition for naturalization shall then be pending and is otherwise entitled to admission, notwithstanding he shall be an alien enemy at the time and in the manner prescribed by the laws passed upon that subject: *Provided*, That no alien embraced within this subdivision shall have his petition for naturalization called for a hearing, or heard, except after ninety days' notice given by the clerk of the court to the Commissioner or Deputy Commissioner of Naturalization to be present, and the petition shall be given no final hearing except in open court and after such notice to the representative of the Government from the Bureau of Naturalization, whose objection shall cause the petition to be continued from time to time for so long as the Government may require: *Provided, however*, That nothing herein contained shall be taken or construed to interfere with or prevent the apprehension and removal, agreeably to law, of any alien enemy at any time previous to the actual naturalization of such alien; and section twenty-one hundred and seventy-one of the Revised Statutes of the United States is hereby repealed: *Provided further*, That the President of the United States may, in his discretion, upon investigation and report by the

Department of Justice fully establishing the loyalty of any alien enemy not included in the foregoing exemption, except such alien enemy from the classification of alien enemy, and thereupon he shall have the privilege of applying for naturalization. . . . Twelfth, That any person who, while a citizen of the United States and during the existing war in Europe, entered the military or naval service of any country at war with a country with which the United States is now at war, who shall be deemed to have lost his citizenship by reason of any oath or obligation taken by him for the purpose of entering such service, may resume his citizenship by taking the oath of allegiance to the United States prescribed by the naturalization law and regulations, and such oath may be taken before any court of the United States or of any State authorized by law to naturalize aliens or before any consul of the United States, and certified copies thereof shall be sent by such court or consul to the Department of State and the Bureau of Naturalization, and the act (Public fifty-five, Sixty-fifth Congress, approved October fifth, nineteen hundred and seventeen), is hereby repealed. Thirteenth. That any person who is serving in the military or naval forces of the United States at the termination of the existing war, and any person who before the termination of the existing war may have been honorably discharged from the military or naval services of the United States on account of disability incurred in line of duty, shall, if he applies to the proper court for admission as a citizen of the United States, be relieved from the necessity of proving that immediately preceding the date of his application he has resided continuously within the United States the time required by law of other aliens, or within the State, Territory, or the District of Columbia for the year immediately preceding the date of his petition for naturalization, but his petition for naturalization shall be supported by the affidavits of two credible witnesses, citizens of the United States, identifying the petitioner as the person named in the certificate of honorable discharge, which said certificate may be accepted as evidence of good moral character required by law, and he shall comply with the other requirements of the naturalization law. . .

"Sect. 7. That no person who disbelieves in or who is opposed to organized government, or who is a member of or affiliated with any organization entertaining and teaching such disbelief in or opposition to organized government, or who advocates or teaches the duty, necessity, or propriety of the unlawful assaulting or killing of any officer or officers, either of specific individuals or of officers generally, of the Government of the United States, or of any other organized government, because of his or their official character, or who is a polygamist, shall be naturalized or be made a citizen of the United States. [See ANARCHISM: 1910.]

"Sect. 8. That no alien shall hereafter be naturalized or admitted as a citizen of the United States who can not speak the English language: *Provided*, That this requirement shall not apply to aliens who are physically unable to comply therewith, if they are otherwise qualified to become citizens of the United States: *And provided further*, That the requirements of this section shall not apply to any alien who has prior to the passage of this act declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States in conformity with the law in force at the date of making such declaration: *Provided further*, That the requirements of section eight shall not apply to aliens who shall hereafter

declare their intention to become citizens and who shall make homestead entries upon the public lands of the United States and comply in all respects with the laws providing for homestead entries on such lands. . . .

"Sect. 13. That the clerk of each and every court exercising jurisdiction in naturalization cases shall charge, collect, and account for the following fees in each proceeding: For receiving and filing a declaration of intention and issuing a duplicate thereof, one dollar. For making, filing, and docketing the petition of an alien for admission as a citizen of the United States and for the final hearing thereon, two dollars; and for entering the final order and the issuance of the certificate of citizenship thereunder, if granted, two dollars. The clerk of any court collecting such fees is hereby authorized to retain one-half of the fees collected by him in such naturalization proceeding; the remaining one-half of the naturalization fees in each case collected by such clerks, respectively, shall be accounted for in their quarterly accounts, which they are hereby required to render the Bureau of Naturalization, and paid over to such bureau within thirty days from the close of each quarter in each and every fiscal year, and the moneys so received shall be paid over to the disbursing clerk of the Department of Labor, who shall thereupon deposit them in the Treasury of the United States, rendering an account therefor quarterly to the Auditor for the State and Other Departments, and the said disbursing clerk shall be held responsible under his bond for said fees so received. In addition to the fees herein required, the petitioner shall, upon the filing of his petition to become a citizen of the United States, deposit with and pay to the clerk of the court a sum of money sufficient to cover the expenses of subpoenaing and paying the legal fees of any witnesses for whom he may request a subpoena, and upon the final discharge of such witnesses they shall receive, if they demand the same from the clerk, the customary and usual witness fees from the moneys which the petitioner shall have paid to such clerk for such purpose, and the residue, if any, shall be returned by the clerk to the petitioner: *Provided*, That the clerks of courts exercising jurisdiction in naturalization proceedings shall be permitted to retain one-half of the fees in any fiscal year up to the sum of three thousand dollars, and that all fees received by such clerks in naturalization proceedings in excess of such amount shall be accounted for and paid over to said bureau as in case of other fees to which the United States may be entitled under the provisions of this act. The clerks of the various courts exercising jurisdiction in naturalization proceedings shall pay all additional clerical force that may be required in performing the duties imposed by this act upon the clerks of courts from fees received by such clerks in naturalization proceedings. . . .

"Sect. 15. That it shall be the duty of the United States district attorneys for the respective districts, upon affidavit showing good cause therefor, to institute proceedings in any court having jurisdiction to naturalize aliens in the judicial district in which the naturalized citizen may reside at the time of bringing the suit, for the purpose of setting aside and canceling the certificate of citizenship on the ground of fraud or on the ground that such certificate of citizenship was illegally procured. In any such proceedings the party holding the certificate of citizenship alleged to have been fraudulently or illegally procured shall have sixty days personal notice in which to make answer to the petition of the United States;

and if the holder of such certificate be absent from the United States or from the district in which he last had his residence, such notice shall be given by publication in the manner provided for the service of summons by publication or upon absentees by the laws of the State or the place where such suit is brought. If any alien who shall have secured a certificate of citizenship under the provisions of this act shall, within five years after the issuance of such certificate, return to the country of his nativity, or go to any other foreign country, and take permanent residence therein, it shall be considered *prima facie* evidence of a lack of intention on the part of such alien to become a permanent citizen of the United States at the time of filing his application for citizenship, and, in the absence of countervailing evidence, it shall be sufficient in the proper proceeding to authorize the cancellation of his certificate of citizenship as fraudulent. . . .

"Sect. 28. That the Secretary of Labor shall have power to make such rules and regulations as may be necessary for properly carrying into execution the various provisions of this act. Certified copies of all papers, documents, certificates, and records required to be used, filed, recorded, or kept under any and all of the provisions of this act shall be admitted in evidence equally with the originals in any and all proceedings under this act and in all cases in which the originals thereof might be admissible as evidence."

The following is the partial text of the Citizenship Act of March 2, 1907:

"Sect. 2. That any American citizen shall be deemed to have expatriated himself when he has been naturalized in any foreign State in conformity with its laws, or when he has taken an oath of allegiance to any foreign State. [See EXPATRIATION.] When any naturalized citizen shall have resided for two years in the foreign State from which he came, or for five years in any other foreign State, it shall be presumed that he has ceased to be an American citizen, and the place of his general abode shall be deemed his place of residence during said years: *Provided, however*, That such presumption may be overcome on the presentation of satisfactory evidence to a diplomatic or consular officer of the United States, under such rules and regulations as the Department of State may prescribe: *And provided also*, That no American citizen shall be allowed to expatriate himself when this country is at war.

"Sect. 3. That any American woman who marries a foreigner shall take the nationality of her husband. At the termination of the marital relation she may resume her American citizenship, if abroad, by registering as an American citizen within one year with a consul of the United States, or by returning to reside in the United States, or, if residing in the United States at the termination of the marital relation, by continuing to reside therein.

"Sect. 4. That any foreign woman who acquires American citizenship by marriage to an American shall be assumed to retain the same after the termination of the marital relation if she continue to reside in the United States, unless she makes formal renunciation thereof before a court having jurisdiction to naturalize aliens, or if she resides abroad she may retain her citizenship by registering as such before a United States consul within one year after the termination of such marital relation.

"Sect. 5. That a child born without the United States of alien parents shall be deemed a citizen of the United States by virtue of the naturaliza-

tion of or resumption of American citizenship by the parent: *Provided*, That such naturalization or resumption takes place during the minority of such child: *And provided further*, That the citizenship of such minor child shall begin at the time such minor child begins to reside permanently in the United States.

"Sect. 6. That all children born outside the limits of the United States who are citizens thereof in accordance with the provisions of section nineteen hundred and ninety-three of the Revised Statutes of the United States and who continue to reside outside the United States shall, in order to receive the protection of this Government, be required upon reaching the age of eighteen years to record at an American consulate their intention to become residents and remain citizens of the United States and shall be further required to take the oath of allegiance to the United States upon attaining their majority.

"Sect. 7. That duplicates of any evidence, registration, or other acts required by this act shall be filed with the Department of State for record."—United States Bureau of Naturalization, *Naturalization laws and regulations*, pp. 4-30.

United States: Laws relating to women.—"A citizen of the United States can confer on a foreign born woman the rights and privileges of an American citizen by marriage. This rule is modified by ten United States Statutes at Large, 604, in this, 'any woman who is now or may hereafter be married to a citizen of the United States, and who might herself be lawfully naturalized, shall be deemed a citizen.' The requirement, 'who might herself be lawfully naturalized,' carries within it two elements, the first being the possibility under the laws of the United States of naturalization of women born in foreign countries; and second, the question of civil rights in her relations to the laws of the country of her origin. This latter element is of importance in this, that citizenship does not in itself involve rights and privileges in the country of which one is a citizen, but also protection abroad and recognition of her citizenship when abroad, and in particular in the country of her origin. While this latter element cannot strictly be inquired into as condition precedent and finally determined by the tribunals of the United States, yet its importance is beyond doubt, and should she, by the laws of her country of origin, not be competent to become naturalized in a foreign country, her citizenship, as conferred by the United States Statutes, would not avail her upon the return to the country of her origin. . . . The woman changes her nationality, absolutely, by marriage to a citizen of the United States. She does not enjoy in coverture, any other or different rights and privileges from those enjoyed by her husband. This rule does not require residence in the United States; a woman who is married to a citizen of the United States partakes of his citizenship, though residing abroad. . . . The same rule which applies to foreign women who marry citizens of the United States governs women citizens of the United States who marry foreigners. 'A woman, citizen of the United States, marries an alien who resides out of the jurisdiction. She absolutely ceases to be an American citizen, and becomes subject to all the disabilities of alienage.' F. R. of United States, 1874, p. 413. . . . The woman merges her nationality in that of her husband upon marriage to a foreigner. In case of legal separation, the practice places her in a position similar to that of a minor child, born of foreign parents, who has been adopted by a citizen of the United States upon reaching majority. The wife may

elect whether to preserve the foreign nationality acquired by her marriage, or re-acquire her former American citizenship."—P. Webster, *Treatise on the law of citizenship in the United States*, pp. 295-298.—A bill, relative to the naturalization and citizenship of married women was reported back with amendments by the house committee and presented by Mr. John L. Cable of Ohio, June 16, 1922,—"upon it hearings were held, and extended consideration given by the committee. . . . In previous Congresses Mr. Rogers of Massachusetts, . . . Miss Rankin of Montana . . . and Mr. Anthony of Kansas introduced bills containing somewhat similar principles."—*House of Representatives, Report No. 1110, 67th Congress, 2nd Session*.—The following is the text of the act relative to the naturalization of women, which was passed by Congress, September 22, 1922:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the right of any woman to become a naturalized citizen of the United States shall not be denied or abridged because of her sex or because she is a married woman.

Sect. 2. That any woman who marries a citizen of the United States after the passage of this Act, shall not become a citizen of the United States by reason of such marriage or naturalization; but, if eligible to citizenship, she may be naturalized upon full and complete compliance with all requirements of the naturalization laws, with the following exceptions: (a) No declaration of intention shall be required; (b) in lieu of the five-year period of residence within the United States and the one-year period of residence within the State of Territory where the naturalization court is held, she shall have resided continuously in the United States, Hawaii, Alaska, or Porto Rico for at least one year immediately preceding the filing of the petition.

Sect. 3. That a woman citizen of the United States shall not cease to be a citizen of the United States by reason of her marriage after the passage of this Act, unless she makes a formal renunciation of her citizenship before a court having jurisdiction over naturalization of aliens: *Provided*, That any woman citizen who marries an alien ineligible to citizenship shall cease to be a citizen of the United States. If at the termination of the marital status she resides continuously for two years in a foreign State of which her husband is a citizen or subject, or for five years continuously outside the United States, she shall thereafter be subject to the same presumption as is a naturalized citizen of the United States under the second paragraph of section 2 of the Act entitled 'An Act in reference to the expatriation of citizens and their protection abroad,' approved March 2, 1907. Nothing herein shall be construed to repeal or amend the provisions of Revised Statutes 1909 or of section 2 of the Expatriation Act of 1907 with reference to expatriation.

Sect. 4. That a woman who, before the passage of this Act, has lost her United States citizenship by reason of her marriage to an alien eligible for citizenship, may be naturalized as provided by section 2 of this Act: *Provided*, That no certificate of arrival shall be required to be filed with her petition if during the continuance of the marital status she shall have resided within the United States. After her naturalization she shall have the same citizenship status as if her marriage had taken place after the passage of this Act.

Sect. 5. That no woman whose husband is not eligible to citizenship shall be naturalized during the continuance of the marital status.

Sect. 6. That section 1994 of the Revised Statutes and section 4 of the Expatriation Act of 1907 are repealed. Such repeal shall not restore citizenship lost under such section nor terminate citizenship resumed under such section. A woman who has resumed under such section citizenship lost by marriage shall, upon the passage of this Act, have for all purposes the same citizenship status as immediately preceding her marriage.

See also ALLEGIANCE; AMERICANIZATION; PASSPORTS; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD; WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1900-1921.

NATURE WORSHIP. See BRAHMANISM; DRUIDS; MYTHOLOGY.

NAUARCHI, title given in ancient Sparta to the commanders of the fleet. At Athens "the term Nauarchi seems to have been officially applied only to the commanders of the so-called sacred triremes."—G. Schömann, *Antiquity of Greece: State, pt. 3, ch. 1, 3.*

NAUKRATIS, ancient city of Egypt. It was an important Greek colony from 569 B. C., when the Greeks were forbidden to trade in any other Egyptian city. "Naukratis was for a long time the privileged port [in Egypt] for Grecian commerce with Egypt. No Greek merchant was permitted to deliver goods in any other part [port], or to enter any other of the mouths of the Nile except the Kanôpic. If forced into any of them by stress of weather, he was compelled to make oath that his arrival was a matter of necessity, and to convey his goods round by sea into the Kanopic branch to Naukratis; and if the weather still forbade such a proceeding, the merchandise was put into barges and conveyed round to Naukratis by the internal canals of the delta. Such a monopoly, which made Naukratis in Egypt something like Canton in China or Nagasaki in Japan, no longer subsisted in the time of Herodotus. . . . At what precise time Naukratis first became licensed for Grecian trade, we cannot directly make out. But there seems reason to believe that it was the port to which the Greek merchants first went, so soon as the general liberty of trading with the country was conceded to them; and this would put the date of such grant at least as far back as the foundation of Kyrene, . . . about 630 B. C., during the reign of Psammetichus. . . . [About a century later, Amasis] sanctioned the constitution of a formal and organised emporium or factory, invested with commercial privileges, and armed with authority exercised by presiding officers regularly chosen. This factory was connected with, and probably grew out of, a large religious edifice and precinct, built at the joint cost of nine Grecian cities: four of them Ionic,—Chios, Teos, Phokæa and Klazomenæ; four Doric,—Rhodes, Knidus, Halikarnassus, and Phaselis; and one Æolic,—Mitylene. By these nine cities the joint temple and factory was kept up and its presiding magistrates chosen; but its destination, for the convenience of Grecian commerce generally, seems revealed by the imposing title of *The Hellenion*."—G. Grote, *History of Greece, pt. 2, ch. 20.*—The site of Naukratis has been determined lately by the excavations of W. M. Flinders Petrie, begun in 1885. The ruins of the ancient city are found buried under a mound called Nebireh. Its situation was west of the Canobic branch of the Nile, on a canal which connected it with that stream. See EGYPT: B. C. 670-525.

NAUDE, Gabriel (1600-1653), French scholar and librarian. Collector of the Mazarin Library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Administration: Early methods.

NAUDOWESSIES, North American Indian

tribe. See SIOUAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America.

NAUKRATIS. See NAUKRATIS.

NAULETTE, cave near Dinant, Belgium. Prehistoric human remains were discovered here in 1866. See EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Neanderthal skeleton.

NAULOCHUS, Battle of (36 B. C.).—A naval battle fought near Naulochus, on the coast of Sicily, in which Agrippa, commanding for the triumvir Octavius, defeated and destroyed the fleet of Sextus Pompeius.—Based on C. Merivale, *History of the Romans, ch. 27.*

NAUMACHIÆ.—The naumachie of the Romans were structures resembling excavated amphitheatres, but having the large central space filled with water, for the representation of naval combats. "The great Naumachia of Augustus was 1,800 feet long and 1,200 feet broad."—R. Burn, *Rome and the Campagna, introduction.*

NAUMBURG, city in the republic of Saxony, Germany, on the Saale, twenty-seven miles southwest of Leipzig. It was captured by the French under Napoleon, 1806. See GERMANY: 1806 (October).

NAUNI, North American Indian tribe. See APACHE GROUP.

NAUPACTUS, town in the department of Acarnania and Ætolia, Greece, on the straits of Lepanto. It was an Athenian military station during the 5th century B. C., and was taken from the Venetians by the Turks in 1499. See ATHENS: B. C. 460-455; GREECE: B. C. 357-336; MESSENIAN WARS.

Battle of (429 B. C.). See GREECE: B. C. 429-427: Peloponnesian War: Phormio's sea fights.

Treaty of.—A treaty, concluded 217 B. C., which terminated what was called the Social War, between the Achæan League, joined with Philip of Macedonia, and the Ætolian League, in alliance with Sparta.—Based on C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece, ch. 63.*

Also in: E. A. Freeman, *History of federal government, ch. 8, sect. 1.*

NAUPLIA, seaport in the department of Argolis and Corinthus, Greece, at the head of the Argolic gulf. It was the port of ancient Argos, and was the seat of the Greek government, 1824-1834. See ARGOS; ATHENS: 1205-1308.

NAUSETS, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

NAUTILUS, submarine of Ash and Campbell. It was launched in 1885. See SUBMARINES: 1885.

NAUVOO, city in Illinois, on the Mississippi, forty-two miles north of Quincy. It was founded in 1839 by the Mormons who were expelled in 1846. It was the seat of the Icarian community of French Communists, 1850-1858. See MORMONISM: 1830-1846; 1846-1848; SOCIALISM: 1840-1883.

NAVAJO, North American Indian tribe. See APACHE GROUP; ATHAPASCAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Southwest area; 1860-1865.

NAVAL ACADEMY, United States, established in 1845. See ANNAPOLIS NAVAL ACADEMY; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 43; 44.

NAVAL ADMINISTRATION: England. See ADMIRALTY: Constitution of the British admiralty.

France. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1000: French naval administration.

NAVAL AGREEMENT ACT, Australia (1903). See AUSTRALIA: 1903-1913.

NAVAL CONFERENCES, International: 1908-1909.—London. See LONDON, DECLARATION OF: 1921-1922.—Washington. See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

NAVAL CONSTRUCTION. See INVENTIONS: 20th century: Instruments; SUBMARINES; WAR-SHIPS.

NAVAL DEFENSE: British empire. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: British imperial defense conference.

NAVAL DISARMAMENT. See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

NAVAL EQUIPMENT: In World War. See SUBMARINES; WARSHIPS; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VI. Military and naval equipment.

NAVAL EXPENDITURES: 1900-1915.—England, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, and United States. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1900-1915.

NAVAL HOLIDAY (1913).—A naval holiday was suggested to the House of Commons by Winston Churchill, on March 26, 1913, in the following words: "The Navy is passing through a period, not merely of expansion, but of swift and ceaseless development. . . . The latest German Navy Law has increased the number of vessels we are required to construct each year, and that Law and the Mediterranean requirements, have still more increased the numbers and proportion of ships which must be maintained in the highest condition of readiness. . . . The increase in the size, cost and speed of capital ships, compelled by the general developments of naval science and the types building abroad, is marked and unceasing. . . . The adoption by Germany, America, and Italy, of larger guns for their primary armaments and more numerous guns for their secondary armaments, has necessitated a farther advance by us, thus very greatly increasing the outlay on these weapons. . . . No abatement in the annual consumption of practise ammunition can be looked for, but . . . increases are certain; . . . perhaps when the trade of the country is not at its best the Navy Estimates will automatically take an upward lift. . . . There is no prospect of avoiding increases in the future Navy Estimates unless the period of acute naval rivalries and rapid scientific expansion through which we are passing, comes to an end. . . . There happily is a way which is open, which would give almost instantaneous mitigation to the nations of the world from the absurd thralldom in which they are involving themselves at the present time. . . . The strength of one navy is its strength compared to another. The value of a ship depends almost entirely upon the contemporary ship which it may have to meet. . . . Every year the great nations . . . not only make obsolete the fleets of their rivals but they make obsolete their own fleet. . . . There is no practical result so long as all are advancing equally. On the other hand, no one Power can stand still while the others are advancing without being hopelessly outclassed in a very short time. . . . If, for the space of a year, 12 calendar months, no new ships were built by any nation, in what conceivable manner would the interest of any nation be affected? . . . Why should we not take a naval holiday for one year, so far . . . as new construction of capital ships is concerned? . . . It is an appeal which we address to all nations and to no nation with more profound sincerity than to our great neighbor over the North Sea."—W. Churchill, *Speech on the Naval Estimate in the House of Commons, Mar. 26, 1913 (pamphlet)*, pp. 3-9.—This proposal did not meet with the favor of Germany.—See also ENGLAND: 1912-1913; PEACE MOVEMENT: Attitude of governments.

NAVAL INVESTIGATING COMMITTEE, United States. See U.S.A.: 1920: Controversy

between Admiral Sims and Secretary Daniels.

NAVAL LAW: Origin.—The administration of naval discipline has always been entrusted to naval men since nations have exercised the prerogative of naval commands. In the early years of the British navy, the fleets, whether for aggression or defence, were raised on the requisition of the king by the inhabitants of the seaport towns and of these, the Cinque Ports furnished the principal ships and sailors. "From the time of the Conquest, the Kings of England delegated the charge of guarding the coasts and commanding the fleets to officers, who in the reign of Henry I. were called *Butescarles*, a title afterwards changed to that of guardians of the ships, or guardians of the maritime shore. In the reign of Edward I., instead of guardians or wardens they were termed admirals—a word first used by the Crusaders, who took it from the Saracens, who termed their generals *Emirs* or *Amiras*. Edward I. divided his shipping into three fleets, and in solemn manner created admirals of the navy towards the northern, western and southern parts. The office of Lord High Admiral was of later date, for the first commission to a single great officer was not issued until the time of Henry IV., when Thomas Beaufort, Duke of Exeter, was appointed to be admiral, not only of the fleets and navies, but of England and Ireland. The French fleets were governed by similar institutions. In early times naval jurisdiction was not limited to one functionary, the Admiral of France, but officers with corresponding powers were appointed to the great maritime provinces. About the year 1300, the office was concentrated and Amaurius, Viscount of Narbonne, was the first who bore the sole dignity of High Admiral of France. The functions of this great officer corresponded and were alike extensive on either side of the Channel. The Lord High Admiral of England not only organized and governed the fleets raised for the service of the Crown but held exclusive jurisdiction over all civil causes and criminal offences arising among seamen, whether belonging to the royal or merchant navy. The office of High Admiral of France was suppressed in the seventeenth century, and put into commission in England. New regulations for the maintenance of discipline in the navy were introduced in England by the statute of 13 Charles II., and in France by the ordinances of Louis XIV. Prescription has preserved many of the usages for the punishment of crime in the navy, handed down from the earliest times, and enforced by a succession of admirals; some of these have been perpetuated by statute law, some, under the name of customs of the navy, are still applicable to minor offences."—J. E. Stephens, C. E. Gifford and F. H. Smith, *Manual of naval law*, pp. 3-4.

Ancient code (1190).—The most ancient code of regulations is that of Richard I, when he marshalled his great fleet for the Holy Land. In a council of nobles he chose and appointed certain great officers to be justiciaries over the combined navy of England, Normandy, Brittany and Poitou, and delivered his charter to them as follows: "Know all men that we, with the aid of upright counsellors have laid down these ordinances." Punishments similar to those outlined in Richard's ordinance subsisted in the navy for many centuries afterwards, re-ordained on the fitting out of each successive expedition.

Court of admiralty.—"A permanent Court of Justice (the original of the present court of Admiralty was held under the authority of each High Admiral, for the trial of sea causes, both for life

and goods, and its jurisdiction was in some cases defined by statute. But as there was no standing navy during the thirteenth, fourteenth, fifteenth, and part of the sixteenth centuries, so there was no fixed code of naval law. Fleets were raised on emergencies for the public service, the greater part of the ships were furnished by private enterprise, the remainder bought up for the occasion, and fitted out by the crown. When the expedition was ready, the Lord High Admiral, or the actual commander-in-chief, by authority delegated from him, issued specific instructions to the admirals and captains, for the punishment of offences and general maintenance of discipline limited to the particular service. In this manner precedents grew up and the same forms applicable to similar circumstances were ordinarily reproduced."—J. E. Stephens, C. E. Gifford and F. H. Smith, *Manual of naval law*, pp. 4, 5.—See also ADMIRALTY LAW.

American naval law.—The United States Constitution, article 1, section 8, provides that Congress shall have power to declare war; make rules concerning captures on land and water; to raise and support armies; to provide and maintain a navy; to make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces; etc. [See UNITED STATES, CONSTITUTION OF.] The customs and regulations of the British navy, with slight modifications were taken over by the American revolutionary authorities and various congresses have added to them. Naval discipline is now administered by officers and courts-martial under the authority of congressional acts relating to the navy and more particularly the articles for the government of the navy, sec. 2961, United States Statutes.

Deck Courts.—"When actively serving under the Navy Department in time of war, or during the existence of an emergency, pursuant to law, as a part of the naval forces of the United States, commissioned officers of the Naval Reserve Force, Marine Corps Reserve, National Naval Volunteers, Naval Militia, Coast Guard, Lighthouse Service, Coast and Geodetic Survey, and Public Health Service are hereby empowered to serve on naval courts-martial and deck courts under such regulations necessary for the proper administration of justice and in the interests of the services involved, as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Navy."—*United States Statutes, Section 2088 a*.

ALSO IN: *United States Compiled Statutes, 1918*, p. 392.

Courts martial.—Naval courts-martial are held in accordance with the articles for the government of the navy. The legal aspects of these courts are similar to those of the military courts under the Articles of War.—See also MILITARY LAW.

See also ADMIRALTY LAW.

ALSO IN: *United States Statutes, Section 2961 (R. S. Section 1624)*.

NAVAL WAR COLLEGE.—"An advanced institution, located at Newport, R. I., for the training of selected Navy officers in the study of problems of naval warfare and the development of plans for naval operations. While detailed here as instructor, in 1886, Capt. A. T. Mahan composed his masterly book on *The Influence of Sea Power upon History*."—*War cyclopedia*, p. 185.

NAVAL WARFARE: Submarine and torpedo. See SUBMARINES: 1900-1918; 1914-1918; WORLD WAR: 1917: IX. Naval operations: a; TORPEDO: Development.

Laws. See HAGUE CONFERENCE: 1899: Convention for adaptation to maritime warfare.

British policy changed by Declaration of Lon-

don. See WORLD WAR: 1916: XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: c.

NAVARETTE, or Najara, Battle of (1367). See SPAIN: 1366-1369; FRANCE: 1360-1380.

NAVARINO, Bay of, small bay west of Messenia, Greece.

B. C. 425.—Battle during the Peloponnesian War. See GREECE: B. C. 425.

1500.—Surrender to Turks. See TURKEY: 1498-1502.

1686.—Taken by Venetians. See TURKEY: 1684-1696.

1827.—Destruction of Turkish fleet. See GREECE: 1821-1829.

NAVARRÉ.—Formerly an independent kingdom, the territory is now partly a province of northern Spain, under the name of Navarra, and partly a portion of the French department of Basses-Pyrénées. The population in Navarre in 1920 was 329,477.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See BASQUES.

Origin of kingdom.—"No historical subject is wrapt in greater obscurity than the origin and early history of the kingdom of Navarre. Whether, during a great portion of the eighth and ninth centuries, the country was independent or tributary; and, if dependent, whether it obeyed the Franks, the Asturians, or the Arabs, or successively all three, are speculations which have long exercised the pens of the peninsular writers. . . . It seems undoubted that, in just dread of the Mohammedan domination, the inhabitants of these regions, as well as those of Catalonia, applied for aid to the renowned emperor of the Franks [Charlemagne]; and that he, in consequence, in 778, poured his legions into Navarre, and seized Pamploña. It seems no less certain that, from this period, he considered the country as a fief of his crown; and that his pretensions, whether founded in violence or in the voluntary submission of the natives, gave the highest umbrage to the Asturian kings: the feudal supremacy thenceforth became an apple of discord between the two courts, each striving to gain the homage of the local governors. . . . Thus things remained until the time of Alfonso III., who . . . endeavoured to secure peace both with Navarre and France by marrying a princess related to both Sancho Iñigo, count of Bigorre, and to the Frank sovereign, and by consenting that the province should be held as an immovable fief by that count. This Sancho Iñigo, besides his lordship of Bigorre, for which he was the vassal of the French king, had domains in Navarre, and is believed, on apparently good foundation, to have been of Spanish descent. He is said, however, not to have been the first count of Navarre; that his brother Aznar held the fief before him, nominally dependent on king Pepin, but successfully laying the foundation of Navarrese independence. If the chronology which makes Sancho succeed Aznar in 836, and the event itself, be correct, Alfonso only confirmed the count in the lordship. In this case, the only remaining difficulty is to determine whether the fief was held from Charles or Alfonso. . . . But whichever of the princes was acknowledged for the time the lord paramount of the province, there can be little doubt that both governor and people were averse to the sway of either; both had long aspired to independence, and that independence was at hand. The son of this Sancho Iñigo was Garcia, father of Sancho Garces, and the first king of Navarre [assuming the crown about 885-801]; the first, at least, whom . . . historic criticism can admit."—S. A. Dunham, *History of Spain and Portugal*, bk. 3, sect. 2, ch. 2.—See also SPAIN: 713-950.

1026.—Acquisition of crown of Castile by King Sancho el Mayor. See SPAIN: 1026-1230.

1076.—Annexed to Aragon. See ARAGON.

1234.—Succession of Thibalt, count of Champagne, to the throne. See SPAIN: 1212-1238.

1284-1328.—Union with France, and separation.—In 1284, the marriage of Jeanne, heiress of the kingdom of Navarre and of the counties of Champagne and Brie, to Philip IV of France, united the crown of Navarre to that of France. They were separated in 1328, on the death of her last surviving son, Charles IV, without male issue. Philip of Valois secured the French crown, under the so-called Salic law, but that of Navarre passed to Jeanne's granddaughter, of her own name.—See also FRANCE: Maps of medieval period: 1154-1360.

1442-1521.—Usurpation of John II of Aragon.—House of Foix and the D'Albrets.—Conquest by Ferdinand.—Incorporation in kingdom of Castile.—Blanche, daughter of Charles III of Navarre and heiress of the kingdom, married John II of Aragon, to whom she gave three children, namely, Don Carlos, or Charles, "who, as heir apparent, bore the title of Prince of Viana, and two daughters, Blanche and Eleanor. Don Carlos is known by his virtues and misfortunes. At the death of his mother Blanche [1442], he should have succeeded to the throne of Navarre; but John II. was by no means disposed to relinquish the title which he had acquired by marriage, and Carlos consented to be his father's viceroy. But even this dignity he was not permitted to enjoy unmolested." Persecuted through life, sometimes imprisoned, sometimes in exile, he died at the age of forty, in 1461 (see SPAIN: 1368-1479). "By the death of Don Carlos, the succession to the crown of Navarre devolved to his sister Blanche, the divorced wife of Henry IV. of Castile; and that amiable princess now became an object of jealousy not only to her father but also to her younger sister, Eleanor, married to the Count of Foix, to whom John II. had promised the reversion of Navarre after his own death. Gaston de Foix, the offspring of this union, had married a sister of Louis XI.; and it had been provided in a treaty between that monarch and John II., that in order to secure the succession of the House of Foix to Navarre, Blanche should be delivered into the custody of her sister. John executed this stipulation without remorse. Blanche was conducted to the Castle of Orthès in Béarn (April 1462), where, after a confinement of nearly two years, she was poisoned by order of her sister Eleanor." After committing this crime, the latter waited nearly fifteen years for the crown which it was expected to win, and then enjoyed it but three weeks. Her father reigned until January 20, 1479, when he died; the guilty daughter soon followed him. "After Eleanor's brief reign . . . the blood-stained sceptre of Navarre passed to her grandson Phœbus, 1479, who, however, lived only four years, and was succeeded by his sister Catherine. Ferdinand and Isabella [now occupying the thrones of Aragon and Castile] endeavoured to effect a marriage between Catherine and their own heir; but this scheme was frustrated by Magdalen, the queen-mother, a sister of Louis XI. of France, who brought about a match between her daughter and John d'Albret, a French nobleman who had large possessions on the borders of Navarre (1485). Nevertheless the Kings of Spain supported Catherine and her husband against her uncle, John de Foix, viscount of Narbonne, who pretended to the Navarrese crown on the ground that it was limited to male heirs; and after the

death of John, the alliance with Spain was drawn still closer by the avowed purpose of Louis XII. to support his nephew, Gaston de Foix, in the claims of his father. After the fall of that young hero at Ravenna [see ITALY: 1510-1513], his pretensions to the throne of Navarre devolved to his sister, Germaine de Foix, the second wife of King Ferdinand [see SPAIN: 1496-1517], an event which entirely altered the relations between the courts of Spain and Navarre. Ferdinand had now an interest in supporting the claims of the house of Foix-Narbonne; and Catherine, who distrusted him, despatched in May 1512, plenipotentiaries to the French court to negotiate a treaty of alliance." But it was too late. Ferdinand had already succeeded in diverting to Navarre an expedition which his son-in-law, Henry VIII. of England, acting in the Holy League against Louis XII., which Ferdinand now joined (see ITALY: 1510-1513), had sent against Guienne. With this aid he took possession of Upper Navarre. "In the following year, he effected at Orthès a year's truce with Louis XII (April 1st 1513), by which Louis sacrificed his ally, the King of Navarre, and afterwards, by renewing the truce, allowed Ferdinand permanently to settle himself in his new conquest. The States of Navarre had previously taken the oath of allegiance to Ferdinand as their King, and on the 15th of June 1515, Navarre was incorporated into the kingdom of Castile by the solemn act of the Cortès. The dominions of John d'Albret and Catherine were now reduced to the little territory of Béarn, but they still retained the title of sovereigns of Navarre." Six years later, in 1521, the French invaded Navarre and overran the whole kingdom. "Pampeluna alone, animated by the courage of Ignatius Loyola, made a short resistance. To this siege, the world owes the Order of the Jesuits. Loyola, whose leg had been shattered by a cannon ball, found consolation and amusement during his convalescence in reading the lives of the saints, and was thus thrown into that state of fanatical exaltation which led him to devote his future life to the service of the Papacy." Attempting to extend their invasion beyond Navarre, the French were defeated at Esquirois and driven back, losing the whole of their conquests.—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 4, 7, bk. 2, ch. 3.

Also in: W. H. Prescott, *History of the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella*, v. 1, 3, ch. 2, 23.

1528-1563.—Kingdom remaining on the French side of Pyrenees.—Jeanne d'Albret's Bourbon marriage and issue of it.—Establishment of Protestantism in Béarn.—Besides the Spanish province which Ferdinand the Catholic appropriated and joined to Castile, and which gave its name to the kingdom of Navarre, "that kingdom embraced a large tract of country lying on the French side of the Pyrenees, including the principality of Béarn and the counties of Foix, Armagnac, Albret, Bigorre, and Comminges. Catherine de Foix, the heiress of this kingdom, had in 1491 carried it by marriage into the house of D'Albret. Henry, the second king of Navarre belonging to this house, was in 1528 united to Marguerite d'Angoulême, the favourite and devoted sister of Francis I. of France. Pampeluna, the ancient capital of their kingdom, being in the hands of the King of Spain, Henry and Marguerite held their Court at Nérac, the chief town of the duchy belonging to the family of D'Albret. It was at Nérac that Marguerite, herself more than half a Huguenot, opened an asylum to her persecuted fellow-countrymen. [See PAPACY: 1521-1535.] Farel, Calvin, Beza sought temporary refuge and found glad welcome there,

while to Lefèvre, Clément Marot, and Gérard Roussel it became a second home. Marguerite died in 1549, leaving only one child, a daughter, who, in the event of her father having no issue by any second marriage, became heiress to the crown of Navarre. Born in 1528, Jeanne d'Albret had early and bitter experience of what heirship to such a crown involved. The Emperor Charles V. was believed to have early fixed his eye on her as a fit consort for Philip, his son and successor." To prevent this marriage, she was shut up for years, by her uncle, the French king, Francis I, in the gloomy castle of Plessis-les-Tours. When she was twelve years old he affianced her to the duke of Clèves, notwithstanding her vigorous protests; but the alliance was subsequently broken off. "The next hand offered to Jeanne, and which she accepted, was that of Antoine, elder brother of the Prince of Condé, and head of the Bourbon family. They were married in 1548, a year after the death of Francis I., and a year before that of his sister Marguerite, Jeanne's mother. The marriage was an unfortunate one. Ambitious, yet weak and vain; frivolous and vacillating, yet headstrong and impetuous, faithless to his wife, faithless to his principles, faithless to his party, Antoine became the butt and victim of the policy of the Court. But though unfortunate in so many respects, this marriage gave to France, if not the greatest, the most fortunate, the most popular, the most beloved of all her monarchs"—namely, Henry IV—Henry of Navarre—the first of the Bourbon dynasty of French kings. "Antoine of Navarre died at the siege of Rouen in 1562. The first use that the Queen made of the increased measure of freedom she thus acquired was to publish an edict establishing the Protestant and interdicting the exercise of the Roman Catholic worship in Béarn. So bold an act by so weak a sovereign—by one whose political position was so perilous and insecure—drew down upon her the instant and severe displeasure of the Pope," who issued against her a bull of excommunication, in October, 1563, and assumed the right to dispose of her kingdom. This assumption was more than the French court could permit. "The Pope had to give way, and the Bull was expunged from the ecclesiastical ordinances of the Pontificate."—W. Hanna, *Wars of the Huguenots*, ch. 4.

1568-1569.—Queen joins Huguenots in France, with Prince Henry.—Invasion by French. See FRANCE: 1563-1570.

1620-1622.—Protestant intolerance.—Enforcement of Catholic rights.—French part of kingdom incorporated in France. See FRANCE: 1620-1622.

1876.—Disappearance of last municipal and provincial privileges of old kingdom. See SPAIN: 1874-1885.

NAVARRE COLLEGE, founded in 1304. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1201-1670.

NAVARRO, Pedro (c. 1460-1528), Spanish general. Developed the use of mines in war; commanded the Spanish army in conquests of Algiers, Tunis, and other cities on the Barbary coast, North Africa. See BARBARY STATES: 1505-1510.

NAVIGATION: Means of internal communication in the United States.—Projects. See U.S.A.: 1790: Economic situation of the country; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1907-1910.

Steam. See STEAM NAVIGATION.

NAVIGATION ACT (1893). See ASYLUM, RIGHT OF: Right of asylum on merchant ships.

NAVIGATION LAWS.—With the growth of colonial enterprises and foreign colonies in the six-

teenth and seventeenth centuries the question of navigation laws acquired great importance.

1645.—Regulation concerning importation of whale oil.—England forbade the importation of whale oil except in English ships manned by English sailors.

1651.—First English Act.—"After the triumph of the parliamentary cause [in the English Civil War], great numbers of the royalists had sought refuge in Virginia, Barbadoes, and the other West India settlements; so that the white population of these dependencies was in general fiercely opposed to the new government, and they might be said to be in a state of rebellion after all the rest of the empire had been reduced to submission and quiet. Barbadoes, indeed, had actually received Lord Willoughby as governor under a commission from Charles II., then in Holland, and had proclaimed Charles as king. It was in these circumstances that the English parliament in 1651, with the view of punishing at once the people of the colonies and the Dutch, who had hitherto enjoyed the greater part of the carrying-trade between the West Indies and Europe, passed their famous Navigation Act, declaring that no merchandise either of Asia, Africa, or America, except only such as should be imported directly from the place of its growth or manufacture in Europe, should be imported into England, Ireland, or any of the plantations, in any but English-built ships, belonging either to English or English-plantation subjects, navigated by English commanders, and having at least three-fourths of the sailors Englishmen. It was also further enacted that no goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of any country in Europe should be imported into Great Britain except in British ships, or in such ships as were the real property of the people of the country or place in which the goods were produced, or from which they could only be, or most usually were, exported. Upon this law, which was re-enacted after the Restoration, and which . . . has been generally regarded and upheld as the . . . maritime Magna Charta of England, we shall only at present observe that one of its first consequences was undoubtedly the war with Holland which broke out the year after it was passed."—G. L. Craik, *History of British commerce*, v. 2, ch. 7.—See also ENGLAND: 1652-1654: War with Dutch republic.

ALSO IN: A. Smith, *Wealth of nations*, bk 4, ch. 2.—J. A. Blanqui, *History of political economy*, ch. 29.

1660-1672.—Effect upon American colonies.—Passage of second Navigation Act, 1663. See U.S.A.: 1651-1672; NEW YORK: 1664.

1849.—Complete repeal of British restrictive acts.—"The question of the navigation laws was . . . brought forward [in the British Parliament, at the commencement of the session of 1849] . . . with a fair prospect of being settled." The stringency of the original Act of 1651 had been "slightly mitigated by another act passed in the reign of Charles II.; but the modifications thus introduced were of slight importance. A farther relaxation, made at the conclusion of the war of independence, allowed the produce of the United States to be imported in ships belonging to citizens of those states. The last amendment of the original law was obtained in the year 1825 by Mr. Huskisson, who made some important changes in it. The law, then, which the legislature had to reconsider in the year 1840 stood thus: the produce of Asia, Africa, and America might be imported from places out of Europe into the United Kingdom, if to be used therein, in foreign as well as in British

ships, provided that such ships were the ships of the country of which the goods were the produce, and from which they were imported. Goods which were the produce of Europe, and which were not enumerated in the act, might be brought thence in the ships of any country. Goods sent to or from the United Kingdom to any of its possessions, or from one colony to another, must be carried in British ships, or in ships of the country in which they were produced and from which they were imported. Then followed some stringent definitions of the conditions which constituted a vessel a British ship in the sense of the act. These restrictions were not without their defenders. Even the great founder of economic science, Adam Smith, while admitting that the navigation laws were inconsistent with that perfect freedom of trade which he contended for, sanctioned their continuance on the ground that defence is much more important than opulence. But as it was more and more strongly felt that these laws were part and parcel of that baneful system of monopoly which, under the name of protection, had so long been maintained and was now so completely exploded, it began also to be seriously doubted whether they were necessary to the defence of the nation. . . . Therefore, on the 14th of February in this year, Mr. Labouchere, as president of the board of trade, proposed a resolution on the subject couched in the following terms: "That it is expedient to remove the restrictions which prevent the free carriage of goods by sea to and from the United Kingdom and the British possessions abroad, and to amend the laws regulating the coasting trade of the United Kingdom, subject nevertheless to such control by her Majesty in council as may be necessary; and also to amend the laws for the registration of ships and seamen." A long debate took place on the question of the second reading of the government measure. . . . 214 members followed Mr. Disraeli into the lobby, while 275 voted with the government, which therefore had a majority of 61. In the upper house Lord Brougham astonished friend and foe by coming forward as the strenuous and uncompromising opponent of the ministerial measure. . . . The second reading was carried by a majority of 10. The smallness of this majority caused some anxiety to the supporters of the measure with regard to its ultimate fate; but this anxiety was relieved by the withdrawal of the most conspicuous opponents of the bill."—W. N. Molesworth, *History of England*, v. 2, ch. 5.—See also TARIFF: 1846-1879.

Effects of navigation laws in seventeenth century.—Dangerous rivalry of Dutch.—Results of laws on English shipping.—Effect of repeal.—"The effect of this mixed colonial and commercial system was to make the entire carrying trade of the Plantations an English monopoly, and to constitute England and Wales the sole distributing centre for the greater part of their produce and the entrepot through which they must draw all supplies of foreign origin. Moreover, it reserved to English shipowners the carriage of practically the entire volume of the English import trade, with the exception of goods of European origin shipped in vessels belonging to the producing country. . . . In the first place, it must be noted that the danger of retaliation was, at the time of their enactment very small. The trade of the Dutch, Spanish, Portuguese, and French colonies was already governed by a system as rigidly exclusive as [that of the British]. . . . The Dutch shipowners were the common carriers of the world, and few other States were likely to be troubled

by the restrictions laid on the general carrying trade, so long as their ships were free to engage in direct traffic with England. In the second place, it must be remembered that the English mercantile marine was not yet ready to challenge the Dutch supremacy in the general carrying trade. The seafaring instinct, the aptitudes and traditions making for success in seaborne commerce were there; but the progress of English shipping which had made great strides under the Tudors, had been checked during the Stuart decadence, and the available tonnage was hardly adequate even to the services now reserved to it. The freedom of Dutch institutions, the development of banking and the cheapness of capital, gave to the merchants of the Netherlands an advantage against which it was almost hopeless for Englishmen to compete, and the prospect of immunity from Dutch competition in the reserved trades might well seem to outweigh any disadvantages accepted in respect of other branches of commerce. These considerations carried the more weight because the principal branch of trade reserved to English shipping was certain to increase and easy to regulate. The Plantation trade was, indeed, the corner-stone of the whole system. The North American and West Indian colonies were then in the first stages of settlement. Their vast, undeveloped, natural wealth enabled severe restrictions to be laid upon their commerce without arresting its inevitable expansion. . . . Even so, there is some difference of opinion as to the success of the Acts in securing the ends for which they were designed. It used to be confidently asserted that they had been primarily instrumental both in destroying the maritime greatness of Holland and promoting the expansion of English shipping but the former contention has now been generally abandoned and even the latter is open to question. The immediate effect of the Acts appears to have been to accentuate Dutch competition in all branches of trade not definitely reserved to English ships [due to the cost of English shipping and the freights demanded by English ship owners]. Adam Smith himself in the very chapter in which he defends the Navigation Acts (Book IV-c. 2) admits that at the time he wrote, more than a hundred years after the passing of those Acts, the Dutch were still 'the great carriers of Europe,' and that Holland still was 'the great emporium for all European goods.' It may be said that but for the Acts of Navigation the Dutch shipowners would have monopolized the Plantation trade also, and that they would have profited greatly by its expansion during the eighteenth century. . . . With regard to English shipping the position is not so clear. There is pretty general agreement even among admirers of the Acts that their ultimate effect was detrimental to the trade of the Colonies. From the first there were bitter complaints on the part of the colonial governors and colonial merchants as to the inconveniences arising from the restrictions placed upon their commerce. . . . Even in the Plantation trade there is room for doubt as to whether the demand for English goods was not unfavourably affected by the restrictions placed on colonial development; as to foreign commerce generally there were contemporary critics who regarded the operation of the Acts as thoroughly mischievous. It was however, rather by the effect of the Acts upon shipping than by their general influence on the economic development of the country that their promoters would have claimed to be judged. . . . Between the Restoration and the Revolution of 1688 the tonnage of the mercantile marine was

said to have doubled, and a comparison of the recorded clearances supports this statement. How much of this increase is to be attributed to the operation of the Navigation Acts, and how much to other causes, such as the development of industry at home and of markets abroad and the progress of banking and finance, it is difficult to say. This revolt [of the American colonies] shook the whole foundations of the system. When the independence of the United States was recognized, it became absolutely necessary to find some way in which trade with them might still be carried on, not only by Great Britain but by our remaining Colonies, especially the British West Indies, whose dependence upon the North American Continent was in many respects absolute. The process of finding a *modus vivendi* was marked by a long series of regulations and impositions on the part of either side, always countered by retaliatory measures on the other, and it was not until 1830 that something like a definite agreement was reached, by which American ships were enabled to import into British possessions abroad any produce of the United States, and to export goods from those possessions to any foreign country. They were also admitted to participation in the export trade from the United Kingdom to India. The repeal of the Navigation Law was bewailed by many of the shipowners as heralding the downfall of British shipping; but their gloomy prognostications were happily contradicted by the course of events. The frank acceptance of foreign competition proved to be a stimulus to greater efficiency on the part of British shipowners and shipbuilders, and a successful effort was made to rival the performances of the American clippers. . . . The transition from sails to iron and steam gave an opportunity of which full advantage was taken, and the proportion of British tonnage in the trade of the United Kingdom rose from 65 per cent in 1850 to over 68 per cent in 1870 twenty years after the repeal of the Acts."—D. S. Holdsworth, *Navigation Acts (Edinburgh Review, July-Oct., 1918)*.

Aerial. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1918-1921: Aerial law.

In warfare. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

Provisions in Treaty of Versailles. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part XII: Section I.

NAVIGATORS' ISLANDS, former name of the Samoan islands. See SAMOA; POLYNESIA.

NAVY: Australian. See AUSTRALIA: 1903-1913.

Austrian.—Program of construction. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: Italian and Austrian programs.

British.—Spanish Armada.—Use of dreadnoughts.—Creation of mobilization department.—Two power standard.—Distribution and mobilization at outbreak of World War.—Strength in South American waters. See ENGLAND: 1588: Spanish Armada; 1914 (July-August); WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1000-1015; 1006-1009; 1000: British navy war council; WORLD WAR: 1014: IX. Naval operations: a; f, 3; 1916: IX. Naval operations: a.

Chilean.—Development. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: Chilean navy building.

French.—Changes in 1909.—Naval program. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1900-1915; 1909-1910: French naval program.

German.—Enlargement.—Naval program.—Navy league.—Strength at beginning of World War. See GERMANY: 1800-1914: Growth of the army; 1808-1914; WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1000-1915; 1909: German side of navy building; WORLD

WAR: Causes: Indirect: j, 2; Diplomatic background: 71, xvii; 71, xviii.

Italian.—Program of construction.—Operations in World War. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1900-1915; 1909: Italian and Austrian programs; WORLD WAR: 1018: IX. Naval operations.

Japanese.—Development. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1900-1915.

United States.—Beginnings.—Jefferson's gunboat fleet.—First successes. See U.S.A.: 1775-1776; 1804-1805: Jefferson's plans of national defense; 1812-1813: Indifference to the navy.

Organization of revenue-cutter service. See REVENUE-CUTTER SERVICE, UNITED STATES.

Cruise around the world. See U.S.A.: 1907-1909.

Use of flying boats, seaplanes and submarines. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1900-1915; AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service; 1910-1920; 1921; SUBMARINES: 1896; 1900-1918; MARINE CORPS.

See also WARSHIPS.

NAVY, Laws of. See NAVAL LAW.

NAVY DEPARTMENT, United States: Origin under John Adams.—Struggle to create a department.—Act passed by Congress, 1798.—Precedent set for department heads to enter cabinet.—“On April 30, 1798, on the eve of probable war with France, President John Adams approved and signed a bill formulated for the purpose of establishing an executive department to be called the Department of the Navy. . . . On February 7, 1781, Congress adopted a plan which provided for the establishment of a Secretary of Marine, and prescribed that officer's duties. . . . In the summer of 1781 three committees tried at different times to solve the administrative problems involved in the naval situation. Late in August the third committee adopted a makeshift policy, agreeing ‘that for the present an agent of marine be appointed, with authority to direct, fit out, equip, and employ the ships and vessels of war belonging to the United States, according to such instructions as he shall, from time to time, receive from Congress.’ . . . Robert Morris, Superintendent of Finance, was asked by Congress to assume all the powers and duties of the office ‘until an agent of marine be appointed by Congress.’ . . . In 1786 the Congress of the Confederation, stirred by the news of the depredations of the Mediterranean corsairs on American shipping, went on record to the effect that ‘it is proper and expedient for the federal government to turn their earliest attention to the Marine Department, and that a committee be appointed to frame and report an ordinance for organizing the same.’ . . . Congress determined in 1780 to place such naval business as there might be directly in charge of the Secretary of War. . . . In 1790 the Secretary of War, General Knox, was considering the possibility of getting together some armed vessels of war for the uses of the government. Early in January, 1791, the Senate, enlightened by Jefferson, Secretary of State, as to the conditions of Mediterranean trade, resolved ‘that the trade of the United States to the Mediterranean cannot be protected but by a naval force; and that it will be proper to resort to the same as soon as the state of the public finances will admit.’ Nothing came of this suggestion. . . . In Washington's last annual message there was a memorable passage in this connection, in which the President dwelt on the desirability of building up a navy. ‘To an active external commerce,’ he wrote, ‘the protection of a naval force is indispensable. . . . To secure respect to a neutral flag requires a naval force organized and ready

to vindicate it from insult or aggression. . . . These considerations,' he concluded, 'invite the United States to look to the means, and to set about the gradual creation of a navy.' . . . John Adams's administration opened in March, 1797. From 1794, when navy business first assumed vital importance, to May, 1798, three Secretaries of War endeavored successively to manage that business in consultation with Presidents Washington and Adams. . . . In his first message addressed to the special session of Congress—a message dated May 16, 1797—President Adams, calling attention to the growing interest in commerce, spoke urgently of the need of establishing a permanent system of naval defence. The sentiments of Adams were in accord with Washington's well-known views, and likewise with those of many less distinguished members of the Federalist party. They were expressed only six days after the frigate *United States* was launched at Philadelphia, but before any one of the three vessels was equipped for service. On July 1 following, Congress was moved to authorize the President to man and employ these vessels, and thus . . . really committed the country to a naval establishment. In accordance with this July law, the navy was to be governed by the rules and regulations of the old Revolutionary navy. . . . On November 22 Adams once more urged on Congress the need of protecting American commerce and of looking after the interests of seafaring citizens as well as those of others. In the following March, moved by the increasing danger of war with France, . . . Congress prepared to act. On March 8, 1798, a committee of the House of Representatives reported in favor of a commissioner of marine in the War Department 'who should be employed in the immediate superintendence of the naval concerns of the United States.' A fortnight later, . . . McHenry proposed separating the naval business from that of the War Department. . . . On Monday, April 2, Senator William Bingham of Pennsylvania made a motion favoring the appointment of a committee 'to take into consideration the propriety of instituting a separate executive department, for the purpose of superintending and regulating the various objects connected with the Naval Establishment of the United States.' In accordance with this motion a committee of three . . . reported a bill to the Senate on April 11. [This was] . . . signed by President Adams on April 30. . . . The Secretary of the Navy was the first official since 1789 who became a member of the President's Cabinet. In the debates in Congress over the establishment of the new executive department it was assumed . . . that the official at its head would become a counsellor. . . . There is one aspect of the establishment of the Secretaryship that should not be overlooked. The office developed naturally out of the necessity of differentiating the administrative tasks which were burdening the War Department. There was no popular demand for it. It had to be forced into being—extracted from a Congress that contained both hostile and inert elements—by a few leaders who appreciated the more immediate needs of the government, and saw in the future the possibilities of a disastrous war as affecting a steadily increasing commerce. The larger aspects of the problem were set forth—as they should have been—by both Washington and John Adams. These men, with the aid of their administrative assistants and certain enlightened members of Congress, after some years of effort, brought about the act of 1798."—H. B. Learned, *President's cabinet*, pp. 199, 201-202, 204, 206-207, 209-213, 215, 217-218.

System since 1842.—"The method of naval administration . . . in force in the United States is the outcome of a gradual development. . . . The Navy Department . . . reached its present constitution in 1842. Since then it has remained fixed in fundamental principles; but has been subject, necessarily, to occasional considerable changes of detail and adjustment, as the navy has grown with the nation's growth, and as naval science has become more complicated in its demands. . . . The general system is as follows: President being, by the Constitution, Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy, Congress has created by law the office of Secretary of the Navy, a single person, who relieves the President of the burden of details. These are of two principal kinds, namely, those that concern the operations of the fleet all over the world, in peace and in war, which is the military side of naval administration, and those that relate to the creation and preservation of material in its manifold phases—ships, guns, engines, etc.—which is the civil side. As the aggregation of duties under these two heads has been found in practice far too great for any one man to discharge, they have been again subdivided by law. For this purpose there exist side by side two systems, military and civil, the Secretary being at the head of both. . . . The eight bureaus of the Navy Department are by title as follows: Yards and Docks, Construction and Repair, Steam Engineering, Ordnance, Equipment, Supplies and Accounts, Navigation, Medicine and Surgery. . . . At a yard the ship receives on board her crew and goes into commission; to it she returns for repairs or to be laid up after a cruise. It underlies and concentrates the local activities of the several bureaus. . . . The general nature of the duties of each bureau is sufficiently apparent. . . . The essential fact to remark is that each bureau—except Yards and Docks—has a distinct and mutually independent function in each ship built and commissioned. . . . This is the essential characteristic of the United States Naval Administration, deliberately adopted in 1842 to insure efficiency and responsibility, after long trial of a different system."—A. T. Mahan, *Navy Department* (*Scribner's Magazine*, May, 1903).—During the Civil War the work of directing the navy was unexpectedly increased and confused by the necessity of having a greatly enlarged number of ships, officers and seamen. In this period the number of naval ships was advanced from 90 to 670; the number of officers was increased from 1300 to 6700, and the seamen from 7500 to 51,500. The Navy Department built two hundred war vessels and bought three hundred. The architecture of these vessels was changing at this time. Iron was supplanting wood as a material of construction and the sails were being replaced by steam-engines. At the opening of the war the ship-sailing naval vessels numbered one half; by the close four-fifths of them were steamers, of which many were ironclads. Monitors, as well as the modern style of war-vessels were introduced at this time. "During the first few months of the civil war the defects of the administrative system of the navy department attracted widespread attention. The weakness of the secretary's office as a directing and unifying force was remedied in part by the creation of the office of assistant secretary of the navy. . . . In 1863 a 'permanent commission' was appointed to report on all questions relating to science upon which professional boards, such as the 'ironclad board,' the 'harbor commission,' and the 'board on plans and designs for the new vessels,' were also created as circumstances demanded. . . .

Secretary William C. Whitney, in his annual report of 1885, frankly admitted the 'universal dissatisfaction' with the inner workings of the navy department. . . . 'The country has expended since July 1, 1868, over seventy-five millions of money on the construction, repair, equipment, and ordnance of vessels, which sum, with a very slight exception, has been substantially thrown away.' . . . Four years later we read Secretary Tracy voicing a similar complaint that the entire organization of the department was 'without system or coherence.' When the war with Spain broke out, the navy department, for the fourth time, found itself with no organization for the strategic control of its fleets, the bureaus being fully engrossed with their own administrative work. Accordingly, the so-called naval strategy board was extemporized to study the strategic situation and to offer sound military advice upon current affairs to the secretary of the navy and to the President as constitutional commander-in-chief. . . . The acts of March 3, 1915, and August 29, 1916, which established the office of naval operations, have paved the way for . . . coördination in the department through the creation of a constituted military organ, senior to the existing administrative civil bureaus, and responsible for the preparation of the navy for war. The military branch of the department has been brought to the fore. But the prerogatives of the chiefs of the several civil bureaus granted by the act of August 21, 1842, unfortunately still prevail. . . . The spirit of our government requires that a civilian shall be at the head of the navy department. That is as it should be. But in this very lack of permanent tenure by the secretary himself lies one of the weaknesses of our system."—R. W. Neeser, *Department of the Navy*, pp. 61-64, 74-75.—See also WAR DEPARTMENT, UNITED STATES.

ALSO IN: C. O. Paullin, *Early naval administration under the constitution (Proceedings of the United States Naval Institute, Sept., 1906, pp. 1001-1030)*.—J. D. Long, *New American navy*.—J. R. Spears, *History of our navy*.—A. T. Mahan, *Interest of America in international conditions*.—T. G. Frothingham, *American naval building program (Fortnightly Review, Mar., 1921)*.

Increase in navy. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1914-1916.

Controversy between Admiral Sims and Secretary Daniels regarding inefficiency. See U.S.A.: 1920: Controversy between Admiral Sims and Secretary Daniels.

Defeat of Appropriations Bill. See U.S.A.: 1921 (January-February).

NAVY LEAGUE, Germany, established in 1898. See GERMANY: 1898-1914.

NAVY YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION. See YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: World War activities: 1917-1919: Navy Y. M. C. A.

NAWAB. See NABOB.

NAXOS, island in the Ægean sea. It is the largest in the group of the Cyclades, Greece, and is 163 square miles in area.

B. C. 502.—Revolt against Persia. See PERSIA: B. C. 521-493.

B. C. 490.—Destruction by Persians. See GREECE: B. C. 490.

B. C. 466.—Revolt from Delian Confederacy.—Subjugation by Athens. See ATHENS: B. C. 466-454.

B. C. 376.—Battle between Spartans and Athenians.—A battle was fought in September, 376 B. C., off Naxos, between a Lacedæmonian fleet of sixty triremes and an Athenian fleet of

eighty. Forty-nine of the former were disabled or captured. "This was the first great victory . . . which the Athenians had gained at sea since the Peloponnesian war."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 77.

1204-1567.—Medieval dukedom.—"In the partition of the [Byzantine] empire [after the conquest of Constantinople, in 1204, by the Crusaders and the Venetians], the twelve islands of the Archipelago, which had formed the theme of the Ægean sea in the provincial division of the Byzantine empire, fell to the share of the crusading barons; but Mark Sanudo, one of the most influential of the Venetian nobles in the expedition, obtained possession of the principal part of the ancient theme—though whether by purchase from the Frank barons to whom it had been allotted, or by grant to himself from the emperor, is not known. Sanudo, however, made his appearance at the parliament of Ravenika as one of the great feudatories of the empire of Romania, and was invested by the emperor Henry with the title of Duke of the Archipelago, or Naxos. It is difficult to say on what precise footing Sanudo placed his relations with the republic. His conduct in the war of Crete shows that he ventured to act as a baron of Romania, or an independent prince, when he thought his personal interests at variance with his born allegiance to Venice. . . . The new duke and his successors were compelled by their position to acknowledge themselves, in some degree, vassals both of the empire of Romania and of the republic of Venice; yet they acted as sovereign princes. [Nearly at the close of the fourteenth century the dukedom passed from the Sanudo family to the Crispo family, who reigned under the protection of Venice until 1537, when the Duke of Naxos was reduced to vassalage by the Turkish sultan Suleiman. Thirty years later, his title and authority were extinguished by the sultan, on the petition of the Greek inhabitants, who could not endure his oppressive and disgraceful government.]"—G. Finlay, *History of Greece from its conquest by the Crusaders*, ch. 10, sect. 1-3.—See also SICILY: Phœnician and Greek colonies; GREECE: Map of Ancient Greece.

ALSO IN: J. E. Tennent, *History of modern Greece*, ch. 3.—H. F. Tozer, *Islands of the Ægean*, ch. 4.

NAZARENE, Church of the. See CHURCH OF THE NAZARENE.

NAZARETH, town in Galilee, Palestine. It is best known as the boyhood home ascribed to Jesus in the Gospels. (See JESUS CHRIST: Baptism.) In 1922 it was a village of 9,000 inhabitants. See CHRISTIANITY: Map of Palestine in the time of Christ.

1100.—In kingdom of Jerusalem. See JERUSALEM: 1100.

1271.—Besieged by Crusaders. See CRUSADES: 1270-1271.

1918.—Attacked by British. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 16.

N. C. SEAPLANES. See AVIATION: Important flights since 1900: 1919 (May).

NEANDERTHAL MAN. See ANTHROPOLOGY: Physical; EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Neanderthal skeleton; Stone age: Mousterian.

NEAPOLIS. See NAPLES.

NEAPOLIS AND PALÆPOLIS.—"Palæopolis is mentioned only by Livy: it was an ancient Cumæan colony, the Cumæans having taken refuge there across the sea. Neapolis derives its name from being a much later settlement of different Greek tribes, and was perhaps not founded till Olymp. 91, about the time of the Athenian

expedition to Sicily, and as a fortress of the Greeks against the Sabellians. It is not impossible that the Athenians also may have had a share in it. Both towns, however, were of Chalcidian origin and formed one united state, which at that time may have been in possession of Ischia. Many absurdities have been written about the site of Palaepolis, and most of all by Italian antiquaries. We have no data to go upon except the two statements in Livy, that Palaepolis was situated by the side of Neapolis, and that the Romans [in the second Samnite war] had pitched their camp between the two towns. The ancient Neapolis was undoubtedly situated in the centre of the modern city of Naples above the church of Sta. Rosa; the coast is now considerably advanced. People have sought for Palaepolis likewise within the compass of the modern city. . . . I alone should never have discovered its true site, but my friend, the Count de Serre, a French statesman, who in his early life had been in the army and had thus acquired a quick and certain military eye, discovered it in a walk which I took with him. The town was situated on the outer side of Mount Posilipo, where the quarantine now is."—B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on the history of Rome*, v. 1, lect. 40.—"Parthenopé was an ancient Greek colony founded by the Chalcidians of Cuma on the northern part of the Bay of Naples. In after years another city sprung up a little to the south, whence the original Parthenopé was called Palaepolis or Old-town, while the new town took the name of Neapolis. The latter preserves its name in the modern Naples. [Palaepolis was taken by the Romans, 327 B. C., at the beginning of the second Samnite War, and is heard of no more. Neapolis made peace with them and lived.]"—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 21.—See also TEMENITES.

NEAR EAST CONFERENCE (1921). See DARDANELLES: 1920; TURKEY: 1921 (March-April): Secret treaties.

NEAR EAST, or LAUSANNE, CONFERENCE (1922-1923).—With a view to settling the Greco-Turkish crisis in Eastern Europe and Asia Minor, the representatives of France, Great Britain and Italy (M. Poincaré, Lord Curzon and Count Sforza) despatched a note from Paris in September, 1922, calling for a conference at Lausanne. The United States government designated as "chief observers" the American ambassador at Rome, Richard Washburn Child, the American minister to Switzerland, Joseph C. Grew, and the American high commissioner at Constantinople, Rear-Admiral Mark C. Bristol, as "associated observer." These officials were charged with the duty of protecting capitulations essential to safeguarding non-Moslem interests, freedom of the Straits (Dardanelles and Bosphorus), and racial minorities. The conference opened on November 20, 1922. The settlement to be effected rested between Great Britain, France, Italy and Greece on the one part, and the new Turkish Nationalist government on the other. "Among the serried ranks of officials [at the opening] stood Premier Poincaré . . . Lord Curzon, Venizelos, Stambulisky, the peasant Premier of Bulgaria, come to secure for his country, if possible, an outlet on the Aegean; Baron Hayashi, Ismet Pasha, the Turkish Generalissimo, surrounded by his Turkish colleagues; and Mussolini, the Premier of Italy to-day through a revolutionary coup d'état. . . . A formal protest against the presence of Americans at the conference made by the Turkish delegation at the second session was withdrawn on the intervention of Lord Curzon. No Russians were present, owing

to the allied insistence that the Russian delegation be admitted to the conference only when the question of the status of the Turkish straits came up. . . . The opening session lasted only seventeen minutes, and the proceedings were formal. The second session (on November 21) was marked first by a partial agreement of England, France and Italy on the program of peace with Turkey; second, an initial clash with the Turkish delegation, and, third, the organization of committees and a decision against publicity. The program agreed upon had fifteen points, covering the following ground: 1. Western Thrace—The Greek *status quo* is in general maintained, and the Turkish demand for a plebiscite is refused. 2. The Frontier of Western Thrace—To be ceded by Turkey to Bulgaria in 1915, with the possibility of an outlet to the Aegean for the Bulgars. 3. Freedom of the Straits—The principle is accepted by all the Allies; the means by which it is to be secured are to be discussed later, the Allies insisting that certain regions of the Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmora and the Dardanelles be demilitarized under conditions to be determined. 4. The capitulations as such are to be abandoned and replaced by special laws and other provisions to be proposed. 5. The Aegean Islands—To be ceded by Turkey to the Allies for their disposition. 6. The Frontiers of Syria and Irak—To be maintained except so far as the mandatory powers may consent to local rectifications. 7. Mandated Territories—No changes to be admitted. 8. Allied Graves—The ownership of the soil to be transferred to the Allies. 9. Indemnities—A Turkish indemnity to be demanded, as provided by the allied resolutions of March, 1922, the amount to be fixed by the Allies; the Turkish demand for an indemnity from Greece to be refused. 10. The Mudania Convention—To be strictly enforced, and all Turkish violations of it to be resisted. 11. The Constantinople Situation—No withdrawal of the allied troops before complete ratification of the new treaty with Turkey. 12. The Protection of Minorities—With regard to minorities in Asia, adherence as far as possible to the September resolutions; much stricter conditions for minorities in European Turkey. 13. The Turkish Army—General terms for the Turkish Army in Asia not to be strict, but stricter limitation to be put upon the forces in Europe, the figures to be fixed later. 14. Financial Clauses—To be arranged in discussion among the allied experts. 15. Economic Clauses—Insistence upon recognition by the Turkish Government of allied concessions and annulment of the Turkish repudiation of contracts made since the armistice of 1918."—*New York Times Current History*, Jan., 1923, pp. 531-532.—Several objections raised by the Turks were defeated. Three committees were appointed, and on November 22 the first question that came up was the Turkish demand for the holding of a plebiscite in Western Thrace, still occupied by Greece. "A certain measure of agreement was obtained, but on other questions the Turks were unyielding. At last, despairing of any adequate results from a protraction of the negotiations, the Allies put forward such terms as they felt able to concede in the form of a draft treaty and presented it to the Turks. . . . After four days of informal discussion between the heads of the delegations of the inviting Powers and Ismet Pasha, the Turks accepted the whole draft treaty as modified by the offers made during these discussions, except on two points, the judicial guarantees for foreigners in Turkey and the economic clauses of the treaty. Finally, after every effort had been made to overcome

their refusal on these points, the Turkish plenipotentiaries refused, on February 4, [1923] to sign the treaty."—*Lausanne conference (Round Table, Mar., 1923, p. 343)*.—"For ten weeks the Lausanne Conference kept on the lines in spite of the violent jerks which disturbed its course.

When the treaty was finally drawn up and ready for presentation, it looked as if the Allied front might hold. Then occurred an amazing stroke of French diplomacy. It was the second act of shortsightedness perpetrated by the French Government within a month. At the eleventh hour M. Poincaré again fell to the temptation of a separate flirtation with Angora. Behind the back of Lord Curzon and even of the French delegation at Lausanne, he informed Angora that he would not regard the Allied draft to be presented to Ismet as a final draft, and broadly hinted that France would be prepared to carry on further negotiations, separately or otherwise, at Lausanne or elsewhere, if that draft were rejected. . . . The Lausanne Conference broke up and the gaps left in the treaty for the signatures and for the date of signature was left unfilled."—G. Glasgow, *Foreign affairs (Contemporary Review, Mar., 1923, pp. 373-374)*.

Towards the end of March a group of Allied diplomats sat in London to consider the counter-proposals presented by the Turks. The Allied conferees agreed on an answer to the effect that troops could not be withdrawn from Turkish territory until the Treaty was ratified, but that indemnities between Greeks and Turks could be decided later by a neutral commission; separation of economic matters was considered inadmissible, together with modification of judicial clauses and retrocession of Castoriza Island. On March 29 it was announced that negotiations would be resumed at Lausanne some time between April 15 and 20. The second conference opened on April 22. By May 15 some progress had been made by mutual concessions, though the problem of Greco-Turkish reparations remained unsolved until towards the end of the month. Concessions to foreigners were ratified by private agreements in June, and on July 8 it was announced that, after three months of negotiations, an agreement in principle had been arrived at on the three outstanding questions—the Ottoman Debt, concessions and evacuations of Allied troops. The treaty, composed of 143 articles, was signed by Ismet Pasha on July 24.

NEAR EAST RELIEF. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: Near East Relief.

NEAR EASTERN AFFAIRS, Division of. See STATE, DEPARTMENT OF, THE UNITED STATES: 1909-1913.

NEAR EASTERN QUESTION. See EASTERN QUESTION.

NEBO, or Nabu, one of principal gods of Babylonians and Assyrians. See BABYLONIA: Religion.

NEBRASKA: Area. — Population. — Resources.—Nebraska lies in the center of the North American continent, bounded on the north by South Dakota, on the east by Iowa and Missouri; on the south by Kansas and Colorado, and on the west by Colorado and Wyoming. It has an area of 77,280 square miles, or 50,000,000 acres of very fine agricultural land. In 1920 the population numbered 1,206,372. "The general surface of the country is that of rolling prairie divided into upland and bottom lands; first lying on the ridges or divides, as they are called, and the latter fringing the innumerable streams, by which the State is everywhere crossed and intersected, watering every portion in the greatest profusion. Along the Missouri river the land rises abruptly in bluffs

from 50 to 100 feet in height, from which it stretches westward in long waves of hill and dale, just enough of roll in it to break the monotony, and not too much to injure it for cultivation. . . . Coal is found in the southern and southwestern counties, . . . the quality of which is very superior, while the quantity is supposed to be inexhaustible. . . . Clay for brick is plenty everywhere while the more uncommon kinds such as pipe clay, potter's clay, fire brick clay, etc., are found in various localities. Lime may be had for the burning as the country abounds in limestone formations and ledges, while chalk, shales, etc., are found in sufficient quantities to supply the demand for home consumption. . . . The principal rock of the country is blue and white limestone and sandstones of various kinds and colors, some of which are highly ornamental and susceptible of fine polish. . . . In salt deposits this State has no superior east of the Rocky Mountains. . . . The soil of Nebraska is a dark vegetable mold impregnated with lime varying from two to six feet deep and of inexhaustible richness and fertility."—G. S. Alexander, *Nebraska: Its resources, prospects, and advantages of immigration (pamphlet), pp. 3, 8*.—Nebraska has very little mineral production. There is some pumice, and crude potash. Originally trees were rare in that locality. Now there have been established forest reserves, and the government has done a great deal of tree planting. Agriculture is the chief source of state wealth. Nebraska is one of the leading states in grain, sugar beets, and cattle, and ranks first in the production of prairie hay and grass. Manufacturing is increasing. (See U. S. A.: Economic Map.) In 1922, the manufacturing industries were chiefly connected with the agricultural produce of the state. Other industries are: soap, candles, printing and publishing, brick and tile, linseed oil, beet sugar, smelting works, slaughtering and packing.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See PAWNEE FAMILY.

1541-1854.—Early explorers.—Indian treaty.—

The first white man to visit Nebraska was the Spanish General Coronado in 1541. In 1763 France yielded the territory to Spain, and thirty-eight years later it was ceded back to France. But not until 1820 was the first fur trading post established, by the French at Bellevue, and the next year posts were opened also at Omaha and Nebraska City. "For a long time [after the Louisiana Purchase] but little was known of this country. Now and then a wandering Indian trader or trapper might be found. Government had military outposts here and there. Lewis and Clarke and Fremont had crossed it on their Rocky Mountain explorations [1804-1806]. The Mormon hordes had dragged their trail over its grassy plains on their hegira to Salt Lake in '47 and '48; but up to the year 1840, when the tide of overland emigration to California set in, it had practically remained a *terre incognita* to civilization. . . . In the fall of 1854, a treaty was made with the Otoes and Omahas, two Indian tribes claiming the domain, and the country was formally opened up to occupation and settlement."—G. S. Alexander, *Nebraska: Its resources, prospects, and advantages (pamphlet), pp. 4, 5*.

1803.—Included in Louisiana Purchase. See LOUISIANA: 1708-1803.

1853-1854.—Kansas-Nebraska Bill.—Proposed railway to Pacific. See U. S. A.: 1853-1854.

1854-1867.—Created a territory.—Part played in Civil War.—Railroads.—Admitted as a state.—"The organic Act of Congress, which constituted Nebraska a territory, and opened the public lands to settlement, was approved on May 30, 1854.

The territory of Nebraska covered an enormous region. Its area comprised 351,558 square miles. . . . In 1861 Colorado and Dakota were constituted, the first obtaining 16,035 square miles from Utah and Washington territories and on the south-west slope of the Rocky Mountains. . . . In 1863 . . . the territory of Idaho was formed, taking 45,999 square miles from Nebraska. . . . The tract of bluff land immediately west of the Missouri was first occupied for about ten miles inland. . . . There was gradual steady growth along the river. Towns were founded and flourished; and the land brought under cultivation made fertile farms. . . . The next stage in Nebraska's progress, however, dates from the rush to Cherry Creek—better known as the Pike's Peak expeditions of 1859 and 1860. Cherry Creek is within a few miles of what is now Denver City. Gold had been discovered there, and in the neighbouring gulches; and the whole country—east and north and south—was moved to dig for it. . . . This gold-seeking movement bruited abroad the fame of Nebraska as an agricultural country. Some of the voyageurs stopped by the way, and opened up farms. Some others, whose expectations came to nothing in the gold country, returned in a style of rough comfort as good as that in which they went out. . . . In the meantime . . . the civil war broke out; and, simultaneously therewith, Indian troubles, Nebraska raised two regiments. One did good service against the Confederacy; the other effectually disposed of the Indians who had harassed the frontier. In the year 1862, Congress passed the first of the Pacific Railroad Acts; and in 1863 the Union Pacific Railroad Company was organized. . . . Other railways of more or less importance have also sprung into existence. . . . Early in 1866 the legislature of the territory devised a constitution which was duly ratified by the people; and on July 4th in that year the legislature elected under the constitution met at Omaha. On July 28th Congress passed a bill for the admission of Nebraska as a State, but the President refused to sign it. In 1867, in January, Congress passed a similar bill, and again it was vetoed by the President, as was alleged because the bill contained provisions different from those in the Enabling Act; because the proceedings, in forming the constitution, were alleged to be irregular; and because the President held the population of the territory not large enough to form a State. Congress this time, however, defeated the President, passing the bill over his veto by 30 to 9 in the Senate, and 120 to 44 in the House. . . . This ratification was made by the legislature of Nebraska on February 20th, 1867, and the fact was proclaimed by the President of the United States on March 1st, 1867."—E. A. Curley, *Nebraska, its advantages, resources, and drawbacks*, pp. 100-108.

1863-1921.—**Railroad and agricultural development.—Droughts.**—"The railroads of Nebraska pay into the several treasuries of the state nearly one-sixth of all the taxes paid, and they . . . have been the most potential factor in its development and in multiplying many times the value of its fertile acres. Preceding the commencement of the construction of the two great systems of railroads in Nebraska [1863], the territory which they traverse was popularly supposed to be practically uninhabitable as an agricultural country; but the far-sighted, sanguine men who invaded the territory and risked their capital in railroad construction, was further than the men whose judgment pronounced the country an arid waste. They found here a fertile soil and a genial climate, that gave promise of a rich field for the agriculturist

and stock man. . . . During the almost total failure of crops in western Nebraska, in 1880, and again in 1893, and 1894, the railroads voluntarily came to the relief of the sufferers by furnishing free transportation to thousands of the citizens of the drouth-stricken localities, who came to the eastern part of the state, or went to other states in search of employment, and to the numerous agents of different localities who went east to solicit aid from their more fortunate brethren; and in one year, more than a quarter of a million dollars in freight charges was rebated to the people of the western part of this state in seed grain, and feed for teams, and other stock and relief goods."—D. H. Ager, *Nebraska politics and Nebraska railroads* (*Collections of Nebraska State Historical Society*, v. 15, pp. 35, 38).—In 1921, there were 6,166 miles of steam railway and 256 miles of electric railway track in the state.

1874-1880.—**Grasshopper invasions.—Farmers' alliance.**—"Grasshoppers invaded the state and did great injury to the crops in 1874. They remained during 1875 and 1876, but most of the damage was done in 1874 and 1875. In the early part of 1875 the federal congress appropriated \$30,000 in money for the purchase of seeds and rations, and clothing to the value of \$150,000 to be distributed among the people of the several states who had suffered."—A. Watkins, *Outlines of Nebraska history*, p. 15.—"The first aim of the society [the Farmers' Alliance] throughout the Northwest was to unite the farmers for the purpose of discussing and advocating certain principles of industrial and political reform. . . . The first alliance organized in Nebraska was formed near Filley, in Gage county, in the year 1880."—J. M. Thompson, *Farmers' Alliance in Nebraska* (*Nebraska State Historical Society Transactions*, v. 5, 2d series, p. 199).

1890-1910.—**Political changes.**—"Until 1890 Republicans held firmly to power, but that year James E. Boyd, Democrat, was elected governor. . . . At the same election William J. Bryan, Democrat; William A. McKeighan, Independent Democrat; and Omer M. Kem, Independent, were chosen for members of Congress. The Senate of 1891 comprised 18 Independents, 8 Democrats and 7 Republicans; the House of Representatives, 54 Independents, 25 Democrats, and 21 Republicans. This legislature passed the first Australian ballot law and a law materially reducing railroad rates for transportation of freight. In 1892 Lorenzo Crownse, Republican, was elected governor. In 1893 the legislature elected William V. Allen, Populist, United States Senator. In 1894 Silas A. Holcomb was elected governor by a fusion of the Democratic and People's Independent parties. . . . All of the Republican candidates for other state offices were elected. Five of the six members of Congress elected this year were Republicans. The entire fusion state ticket was elected in 1896 and 1898. The Republican party again came into control in the legislature of 1895. In 1900 the Republican state ticket was elected, and the Republican party continued to control the executive and legislative departments until 1908 when Ashton C. Shallenberger, Democrat, was elected governor by a plurality of about 7,000 votes, and the legislature was democratic. In 1910 all of the Republican candidates for executive offices were elected; but the legislature was democratic and Gilbert M. Hitchcock, Democrat, was elected United States Senator. William J. Bryan, candidate for president of the United States, carried the state by a plurality of about 13,000 votes in 1896 and in 1908 by a plurality of about 4,000

votes."—A. Watkins, *Outline of Nebraska history*, p. 43.

1907.—Minimum wage law passed. See LABOR REMUNERATION: 1910-1920.

1911-1917.—Home rule.—Vocational education.—Workmen's Compensation Act.—Commission government was adopted by Omaha in 1911, following the Des Moines plan very closely; the Sixteenth Federal Amendment (income tax) was ratified the same year. In 1912, amendments to the state constitution provided for initiative and referendum (see INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States), election of judges of the supreme court, home rule in cities of 5000 population or over, and also gave certain high schools the right to introduce industrial and agricultural studies. The Seventeenth Federal Amendment providing for direct election of senators was ratified in 1913. The Workmen's Compensation Act was referred to the people and adopted in 1914. The Woman Suffrage Act was passed in 1917, giving women the right to vote in all cases not provided for in the constitution.

1913.—Industrial arbitration board created. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920.

1917-1918.—Resources developed during World War.—Part played in World War.—When the World War began, 1917, the supply of German potash was cut off, but within a year of that time Nebraska scientists had opened up new sources. Valuable salts were found to exist in some of the lakes of the state. Business men at once began mining them, and Nebraska became one of the chief potash producing states in America. In 1918, the state furnished 47,805 soldiers or 1.27 per cent of the whole army.

1919.—Reorganization of state government.—Constitutional convention.—In the spring of 1919 the governor put through the legislature a scheme merging twenty boards and commissions into six—namely, a department of finance, a department of agriculture, a department of trade and commerce, a department of labor, a department of public works, and a department of public welfare. The secretary at the head of each division of the government receives a salary of \$5,000 a year.—"In Nebraska and Illinois delegates to constitutional conventions were chosen at the November elections. In the former state the Non-Partisan League made a strenuous campaign. Twenty avowed league candidates and thirty-five radical candidates entered the campaign, but only four leaguers and seventeen radicals were elected. The conservatives numbered about eighty. The Nebraska convention convened at Lincoln on December 2 and after seventy-four days of deliberation adopted forty-one amendments. The most important of these provide: that the legislature may allow verdicts to be rendered in civil cases in any court by five-sixths of the jury; that it may regulate the rights of aliens in respect to the acquisition, ownership, enjoyment or descent of property; that the English language be the medium of instruction in all common schools; that the number of petitioners required to invoke the initiative and referendum be reduced; that new executive officers be created only by a two-thirds vote of both houses of the legislature; that the heads of executive departments established by law be appointed by the governor with the consent of a majority of the senate and the house of representatives in joint session; that the governor present a 'complete itemized budget of the financial requirements of all departments, institutions and agencies of the state,' the legislature to

reduce items and to increase them only by a three-fifths vote, these increases not to be subject to the governor's veto; that the power of judicial review be restricted by requiring five of the seven judges of the supreme court to concur in declaring a legislative enactment unconstitutional; and that no appropriations be made to sectarian or denominational schools or to any educational institution not exclusively owned and controlled by the state."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*, pp. 71-73.

1919-1920.—Prohibition and woman's suffrage.—Judicial reforms.—The Eighteenth Federal Amendment (prohibition) and the Nineteenth (woman's suffrage) were ratified. A special election in 1920, ratified many amendments which had been proposed to the state constitution, chief of which were the proposals authorizing five-sixths jury verdicts in civil cases, permitting regulation by law of the property rights of aliens, declaring English the official language of the state and requiring common school branches to be taught in the same. Another important amendment that carried by a large majority was that which continues the present state officers, but provides for a budget and a board of pardons. The power of judicial review was restricted. Amendment 23 prohibited state aid to sectarian institutions.

1920-1921.—New constitutional taxes.—Voting privileges.—The new constitution adopted September, 1920, provides that taxes shall be levied by valuation uniform and proportionately upon all tangible property and franchises, and taxes uniform as to class, may be levied by valuation upon all other property. Taxes other than property taxes may be authorized by law. The only exemptions from taxation is "household goods to the value of \$200.00 to each family." Nebraska places a tax of four mills on the dollar of the gross earnings of building and loan associations. This constitution provides also for a re-assessment by the state board of any local assessing district in case of any undervaluation by the local officers. In 1920, for the first time, the presidential ballot eliminated from the ballot the names of the candidates for electors. The names of the candidates of each party for president and vice-president were printed on the ballot enclosed in a bracket with a square or circle at the left. The Nebraska law provides that the Governor shall appoint as electors of president and vice-president, those persons selected in the preceding delegate state convention, by the political party whose candidates for president and vice-president received the highest number of votes at the general election. By the laws of 1921, only United States citizens are permitted to vote. The changes permit the voter who expects to be absent from the county where he resides, on election day, to vote by mail for all offices for which the election is held.

ALSO IN: Secretary of the Interior, *Report for 1872*, p. 391 ff.—*Nebraska State Historical Society, Transactions*, v. 2, pp. 100-102.—*Bureau of Ethnology, Fourteenth Annual Report*, pt. 1.—*Senate documents*, 2d session, 21st Congress, Doc. 30, pp. 21-23.—C. H. Cere, *Admission of Nebraska into the Union*.—A. E. Seldon, *Semi-centennial history of Nebraska*.—R. P. Crawford, *Potash from sand—Hill lakes* (*Scientific American*, Feb. 17, 1917).—J. A. Barrett, *History and government of Nebraska*.—O. R. Bowen, *Government of Nebraska*.—L. Gettys, *Reorganization of state government in Nebraska*.

NEBRASKAN, American steamer. It was torpedoed but not sunk by a German submarine in

the "war zone" on May 25, 1915. See U.S.A.: 1915 (May).

NEBUCHADREZZAR, or *Nebuchadnezzar*, king of Babylon, 605-562 B. C. He was the greatest ruler of the later Babylonian empire, and carried his conquests into all parts of southwestern Asia. (See PHOENICIANS: B. C. 850-538.) The immense number of beautiful structures erected under his orders made Babylon one of the world's greatest wonders. See EGYPT: B. C. 670-525; JEWS: B. C. 604-536; JERUSALEM: B. C. 976-168.

Exploration of ruins of his palace. See BABYLON: Nebuchadrezzar, etc.

NEBULAE. See ASTRONOMY: 1796-1921; Photographic astronomy.

NECESSITY, Fort, built by Washington in 1754 in the district known as Great Meadows, now the southeastern part of Fayette county, Pennsylvania. See OHIO: 1754.

NECHO, king of Egypt, 610-594 B. C. Conquered Syria as far as the Euphrates but was defeated by Nebuchadrezzar and lost all his conquests; constructed a canal from the eastern arm of the Nile to the Red sea, a precursor of the modern Suez canal. See EGYPT: B. C. 670-525.

NECKER, Jacques (1732-1804), French statesman and financier. Director-general of finances, 1777-1781; 1788-1790. See FRANCE: 1774-1788; 1789 (June); MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 18.

NECTANSMERE, Battle of (685). See SCOTLAND: 7th century.

NEELY EXTRADITION CASE. See CUBA: 1900-1901.

NEERGAARD, Niels (1854-), Danish statesman. Prime minister and minister of finance, 1920-1921. See DENMARK: 1902-1909; 1930: Dismissal of Zahle ministry; 1921: Administration of Neergaard.

NEERWINDEN, or **LANDEN**, Battles of (1693, 1793). See FRANCE: 1693 (July); 1793 (February-April).

NEFASTI.—Dies nefasti were the days on which the courts of justice in ancient Rome were closed. See FASTI.

NEGATIVE PLEAS. See EQUITY LAW: 1792; 1821.

NEGOOS, Negus, or Nagash, title of the ruler of Abyssinia. See ABYSSINIA: 15th-19th centuries.

NEGRI SEMBILAN, one of the Federated Malay States, in the southern part of the Malay peninsula, under British protection and in political connection with the Straits Settlements. In 1921 the population numbered 178,762. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: 1909-1914.

NEGRITO.—"The term Negrito, i.e. 'Little Negro,' [was] long applied by the Spaniards to the dark dwarfish tribes in the interior of Luzon, and some others of the Philippine Islands. Here it will be extended to the dwarfish negroid tribes in the Andaman Islands and interior of Malacca, but to no others."—A. H. Keane, *Philology and ethnology of the interoceanic races (appendix to Wallace's Hellwald's Australasia, sect. 4)*.—See also MALAY, MALAYSIAN, OR BROWN, RACE; PACIFIC OCEAN: People; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: People.

NEGRO FORT, fort in Florida, about fifteen miles from the mouth of the Appalachian river, built by the English during the War of 1812. It was later seized by the fugitive negro slaves. See FLORIDA: 1812-1810.

NEGRO REPUBLIC, Africa. See LIBERIA.
NEGRO SEGREGATION ORDINANCE, Baltimore (1913). See BALTIMORE: 1871-1915.

NEGROES. See AFRICA: Races of Africa: Modern peoples.

Art. See ART: Distribution.

Education. See EDUCATION: Modern; 20th century: General education: United States: Negroes; Religious bodies, etc.; Evening schools; JEANES FOUNDATION.

Missionary work among negroes. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: North America.

Music. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: United States.

Problems.—Development in the United States. —Race conflicts.—Migration to the North.—Economic and social conditions.—Difficulties in Jamaica, Africa, and New York City. See RACE PROBLEMS: Problem of mixed races; 1705-1895; 1905-1921; 1906-1921; 1909-1921; AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Labor problems; JAMAICA: 1655-1706; 1865; NEW YORK CITY: 1712; 1741; LYNCH LAW.

Religion. See CHURCHES OF GOD IN NORTH AMERICA; CHURCH OF GOD AND SAINTS OF CHRIST; BAPTISTS: Recent statistics.

Slavery: In Spanish America. See SLAVERY: 1442-1501.

In the United States.—Before and during Civil War.—Reconstruction. See SLAVERY: 1600-1755; 1638-1781; 1713-1776; 1769-1785, to 1792-1807; 1828-1832; 1840-1847, to 1860-1893; U.S.A.: 1797-1800; 1807; 1820-1832; 1831-1836; 1835; 1836; 1837-1840; 1841-1844; 1842; 1845, and after.

See also BLACK AND TAN CONVENTIONS; BLACK CODES; MISSISSIPPI: 1865-1869; 1866.

Suffrage. — Disfranchisement. — Restrictive laws affecting suffrage in southern states. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1864-1921; U.S.A.: 1867 (January); (March); 1868-1870; 1901 (January); LOUISIANA: 1898; MISSISSIPPI: 1890-1892; SOUTH CAROLINA: 1896.

Troops.—Part in Civil War. See U.S.A.: 1862 (May: South Carolina).

Work of war camp communities for negroes. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous services: IX. War relief: g, 6.

NEGROPONT.—In the middle ages, Eubœa was called Egripo, a corruption of Euripus, the name of the town built upon the ruins of Chalcis. The Venetians called it Negropont, probably a corruption of Egripo, and "ponte," a bridge.

1470.—Capture and massacre by Turks. See GREECE: 1454-1479.

1687-1688.—In campaign of Venetians against Turks. See ATHENS: 1687-1688.

NEGROS, one of the Philippine islands, north of Mindanao. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Geographical features and natural resources; Map.

1899.—First to accept American sovereignty. —Establishment of provisional government. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1899.

NEHAVEND, Battle of (641). See CALIPHATE: 632-651.

NEHEMIAH (fl. 5th century B. C.), Hebrew prophet. Appointed governor of Judea, 444 B. C. See JEWS: religion and the prophets.

NEHEMIAH, Book of, in the Old Testament. See HISTORY: 14.

NEHRWAN, Battle of (658). See KHAREJITES.
NEIDENBERG, town in East Prussia, Germany, twenty-four miles south of Königsberg. It was captured by the Germans in 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: c, 3.

NEILSON PROCESS: Smelting of iron. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry.

NEISSE, fortified city in the province of Lower Silesia, Prussia, at the junction of the Biela and Glatzer Neisse, forty-six miles south of Breslau.

1642.—Fall of. See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

1741.—Bombardment by Frederick the Great. See AUSTRIA: 1741 (October).

NEJD, region in central Arabia, bounded by El Hasa on the east and by Hedjaz on the west. It is inhabited chiefly by Wahhabis. See **ARABIA**: Political divisions; **WAHHABIS**.

NEKRASOV, Nickolai Alexeievitch (1821-1877), Russian poet. See **RUSSIAN LITERATURE**: 1855-1859.

NELSON, Horatio, Viscount (1758-1805), British admiral. Took part in a military expedition to seize the Spanish forts on the San Juan river and on Lake Nicaragua, 1780; served at the siege of Bastia in Corsica, 1794; fought in the battle off Cape St. Vincent, 1797; destroyed the French fleet in Aboukir Bay, 1798; created Baron Nelson of the Nile and of Burnham-Thorpe, 1798 and Duke of Bronte (in Sicily) 1799; became vice-admiral, and peer in 1801.

Capture of Malta. See **HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM**: 1565-1878.

Victory in Battle of the Nile. See **FRANCE**: 1798 (May-August).

Bombardment of Copenhagen. See **FRANCE**: 1801-1802.

Death at Trafalgar. See **FRANCE**: 1805 (March-December).

NELSON, Thomas (1738-1789), American patriot. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See **U.S.A.**: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

NELSON'S FARM, or **GLENDALE**, Battle of. See **U.S.A.**: 1862 (June-July: Virginia).

NEMANYA, Stefan, grand zhupan of Rashka, 1169. Founded the Serb kingdom and the royal dynasty of Nemanyich. See **SERBIA**: 1200-1321.

NEMANYA, House of, dynasty in medieval Albania and Serbia. See **ALBANIA**: Medieval period; **SERBIA**: 1200-1321.

NEMEAN AND ISTHMIAN GAMES.—"The Nemean and Isthmian [games in ancient Greece] were celebrated each twice in every Olympiad, at different seasons of the year: the former in the plain of Nemea, in Argolis, under the presidency of Argos; the latter in the Corinthian isthmus, under the presidency of Corinth. These, like the Pythian and Olympic games, claimed a very high antiquity, though the form in which they were finally established was of late institution; and it is highly probable that they were really suggested by the tradition of ancient festivals, which had served to cement an Amphictyonic confederacy."—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, ch. 10.

NEMEDIANS.—It is among the legends of the Irish that their island was settled, about the time of the patriarch Jacob, by a colony of descendants from Japhet, led by one Nemedius, from whom they and their posterity took the name of Nemedians. The Nemedians were afterwards subjugated by a host of African sea-rovers, known as Fomorians, but were delivered from these in time by a fresh colony of their kindred from the East called the Fir Bolgs.—T. Wright, *History of Ireland*, bk. 1, ch. 2.

NEMETACUM, early name of Arras, France. See **BELGE**.

NEMI, Lake of, small lake, seventeen miles southeast of Rome, Italy. Near it was the sacred grove in which were enacted ceremonies in worship of Diana. See **ARICIAN GROVE**.

NEMOURS, Treaty and Edict of (1585). See **FRANCE**: 1584-1589.

NEO-CLASSICISM: In economics. See **ECONOMICS**: 19th century: Neo-classicism.

NEODAMODES, enfranchised helots, in ancient Sparta.

NEO-GERMAN SCHOOL: In music. See **MUSIC**: Modern: 1847-1921.

NEOJEHES, North American Indian tribe. See **SIQUAN FAMILY**.

NEOLITHIC PERIOD. See **EUROPE**: Prehistoric: Stone age; Neolithic; **ALLEAN CIVILIZATION**: Neolithic age.

Art. See **ART**: Distribution.

Culture. See **AGEAN CIVILIZATION**: Minoan age; **B.C.** 1200-750.

NEOPLATONISM.—"There now [in the third century after Christ] arose another school, which from its first beginnings announced itself as a reform and support of the ancient faith, and, consequently, as an enemy of the new religion. This was the Neoplatonic school of Alexandria, founded by Ammonius Saccas and Plotinus, and which was afterwards represented by Porphyrius, Amelius, and Iamblicus. The doctrine of this school was the last, and in many respects the best production of paganism, now in its final struggle; the effort of a society, which acknowledged its own defects, to regenerate and to purify itself. Philosophy, and the religion of the vulgar, hitherto separated and irreconcilable, joined in harmony together for mutual support, and for a new existence. The Neoplatonic, endeavored, therefore, to unite the different systems of philosophy, especially the Pythagorean, Platonic, and Aristotelean, in one body with the principles of oriental learning, and thus to raise an edifice of universal, absolute truth. In the same manner they represented the varied forms of eastern and western religious worship as one entire whole, which had manifested itself indeed in different ways, but at the foundation of which there lay the same true faith. They taught that 'every kind of homage and adoration, which men offer to superior beings, is referred to heroes, demons, or Gods, but, finally, to the one most-high God, the author of all: that these demons are the chiefs and genii of the different parts, elements, and powers of the world, of people, countries, and cities, to obtain whose favour and protection, it behoved men to honour them according to the rites and customs of the ancients.' It is, therefore, manifest that these philosophers were essentially hostile to the Christian religion,—the exclusive character of which, and tendency to destroy all other religions, stood in direct contrast with their doctrines: and as their school was in its vigour at the very time in which Christianity made its most rapid advances, and had struck Paganism with a mortal wound, they employed themselves especially, and more earnestly, than other philosophers, to maintain their own tenets, and to destroy Christianity. They in no-wise, however, desired to defend heathenism, or its worship, in their then degenerate and degrading state [see **EUROPE**: Ancient Roman civilization; **Intellectual bankruptcy**, etc.]: their ideal was a more pure, more noble, spiritualized, polytheism, to establish which was the object which they had proposed to themselves. Whilst, therefore, on the one hand, they preserved the ancient and genuine truths which had sprung from primitive tradition, and purified them from recent errors and deformations; on the other, they adopted many of the doctrines of the hated Christianity, and sought to reform paganism by the aid of light which had streamed upon them from the sanctuary of the Church. This admission and employment of Christian truths are easily explained, if it be true, that two of their chiefs, Ammonius and Porphyrius, had been Christians. It is well known that they received instructions from Christian masters. . . . This uniformity, or imitation, consists not only in the use of terms, but in essential dogmas. The Neoplatonic idea of three hypostases in one Godhead would not have been heard of, if the Christian doctrine of the

Trinity had not preceded it. . . . Their doctrines respecting the minor Gods, their influence and connexion with the supreme Being, approached near to the Christian dogma of the angels. Nor is the influence of Christianity less evident in the pure and grave morality of the Neoplatonics: in their lessons which teach the purifying of fallen souls, the detachment from the senses, the crucifying . . . of the affections and passions, it is easy to distinguish the Christian, from the commingled pagan, elements. The Neoplatonics endeavoured to reform polytheism by giving to men a doctrine more pure concerning the Gods, by attributing an allegorical sense to the fables, and a moral signification to the forms and ceremonies of religion: they sought to raise the souls of men to piety, and rejected from their mythology many of the degrading narrations with which it had before abounded. It was their desire also to abolish the sacrifices, for the Gods could only abhor the slaughter, the dismemberment and the burning of animals. But at the same time they reduced to a theory the apparitions of the Gods; they declared magic to be the most divine of sciences; they taught and defended theurgy, or the art of invoking the Gods (those of an inferior order, who were united to matter), and of compelling them to comply with the desires of men."—J. J. I. Döllinger, *History of the church*, v. 1, pp. 70-73.—Neoplatonism has shown an extraordinary vitality in the history of European thought. Its essential tenets have re-appeared in new and various forms in the ideas of such men as Giordano Bruno, Spinoza, and Swedenborg. In modern times the theosophists have drawn heavily upon the old treasury of ideas in neoplatonism in their attempts to make a new synthesis between the religions of the East and the thought of the West.—See also ECLECTICISM.

ALSO IN: F. Ueberweg, *History of philosophy*, v. 1, sect. 66-70.—C. Kingsley, *Alexandria and her schools*.

Influence on Greek literature. See GREEK LITERATURE: Greco-Roman period: Lucian, etc.

NEO-SLAVISM. See SLAVS: 1830-1914.

NEPAUL, Nipal, or Nepal, country south of Tibet, on the southern slope of the Himalayas. Its former Buddhist inhabitants, the Newars, were conquered in the eighteenth century by the Ghorkas, a Rajput tribe from Cashmere, who were subjugated in turn by the British in India. In 1922 it had an estimated population of 5,600,000.—See also INDIA: 1805-1816: Map.

NEPHTHALITES, tribe of semi-civilized Huns. See HUNS, WHITE.

NEPOS, Cornelius (c. 99-24 B. C.), Roman historian. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 63-58.

NEPOS, Julius, Roman emperor (Western), 474-475. Appointed emperor of the West by Leo I. See ROME: Empire: 455-476.

NEPOTISM, Papal. See PAPACY: 1644-1667; 1676-1680.

NEPTUNE, in Roman mythology, the god of the sea, identified with the Greek Poseidon. See RELIGION: B. C. 750-A. D. 30.

NEPTUNE, outermost known planet of the solar system. It was discovered by J. C. Adams in 1846. See ADAMS, JOHN COUCH; ASTRONOMY: 1781-1846.

NERAC, Treaty of (1579). See FRANCE: 1578-1580.

NERCHINSK, Treaty of (1689). See ASIA: 1500-1000; MANCHURIA: 1680-1860.

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

NERI, Philip (Filippo de) (1515-1595), Italian ecclesiastic. Founded the Oratory in Rome, 1536;

canonized in 1622. See MUSIC: Modern: 1535-1674.

NERI AND BIANCHI (Blacks and Whites), rival political factions in Tuscany, Italy. See FLORENCE: 1295-1300; 1301-1313.

NERIGLISSAR, king of Babylonia, 559-555 B. C. See BABYLONIA: Decline of the empire.

NERO (37-68), Roman emperor, 54-68. Caused the poisoning of Britannicus in 55, and procured his mother's assassination, 59; divorced his wife, Octavia, in order to marry Poppæa, 62, and shortly afterward put Octavia to death; accused of kindling fire that destroyed a large part of Rome, 64; ordered persecution of the Christians; overthrown by a revolt under Galba, 68. See ROME: Empire: 54-64; 64-68; MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient: Rome.

NERONIA, games instituted by Nero.

NERVA, Marcus Cocceius (35-98), Roman emperor, 96-98. See ROME: Empire: 96-138.

NERVII, tribe in Belgic Gaul, at the time of Cæsar's conquest, which occupied the country "between the Sambre and the Scheldt (French and Belgic Hainaut, provinces of Southern Brabant, of Antwerp, and part of Eastern Flanders)."—Napoleon III., *History of Cæsar*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 2, footnote.—The tribe was destroyed by Cæsar. See BELGÆ; GAUL: B. C. 58-51.

NÉSLE, village south of the Somme, northern France, twelve miles south of Péronne. It was taken by the Germans in their great offensive in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: d, 8; 1918: II. Western front: c, 21; d.

NESSA, Destruction of (1220). See KHORASAN: 1220-1221.

NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY.—The great religious controversy of the Christian world in the fourth century, relating to the mystery of the Trinity, having been settled by the triumph of the doctrine of Athanasius over the doctrine of Arius, it was succeeded in the fifth century by a still more violent disputation, which concerned the yet profounder mystery of the Incarnation. To the dogmatists of one party it was wickedness to distinguish the divine nature and the human nature which they believed to be united in Christ; to the dogmatists of the other side it was sin to confound them. Cyril of Alexandria became the implacable leader of the first party. Nestorius, Patriarch of Constantinople, was forced to the front of the battle on the other side and became its martyr. The opponents of Nestorius gained advantages in the contest from the then rapidly growing tendency in the Christian world to pay divine honors to the Virgin Mary as the Mother of God. To Nestorius and those who believed with him, this was abhorrent. "Like can but bear like," said Nestorius in one of his sermons; "a human mother can only bear a human being. God was not born—he dwelt in that which was born." But the mob was too easily charmed with Mariolatry to be moved by reasoning on the subject, and Cyril led the mob, not only in Alexandria, where it murdered Hypatia and massacred Jews at his bidding, but generally throughout the Christian world. A Council called at Ephesus in 431 and recognized as the third Ecumenical Council, condemned Nestorius and degraded him from his episcopal throne; but a minority disputed its procedure and organized a rival Council, which retorted anathemas and excommunications against Cyril and his friends. The emperor at last interfered and dissolved both; but Nestorius, four years later, was exiled to the Libyan desert and persecuted remorselessly until he died. Meantime the doctrine of Cyril had been carried to another stage of development by one of his most ardent sup-

porters, the Egyptian monk Eutyches, who maintained that the human nature of Christ was absorbed in the divine nature. Both forms of the doctrine of one nature in the Son of God seem to have acquired somewhat confusedly the name of Monophysite, though the latter tenet is more often called Eutychian, from the name of its chief promulgator. It kindled new fires in the controversy. In 449, a second Council at Ephesus, which is called the "Robber Synod" on account of the peculiar violence and indecency of its proceedings, sustained the Monophysites. But two years later, in 451, the vanquished party, supported by Pope Leo the Great, at Rome, succeeded in assembling a Council at Chalcedon which laid down a definition of the Christian faith affirming the existence of two natures in one person, and which nevertheless condemned Nestorianism and Monophysitism, alike. Their success only inflamed the passions of the worshippers of the Virgin as the "Mother of God." "Everywhere monks were at the head of the religious revolution which threw off the yoke of the Council of Chalcedon." In Jerusalem "the very scenes of the Saviour's mercies ran with blood shed in his name by his ferocious self-called disciples." At Alexandria, a bishop was murdered in the baptistry of his church. At Constantinople, for sixty years, there went on a succession of bloody tumults and fierce revolutionary conspiracies which continually shook the imperial throne and disorganized every part of society, all turning upon the theological question of one nature or two in the incarnate Son of God. The Emperor Zeno "after a vain attempt to obtain the opinions of the chief ecclesiastical dignitaries, without assembling a new Council, a measure which experience had shown to exasperate rather than appease the strife, Zeno issued his famous Henoticon, or Edict of Union. . . . It aimed not at the reconciliation of the conflicting opinions, but hoped, by avoiding all expressions offensive to either party, to allow them to meet together in Christian amity." The Henoticon only multiplied the factions in number and heated the strife between them. The successor of Zeno, Anastasius, became a partisan in the fray, and through much of his reign of twenty-seven years the conflict raged more fiercely than ever. Constantinople was twice, at least, in insurrection. "The blue and green factions of the Circus—such is the language of the times—gave place to these more maddening conflicts. The hymn of the Angels in Heaven [the Trisagion] was the battle-cry on earth." At length the death of Anastasius ended the strife. His successor Justin (518), bowed to the authority of the Bishop of Rome—the Pope Hormisdas—and invoked his aid. The Eastern world, exhausted, followed generally the emperor's example in taking the orthodoxy of Rome for the orthodoxy of Christianity. Nestorianism and Monophysitism in their extreme forms were driven from the open field in the Christian world, but both survived and have transmitted their remains to the present day."—H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity*, bk. 2, ch. 3-4, bk. 3, ch. 1.—See also NESTORIANS; JACOBITE CHURCH; MONOTHELITE CONTROVERSY.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 47.—J. Alzog, *Universal church history*, 2d epoch, ch. 2.

NESTORIAN SCHOOLS. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient; 7th-11th centuries.

NESTORIANS.—"Within the limits of the Roman empire . . . this sect was rapidly extirpated by persecution [see NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY]; and even in the patriarchate of

Antioch, where, as we have seen, the tenets of Nestorius at first found greatest favour, it had disappeared as early as the time of Justinian [527-565]. But another field lay open to it in the Persian kingdom of the Sassanidae, and in this it ultimately struck its roots deeply. The Chaldaean church, which at the beginning of the fifth century was in a flourishing condition, had been founded by missionaries from Syria; its primate, or Catholicos, was dependent on the patriarch of Antioch, and in respect of language and discipline it was closely connected with the Syrian church. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that some of its members lent a ready ear to the Nestorian doctrines. This was especially the case with the church-teachers of the famous seminary at Edessa in Mesopotamia. . . . One of their number, Barsumas, who was bishop of the city of Nisibis from 435 to 489, by his long and active labours contributed most of all to the establishment of the Nestorian church in Persia. He persuaded the king Pherozes (Firuz) that the antagonism of his own sect to the doctrine of the established church of the Roman empire would prove a safeguard for Persia. . . . From that time Nestorianism became the only form of Christianity tolerated in Persia. . . . The Catholicos of Chaldea now threw off his dependence on Antioch, and assumed the title of Patriarch of Babylon. The school of Edessa, which in 489 was again broken up by the Greek emperor, Zeno, was transferred to Nisibis, and in that place continued for several centuries to be an important centre of theological learning, and especially of biblical studies. . . . In the sixth century the Nestorians had established churches from the Persian Gulf to the Caspian Sea, and had preached the Gospel to the Medes, the Bactrians, the Huns, and the Indians, and as far as the coast of Malabar and the island of Ceylon. At a later period, starting from Balk and Samarcand, they spread Christianity among the nomad Tartar tribes in the remote valleys of the Imaus; and the inscription of Siganfu, which was discovered in China, and the genuineness of which is considered to be above suspicion, describes the fortunes of the Nestorian church in that country from the first mission, 636, to the year in which that monument was set up, 781. In the ninth century, during the rule of the caliphs at Bagdad, the patriarch removed to that city, and at this period twenty-five metropolitans were subject to him. . . . From the eleventh century onwards the prosperity of the Chaldaean church declined, owing to the terrible persecutions to which its members were exposed. Foremost among these was the attack of Timour the Tartar, who almost exterminated them. Within the present century their diminished numbers have been still further thinned by frightful massacres inflicted by the Kurds. Their headquarters now are a remote and rugged valley in the mountains of Kurdistan, on the banks of the Greater Zab. . . . Beyond the boundary which separates Turkey from Persia to the southward of Mount Ararat, a similar community is settled on the shores of Lake Urumia. A still larger colony is found at Mosul, and others . . . elsewhere in the neighbourhood of the Tigris. . . . Of their widely extended missions only one fragment now remains, in the Christians of St. Thomas on the Malabar coast of India."—H. F. Tozer, *Church and the Eastern empire*, ch. 5.—See also TURKEY: Diverse peoples of the country.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 47.

NETAD, Battle of. See HUNS: 453; LOMBARDS: Early history.

NETHERLANDS

Introduction.—Under this head, the Netherlands, both the North and South, are treated jointly up to the year 1648, when the independence of the United Provinces was recognized by the Treaty of Münster (Westphalia) at the close of the Thirty Years' War. From that period the article continues the history of Holland or, more correctly, the Kingdom of the Netherlands. The southern, or Roman Catholic Netherlands, through the course of the Spanish, Austrian and French domination and its subsequent independent existence is treated under Belgium. For Spanish (after 1648) and Austrian Netherlands, therefore, see BELGIUM; LUXEMBURG.

Geographical description.—Area and population.—**Resources.**—**Origin.**—**Forest enclosure.**—“We generally call the people of Holland the Dutch, but they call their country the Netherlands and themselves Netherlanders. The name Holland properly applies only to two provinces lying west and southwest of the Zuider Zee as far as the mouths of the Rhine; North Holland is west of the Zuider Zee and contains Amsterdam, the largest town of the Netherlands [see also AMSTERDAM]; South Holland lies to the south-west of this and contains the Hague, the capital, and Rotterdam, the greatest port. The Netherlanders are closely akin to the North German peoples, and their language is one of the Teutonic group. The area of the country is very small, it is about 12,600 square miles, *i.e.* considerably less than half the size of Scotland, but it has a population of nearly seven million people. This works out to an average of nearly 550 person to the square mile, a density of population only exceeded by Belgium among the states of the continent of Europe, and nearly equal to that of England and Wales. . . . Cattle-rearing is very important in the region below sea-level, which in most parts is too damp for cultivation, even when drained. The main object of the farmers is to obtain butter and cheese, which are sent largely to London and to the German manufacturing districts. Most of the dairies are owned by co-operative societies, and the selling of farm produce in general is not carried on by the farmers, but by officers of a co-operative marketing association. The land above sea-level but below river-level is mainly between, and on either side of, the Rhine and Maas. Here there are ‘grass districts,’ hundreds of miles in extent, absolutely flat except for the river dykes and canal dykes, with few houses or villages, but everywhere the black-and-white cattle. In other parts of these river lands, crops are grown; corn, sugar-beet, potatoes, flax, beans, and onions. . . . The manufacturing industries of Holland are numerous, and although none is very large, the total is considerable. Many of them arose for some particular reason in earlier times when coal and iron were not necessary, and they still manage to exist even though these minerals are lacking in the Netherlands. A very small amount of coal is found in the extreme south, where a strip of territory near Maastricht is thrust like a peninsula between Germany and Belgium and reaches the coal-bearing edge of the Ardennes massif. . . . Some textiles are manufactured, namely cotton, woollen and linen goods.”—J. F. Unstead, *Europe of to-day*, pp. 73-76, 79.—“The north-western corner of the vast plain which extends from the German ocean to the Ural mountains is occupied by the countries called the Netherlands [Low Countries]. This small triangle, enclosed between

France, Germany, and the sea, is divided by the modern kingdoms of Belgium and Holland into two nearly equal portions. . . . Geographically and ethnographically, the Low Countries belong both to Gaul and to Germany. It is even doubtful to which of the two the Batavian island, which is the core of the whole country, was reckoned by the Romans. It is, however, most probable that all the land, with the exception of Friesland, was considered a part of Gaul. Three great rivers—the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheld—had deposited their slime for ages among the dunes and sandbanks heaved up by the ocean around their mouths. A delta was thus formed, habitable at last for man. It was by nature a wide morass, in which oozy islands and savage forests were interspersed among lagoons and shallows; a district lying partly below the level of the ocean at its higher tides, subject to constant overflow from the rivers, and to frequent and terrible inundations by the sea. . . . Here, within a half-submerged territory, a race of wretched ichthyophagi dwelt upon ‘terpen,’ or mounds, which they had raised, like beavers, above the almost fluid soil. Here, at a later day, the same race chained the tyrant Ocean and his mighty streams into subserviency, forcing them to fertilize, to render commodious, to cover with a beneficent network of veins and arteries, and to bind by watery highways with the farthest ends of the world, a country disinherited by nature of its rights. A region, outcast of ocean and earth, wrested at last from both domains their richest treasures. A race, engaged for generations in stubborn conflict with the angry elements, was unconsciously educating itself for its great struggle with the still more savage despotism of man. The whole territory of the Netherlands was girt with forests. An extensive belt of woodland skirted the sea-coast, reaching beyond the mouths of the Rhine. Along the outer edge of this barrier, the dunes cast up by the sea were prevented by the close tangle of thickets from drifting further inward, and thus formed a breastwork which time and art were to strengthen. The groves of Haarlem and the Hague are relics of this ancient forest. The Badahuenna wood, horrid with Druidic sacrifices, extended along the eastern line of the vanished lake of Flevo. The vast Hercynian forest, nine days' journey in breadth, closed in the country on the German side, stretching from the banks of the Rhine to the remote regions of the Dacians, in such vague immensity (says the conqueror of the whole country) that no German, after traveling sixty days, had ever reached, or even heard of, its commencement. On the south, the famous groves of Ardennes, haunted by faun and satyr, embowered the country, and separated it from Celtic Gaul. Thus inundated by mighty rivers, quaking beneath the level of the ocean, belted about by hirsute forests, this low land, nether land, hollow land, or Holland, seemed hardly deserving the arms of the all-accomplished Roman.”—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic, introduction*, sect. 1.

Early inhabitants. See BELGÆ; NERVII; BATAVIANS; FRISIANS.

A. D. 69.—Revolt of the Batavians under Civilis. See BATAVIANS; 69.

4th-9th centuries.—Settlement and domination of the Franks. See FRANKS; GAUL; 355-361.

843-870.—Partly embraced in the kingdom of Lotharingia.—Partitioning. See LORRAINE; 843-870.

863-1383.—Flemish towns and counts. See FLANDERS.

889-1345.—Early counts of Holland.—On August 4, 889, Arnulf, German king, gave to Gerulf as perpetual fief a large strip of land on the mouths of the Rhine and Meuse. A probable son of this Gerulf was Count Dirk I. "It was in the year 922 that Charles the Simple [of France] presented to Count Dirk the territory of Holland, by letters patent. This narrow hook of land, destined, in future ages, to be the cradle of a considerable empire, stretching through both hemispheres, was, thenceforth, the inheritance of Dirk's descendants. Historically, therefore, he is Dirk I., Count of Holland. . . . From the time of the first Dirk to the close of the 13th century there were nearly four hundred years of unbroken male descent, a long line of Dirks and Florences. This iron-handed, hot-headed, adventurous race, placed a sovereign upon its little sandy hook, making ferocious exertions to swell into large consequence, conquering a mile or two of morass or barren furze, after harder blows and bloodier encounters than might have established an empire under more favorable circumstances, at last dies out. The countship falls to the house of Avennes, Counts of Hainaut. Holland, together with Zeland [Zealand], which it had annexed, is thus joined to the province of Hainaut. At the end of another half century the Hainaut line expires. William the Fourth died childless in 1345."—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic, introduction, sect. 5-6*.—"Hainaut [or Hainault], Holland, and Zealand were plunged into the deepest mourning. The evil tidings were carried to the unhappy countess who had given her husband no children. Thus the count's eldest sister, the Empress Margaret, suddenly became heiress to her brother's rich heritage. The death of William IV. was the signal for the outbreak of open hostilities between the two great parties of nobles. A civil war ensued, and the outlook was dark for the provinces. Edward III. made claims to the countship in behalf of his wife Philippa, the count's second sister, and danger menaced from all sides. The Frisians harried the coast, Bishop John of Utrecht invaded the regions adjacent to the bishopric, plundering and burning as he went. The Hainaut party attacked Zierikzee and Dordrecht. The nobles began to take advantage of the general state of confusion to fight out their private feuds, while in Zealand a strong sympathy was evinced for the English king, who hastened his preparations to land there in the hope of being acknowledged as sovereign. Thus throughout the provinces there was domestic strife and foreign war, plunder and fire, besides a terrible new calamity, the Black Death, which raged through Europe, and did not spare the provinces. Owing to the indescribable confusion of the period many records and accounts of both city and state were lost, or we should have a clearer picture of the times than we can glean from the chronicles. A true history of the effect of this frightful epidemic would be very interesting, but we know little more than the fact that victims fell by thousands. 'Forests of despair' is the phrase by which William van Hildegaerdsberch characterises the history of those dreary days. Emperor Louis, with the help of Beaumont who took affairs in hand, assumed the heritage of the late count in behalf of his wife, William's eldest sister (January, 1346). Margaret appeared in Hainaut in March, where she received homage promptly. Later she was recognised in Holland and Zealand. At first she restored order, possibly with the help of the French king, who feared England's gaining a foothold on the continent. She promised

to keep the provinces intact, confirmed ancient privileges and acceded to new ones, with the approval of her husband and co-operation of John of Beaumont. She also opened negotiations with Edward of England, and averted the danger of an invasion of Zealand. The summer passed, and the emperor began to demand the return of his wife. Being anxious to preserve the Netherlands for his family, he urged Margaret to appoint their second son as heir to her paternal heritage. This plan was acceded to in a meeting of nobles and cities at Geertruidenberg, September 24th. William of Bavaria was made stadtholder for his mother, to succeed her later as sovereign. His elder brother, Louis, renounced his rights, although the Netherlands apparently would have preferred him to the sixteen-year-old youth whom they felt it was wise to accept under the circumstances"—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands, pt. 1, pp. 311-312*.

13th-15th centuries.—Relations with the Hanseatic League. See HANSA TOWNS; COMMERCE: Medieval: 8th-16th centuries.

1345-1354.—Origin of the struggle between the Hooks and the Kabeljauws, or Cods.—Louis died suddenly in 1347. Margaret resigned Holland, Zealand and Friesland to her son. In Hainaut he was to remain stadtholder. Later William placed himself at the head of a disaffected party of nobles. Margaret called to her aid her eldest son, Louis, and found help from Edward III of England. William allied himself with the bishop of Utrecht and prepared to repel the threatened invasion of the English. In the sanguinary struggle which ensued, the people generally adhered to the cause of Margaret. . . . [They] looked forward to the necessities of a female reign as likely to afford them opportunities to win further immunities, as the condition of their support against the turbulent nobles. Did not these live, like the great fish, by devouring the smaller ones? And how could they be checked but by the hooks which, though insignificant in appearance, when aptly used would be too strong for them. Such was the talk of the people; and from these household words arose the memorable epithets, which in after years were heard in every civic brawl, and above the din and death-cry of many a battle-field. Certain of the nobles adhered to the cause of the Hooks, while some of the cities, among which were Delft, Haarlem, Dort, and Rotterdam, supported the Kabeljauws [or Cods]. The community was divided into parties rather than into classes. . . . In the exasperation of mutual injury, the primary cause of quarrel was soon forgotten. The Hooks were proud of the accession of a lord to their ranks; and the Kabeljauws were equally glad of the valuable aid which a wealthy and populous town was able to afford. The majority of the cities,—perhaps the majority of the inhabitants in all of them,—favoured the Hook party, as the preponderance of the landowners lay in the opposite scale. But no adherence to antagonistic principles, or even a systematic profession of them, is traceable throughout the varying struggle. . . . In Friesland the two factions were designated by the recriminative epithets of 'Vet-Koopers' and 'Schieringers,'—terms hardly translatable. In the conflict which first marshalled the two parties in hostile array, the Hooks were utterly defeated;—their leaders who survived were banished, their property confiscated, and their dwellings razed to the ground."—W. T. McCullagh, *Industrial history of free nations, v. 2, ch. 6*.—"The empress [Margaret] was forced to leave Zealand and take refuge in Hainaut. . . . Soon she betook herself to England, and placed the

three strongholds that her party still possessed in Holland . . . in the hands of the king [Edward] (December, 1351). . . Negotiations lasted for months, and no result was reached. The young count finally obtained aid from . . . Edward III., broke off his friendly relations with the empress and allied himself with William. . . . Margaret, thus bereft of English help, returned to her faithful Hainaut, . . . and after long years a last reconciliation was made between mother and son at Mons, in Hainaut (December 7, 1354). William agreed to pay his mother a large sum down and an annuity. He was recognised as count of Holland and Zealand, and she as countess of Hainaut."—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 1, pp. 315-316.

1356-1413.—Rule of William IV.—Duke Albert as regent and as count.—Accession of William VI.—Feuds and their effect.—Peace.—Eighteen months . . . after her reconciliation with her son (July, 1356), "the empress died at Quesnoy, and William [V] was free to enjoy the heritage of all the disputed territory. He had but brief enjoyment of his victory. In the autumn of 1357 he paid a visit to England. Scarcely had he returned when he began to show signs of insanity. His condition grew so serious that his wife, after consultation with his council, and with the count's own consent, appointed his brother, young Duke Albert, as reward. . . . During the period of peace in the time of William III. the cities [had] made great strides in prosperity and power. The sovereigns depended on them for loans in case of need—no unrequited contingency—and in return for the loans he was forced to make concessions. . . . Privileges were also granted to people in the country. The farm-land of Holland was by far the most privileged region of the North. . . . The chivalrous Duke Albert ruled for forty years over the three united countships, until 1389, as governor in behalf of the mad duke, later as his successor. . . . The reward and his son William, being both military in spirit, played a part in the affairs of Europe where complications of various kinds gave many a pretext for war to those inclined to make it. . . . The last three years of Albert's life were mostly spent in . . . party quarrels, which reached large proportions. Utrecht took sides in an effort to regain her rights on the Lek passage, the merchant city having been seriously inconvenienced by the tolls imposed by the Arkel party. This feud was still in progress when Albert died (December 12, 1404). William VI assumed sovereignty amid the jubilation of the Hooks, who thought their good days were come. The party feud lasted a year. The border lands of Utrecht were plundered and harried. . . . Arkel's brother-in-law, the duke of Guelders and Jülich, came to his aid, and the result was open warfare between Holland and Guelders. The poor peasants were the chief sufferers. Their harvests were destroyed and their villages burned. The cities were better able to defend themselves. The desolation was, in truth, dreadful until the proclamation of a three years' truce (until 1410). At the expiration of that time, hostilities were renewed, and lasted until a peace was enacted at Wijk, near Duurstede (1412). Gorkum was to be ceded to Duke William for one hundred thousand crowns, with some other compensation to John of Arkel and his son, but another year followed before peace was really attained."—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 1, pp. 315-317, 323, 333.

14th-15th centuries.—Commercial and industrial superiority.—Advance in learning and art.—"What a scene as compared with the rest of

Northern Europe, and especially with England . . . must have been presented by the Low Countries during the 14th century! In 1370, there are 3,200 woollen-factories at Malines and on its territory. One of its merchants carries on an immense trade with Damascus and Alexandria. Another, of Valenciennes, being at Paris during a fair, buys up all the provisions exposed for sale in order to display his wealth. Ghent, in 1340, contains 40,000 weavers. In 1389, it has 189,000 men bearing arms; the drapers alone furnish 18,000 in a revolt. In 1380, the goldsmiths of Bruges are numerous enough to form in war time an entire division of the army. At a repast given by one of the Counts of Flanders to the Flemish magistrates, the seats provided for the guests being unfurnished with cushions, they quietly folded up their sumptuous cloaks, richly embroidered and trimmed with fur, and placed them on the wooden benches. When leaving the table at the conclusion of the feast, a courtier called their attention to the fact that they were going without their cloaks. The burgomaster of Bruges replied: 'We Flemings are not in the habit of carrying away the cushions after dinner.' . . . Commynes, the French chronicler, writing in the 15th century, says that the traveller, leaving France and crossing the frontiers of Flanders, compared himself to the Israelites when they had quitted the desert and entered the borders of the Promised Land. Philip the Good kept up a court which surpassed every other in Europe for luxury and magnificence. . . . In all such matters of luxury and display, England of the 16th or 17th century had nothing to compare with the Netherlands a hundred or even two hundred years before. After luxury, come comfort, intelligence, morality, and learning, which develop under very different conditions. In the course of time even Italy was outstripped in the commercial race. The conquest of Egypt by the Turks, and the discovery of a water passage to the Indies, broke up the overland trade with the East, and destroyed the Italian and German cities which had flourished on it. . . . Passing from the dominion of the House of Burgundy to that of the House of Austria, which also numbered Spain among its vast possessions, proved to them in the end an event fraught with momentous evil. Still for a time, and from a mere material point of view, it was an evil not unmixed with good. The Netherlands were better sailors and keener merchants than the Spaniards, and, being under the same rulers, gained substantial advantages from the close connection. The new commerce of Portugal also filled their coffers; so that while Italy and Germany were impoverished, they became wealthier and more prosperous than ever. . . . With wealth pouring in from all quarters, art naturally followed in the wake of commerce. Architecture was first developed, and nowhere was its cultivation more general than in the Netherlands."—D. Campbell, *Puritan in Holland, etc.*, ch. 1.—See also COMMERCE: Medieval; 8th-16th centuries; TARIFF: 15th-17th centuries.

15th-16th centuries.—Rise of educational systems. See EDUCATION: Modern; 15th-16th centuries: Netherlands.

1406-1417.—Relations with France.—"William VI. was closely allied with France through his marriage to the sister of John the Fearless of Burgundy. The friendship of the house of Hainaut [or Hainaut] had usually been given to England, but William VI. was inclined to French sympathies, and in the battle of Agincourt his knights were on the side of France. This was in spite of the fact that he had himself visited England in his youth and had been honoured by the Order of the Garter,

much to the annoyance of his French kin. In July, 1406, this French bond was strengthened by the marriage of the five-year-old Jacqueline to John of Touraine, second son of the insane king of France. The bridegroom was only a trifle older than his bride, and the two children were brought up together in Hainaut until their marriage was solemnised in 1415. Hopes for the advancement of the house of Holland ran still higher when the dauphin died. The new dauphin and dauphiness crossed the border of France in the spring of 1417, prepared to assume the government under the direction of Jacqueline's father and uncle. A brilliant future opened for the daughter of William VI., which was suddenly clouded by the death of John of Touraine, April 4, 1417. William saw his ambitious plans for his daughter's future dashed to the ground. He began, furthermore, to doubt the possibility of his own realm being securely held by a woman. He knew that the Cods were deeply embittered at his measures against Arkel and his followers, he knew the ambitious nature of his brother, the bishop-elect of Liège, and he dreaded the bouse of Burgundy. When his daughter's husband was still alive and the future seemed secure for the young pair, he had called a gathering of the nobles, bailiffs, and cities of Holland and Zealand at the Hague (August 15, 1416), and asked and obtained their promises to support his daughter after his death. She even received homage as her father's heir, which had been given on condition that [John of] Arkel, and Egmont [party leaders] be banished from the land. Then the situation was changed. Jacqueline became a widow. There is little likelihood that William planned to marry her to young William of Arkel, as the story is. On the contrary, on his death-bed he designated his nephew, John IV. of Brabant, as her husband. At the end of May, 1417, the famous prince died at Bouchain, in Hainaut, where he had remained since his visit to France. His death was attributed to the careless treatment of a wound by a physician 'whom he trusted more than other masters.'"—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 1, pp. 334-335.

1417-1430.—Despoiling of Countess Jacqueline.—In 1417, Count William VI. of Holland, Hainaut and Friesland, died, leaving no male heirs, but a daughter, Jacoba, or Jacqueline, whom most of the nobles, and towns of the several states, had already acknowledged as the heiress of her father's sovereignty. . . . The young countess, fair in person and well endowed in mind, was left with no male support, to contend with the rapacity of an unscrupulous bishop-uncle (John, called the Godless, bishop of Liège), who strove to rob her of her heritage. "Henry V. [of England] had then stood her friend, brought about a reconciliation, established her rights and proposed a marriage between her and his brother John, Duke of Bedford, who was then a fine young man of five or six and twenty. . . . But she was a high-spirited, willful damsel, and preferred her first cousin, the Duke of Brabant, whose father was a brother of Jean Sans Peur [Duke of Burgundy]. . . . The young Duke was only sixteen, and was a weak-minded, passionate youth. Sharp quarrels took place between the young pair; the Duchess was violent and headstrong, and accused her husband of allowing himself to be governed by favourites of low degree. The Duke of Burgundy interfered in vain. . . . After three years of quarreling, in the July of 1421 Jacqueline rode out early one morning, met a knight of Hainaut called Escailion, 'who had long been an Englishman at heart,' and who brought her sixty horsemen, and galloped off for Calais,

whence she came to England, where Henry received her with the courtesy due to a distressed dame-errant, and she became a most intimate companion of the Queen. . . . She loudly gave out that she intended to obtain a separation from her husband on the plea of consanguinity, although a dispensation had been granted by the Council of Constance, and 'that she would marry some one who would pay her the respect due to her rank.' This person soon presented himself in the shape of Humfrey, duke of Gloucester, the King's youngest brother, handsome, graceful, accomplished, but far less patient and conscientious than any of his three elders. [Benedict XIII, the anti-pope, was persuaded to pronounce the marriage of Jacqueline and John of Brabant null and void]; . . . but Henry V. knew that this was a vain sentence, and intimated to his brother that he would never consent to his espousing the Duchess of Brabant; showing him that the wedlock could not be legal, and that to claim the lady's inheritance would lead to a certain rupture with the Duke of Burgundy, who could not but uphold the cause of his cousin of Brabant. [Notwithstanding these remonstrances, the Duke of Humfrey did marry the seductive Jacqueline, early in 1424.] . . . He then sent to demand from the Duke of Brabant the possession of the lady's inheritance; and on his refusal the Hainauters espoused whichever party they preferred and began a warfare among themselves. [Soon afterwards the godless bishop of Liège died and] . . . bequeathed the rights he pretended to have to Hainaut, not to his niece, but to the Duke of Burgundy. Gloucester in the meantime invaded Hainaut and carried on a 'bitter war there.' Burgundy assembled men-at-arms for its protection; and letters passed between the Dukes, ending in a challenge—not between Jacqueline's two husbands, who would have seemed the fittest persons to have fought out the quarrel, but between Gloucester and Burgundy. [It was arranged that the question of the possession of Hainaut should be decided by single combat. Humfrey returned to England to make preparations, leaving Jacqueline at Mons, with her mother. The latter proved false and allowed the citizens of Mons to deliver up the unhappy lady to Philip of Burgundy. Her English husband found himself powerless to render her much aid, and was possibly indifferent to her fate, since another woman had caught his fancy. Jacqueline, after a time, escaped from her captivity, and revived the war in Hainaut, Gloucester sending her 500 men.] . . . The Duke of Brabant died, and reports reached her that Gloucester had married Eleanor Cobham; but she continued to battle for her county till 1428, when she finally came to terms with Philippe [of Burgundy], let him garrison her fortresses, appointed him her heir, and promised not to marry without his consent. A year or two after, however, she married a gentleman of Holland called Frank of Burslem, upon which he was seized by the Burgundians. To purchase his liberty she yielded all her dominions, and only received an annual pension until 1436, when she died, having brought about as much strife and dissension as any woman of her time."—C. M. Yonge, *Comes of English history*, series 2, *cameo* 23.

Also in: E. de Monstrelet, *Chronicles* (Johnes tr.) bk. 1, ch. 164, 181, 234, bk. 2, ch. 22-23, 48-49.—C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, pt. 1, ch. 5-6.—R. Putnam, *Medieval princess*, ch. 11-12.—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 2, pp. 1-15.

1428-1430.—Sovereignty of House of Burgundy established.—"Upon the surrender of Holland, Zealand, Friesland [Friesland], and Hainaut by

Jacoba, Philip [the duke of Burgundy called Philip the Good, brother of Jacoba's husband] became possessed of the most considerable states of the Netherlands. John, duke of Burgundy, his father, had succeeded to Flanders and Artois, in right of his mother Margaret, sole heiress of Louis van der Male, count of Flanders. In the year 1429, Philip entered into possession of the county of Namur, by the death of Theodore, its last native prince, without issue, of whom he had purchased it during his lifetime for 132,000 crowns of gold. To Namur was added in the next year the neighbouring duchy of Brabant, by the death [1430] of Philip (brother of John), without issue; although Margaret, countess-dowager of Holland, aunt of the late duke, stood the next in succession, since the right extended to females; Philip prevailed with the states of Brabant to confer on him, as the true heir, that duchy and Limburg, to which the Margraviate of Antwerp and the lordship of Mechlin were annexed. . . . The accession of a powerful and ambitious prince to the government of the county was anything but a source of advantage to the Dutch, excepting, perhaps, in a commercial point of view."—C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 1.

1450-1600.—Netherlands School of Music. See MUSIC: Medieval: 1450-1600.

1451-1453.—Revolt of Ghent. See GHENT: 1451-1453.

1456.—Burgundian hand laid on Utrecht. See UTRECHT: 1456.

1466-1468.—Siege of Liège.—"So rapid and so brilliant a rise to fortune necessarily excited jealousy. Vassal though it was, the House of Burgundy rivalled that of Valois. Charles VII, and, later, Louis XI [of France], devoted all their energies to holding it in check. Louis XI secretly won over the House of Croy, the counsellors of Philip the Good, but the duke's son, Count Charles of Charolais [of Burgundy], succeeded in unmasking the schemes of the king and his accomplices. As early as 1465 Charles was appointed 'lieutenant-general' by his father, who had become old and infirm. Possessed of a thoroughly southern temperament and insanely violent in disposition, Charles, who was later surnamed the Rash [Bold], engaged in the most ambitious and dangerous enterprises. Instead of employing diplomacy, he believed that he could overcome every obstacle by force and terror; the cruelty with which he punished the towns of the district of Liège for their alliance with Louis XI amazed contemporary observers, accustomed though they were to such brutal exhibitions of princely 'justice.' Charles had imposed upon the district of Liège a humiliating peace at the time when he forced Louis XI to restore to him the Somme towns, those 'keys of France' (1465). But the King of France still hoped to rouse the men of Liège against his rival. The town of Dinant, moreover, controlled by the party of the lesser artisans, to whom were joined a crowd of outlaws, foreigners, and adventurers, had not accepted the terms of peace exacted by Charles, and adopted a provocative and hostile attitude. But, on August 18, 1466, Charles appeared with an army under the walls of Dinant, and, thanks to his artillery, reduced the town after a seven days' siege. His vengeance was terrible. Determined to make an example, he ordered the sack of the city, which was then set on fire; only the churches and religious houses were spared (August 28). In the following year, Liège, which had given shelter to a number of the ruined citizens of Dinant and which was seduced by Louis XI's promises of support, adopted in its

turn a recalcitrant attitude. The war party, which had adopted the name of 'Vrais Liégeois,' established a revolutionary government, in which Raes de Heers, a knight of the Looz district, a true *condottiere* eager for adventure, played the part of practical dictator. The news of the death of Philip the Good caused deep delight at Liège, and it was decided to assume the offensive. But the army of the city was defeated at Brusthem (October 27, 1467). Charles proceeded to occupy the principality, ordered all its towns to be dismantled, and the land to be wasted with fire and sword; he established in it one of his most faithful adherents, the Sire de Humbercourt, who really ruled the district in place of its bishop, Louis of Bourbon. In order to paralyse the King of France, Charles had allied with the King of England, Edward IV, and in 1468 he married Margaret of York, the sister of that monarch. He then believed himself to be invincible, while many German princes, such as the Duke of Bavaria, the Elector Palatine, and the Archbishop of Cologne, sought his alliance, and the emperor himself offered him the title of king. But Louis XI constantly placed all manner of obstacles in his path: he encouraged the exiled of Liège to undertake a fresh revolt, and they actually returned in the absence of the bishop and the governor and roused the workpeople with the cry, 'Vivent le roi et les franchises!' Charles was aware of his rival's plots and forced him to accompany him to the punishment of the rebels. Unwalled and almost unarmed, Liège made a desperate resistance. Goes de Strailhe, with some hundreds of men from Franchimont, attempted during the night to capture Charles and the king, but they all fell under the swords of the Burgundians. The city was then pillaged, sacked, and burned; its inhabitants murdered or drowned in crowds in the Meuse. Charles wished to destroy the very name 'Liège,' and to call the place Brabant. Sparring none, he aroused the hostility of the emperor, Frederic III, by his pretensions to the crown of King of the Romans."—H. Vander Linden, *Belgium, the making of a nation*, pp. 97-99.—See also BURGUNDY: 1467-1468.

ALSO IN: *Cambridge modern history*, v. 1, ch. 13.

1473-1477.—Defeat of Charles the Bold.—Government by Burgundians.—"After seizing Guelders [1473], which the old duke, Arnold, had left him against its wishes . . . [Charles] supported Ruprecht von der Pfalz, Archbishop of Cologne, against the emperor. The defeat which he suffered at his fruitless siege of Neuss was more or less compensated by the conquest of Lorraine, but he then plunged headlong into a fantastic enterprise, the conquest of the Rhone valley from Lyons to the Mediterranean, by which Italy would have been laid open to him. His furious obstinacy completely ruined him; Burgundian power was shattered at the battles of Granson and Morat, and the catastrophe of Nancy struck the final blow (1477). The territorial cohesion of the Low Countries was immediately broken; each principality began to pursue its individual interests as a result of a reaction against arbitrary monarchical power."—H. Vander Linden, *Belgium, the making of a nation*, p. 99.—See also GUELDERLAND: 1079-1473.—"As regards the provincial government the Burgundian princes left undisturbed the local and historical customs and usages, and each province had its individual characteristics. At the head of each provincial government (with the exception of Brabant, at whose capital, Brussels, the sovereign himself or his regent resided) was placed a governor, with the title of Stadholder, who was the

representative of the sovereign and had large patronage. It was his duty to enforce edicts, preserve order, and keep a watchful eye over the administration of justice. He nominated to many municipal offices, but had little or no control over finance. The raising of troops and their command in the field was entrusted to a captain-general, . . . [and] the offices were sometimes united. In the northern Netherlands there was but one stadholder for the three provinces of Holland, Zealand and Utrecht, and one . . . for Friesland, Groningen, Drente and Overijssel. The desire of the Burgundian princes to consolidate their dominions into a unified sovereignty found itself thwarted by many obstacles and especially by the lack of any supreme tribunal of appeal. It was galling to them that the *Parlement* of Paris should still exercise appellate jurisdiction in Crown-Flanders and Artois, and the Imperial Diet in some of the other provinces. Already in 1428 Philip had erected the Court of Holland at the Hague to exercise large powers of jurisdiction and financial control in the province of Holland and Zealand; and in 1473 Charles the Bold set up at Mechlin the body known as the Great Council, to act as a court of appeal from the provincial courts. . . . The Great Council, which had grown out of the Privy Council attached to the person of the prince, and which under the direction of the Chancellor of Burgundy administered the affairs of the government, more particularly justice and finance, was in 1473, . . . re-constituted as a Court of Appeal in legal matters, a new Chamber of Accounts being at the same time created to deal with finance. These efforts at centralisation of authority were undoubtedly for the good of the country as a whole, but such was the intensity of provincial jealousy and particularism that they were bitterly resented and opposed."—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*, pp. 4-5.

1477.—Severance from Burgundy.—Accession of Duchess Mary.—Grant of the "Great Privilege."—On the fifth of January, 1477, Charles the Bold of Burgundy came to his end at Nancy, and Louis XI of France laid prompt and sure hands on the Burgundian duchy, which remained thenceforth united to the French crown. It was the further intention of Louis to secure more or less of the Netherland domain of the late duke, and he began seizures to that end. But the Netherland states much preferred to acknowledge the sovereignty of the young duchess Mary, daughter and sole heiress of Charles the Bold, provided she would make proper terms with them. "Shortly after her accession, the nobles, to whose guardianship she had been committed by Charles before his departure, summoned a general assembly of the states of the Netherlands at Ghent, to devise means for arresting the enterprises of Louis, and for raising funds to support the war with France, as well as to consider the state of affairs in the provinces. . . . This is the first regular assembly of the states-general of the Netherlands. . . . Charles, and his father, Philip, had exercised in the Netherlands a species of government far more arbitrary than the inhabitants had until then been accustomed to. . . . It now appeared that a favourable opportunity offered itself for rectifying these abuses; and the assembly, therefore, made the consideration of them a preliminary to the grant of any supplies for the war. . . . They insisted so firmly on this resolution that Mary, finding they were determined to refuse any subsidies till their grievances were redressed, consented to grant charters of privileges to all the states of the Netherlands. That of Holland and Zealand [was]

commonly called the Great Charter."—C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 2 with footnote.—"Mary's power was limited and restricted by this important act. First of all, the hated court of Mechlin, the central court of justice for all the Burgundian territories, was abolished; a Great Council was established, consisting of a chancellor and twenty-four members chosen by the duchess from the various states, to assist her in the administration of the provinces. All the ordinances of the duke which conflicted with ancient privileges were abolished. The right of declaration of war was made dependent on the consent of the States-General. The States-General and Estates of the provinces were empowered to meet on their own authority. The subjects were at liberty to refuse obedience if the duchess overstepped the stipulations. Only with conditions which strictly limited the sovereign power was Mary able to obtain financial and military help for the defence of her realm. She consented, and thirty-four thousand men were at once at her disposal by her united states. And these concessions were not all. Flanders, Holland, Namur, all forced especial charters from the duchess, all called Great Privileges. This was the occasion when Brabant obtained her famous *Joyeuse Entrée*. The cities, individually, followed the example offered by the states. The sovereign power was sharply circumscribed in many ways. The extent of the confusion in the Burgundian lands in 1477 is plain from the incident of the negotiations of the lords Hugonet and Humbercourt, influential officials of Charles the Bold. Making use of a treacherous letter sent by the two to Louis XI, in which they promised to deliver the duchess to him, make her marry the dauphin, and thus give the entire Burgundian heritage to France, the States-General threw the lords in prison. An extraordinary court sentenced them and, in spite of the pleadings of the duchess, the two lords were beheaded on the Friday's market-place at Ghent with the angry approval of the excited populace. Similar events were enacted at Brussels, Antwerp, Ypres, Mons, and elsewhere. Everywhere the people manifested their hatred for the officials of the dead tyrant. It was a frightful time, still the princess succeeded in holding her own and in wielding the government, although practically a prisoner, and the States-General remained loyal to her. The most important question calling for an immediate solution was that of her marriage."—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 2, pp. 147-148.

Also in: J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, introduction, sect. 8.—L. S. Costello, *Memoirs of Mary of Burgundy*, ch. 28-30.

1477.—Austrian marriage of Mary of Burgundy.—"Several husbands were proposed to the Princess of Burgundy, and every one was of opinion there was a necessity of her marrying, to defend those territories that she had left to her, or (by marrying the dauphin), to recover what she had lost [see BURGUNDY: 1477]. Several were entirely for this match, and she was as earnest for it as anybody, before the letters she had sent by the Lord of Humbercourt and the chancellor to the king [Louis XI] were betrayed to the ambassadors from Ghent. Some opposed the match, and urged the disproportion of their age, the dauphin being but nine years old, and besides engaged to the King of England's daughter; and these suggested the son of the Duke of Cleves. Others recommended Maximilian, the emperor's son, who is at present King of the Romans." Duchess Mary made choice presently of Maxi-

milian, then arch-duke of Austria, afterwards king of the Romans and finally emperor. The husband-elect "came to Cologne, where several of the princess's servants went to meet him, and carry him money, with which, as I have been told, he was but very slenderly furnished; for his father was the stingiest and most covetous prince, or person, of his time. The Duke of Austria was conducted to Ghent, with about 700 or 800 horse in his retinue, and this marriage was consummated [August 18, 1477], which at first sight brought no great advantage to the subjects of the young princess; for, instead of his supporting her, she was forced to supply him with money. His armies were neither strong enough nor in a condition to face the king's; besides which, the humour of the house of Austria was not pleasing to the subjects of the house of Burgundy, who had been bred up under wealthy princes, that had lucrative offices and employments to dispose of; whose palaces were sumptuous, whose tables were nobly served, whose dress was magnificent, and whose liveries were pompous and splendid. But the Germans are of quite a contrary temper; boorish in their manners and rude in their way of living."—P. de Commynes, *Memoirs*, v. 2, bk. 6, ch. 2.—See also AUSTRIA: 1477-1495.

ALSO IN: L. S. Costello, *Memoirs of Mary of Burgundy*, ch. 31.

1482-1493.—Maximilian and the Flemings.—End of Hook party in Holland.—"According to the terms of the marriage treaty between Maximilian and Mary, their eldest son, Philip, succeeded to the sovereignty of the Netherlands immediately upon the death of his mother [March 26, 1482]. As he was at this time only four years of age, Maximilian obtained the acknowledgment of himself as guardian of the young count's person, and protector of his states, by all the provinces except Flanders and Guelderland. The Flemings having secured the person of Philip at Ghent, appointed a regency. [To reduce the Flemings to obedience, Maximilian carried on two campaigns in their country, during 1484 and 1485, as the result of which Ghent and Bruges surrendered.] . . . Maximilian was acknowledged protector of Flanders during the minority of Philip, who was delivered by the Ghenters into the hands of his father, and by him entrusted to the care of Margaret of York, Duchess-dowager of Burgundy, until he became of age. [Three years later (1488)—Maximilian having been, in the meantime, crowned 'King of the Romans,' at Aix la Chapelle, and thus cadetted, so to speak, for his subsequent coronation as emperor—the Flemings rose again in revolt. Maximilian was at Bruges, and rumor accused him of a design to occupy the city with German troops. The men of Bruges forestalled the attempt by seizing him personally and making him a prisoner. They kept him in durance for nearly four months, until he had signed a treaty, agreeing to surrender the government of the Netherlands to the young Duke Philip, his son; to place the latter under the care of the princes of the blood (his relatives on the Burgundian side); to withdraw all foreign troops, and to use his endeavors to preserve peace with France. On these terms Maximilian obtained his liberty; but, meantime, his father, the Emperor Frederic, had marched an army to the frontiers of Brabant for his deliverance, and the very honorable king of the Romans, making haste to the shelter of these forces, repudiated with alacrity all the engagements he had sworn to. His imperial father led the army he had brought into Flanders and laid siege to Ghent; but tired of the undertaking after

six weeks and returned to Germany, leaving his forces to prosecute the siege and the war. The commotions in Flanders now brought to life the popular party of the "Hooks" in Holland, and war broke out in that province. In neither part of the Netherlands were the insurgents successful. The Flemings had been helped by France, and when the French king abandoned them they were forced to buy a peace on humiliating terms and for a heavy price in cash. In Holland, the revolt languished for a time, but broke out with fresh spirit in 1490, excited by an edict which summarily altered the value of the coin. In the next year it took the name of the 'Casembrotspel,' or Bread and Cheese War. This insurrection was suppressed in 1492, with the help of German troops, and proved only disastrous to the province.] . . . It was the last effort made for a considerable time by the Hollanders against the increasing power and extortion of their counts. . . . The miserable remnant of the Hook or popular party melted so entirely away that we hear of them no more in Holland: the county, formerly a power respected in itself, was now become a small and despised portion of an overgrown state. [In 1494, Philip having reached the age of seventeen, and Maximilian having become emperor by the death of his father, the latter surrendered and the former was installed in the government of the Netherlands.]"—C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 3.

1494-1519.—Beginning of Austro-Spanish tyranny.—Absorption in vast dominion of Charles V.—Seventeen provinces: their independent constitutions and their states-general.—"In 1494, Philip, now 17 years of age, became sovereign of the Netherlands. But he would only swear to maintain the privileges granted by his grandfather and great-grandfather, Charles and Philip, and refused to acquiesce in the Great Privilege of his mother. The Estates acquiesced. For a time, Friesland, the outlying province of Holland, was severed from it. It was free, and it chose as its elective sovereign the Duke of Saxony. After a time he sold his sovereignty to the House of Hapsburg. The dissensions of the Estates had put them at the mercy of an autocratic family. Philip of Burgundy, in 1496, married Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. In 1500 his son Charles was born, who was afterwards Charles V., Duke of the Netherlands, but also King of Spain, Emperor of Germany, King of Jerusalem, and, by the grant of Alexander VI., . . . lord of the whole new world. Joanna, his mother, through whom he had this vast inheritance, went mad, and remained mad during her life and his [see SPAIN: 1496-1517]. Charles not only inherited his mother's and father's sovereignties, but his grandfather's also [see AUSTRIA: 1496-1526]. . . . The peril which the liberties of the Netherlands were now running was greater than ever. They had been drawn into the hands of that dynasty which, beginning with two little Spanish kingdoms [Castile and Aragon] had in a generation developed into the mightiest of monarchies. . . . Charles succeeded his father Philip as Count of Flanders in 1506. His father, Philip the Handsome, was at Burgos in Castile, where he was attacked by fever, and died when only 28 years of age. Ten years afterwards Charles became King of Spain (1516). When he was 19 years of age (1519) he was elected emperor [see GERMANY: 1519]. The three nations over whom he was destined to rule hated each other cordially. There was antipathy from the beginning between Flemings and Spaniards. The Netherlands nobles were

detested in Spain, the Spaniards in the Low Countries were equally abhorred. . . . Charles was born in Flanders, and during his whole career was much more a Fleming than a Spaniard. This did not, however, prevent him from considering his Flemish subjects as mainly destined to supply his wants, and submit to his exactions. He was always hard pressed for money. The Germans were poor and turbulent. The conquest and subjection of the Moorish population in Spain had seriously injured the industrial wealth of that country. But the Flemings were increasing in riches, particularly the inhabitants of Ghent. They had to supply the funds which Charles required in order to carry out the operations which his necessities or his policy rendered urgent. He had been taught, and he readily believed, that his subjects' money was his own. Now just as Charles had come to the empire, two circumstances had occurred which have had a lasting influence over the affairs of Western Europe. The first of these was the conquest of Egypt by the Turks under Selim I (1512-20). . . . Egypt had for nearly two centuries been the only route by which Eastern produce, so much valued by European nations, could reach the consumer. . . . Now this trade, trifling to be sure to our present experience, was of the highest importance to the trading towns of Italy, the Rhine, and the Netherlands. . . . But the Netherlands had two industries which saved them from the losses which affected the Germans and Italians. They were still the weavers of the world. They still had the most successful fisheries. . . . The other cause was the revolt against the papacy [the Reformation (see PAPACY: 1516-1517, and after)]."—J. E. T. Rogers, *Story of Holland*, ch. 5-6.—The seventeen provinces comprehended under the name of the Netherlands, as ruled by Charles V, were the four duchies of Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, and Guelderland; the seven counties of Artois, Hainault, Flanders, Namur, Zutphen, Holland, and Zealand; the five seignories or lordships of Friesland, Mechlin, Utrecht, Overysse, and Groningen; and the margraviate of Antwerp. "Of these provinces, the four which adjoined the French border, and in which a French dialect was spoken, were called Walloon (see WALLOONS); in the other provinces a dialect, more or less resembling German, prevailed, that of the midland ones being Flemish, that of the northern, Dutch. They differed still more in their laws and customs than in language. Each province was an independent state, having its own constitution, which secured more liberty to those who lived under it than was then commonly enjoyed in most other parts of Europe. . . . The only institutions which supplied any links of union among the different provinces were the States-General, or assembly of deputies sent from each, and the Supreme Tribunal established at Mechlin, having an appellate jurisdiction over them all [by Charles the Bold]. The States-General, however, had no legislative authority, nor power to impose taxes, and were but rarely convened. . . . The members of the States-General were not representatives chosen by the people, but deputies, or ambassadors, from certain provinces. The different provinces had also their own States."—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 2, pp. 221-22.

ALSO IN: G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*, pp. 4-5.

1496.—Free trade with England.—*Intercursum Magnus*. See TARIFF: 15th-17th centuries; INTERCURSUM MAGNUS.

1512.—Burgundian provinces included in circle of Burgundy. See GERMANY: 1493-1519.

1513-1764.—Explorations in Pacific. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1513-1764.

1521-1555.—Reformation in provinces.—Persecutions of Charles V.—Edict of 1550.—Planting of the Inquisition.—"The people of the Netherlands had been singularly prepared for the great religious revival of the sixteenth century by the work of the *Brethren of the Common Lot* and their schools. It was the aim of Gerard Groot, their founder, and also of Florentius Bodevynszoon, his great educational assistant, to see 'that the root of study and the mirror of life must, in the first place, be the Gospel of Christ.' Their pupils were taught to read the Bible in Latin, and the Brethren contended publicly for translations of the Scriptures in the vulgar tongues. There is evidence to show that the Vulgate was well known in the Netherlands in the end of the fifteenth century, and a translation of the Bible into Dutch was published at Delft in 1477. Small tracts against Indulgences, founded probably on the reasonings of Pupper and Wessel, had been in circulation before Luther had nailed his *Theses* to the door of All Saints' church in Wittenberg. Henrik of Zutphen, Prior of the Augustinian Hermitic Convent at Antwerp, had been a pupil of Staupitz, a fellow student with Luther, and had spread Evangelical teaching not only among his order, but throughout the town. It need be no matter for surprise, then, that Luther's writings were widely circulated in the Netherlands, and that between 1513 and 1531 no fewer than twenty-five translations of the Bible or of the New Testament had appeared in Dutch, Flemish, and French. When Aleander was in the Netherlands, before attending the Diet of Worms he secured the burning of eighty Lutheran and other books at Louvain; and when he came back ten months later, he had regular literary *auto-da-fés*. On Charles' return from the Diet of Worms, he issued a proclamation to all his subjects in the Netherlands against Luther, his books and his followers, and Aleander made full use of the powers it gave. Four hundred Lutheran books were burnt at Antwerp, three hundred of them seized by the police in the stalls of the booksellers, and one hundred handed over by the owners; three hundred were burnt at Ghent, 'part of them printed here and part in Germany,' says the Legate: and he adds that 'many of them were very well bound, and one gorgeously in velvet.' About a month later he is forced to confess that these burnings had not made as much impression as he had hoped, and that he wishes the Emperor would 'burn alive half a dozen Lutherans and confiscate their property.' Such a proceeding would make all see him to be the really Christian prince that he is. Next year (1522) Charles established the Inquisition within the seventeen provinces. It was a distinctively civil institution, and this was perhaps due to the fact that there was little correspondence between the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdictions in the Netherlands; but it must not be forgotten that the Kings of Spain had used the Holy Office for the purpose of stamping out political and local opposition, and also that the civil courts were usually more energetic and more severe than the ecclesiastical. The man appointed was unworthy of any place of important trust. Francis van de Hulst, although he had been the Prince's counsellor in Brabant, was a man accused both of bigamy and murder, and was hopelessly devoid of tact. He quarrelled violently with the High Court of Holland; and the Regent, Margaret of Austria [daughter of the Emperor Maximilian], . . . found herself constantly compromised by his continual

defiance of local privileges. He was a 'wonderful enemy to learning,' says Erasmus. His colleague, Nicolas van Egmont, a Carmelite monk, is described by the same scholar as 'a madman with a sword put into his hand who hates me worse than he does Luther.' The two men discredited the Inquisition from its beginning. Erasmus affected to believe that the Emperor could not know what they were doing. . . . Charles issued proclamation after proclamation, each of increasing severity. It was forbidden to print any books unless they had been first examined and approved by the censors (April 1st, 1524). 'All open and secret meetings in order to read and preach the Gospel, the Epistles of St. Paul, and other spiritual writings,' were forbidden (Sept. 25th, 1525), as also to discuss the Holy Faith, the Sacraments, the Power of the Pope and Councils, 'in private houses and at meals.' This was repeated on March 14th, 1526, and on July 17th there was issued a long edict, said to have been carefully drafted by the Emperor himself, forbidding all meetings to read or preach about the Gospel or other holy writings in Latin, Flemish, or Walloon. In the preamble it is said that ignorant persons have begun to expound Scripture, that even regular and secular clergy have presumed to teach the 'errors and sinister doctrines of Luther and his adherents,' and that heresies are increasing in the land. Then followed edicts against unlicensed books, and against monks who had left their cloisters (Jan. 28th, 1528); against the possession of Lutheran books, commanding them upon pain of death to be delivered up (Oct. 14th, 1529); against printing unlicensed books—the penalties being a public whipping on the scaffold, branding with a red-iron, or the loss of an eye or a hand, at the discretion of the judge (Dec. 7th, 1530); against heretics 'who are more numerous than ever,' against certain books of which a long list is given, and against certain hymns which increase the zeal of the heretics (Sept. 22nd, 1540); against printing and distributing unlicensed books in the Italian, Spanish, or English languages (Dec. 18th, 1544); warning all schoolmasters about the use of unlicensed books in their schools, and giving a list of prohibited books, among which are eleven editions of the Vulgate printed by Protestant firms, six editions of the Bible and three of the New Testament in Dutch, two editions of the Bible in French, and many others. Lastly, an edict of April 29th, 1550, confirmed all the previous edicts against heresy and its spread, and intimated that the Inquisitors would proceed against heretics 'notwithstanding any privileges to the contrary, which are abrogated and annulled by this edict.' This was a clear threat that the terrible Spanish Inquisition was to be established in the Netherlands, and provoked such remonstrances that the edict was modified twice (Sept. 25th, Nov. 5th) before it was finally accepted as legal within the seventeen provinces.—T. M. Lindsay, *History of the Reformation*, v. 2, pp. 228-232.—"No one," said the edict [of 1550], 'shall print, write, copy, keep, conceal, sell, buy, or give in churches, streets, or other places, any book or writing made by Martin Luther, John Ecolampadius, Ulrich Zwinglius, Martin Bucer, John Calvin, or other heretics repro- bated by the Holy Church; . . . nor break, or otherwise injure the images of the holy virgin or canonized saints; . . . nor in his house hold conventicles, or illegal gatherings, or be present at any such in which the adherents of the above-mentioned heretics teach, baptize, and form conspiracies against the Holy Church and the general welfare. . . . Moreover, we forbid . . . all lay

persons to converse or dispute concerning the Holy Scriptures, openly or secretly, especially on any doubtful or difficult matters, or to read, teach, or expound the Scriptures, unless they have duly studied theology and been approved by some renowned university; . . . or to preach secretly, or openly, or to entertain any of the opinions of the above-mentioned heretics. . . . Such perturbators of the general quiet are to be executed, to wit: the men with the sword and the women to be buried alive, if they do not persist in their errors; if they do persist in them they are to be executed with fire; all their property in both cases being confiscated to the crown.' [The horrible edict further bribed informers, by promising to them half the goods of a convicted heretic, while, at the same time, it forbade, under sharp penalties, any petitioning for pardon in favor of such heretics].—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, v. 1, pt. 1, ch. 1, pt. 2, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: J. H. Merle d'Aubigne, *History of the Reformation in Europe in the time of Calvin*, v. 7, bk. 13, ch. 9-11.—*Cambridge modern history*, v. 2, pp. 372-374.

1527-1773.—Arctic explorations. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1527-1773.

1528-1648.—Rivalry with other European powers in American exploration. See AMERICA: 1528-1648.

1539-1540.—Revolt and enslavement of Ghent. See GHENT: 1539-1540.

1547.—Pragmatic sanction of Charles V changing relations of his Burgundian inheritance to empire.—In the Germanic diet assembled at Augsburg in 1547, after the emperor's defeat of the Protestant princes at Muhlberg (see GERMANY: 1546-1552), he was able to exercise his will almost without opposition and decree arbitrarily whatever he chose. He there "proclaimed the Pragmatic Sanction for the Netherlands, whereby his old Burgundian inheritance was declared by his own law to be indivisible, the succession settled on the house of Hapsburg, it was attached to the German empire as a tenth district, had to pay certain contributions, but was not to be subject to the Imperial Chamber or the Imperial Court of Judicature. He thus secured the personal union of these territories with his house, and made it the duty of the empire to defend them, while at the same time he withdrew them from the jurisdiction of the empire; it was a union by which the private interests of the house of Hapsburg had everything to gain, but which was of no advantage to the empire."—L. Häusser, *Period of the Reformation*, ch. 16.

ALSO IN: *Cambridge modern history*, v. 3, pp. 187-197.

1549-1661.—Trade and conquests in Brazil.—War with Portuguese. See BRAZIL: 1510-1661.

1555.—Abdication of Charles V.—"In 1555 an event occurred, destined to be of critical importance in the history of the Netherlands—the world-famous abdication of Charles V. The Emperor was but fifty-five years old, when, prematurely aged and already worn out by a life of incessant care and strife, he took the momentous resolve which he had for some years meditated, to hand over his dominions to his son Philip, and spend the rest of his days in the retirement of a monastery. Philip, already invested with the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily and the duchy of Milan, and compensated for the loss of the Empire by becoming, through his marriage with Mary Tudor, King-Consort of England, was residing in that country, when in the early summer of 1555 he was summoned by his father to Brussels. Charles was the wearer of

many crowns, but amongst them all, as a final token of his peculiar affection for his native land, it was his abdication of the sovereignty of the seventeen Provinces of the Burgundian Netherlands that he resolved to mark specially by an act of solemn and impressive publicity. The ceremony took place in the great hall of the palace of Brussels. Hither, on the afternoon of Friday, October 25, 1555, the deputies of the Provinces repaired. . . . [Charles] gave an account of his long and eventful reign, thanked his subjects for their constant dutifulness and affection, and asked them to show to his son the same love and loyalty that they had exhibited towards himself. . . . Philip might have seized his opportunity to use gracious language, which would have gained him at once a place in the hearts of his new subjects. That he did not do so was less due to his coldness of temperament than to his inability to express himself in any language but Spanish. Flemish he could not speak at all; and, after a few words in French, he found himself obliged to call upon Antoine Perrenot, Bishop of Arras, to address the audience in his place. The contrast between father and son could scarcely have been more strikingly exhibited. The new ruler of the Netherlands, who had thus publicly proclaimed himself a foreigner in their midst, was twenty-eight years of age. His general outward appearance was not unlike his father's, and distinctively that of a man with Teutonic blood in his veins. But it was not possible for two human beings to be further apart in temper and character than were the grave, silent, sedentary, undecided Philip, and the restless, purposeful, energetic warrior-statesman."—G. Edmundson, *Cambridge modern history*, v. 3, pp. 182-183.—See GERMANY: 1552-1561.

1555-1558.—Accession of Philip II.—War with France.—"On October 26, 1555, the day following the grand ceremony of the abdication, Philip received the deputies of the seventeen Provinces, who renewed the oath of allegiance they had already taken to him as heir-apparent in 1548; and he on his part again solemnly swore to maintain in each province all ancient rights, privileges, and customs, without infringing the same or suffering them to be infringed [see also GERMANY: 1552-1561]. Possibly, when he took those oaths, Philip had no intention of deliberately committing an act of perjury. The policy he adopted at the outset in the Netherlands certainly followed with precision the lines laid down by his father. It was the man, far more than the measures, that was the inciting cause of the troubles that ended in revolt. One of his first acts was to appoint his cousin Emmanuel Philibert, Duke of Savoy, to be Regent. Scarcely any but Spaniards were admitted to his intimate counsels with the exception of the Bishop of Arras, the son of Charles' trusted adviser, Granvelle. This statesman, though at first kept in the background, by force of sheer ability and proved usefulness gradually acquired greater and greater influence. On February 5, 1556, through the mediation of the Queen of England, a truce for five years was patched up with France at Vancelles. It was not, however, on either side intended to last any longer than was convenient; and in the following year it was wantonly broken by King Henry. War ensued, in which the English Queen, much against the will of her people, was induced by her husband to take part. It was marked by the great victories achieved over the French at St. Quentin (August 10, 1557), and at Gravelines (July 13, 1558). Both of these were won by the impetuous valour of Lamoral, Count of Egmont, at the head of the Flemish cavalry, who at Grave-

lines was much assisted by the cannon of the English fleet. These two crushing defeats brought France to her knees; and a peace was concluded in February, 1559, at Cateau-Cambrésis. The terms were entirely to the advantage of the Spanish King, who had no scruple in allowing the French to recoup themselves at the expense of his English ally. In the course of the war Calais had been captured in the winter by a *coup-de-main* by a French force under the Duke of Guise. The death of Queen Mary severed the only link which bound together the interests of Philip and the island realm. The restoration of all the French conquests of the previous eight years and the hand of the Princess Elizabeth of France were cheaply purchased by acquiescence in the surrender of a town, whose fate was now to the Spanish negotiators a matter of little or no moment."—*Ibid.*, pp. 183-184.

ALSO IN: C. Gayarré, *Philip II of Spain*, ch. 1. 1556.—Divisions of country.—Extent of territory held by Spain. See EUROPE: Map of Central Europe: 1556.

1559-1562.—First years of the reign of Philip II.—New bishoprics.—Struggle against Granvelle.—"In the very year of the victory of Saint-Quentin (1557), gained by Egmont, Philip II found himself on the verge of bankruptcy, and was compelled to require further sacrifices. The States-General boldly formulated their complaints and showed a wish to see the custody of fortresses committed to the nobles of the land and to have two-thirds of the army composed of native troops. Two years later, they demanded from Philip II, at the moment of his departure for Spain, the dismissal of the foreign soldiery who remained in the country, despite the conclusion of peace with France, and the conduct of the government by natives. The king, who was offended at these demands, promised to recall the Spanish troops, but delayed to do so. The absence of the sovereign caused the changes which he had surreptitiously introduced into the political organization of the country to appear more clearly. Philip had instructed the regent, Margaret of Parma, to have recourse on all important matters to the advice of a *consulta* of three members, Granvelle, [Granvelle] Bishop of Arras, Viglius, and Berlaumont, all of whom were servilely devoted to the Crown. [These three constituted an inner council, but] in reality, Granvelle directed the whole administration under the inspiration of Philip II. A native of Franche-Comté, he had no real fatherland; his fidelity to the king took with him the place of patriotism. Insatiable in his love of offices and greedy of power, he served the cause of absolutism from principle as well as from interest; himself neither fanatical nor violent nor cruel, he obeyed blindly his master's orders. Despite his diplomatic talent, he could not conceal his dislike for the liberties of the Low Countries, and more especially for the privileges of that high nobility, the members of which despised him as a parvenu. The extraordinary luxury which he displayed, for example, in his sumptuous villa of La Fontaine, near Brussels, is further an indication of his vanity. Ere long the Prince of Orange, who was then Governor of Holland and Zealand, and the Count of Egmont, Governor of Flanders and Artois, gathered all the nobility around them in opposition to Granvelle, the instrument of the 'tyranny of the prince.' Educated, like most of the nobles of this period, by the humanists, they did not share in Philip's hatred against heretics; least of all was that hatred shared by Orange, who was himself the son of a Lutheran, although he had been educated in the Catholic religion at the court of

Charles V.—H. Vander Linden, *Belgium, the making of a nation*, pp. 133-134.—Egmont and Orange, because of their great influence and popularity with the people, were allowed to be nominally Councillors of State, but they were rarely consulted and were practically shut out from confidential access to the regent. . . . Egmont, a man of showy rather than of solid qualities, held in 1550 the important posts of Stadholder of Flanders and Artois. The Prince of Orange was the eldest of the five sons of William, Count of Nassau-Dillenburg, head of the younger or German branch of the famous house of Nassau. . . . [The elder branch became extinct on the death of René of Nassau, who had inherited Orange-Châlons through his mother. René bequeathed his possessions to William who thus became Prince of Orange. Both Charles and Philip recognized William's ability, but] there arose between Philip and Orange a growing feeling of distrust and dislike, with the result that William speedily found himself at the head of a patriotic opposition to any attempts of the Spanish king to govern the Netherlands by Spanish methods. The presence of a large body of Spanish troops in the country aroused the suspicion that Philip intended to use them, if necessary, to support him in overriding by force the liberties and privileges of the provinces. It was largely owing to the influence of Orange that the States-General in 1559 refused to vote the grant of supplies for which Philip had asked, unless he promised that all foreign troops should be withdrawn from the Netherlands. . . . Orange and Egmont, with whom were joined a number of other leading nobles (among these Philip de Montmorency, Count of Hoorn, his brother the lord of Montigny, the Counts of Meghem and Hoogstraeten and the Marquis of Berghen), little by little adopted an attitude of increasing hostility to this policy, which they regarded as anti-national and tending to the establishment of a foreign despotism in the Netherlands. . . . Orange and Egmont, finding that they were never consulted except on matters of routine, wrote to Philip (July, 1561) stating that they found that their attendance at the meetings of the Council of State was useless and asked to be allowed to resign their posts. Meanwhile, feeling that the presence of the Spanish troops was a source of weakness rather than of strength, Margaret and Granvelle were urging upon the king the necessity of their withdrawal. Neither the nobles nor the regent succeeded in obtaining any satisfactory response. Orange and Egmont accordingly absented themselves from the Council, and Margaret ventured on her own authority to send away the Spanish regiments."—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*, pp. 29-31.—"A new dispute, and one which was still more serious, forthwith arose on the matter of the creation of new bishoprics. In augmenting the number of bishops Philip II had chiefly in view the success of his campaign against Protestantism, but by creating at a stroke fourteen new bishoprics, whose holders were nominated by himself, with the consent of the pope, he at the same time considerably increased his personal power. Further, the method adopted for the creation of these bishoprics displeased the abbeyes, which were burdened with the duty of providing for the 'episcopal table' of the new prelates. It likewise provoked criticism from the nobles, who were discontented because they were debarred from holding the new sees, Philip II having decided that their occupants must be theologians. The new bishops, summoned to attend the States, further formed there a powerful monarchical party. It was at this time, too, that

Granvelle undertook the conversion of the University of Louvain into a real 'general seminary,' placed under the control of the sovereign by the establishment in it of regius professors. He further created a university at Douai (1562), in order to keep in the Low Countries youths who wished to prosecute their studies in a French-speaking town. Granvelle, loaded with favours by the king, and raised to the position of Archbishop of Malines and a cardinal, was regarded as responsible for all the mistakes which were in reality committed by Philip II. The Council of State dared to send Baron de Montigny to the king to explain the dangers of the situation, but this step was vain. Granvelle, however, lost the confidence of the regent, who imagined that the cardinal was intriguing against her with the king. Finally, Orange, Egmont, and Hoor sent to the king a formal complaint against the cardinal and Margaret secretly demanded his dismissal. Some weeks later Granvelle left 'on leave'; he did not return again (1564)."—H. Vander Linden, *Belgium, the making of a nation*, pp. 133-135.

ALSO IN: J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 2.—E. E. Crowe, *Cardinal Granvelle (Eminent foreign statesmen, v. 1)*.—*Cambridge modern history*, v. 3, pp. 187-197.

1562-1566.—Beginning of organized resistance to tyranny and persecution of Philip.—Signing of the compromise.—League of the Gueux.—After the departure of Granvelle "the nobles again took their seats in the council-chamber, but they found it very difficult to operate the government machine as set in motion by Granvelle. He had ruled alone while excluding the majority of the three administrative councils—Councils of State and of Finance and Privy Council; but now that he was gone these three were left without cohesion. The nobles thought of changing the council of state (it was at this date on a par with the other councils and specially charged with the direction of civil and military matters) into an executive body of government, composed of a greater number of members of the upper nobility, with extensive privileges and practically independent of the national government, as the privy council had to do with jurisdiction and the council of finance with the domain. This was a scheme with which Philip had no sympathy whatsoever. Viglius and his fellow-jurists were terrified at the thought of an influx of untrained nobles into the administration. From the time of the rise of Burgundian power jurists had played an important rôle, and were now quite unwilling to be displaced. Thus the administration was divided against itself. There was a pressure of the lesser nobles to come in and a pressure from the jurists to keep them out. The first effect of the nobles' influence was not encouraging. Soon nothing could be done without their mediation or that of their servants. Financial judgments, pardons, were bought; old suits of the nobles against the royal domain were revived and brought to trial; justice was for sale. The middle point of avarice was the regent's favourite secretary, soon notorious as Argenteros from his greed and avarice. This confusion gave great pleasure to the cardinal and his friends. And still sharper were their comments when the nobles urged the king to convene the States-General. Philip would not hear of such a step, and began to repent the departure of the cardinal, especially when the council of state demurred at enforcing in the Netherlands the decrees of the just-ended council of Trent. Among the many problems with which the nobles had to struggle, after the departure of Granvelle, the persecution of heresy

on the basis of the placards was one of the most important. Calvinism had entered the province from France in spite of preventive measures taken by the government. The disposition of the Catholic population itself was just then favourable to the spread of heretical ideas. . . . At the end of 1564, three points were the main topics of discussion in the council of state—reformation in the national government, improvement of financial conditions, measures regarding religion. The discussions lasted throughout the winter 1564-65. It was finally decided to ask the king to grant greater power to the council of state, to convene the States-General, and to moderate the placards against heresy. It was further decided to send Egmont to Spain to lay these matters before Philip. Viglius drew up the instruction. In the meeting held to approve the instructions Orange gave a long address, sketching the programme for the future. The contents were as follows: We deceive both ourselves and others if we try to disguise illness and remedy with smooth words. We must tell the king plainly how the matter lies; it cannot be postponed longer. Above all, we must make him understand that religion has received a severe shock in the adjacent countries, and has also suffered in the Netherlands so that it cannot be maintained . . . by the severity of the placards or by the erection of new bishoprics. The people will not longer endure the fury of the inquisition, the judges are so notorious from their quarrels that they lack the power to force men to their duty. It thus follows that the government cannot be properly wielded except by the institution of a governmental council; confusion had ensued from the division among various councils. Further, in this government council certain distinguished men must be included who are respected by the people. Finally the king must be shown that the resolutions of the council of Trent could not be adopted; the provinces border on Germany, whose princes, both Protestant and Catholic, will refuse the council from serious grounds; the king must be shown that the regent must postpone the execution of these resolutions. The king must be persuaded to relax his strictness about heresy. 'I am Catholic and will not deviate from religion, but I cannot approve the custom of kings to confine men's creed and religion within arbitrary limits.' The prince's words rang throughout the assembly room, where such language had never been heard hitherto. The speech made such an impression on Viglius that he was attacked by apoplexy in the following night. The instruction was brought by Hopperus to the form desired by Orange. From this moment it was plain that either the king or Orange must yield. Two principles were irreconcilably opposed to each other in the Netherlands—the principle of Catholicism with its unlimited royal autocracy as Spain recognised it in opposition to toleration in the realm of religion with a national government according to ancient principles based on ancient privileges. The future conflict was, for a great part, foreshadowed in this speech. In January, 1565, Egmont set off for Spain. There were certain rumours afloat that Granvelle had advised the king to sacrifice a few heads to assure quiet in his northern dominions, and certain members of the league pledged themselves, as they bade the count farewell, to avenge any ill that might befall him. No apparent ill did befall him; he was delightfully entertained and returned safely in the spring, hardly conscious until he was again in the Netherlands that Philip had promised nothing in answer to the earnest representations of his Netherland nobles. The king's reply embraced

little more than a protestation of adherence to the Catholic faith wherein no change was to be permitted, besides a plan of calling a convention of theologians so as to consult with the council of state regarding means of bringing erring spirits to better opinions. Not a word of the demanded reform, just a few vague promises about the king's coming to the Netherlands; not one word on the moderation of the persecutions, not one about the assembly of the States-General! And soon came rumours of a conference at Bayonne in France between the duke of Alva and Catherine de Médicis, on a possible coöperation between the Catholic powers for the maintenance of the ancient faith. This conference did not actually come to pass, but it caused many meetings among the Protestants. . . . The Calvinists had been encouraged by the attitude of the nobles and officials towards the persecutions, even though the placards had been strenuously executed in some cases. Ruard Tapper, a native of Enkhuizen in Holland, appointed inquisitor in 1537, being notorious for his severity. The stake had become a painfully ordinary sight in Netherland cities; many suffered punishment for their creed, while many more fled to England and Germany. At the same time the lukewarm coöperation shown by most of the stadtholders, by the nobles in the country, and the magistrates in the cities, led the reformed to protest in a way to threaten a serious popular rising. There were too many conferences between the Calvinist preachers and congregations with the lesser nobles during the summer of 1565 while the king's decision was still in abeyance. But the decisive answer put an end to all hope of leniency. The privy council begged Margaret to publish the king's orders in a modified and softened form, while making one more effort to convince him of the danger of his policy. Orange and Egmont, however, urged an immediate publication, even though they knew that a great revolt might ensue, and their advice was adopted. The mandate sent to the prelates, universities, and cities accordingly made a deep impression everywhere. The Brabanters were very indignant, claiming that no inquisition had ever existed on their soil, and that their privileges were infringed by its establishment. Flanders, Namur, and other provinces protested too. Incendiary documents appeared pasted upon the churches and town halls in many a city, yes, even upon the walls of the palaces of the regent and the Brussels nobles, all testifying to the disappointment of the people. This ire was more and more excited, too, by widely circulated and eagerly read pamphlets. There was a universal cry that the Spanish inquisition was coming, and tales of its martyrs ran around like wildfire. At the time of the arrival of Philip's despatches it chanced that the Netherland nobility were gathered in Brussels in large numbers to take part in the marriage festivities of Alexander Farnese, prince of Parma, the regent's son. They, too, were very indignant at Philip's arbitrary command. Their presence in the capital gave an opportunity for open expression of their indignation. Towards the end of November, about twenty of the young nobles, under the leadership of Thoulouse and De Hames, entered into a secret compact. This was the famous Compromise or alliance of the nobles. Copies of the original document were immediately made and circulated among the petty nobles in the country, with the result that in a couple of months the number of the signatures had reached three hundred. The contents of the articles, written in the court tongue, French, was somewhat as follows: The nobles stated that a handful of stran-

gers, for their own profit, had persuaded the king not only to refuse to ameliorate the placards against heresy, but to render them more severe, and even to introduce the Spanish inquisition, 'which is not only unjust and contrary to all laws divine and human, surpassing the greatest barbarity that was ever practised by tyrants, but is to God's great dishonour and to that of the whole Catholic faith which they pretend to maintain,' and would militate to the ruin of the Netherlands. The nobles declared that it was their duty to prevent the introduction of the inquisition in any form, at the same time asserting that they would maintain the king's authority and prevent any disturbance of the peace. They promised to stand by each other like brothers and faithful comrades against anyone who tried to punish or persecute one of the allies either on account of the inquisition or of the placards, because of the compact or under any pretence whatsoever. It was expressly declared that the compact sprang only 'from a holy zeal and laudable desire to maintain the glory of God, the majesty of the king, public peace, and the security of our persons and property.' In case of doubt the signers were to submit to the joint resolution of all or of those who were appointed thereto. The document ended with a solemn appeal to God's protection for their confederation and alliance. The great nobles—Orange, Egmont, and the others—were not involved in this for the time being. Probably in the beginning they did not even know of it, but they acted in a spirit similar to the spirit expressed in the formal document by refusing to execute the king's commands, and by declaring that, if the placards were not ameliorated, they must resign from their positions in the government. Even the regent, although not inclined to follow their example wholly, urged the king to compliance. Orange and Hoorn again absented themselves from the council of state. Egmont followed their lead hesitatingly, telling the adherents of the government that he could not endure the daily protests of his friends, and deciding that his honour was at stake. The allied nobles now conceived far-reaching plans. If the king refused to yield, they determined to seek alliances abroad, in Protestant England and Germany, among the Huguenots in France. It was not until the end of February, 1566, that Orange openly acknowledged the compromise, either then first hearing of it, or—what was more probable—considering that the time was but just ripe, while he had been cognisant of it from its inception. He now endeavoured to persuade the other nobles to join the movement. Bergen, Montigny, Hoorn, and Hoogstraaten agreed, but Egmont, Megen, and Mansfield refused, while the last two ranged themselves decidedly on the side of the government. Egmont, loyal and devoted to the government, was very anxious to avoid any appearance of opposition and of anti-Catholic sentiment. The loss of Egmont's support was a serious blow for the plans of the confederated nobles. No armed resistance was possible without him. The advice of the prince to the confederates was, taking this fact into consideration, to make one more appeal to the regent before taking decisive steps. The confederates adopted the suggestion, a petition was drawn up, and on April 3d the petty nobles flocked into Brussels from all quarters, from Friesland, as well as from Artois and Luxemburg, to the total number of about four hundred instead of the thirty-five thousand soldiers the regent had been warned to expect with them. The text of the petition had been carefully prepared by Louis of

Nassau, probably not without the coöperation of Orange, Brederode, and others. On April 5th, towards midday, Brederode and Louis of Nassau, arm in arm, led the procession to the palace, where the regent, surrounded by the knights of the Golden Fleece, gave them audience and received the document from Brederode's hands. The petition began with a protestation of loyalty to the king. The confederates then proceeded to declare that it was their duty to give warning of the dangerous condition of public sentiment. There would be no safety in the country if the placards were executed. They therefore implored the regent to send an envoy to Philip to demand the amelioration of his orders against the heretics. For the time being, pending the king's answer, the petitioners demanded suspension of the inquisition and of execution of the said placards, and finally they declared that they were unwilling to incur the responsibility of a revolt by concealing the true state of affairs, and deemed that they had acted as good and loyal and faithful vassals. A story is current that Margaret was filled with anxiety and foreboding about the petitioners and that, just before they arrived, Berlaymont whispered to her encouragingly, 'How, Madame, afraid of these beggars!' On the receipt of the petition, however, she preserved an appearance of calm and answered with dignity the short but vigorous speech with which Brederode delivered the document. She reserved a fuller reply until the morrow. Then she informed the confederates that before the offering of the petition she had decided, on the advice of the stadtholders, of the knights of the Golden Fleece, of the council of state, and of the privy council, to publish a moderation of the placards. A suspension was beyond her power, but she hoped that they would be content with this step for the present and would support her in the maintenance of the ancient religion. Two days later the confederates presented a second document, expressing their disappointment at the restricted jurisdiction of the regent, and asking permission to have their petition printed to prevent the circulation of false reports as to its tenor. Margaret agreed to this, only begging that there should be no secret meetings, and that no new members should be received into the compromise. This dissatisfied the confederates, and some bitter words were exchanged. A couple of days of feasting followed, and then the nobles separated, leaving the interests of the Compromise in the hands of Brederode, Louis of Nassau, Culemborg, and Van den Bergh. The course events had taken left the regent displeased and the nobles not satisfied. Orange, too, was disappointed at the result and talked of going to Germany, an idea that perhaps had some connection with the current rumour that Philip considered him the cause of all ill, and thought that he was plotting to restore the shaken royal authority by force of arms. There was mutual distrust, and the distrust was not without reason. It was at this time that the name of Beggars, or Gueux, as applied to the confederates, came into vogue at one of the feasts in the house of Culemborg. Brederode, possibly in reference to Berlaymont's contemptuous term, proposed the adoption of the name. Soon the Beggar (Gueux), as denoting the nobleman of the Compromise, could be recognised from a simple grey garment. . . . On the breast was worn a silver or golden medal, on one side of which was a portrait of the king, on the other, two clasped hands and the inscription *fidèles au roy jusques à la besace*." —P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 3, pp. 10-21.

ALSO IN: F. Schiller, *History of the revolt in the Netherlands*, bk. 3.—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 3-6.—*Cambridge modern history*, v. 3, pp. 197-220.

1566.—Field preaching under arms.—Riots of image-breakers.—Philip's schemes of revenge.—Discouragement and retirement of Orange.—Blindness of Egmont and Horn, and their fate.—Up to this date, the people proper of the Netherlands, the burghers and the lower classes, had taken little part in the movement against the government. Only a few had ever heard the truth of the action of the great nobles in relation to Granvelle. The cardinal had, however, been considered the very personification of the Spanish system of government, and hated accordingly. The numerous pamphlets and pasquines against him had had a wide vogue among the burgher population at Antwerp, Ghent, and Brussels. Nor had it been a secret that Orange and Egmont were the leaders in the opposition to the cardinal, and their popularity throughout the provinces had increased accordingly. They were regarded by the people at large as zealous for the maintenance of national liberty, for a government by natives, for diminished severity in the observance of the placards—the blood placards to which so many sacrifices had fallen in the past years. Not that Calvinism or the doctrine of the Baptists, or Mennonites, found many adherents among the well-to-do citizens. On the contrary, although heresy was spreading to all classes of the population, it was in the main—just as in the time of the Baptists—the lowest classes who were chiefly affected by its spirit. In proportion to the whole population, the number of Calvinists was small, and chiefly to be found in Artois, Flanders, Brabant, Hainaut, Holland, and Zealand. Even increased by those of Mennonite opinions in the Frisian and Holland country districts, by the Lutherans of foreign birth in great commercial cities like Antwerp and Amsterdam, the whole number was far inferior to those who were somewhat indifferent to Catholicism and yet were averse to persecution. Only a very few zealous Catholics shared the king's opinions and thought that heresy must be rooted out by unyielding severity, and even, if need were, with Spanish help. Thus the desire for amelioration of the placards was a universal popular wish, and the movement among the nobles, especially their appearance at Brussels in April, was watched with the greatest interest during the spring of 1566. The cry of *Vivent les Gueux!* was soon heard in burghers' circles, and the Beggar's medal was seen in many places. The Calvinists especially had watched the course of events with the closest attention. They fixed their hopes on the action of the nobles, and expected instant amelioration, if not abolition, of the placards. The petition, translated into German and Dutch, together with the regent's answer and the nobles' reply, was read with the keenest interest by the Calvinists. . . . [The king's reply to the petition sent to him by the hands of Egmont, brought bitter disappointment, and aroused a growing desire for active opposition.] . . . In May sermons [by Calvinist and Zwinglian preachers] began to be given in a more open manner. Great multitudes assembled, first in the fields, later before the city gates, to hear the preaching. A synod of the Calvinist congregations met at Antwerp and, making use of the favourable opportunity, organised a general movement among the Calvinists throughout the Netherlands for the purpose of showing the government their strength and the significance of their demands. Many exiles returned, first secretly, then

openly; the placards were considered practically suspended! Antwerp was the centre of all this. Sometimes as many as twenty or thirty thousand people, says an eye witness, flocked to hear the open-air sermons outside that city, protected by watchers employed in the name of the consistories. Meanwhile the fulfilment of the promise made to the confederates was discussed earnestly by the regent with the council of state. As early as April 10th, Bergen and Montigny were appointed envoys to Spain to urge Philip against the introduction of the Spanish inquisition, and to beg him to come to the Netherlands and to convene the States-General. Granvelle wrote from Rome in the same spirit. Viglius and Berlaymont drew up a placard moderating the persecution temporarily, which was given to the provincial Estates before the end of the month. It was deemed so little to the purpose that it was soon termed a 'murderation' instead of a 'moderation.' The regent was placed in a very critical position. Private despatches from the king commanding stringency, concessions, which meant nothing, sent openly to the council of state, increased the uncertainty, while the Antwerp synod, under the secret leadership of Aldegonde, proceeded to organise Calvinist preaching. The ministers Guy de Bray, Peregrine de la Grange, Jean Taffin, François du Jon, Petrus Dathenus, Caspar van der Heyden, Hermannus Moded, and others, both from French and Netherland congregations, aroused their people with earnest harangues. A steadily increasing movement made itself felt throughout the whole land, especially in Flanders, in Artois, in Holland. In Holland, though, affairs took on a somewhat different character from that evident in the other provinces. The many Lutherans at Amsterdam affected the theology, and a certain disposition was evinced to adopt the Augsburg confession as the basis of a creed. A commission from the Calvinist congregations at Antwerp tried to persuade them to accept the Netherland-Calvinist confession of 1559, but Holland people declined to consider the propositions. The regent was at her wits' end. The council of state could give her little consolation. Aerscot, Aremberg, and Berlaymont were as helpless as she. Orange, Egmont, and Hoorn continued to urge the convention of the States-General and the abolition of the placards as the only effective measures to allay the disturbance. The regent sent messenger after messenger after messenger to Philip, but no letter came to her. For three months the Brussels government was left in a helpless condition without one word from Spain, where the king deliberated, as of old, with his council and the two envoys from the Netherlands. The increasing numbers of open-air congregations, and the fact that the members carried arms as they listened to the expounding of their faith, put the regent in constant fear of some sudden revolutionary outbreak. In her dilemma she finally appealed to the confederated nobles for aid, and implored them to use their influence to check these dangerous assemblies. In accordance with her request, which was indeed almost a supplication, Brederode, Louis of Nassau [a brother of Orange], Culemborg, and Van den Bergh met at Lier, July 2d, to discuss the situation. They also invited certain ministers, deputies of the Antwerp synod, to confer with them. In reply to the demand that the public sermons should be relinquished for a time, the preachers said that matters had gone too far, that the people could no longer be restrained, and that if the sermons were abandoned a serious uproar would ensue. Threats that the nobles would use force

if the meetings did not cease, affected the synod little under the circumstances. . . . The spirit of revolt, meanwhile, gathered strength in the Netherlands. The populace began to take matters into their own hands and to express in riotous acts their hatred for the priesthood and the Romish ceremonials. Towards the end of August an armed mob fell on isolated churches in Ypres and Courtrai, threw down the images, ill-treated the priests, and plundered the rich buildings and the well-stocked treasuries. This iconoclasm spread from village to village, from city to city. In West Flanders soon not one church was untouched. At Antwerp, Orange succeeded for a time in holding the mob in check, but during his absence in Brussels on August 10th, at the regent's command, the rabble fell on the churches, and in the space of four hours the beautiful cathedral of Notre Dame was reduced to a ruin of its former self. Gresham, the English agent, writes: 'and coming into Oure Lady Church, yt looked like bell where were above 1,000 torches brannyng and syche a noise! as yf heven and erth had gone together, with falling of images and fallyng down of costly works.' These same turbulent scenes were enacted in Holland, Zealand, and other regions in the north. Everywhere fanaticism and avarice went hand in hand; church ornaments, products of mediæval ecclesiastical art, fell as booty to thieves and plunderers when they escaped destruction by iconoclastic Calvinists in a zeal which they counted as holy. The authorities almost everywhere lacked energy and strength to oppose the onslaughts. Bruges, Mons, Courtrai, Douay, and Arras were almost the only towns where the riots were successfully met by the courageous attitude of the armed citizens. Unspeakable was the injury inflicted on the treasures of mediæval art. This rage of iconoclasm lasted more than a month, while the government at Brussels watched its mad course in impotent indignation. On August 12th, the regent received her brother's letter. One came to the prince of Orange at the same time, expressing full confidence in him, with friendly expressions. It was not known that the hypocritical king had taken the precaution to declare all concessions illegal before a notary! But even had he been sincere it was plain even to him that these unwilling and inadequate concessions could not stem the current of the revolt. No one of the three chief nobles thought that the concessions were sufficient under the circumstances. They wished more now, and refused to use force against the riots unless the regent would meet the wishes of the nobles as expressed at St. Trond. So the anxious duchess was forced to yield, at least in the chief points. On August 23d, she concluded an agreement with a deputation of the confederates, wherein she granted, in return for promises of immediate help, permission for preaching where sermons had already been given, provided the congregation carried no arms. No rioting was to be allowed and Catholic services were not to be disturbed. Further, she promised immunity for the signers of the Compromise and of the petition. This agreement was published and for a moment the storm of iconoclasm held up. . . . The king was indeed wroth when he learned what had passed, and determined to avenge the insults offered to his church and to his authority. His first intent was to go in person to the Netherlands in February, at the head of an army, and punish all who had worked against him; so at least he wrote privately to the regent, so run the despatches of Montigny and others from Spain, while his letters to the council of state were somewhat

calmer. Montigny and Bergen, detained by the king in Spain, gave a clear warning of what was to come. What was the action of the nobles to be? Submission or opposition? Aremberg and Megen had deserted the popular cause, Mansteld followed their example, Montigny advised yielding, Egmont hesitated. Orange and Hoorn believed in opposition, but the prince was unwilling to risk formal steps without Egmont. He tried to assure himself of support in Germany and left no stone unturned to win over Egmont to the party of opposition. In early October Hoorn, Hoogstraaten, Orange, and Egmont had a conference at Dendermonde. It was hoped that the latter could be persuaded to a combined step, allied with a convention of the States-General, to force the king to act as they wished, but Egmont, attached as he was to royal authority, refused to enter on this road. Meantime, as the autumn went on, the government felt itself stronger. Philip sent large sums of money which enabled the regent to levy troops. Noircarmes was sent to Valenciennes to quiet the city by force of arms, during the absence of the stadtholder, Bergen. The lord of Hlierges, Berlaymont's son, and other stout royalists were placed at the head of troops elsewhere, and it was evident that the administration was fully determined to assert itself with or without troops from Spain, and to avenge itself for its recent humiliation. And what were the Beggars doing? A feeling of insecurity had again affected the Calvinist congregations and the petty nobles. There was an attempt to revive the Compromise so as to demand the maintenance of the accord of August 23d, but this failed. Troops to the number of eight thousand were actually collected during the summer and retained by means of *wachtgeld*, or pledge money, for the Beggars' service, but the expense borne by the congregations was so heavy that the mercenaries were dismissed in November, and the majority passed directly into the service of the government. Another scheme was on foot—the minister Dathenus appears to have been the sponsor thereof—to raise three million guilders and offer them to the king for the grant of religious freedom. It is possible, however, that this somewhat naïve suggestion was only a cloak for collecting a war fund. There were many attempts, moreover, to secure coöperative action, but the majority of the city government were afraid to commit themselves, and these failed, just as did an effort to convene the States-General, although the latter emanated from Egmont himself. It was more and more evident that no leader was forthcoming for the discontented. Orange and Egmont both kept in the background; the prince was unwilling to venture action without Egmont. In these circumstances the Calvinists resolved finally to help themselves,—the more moderate Lutherans also drawing back,—and an assembly was held in December. It was decided to use the sums already collected, not to bribe the king, but to collect troops through their fellow-Calvinist, the elector palatine. The military command was to be offered to Orange, who must promise to maintain the reformed religion. If he refused, Hoorn and Brederode were the next choice, one or both together. The leader was to have a council of six nobles, members of the Compromise appointed by the consistories, six merchants, and a few other members. The two first-mentioned nobles declined the dangerous honour at once. Brederode thus became the chosen leader of the Calvinists, a man full of zeal for the Calvinist cause, but ill fitted for the difficult post. . . . In Amsterdam, the great Beggar, Bre-

derode, entered into negotiations with the Huguenots and with friends in England, and succeeded in collecting a small military force. He drew up, moreover, in the name of the confederated nobles, a new petition urging the maintenance of the accord of August 23d and permission to hold public sermons. The regent answered that she knew nothing of any 'confederated nobles,' that she had never intended to allow public sermons, and that she advised the nobles then gathered together to disperse and to obey their king,—an advice that was not followed. Now Orange had allowed all Brederode's actions to take place before his very eyes in spite of the regent's protests. He was still waiting. Egmont meanwhile ranged himself on the side of the government, returned all correspondence to Orange and his friends, and formally severed his relations with them. The prince's waiting attitude exasperated the Calvinists, who made repeated attempts to win him over to an open espousal of their cause, but he persevered in his position, with his eye fixed on Germany. Brederode continued his activity, on the other hand, and his army near Antwerp increased. The Beggars made an attempt to take Walcheren by force, but failed. Bombergen was more successful in an attack on Bois-le-duc, but Megeu the royalist stadtholder of Gelderland, also succeeded in gaining mastery of Harderwijk and Utrecht, while he seriously menaced the safety of Amsterdam and Vianen. Brederode hastened to Holland to protect his cities, and on March 13th [1567] an actual battle took place, in his absence, between the Beggars' troops under the inexperienced Thoulouse and a force of three thousand trained soldiers under the lord of Beauvoir. The Beggars had only numbers in their favour, and they were cut to pieces. Orange was blamed for this defeat, as he had, with the Lutherans' aid, held the Calvinists in check within Antwerp, when they were ready to burst out to help their brethren. Eleven days later Valenciennes opened its door to Noircarmes. With this step the revolt was practically suppressed. Brederode's own city of Vianen was held by German mercenaries under Eric of Brunswick, and the great Beggar took refuge at Emden. Several less fortunate nobles were captured as they attempted to reach Germany, delivered over to the Frisian stadtholder Aremberg, and confined at Vilvoorden. By that time the prince too had forsaken the land. Louis had warned him not to count on German help. The Calvinists at Antwerp were furious at him and threatened his life. The regent showed no disposition to be kindly towards him. 'As far as we can see, it looks as though it were up with this land,' he wrote on April 9th to the landgrave of Hesse. He had one last meeting with Egmont at Willebroek, whereof legend preserves the memory in the laconic farewell words: 'Adieu, landless prince'; 'Adieu, headless count.'—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 3, pp. 21-35.

ALSO IN: J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, v. 2, pt. 3, ch. 1.

1567-1573.—Alva in the Netherlands.—Council of Blood.—The forebodings of Orange "were only too correct. Philip had resolved to send the Duke of Alva to subdue the Netherlands. A force of nine thousand veteran Spanish infantry with thirteen hundred Italian cavalry had been collected from the garrisons of Lombardy and Naples, and Alva began a long, difficult march over the Mt. Cenis and through Franche Comté, Lorraine, and Luxemburg. William had escaped just in time. When the Duke arrived in Brussels and presented his credentials to the Council of State, it

was seen that the King had bestowed on him such extensive powers that Margaret remained Regent in name only. One of his earliest acts was to get possession of the persons of Counts Egmont and Hoorn, with their private secretaries, and to imprison Antony van Straelen, Burgomaster of Antwerp, and a confidential friend of the Prince of Orange. Many other arrests were made; and Alva, having caught his victims, invented an instrument to help him to dispose of them. By the mere fiat of his will he created a judicial chamber, whose decisions were to override those of any other court of law in the Netherlands, and which was to be responsible to none, not even to the Council of State. It was called the Council of Tumults, but is better known by its popular name, The Bloody Tribunal. It consisted of twelve members, among whom were Barlaymont and a few of the most violent Romanists of the Netherlands; but only two, Juan de Vargas and del Rio, both Spaniards, were permitted to vote and influence the decisions. Del Rio was a nonentity; but de Vargas was a very stern reality—a man of infamous life, equally notorious for the delight he took in slaughtering his fellow-men and the facility with which he murdered the Latin language! He brought the whole population of the Netherlands within the grip of the public executioner by his indictment: *Hæretici fraxerunt templa, boni nihil faxerunt contra; ergo debent omnes patibulare*; by which he meant, *The heretics have broken open churches, the orthodox have done nothing to hinder them; therefore they ought all of them to be hanged together*. Alva reserved all final decisions for his own judgment, in order that the work might be thoroughly done. He wrote to the King, 'Men of law only condemn for crimes that are proved, whereas your Majesty knows that affairs of State are governed by very different rules from the laws which they have here.' At its earlier sittings this terrible tribunal defined the crime of treason, and stated that its punishment was death. The definition extended to eighteen articles, and declared it to be treason:—to have presented or signed any petition against the new bishoprics, the Inquisition, or the *Placards*; to have tolerated public preaching under any circumstances; to have omitted to resist iconoclasm, or field-preaching, or the presentation of the *Request*; to have asserted that the King had not the right to suspend the charters of the provinces; or to maintain that the Council of Tumults had not a right to override all the laws and privileges of the Netherlands. All these things were treason, and all of them were capital offences. Proof was not required; all that was needed was reasonable suspicion, or rather what the Duke of Alva believed to be so. The Council soon got to work. It sent commissioners through every part of the land—towns, villages, districts—to search for any who might be suspected of having committed any act which could be included within their definition of treason. Informers were invited, were bribed, to come forward; and soon shoals of denunciations and evidence flowed in to them. The accused were brought before the Council, tried (if the procedure could be called a trial), and condemned in batches. The records speak of ninety-five, eighty-four, forty-six, thirty-five at a time. Alva wrote to Philip that no fewer than fifteen hundred had been taken in their beds early on Ash-Wednesday morning, and later he announces another batch of eight hundred. In each case he adds, 'I have ordered all of them to be executed.' In view of these records, the language of a contemporary chronicler does not appear

exaggerated: 'The gallows, the wheel, stakes, trees along the highways, were laden with carcasses or limbs of those who had been hanged, beheaded, or roasted; so that the air which God made for the respiration of the living, was now become the common grave or habitation of the dead. Every day produced fresh objects of pity and of mourning, and the noise of the bloody passing-bell was continually heard, which by the martyrdom of this man's cousin, and the other's brother or friend, rang dismal peals in the hearts of the survivors.' Whole families left their dwellings to shelter themselves in the woods, and, goaded by their misery, pillaged and plundered. The priests had been active as informers, and these *Wild-Beggars*, as they were called, 'made excursions on them, serving themselves of the darkest nights for revenge and robbery, punishing them not only by despoiling them of their goods, but by disfiguring their faces, cutting off ears and noses.' The country was in a state of anarchy. Margaret, Duchess of Parma, the nominal Regent of the Netherlands, had found her position intolerable since the arrival of the Duke of Alva, and was permitted by Philip to resign (Oct. 6th, 1567). Alva henceforth was untrammelled by even nominal restraint. A

king on the subject, as his dignity entitled him to do, since the Netherlands were a part of the Germanic body. It received an answer which was an insult to the remonstrant from its defiance of truth and common sense, and which cut off all hope from the miserable Flemings. Philip declared that what he had done had been done 'for the repose of the Provinces,' . . . and almost on the same day he published a new edict, confirming a decree of the Inquisition which condemned all the inhabitants of the Netherlands to death as heretics, with the exception of a few persons who were named [see above]. . . . In their utter despair, the Flemings implored the aid of the Prince of Orange, who . . . was now residing at Dillenburg, in Nassau, in safety from Philip's threats, and from the formal sentence which, . . . the Council of Blood had just pronounced against him by name. But he resolved that in such an emergency it did not become him to weigh his own safety against the claims his countrymen had on his exertions. After a few weeks energetically spent in levying troops and raising money to maintain them, he published a document which he entitled his 'Justification,' and which stated his own case and that of the Provinces with a most



DUKE OF ALVA

MARGARET, DUCHESS OF PARMAS

ALEXANDER FARNESE

process was begun against the Counts Egmont and Hoorn, and William of Orange was proclaimed an outlaw (Jan. 24th, 1568) unless he submitted himself for trial before the Council of Tumults. Some days afterwards, his eldest son, a boy of fifteen and a student in the University of Louvain, was kidnapped and carried off to Spain. William replied in his famous Justification of the Prince of Orange against his Calumniators, in which he declared that he, a citizen of Brabant, a Knight of the Golden Fleece, a Prince of the Holy Roman Empire, one of the sovereign Princes of Europe (in virtue of the principality of Orange), could not be summoned before an incompetent tribunal. He reviewed the events in the Netherlands since the accession of Philip II., and spoke plainly against the misgovernment caused, he said diplomatically, by the evil counsels of the King's advisers."—T. M. Lindsay, *History of the Reformation*, v. 2, pp. 255-259.

1568-1572.—Arming of revolt and beginning of war by prince of Orange.—Alva's successes, brutalities, and senseless taxation.—Quarrels with England and destruction of Flemish trade.—"So unprecedented already was the slaughter that even in the beginning of March 1568, when Alva had been scarcely six months in the country, the Emperor Maximilian, himself a Roman Catholic, addressed a formal remonstrance to the

convincing clearness; and at the end of April he took the field at the head of a small force, composed of French Huguenots, Flemish exiles, . . . and German mercenaries. . . . Thus in the spring of 1568 began that terrible war which for 40 years desolated what, in spite of great natural disadvantages, had hitherto been one of the most prosperous countries of Europe. . . . To dwell on many of its details . . . would require volumes. . . . And, indeed, the pitched battles were few. At the outset [May 23, 1568] Count Louis of Nassau, the prince's brother, defeated and slew Count Aremberg, the Spanish governor of the province of Groningen, very nearly on the spot [near the convent of Heiliger-Lee, or the Holy Lion] on which, in the palmy days of Rome, the fierce valor of Arminius had annihilated the legions whose loss was so deeply imprinted on the heart of Augustus; and Alva had avenged the disaster by so complete a rout of Louis at Jemmingen, that more than half of the rebel army was slaughtered on the field, and Louis himself only escaped a capture, which would have delivered him to the scaffold, by swimming the Ems, and escaping with a mere handful of troops, all that were left of his army, into Germany. But after dealing this blow . . . Alva rarely fought a battle in the open field. He preferred showing the superiority of his generalship by defying the endeavours of the prince and his

brothers to bring him to action, miscalculating, indeed, the eventual consequences of such tactics, and believing that the protraction of the war must bring the rebels to his sovereign's feet by the utter exhaustion of their resources; while the event proved that it was Spain which was exhausted by the contest, that kingdom being in fact so utterly prostrated by continued draining of men and treasure which it involved, that her decay may be dated from the moment when Alva reached the Flemish borders. His career in the Netherlands seemed to show that, warrior though he was, persecution was more to his taste than even victory. Victorious, indeed, he was, so far as never failing to reduce every town which he besieged, and to baffle every design of the prince which he anticipated. . . . Every triumph which he gained was sullied by a ferocious and deliberate cruelty, of which the history of no other general in the world affords a similar example. . . . Whenever Alva captured a town, he himself enjoined his troops to show no mercy either to the garrison or to the peaceful inhabitants. Every atrocity which greed of rapine, wantonness of lust, and blood-thirsty love of slaughter could devise was perpetrated by his express direction. . . . He had difficulties to encounter besides those of his military operations, and such as he was less skilful in meeting. He soon began to be in want of money. A fleet laden with gold and silver was driven by some French privateers into an English harbour, where Elizabeth at once laid her hands on it. If it belonged to her enemies, she had a right, she said, to seize it: if to her friends, to borrow it (she had not quite decided in which light to regard the Spaniards, but the logic was irresistible, and her grasp irremovable), and, to supply the deficiency, Alva had recourse to expedients which injured none so much as himself. To avenge himself on the Queen, he issued a proclamation [March, 1569] forbidding all commercial intercourse between the Netherlands and England; . . . but his prohibition damaged the Flemings more than the English merchants, and in so doing inflicted loss upon himself. . . . For he at the same time endeavoured to compel the States to impose, for his use, a heavy tax on every description of property, on every transfer of property, and even on every article of merchandise [the tenth penny, or ten per cent.] as often as it should be sold: the last impost, in the Provinces which were terrified into consenting to it, so entirely annihilating trade that it even roused the disapproval of his own council; and that, finding themselves supported by that body, even those Provinces which had complied, retracted their assent. . . . After a time [1572] he was forced first to compromise his demands for a far lower sum than that at which he had estimated the produce of his taxes, and at last to renounce even that. He was bitterly disappointed and indignant, and began to be weary of his post."—C. D. Yonge, *Three centuries of modern history*, ch. 5.

Also in: J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch Republic*, v. 2, pt. 3, ch. 2-7.—D. Campbell, *Puritan in Holland, England, and America*, v. 1, ch. 3.—*Cambridge modern history*, v. 3, pp. 221-237.

1572.—Beggars of the Sea and their capture of Brill.—Rapid revolution in Holland and Zeeland, but wholly in name of king and his stadholder, William of Orange.—Provisional government organized.—In the spring of 1572, Alva having reestablished friendly relations with Queen Elizabeth, all the cruisers of the rebellious Netherlanders—"Beggars of the Sea" as they had styled themselves—were suddenly expelled from

English ports, where they had previously found shelter and procured supplies. The consequence was unexpected to those who brought it about, and proved most favorable to the patriotic cause. Desperately driven by their need of some harbor of refuge, the fleet of these adventurers made an attack upon the important seaport of Brill, took it with little fighting and held it stubbornly. Excited by this success, the patriotic burghers of Flushing, on the isle of Walcheren, soon afterwards rose and expelled the Spanish garrison from their town. "The example thus set by Brill and Flushing was rapidly followed. The first half of the year 1572 was distinguished by a series of triumphs rendered still more remarkable by the reverses which followed at its close. . . . Enkhuizen, the key to the Zuyder Zee, the principal arsenal, and one of the first commercial cities in the Netherlands, rose against the Spanish Admiral, and hung out the banner of Orange on its ramparts. The revolution effected here was purely the work of the people—of the mariners and burghers of the city. Moreover, the magistracy was set aside and the government of Alva repudiated without shedding one drop of blood, without a single wrong to person or property. By the same spontaneous movement, nearly all the important cities of Holland and Zeeland raised the standard of him in whom they recognized their deliverer. The revolution was accomplished under nearly similar circumstances everywhere. With one fierce bound of enthusiasm the nation shook off its chain. Oudewater, Dort, Harlem, Leyden, Gorcum, Loewenstein, Gouda, Medenblik, Hoorn, Alkmaar, Edam, Monnikendam, Purmerende, as well as Flushing, Veer, and Enkhuizen, all ranged themselves under the government of Orange as lawful stadholder for the King. Nor was it in Holland and Zeeland alone that the beacon fires of freedom were lighted. City after city in Gelderland, Overijssel, and the See of Utrecht, all the important towns of Friesland, some sooner, some later, some without a struggle, some after a short siege, some with resistance by the functionaries of government, some by amicable compromise, accepted the garrisons of the Prince and formally recognized his authority. Out of the chaos which a long and preternatural tyranny had produced, the first struggling elements of a new and a better world began to appear. . . . Not all the conquests thus rapidly achieved in the cause of liberty were destined to endure, nor were any to be retained without a struggle. The little northern cluster of republics, which had now restored its honor to the ancient Batavian name, was destined, however, for a long and vigorous life. From that bleak isthmus the light of freedom was to stream through many years upon struggling humanity in Europe, a guiding pharos across a stormy sea; and Harlem, Leyden, Alkmaar—names hallowed by deeds of heroism such as have not often illustrated human annals, still breathe as trumpet-tongued and perpetual a defiance to despotism as Marathon, Thermopylae, or Salamis. A new board of magistrates had been chosen in all the redeemed cities by popular election. They were required to take an oath of fidelity to the King of Spain, and to the Prince of Orange as his stadholder; to promise resistance to the Duke of Alva, the tenth penny, and the Inquisition; 'to support every man's freedom and the welfare of the country; to protect widows, orphans, and miserable persons, and to maintain justice and truth.' Diedrich Sonoy arrived on the 2nd June at Enkhuizen. He was provided by the Prince with a commission, appointing him Lieutenant-Governor of North Hol-

land or Waterland. Thus to combat the authority of Alva, was set up the authority of the King. The stadholderate over Holland and Zeeland, to which the Prince had been appointed in 1559, he now reassumed. Upon this fiction reposed the whole provisional polity of the revolted Netherlands. . . . The people at first claimed not an iota more of freedom than was secured by Philip's coronation oath. There was no pretence that Philip was not sovereign, but there was a pretence and a determination to worship God according to conscience, and to reclaim the ancient political 'liberties' of the land. So long as Alva reigned, the Blood Council, the Inquisition, and martial law, were the only codes or courts, and every charter slept. To recover this practical liberty and these historical rights, and to shake from their shoulders a most sanguinary government, was the purpose of William and of the people. No revolutionary standard was displayed. The written instructions given by the Prince to his lieutenant Sonoy were to 'see that the Word of God was preached, without, however, suffering any hindrance to the Roman Church in the exercise of its religion.' . . . The Prince was still in Germany, engaged in raising troops and providing funds."—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, pt. 3, ch. 6-7.

ALSO IN: *Cambridge modern history*, v. 3, pp. 237-260.

1572-1573.—**Capture of Mons by Louis of Nassau and its recovery by Spaniards.**—**Spanish massacres at Mechlin, Zutphen and Naarden.**—**Siege and capture of Haarlem.**—"While William of Orange was in Germany, raising money and troops, he still directed the affairs of the Netherlands. His prospects were again brightened by the capture, by his gallant brother Louis of Nassau, of the important city of Mons. . . . This last startling blow forced Alva to immediate action. He at once sent his son, Don Frederic, to lay siege to Mons. Soon after, the Duke of Medina Celi, Alva's successor as governor of the Netherlands [to whom, however, Alva did not surrender his authority], arrived safely with his fleet, but another Spanish squadron fell with its rich treasures into the hands of the rebels. Alva was now so pressed for money that he agreed to abolish the useless tenth-penny tax, if the states-general of the Netherlands would grant him a million dollars a year. He had summoned the states of Holland to meet at the Hague on the 15th of July, but they met at Dert to renounce his authority, at the summons of William of Orange, who had raised an army in Germany, but was without means to secure the necessary three months' payment in advance. While still owning allegiance to the king, the states recognized Orange as stadtholder, empowered him to drive out the Spanish troops, and to maintain religious freedom. . . . Treating the Emperor Maximilian's peace orders as useless, the prince marched his army of 24,000 men to the relief of Mons. Most of the Netherland cities on the way accepted his authority, and everything looked favorable for his success, when an unforeseen and terrible calamity occurred. The French king, Charles IX., whose troops had been routed before Mons [by the Spaniards], had promised to furnish further aid to the provinces. Admiral Coligny was to join the forces of Orange with 15,000 men. The frightful massacre of Saint Bartholomew in Paris, on the 24th of August, . . . was a terrible blow to the prince. It broke up all his plans. He had reached the neighborhood of Mons, which he was trying to reinforce, when a night attack was made by the Spaniards on his

lines, September 11. . . . Obligated to leave his gallant brother Louis to his fate in Mons, Orange narrowly escaped being killed on his retreat. . . . Deserted by the cities that had been so earnest in his cause, sorrowful, but not despairing for his country, William had only his trust in God and his own destiny to sustain him. As Holland was the only province that clung to the hero patriot, he went there expecting and prepared to die for liberty. Louis of Nassau was forced, on the 21st of September, to abandon Mons to the Spaniards, who allowed Noircarmes . . . to massacre and pillage the inhabitants contrary to the terms of surrender. This wretch killed Catholics and Protestants alike, in order to secure their riches for himself. . . . The city of Mechlin, which had refused to admit a garrison of his troops, was even more brutally ravaged by Alva in order to obtain gold. . . . Alva's son, Don Frederic, now proved an apt pupil of his father, by almost literally executing his command to kill every man and burn every house in the city of Zutphen, which had opposed the entrance of the king's troops. The massacre was terrible and complete. The cause of Orange suffered still more by the cowardly flight of his brother-in-law, Count Van den Berg, from his post of duty in the provinces of Gelderland and Overijssel. By this desertion rugged Friesland was also lost to the patriot side. Holland alone held out against the victorious Spaniards. The little city of Naarden at first stoutly refused to surrender, but being weak was obliged to yield without striking a blow. Don Frederic's agent, Julian Romero, having promised that life and property should be spared, the people welcomed him and his soldiers at a grand feast on the 2d of December. Hardly was this over when 50 citizens, who had assembled in the town hall, were warned by a priest to prepare for death. This was the signal for the entrance of the Spanish troops, who butchered every one in the building. They then rushed furiously through the streets, pillaging and then setting fire to the houses. As the inmates came forth, they were tortured and killed by their cruel foes. . . . Alva wrote boastfully to the king that 'they had cut the throats of the burghers and all the garrison, and had not left a mother's son alive.' He ascribed this success to the favor of God in permitting the defence of so feeble a city to be even attempted. . . . As the city of Haarlem was the key to Holland, Don Frederic resolved to capture it at any cost. But the people were so bent upon resistance that they executed two of their magistrates for secretly negotiating with Alva. . . . Ripperda, the commandant of the Haarlem garrison, cheered soldiers and people by his heroic counsels, and through the efforts of Orange the city was placed under patriot rule. Amsterdam, which was in the enemy's hands, was ten miles distant, across a lake traversed by a narrow causeway, and the prince had erected a number of forts to command the frozen surface. As a thick fog covered the lake in these December days, supplies of men, provisions, and ammunition were brought into the city in spite of the vigilance of the besiegers. The sledges and skates of the Hollanders were very useful in this work. But against Don Frederic's army of 30,000 men, nearly equalling the entire population of Haarlem, the city with its extensive but weak fortifications had only a garrison of about 4,000. The fact that about 300 of these were respectable women, armed with sword, musket, and dagger, shows the heroic spirit of the people. The men were nerved to fresh exertion by these Amazons, who, led by their noble

chief, the Widow Kenau Hasselaer, fought desperately by their side, both within and without the works. The banner of this famous heroine, who had been called the Joan of Arc of Haarlem, is now in the City Hall. A vigorous cannonade was kept up against the city for three days, beginning December 18, and men, women, and children worked incessantly in repairing the shattered walls. They even dragged the statues of saints from the churches to fill up the gaps, to the horror of the superstitious Spaniards. The brave burghers repelled their assaults with all sorts of weapons. Burning coals and boiling oil were hurled at their heads, and blazing pitch-hoops were skillfully caught about their necks. Astonished by this terrible resistance, which cost him hundreds of lives, Don Frederic resolved to take the city by siege. [On the last day of January, 1573, Don Frederic having considerably shattered an outwork called the ravelin, ordered a midnight assault, and the Spaniards carried the fort.] . . . They mounted the walls expecting to have the city at their mercy. Judge of their amazement to find a new and stronger fort, shaped like a half-moon, which had been secretly constructed during the siege, blazing away at them with its cannon. Before they could recover from their shock, the ravelin, which had been carefully undermined, blew up, and sent them crushed and bleeding into the air. The Spaniards outside, terrified at these outbursts, retreated hastily to their camp, leaving hundreds of dead beneath the walls. Two assaults of veteran soldiers, led by able generals, having been repelled by the dauntless burghers of Haarlem, famine seemed the only means of forcing its surrender. Starvation in fact soon threatened both besiegers and besieged. Don Frederic wished to abandon the contest, but Alva threatened to disown him as a son if he did so. . . . There was soon a struggle for the possession of the lake, which was the only means of conveying supplies to the besieged. In the terrible hand-to-hand fight which followed the grappling of the rival vessels, on the 28th of May, the prince's fleet, under Admiral Brand, was totally defeated. . . . During the month of June the wretched people of Haarlem had no food but linseed and grapeseed, and they were soon compelled to eat dogs, cats, rats, and mice. When these gave out they devoured shoe-leather and the boiled hides of horses and oxen, and tried to allay the pangs of hunger with grass and weeds. The streets were full of the dead and the dying. [Attempts at relief by Orange were defeated.] As a last resort the besieged resolved to form a solid column, with the women and children, the aged and infirm, in the centre, to fight their way out; but Don Frederic, fearing the city would be left in ruins, induced them to surrender on the 12th of July, under promise of mercy. This promise was cruelly broken by a frightful massacre of 2,000 people, which gave great joy to Alva and Philip."—A. Young, *History of the Netherlands*, ch. 10-11.

ALSO IN: R. Watson, *History of Philip II*, bk. 11-12.

1573-1574.—Siege and deliverance of Alkmaar.—Displacement of Alva.—Battle of Mookerhyde and death of Louis of Nassau.—Siege and relief of Leyden.—Flooding of the land.—Founding of Leyden University.—After the surrender of Haarlem, a mutiny broke out among the Spanish troops that had been engaged in the siege, to whom twenty-eight months' arrears of pay were due. "It was appeased with great difficulty at the end of seven weeks, when Alva determined to make a decisive attack on Holland both by land and

water, and with this view commanded his son, Don Frederic di Toledo, to march to the siege of Alkmaar, and repaired in person to Amsterdam. . . . Don Frederic laid siege to Alkmaar at the head of 16,000 able and efficient troops; within the town were 1,300 armed burghers and 800 soldiers, as many perhaps as it was at that time capable of containing. With this handful of men the citizens of Alkmaar defended themselves no less resolutely than the Haarlemmers had done. The fierce onslaughts of the Spaniards were beaten back with uniform success on the part of the besieged; the women and girls were never seen to shrink from the fight, even where it was hottest, but unceasingly supplied the defenders with stones and burning missiles, to throw amongst their enemies. . . . But as there were no means of conveying reinforcements to the besieged from without and their supplies began to fail, they resolved, after a month's siege, on the desperate measure of cutting through the dykes. Some troops sent by Sonnoy having effected this, and opened the sluices, the whole country was soon deluged with water. Don Frederic, astounded at this novel mode of warfare, and fearing that himself and his whole army would be drowned, broke up his camp in haste, and fled, rather than retreated, to Amsterdam. It seemed almost as though the blessing which the Prince of Orange had promised his people had come upon them. The capture of Geertruydenberg, about this time, by one of his lieutenants, was followed by a naval victory, as signal as it was important. The Admiral Bossu, to whom was given the command of the [Spanish] fleet at Amsterdam, having sailed through the Pampus with the design of occupying the Zuyderzee, and thus making himself master of the towns of North Holland, encountered the fleet of those towns consisting of 24 vessels, commanded by Admiral Dirkson, stationed in the Zuyderzee to await his arrival. [After several days of skirmishing, the Dutch fleet forced a close fight] . . . which lasted with little intermission from the afternoon of the 11th of October to midday of the 12th, during which time two of the royalist ships were sunk and a third captured. [The remainder fled or surrendered, Bossu, himself, being taken prisoner.] On intelligence of the issue of the battle, Alva quitted Amsterdam in haste and secrecy. This success delivered the towns of North Holland from the most imminent danger, and rendered the possession of Amsterdam nearly useless to the royalists. [Alva was now forced to call a meeting of the states-general, in the hope of obtaining a vote of money.] . . . Upon their assembling at Brussels, the states of Holland despatched an earnest and eloquent address, exhorting them to emancipate themselves from Spanish slavery and the cruel tyranny of Alva, which the want of unanimity in the provinces had alone enabled him to exercise. . . . Their remonstrance appears to have been attended with a powerful effect, since the states-general could neither by threats or remonstrances be induced to grant the smallest subsidy. . . . Alva, having become heartily weary of the government he had involved in such irretrievable confusion, now obtained his recall; his place was filled by Don Louis de Requesens, grand commander of Castile. In the November of this year, Alva quitted the Netherlands, leaving behind him a name which has become a bye-word of hatred, scorn and execration. . . . During the six years that he had governed the Netherlands, 18,000 persons had perished by the hand of the executioner, besides the numbers massacred at Naarden, Zutphen, and other conquered cities. [The

first undertaking of the new governor was an attempt to raise the siege of Middleburg, the Spanish garrison in which had been blockaded by the Gueux for nearly two years; but the fleet of forty ships which he fitted out for the purpose was defeated, at Romers-waale, with a loss of ten vessels.] . . . The surrender of Middleburg immediately followed, and with it that of Armeuyden, which put the Gueux in possession of the principal islands of Zealand, and rendered them masters of the sea. [But these successes were counterbalanced by a disaster which attended an expedition led from Germany by Louis of Nassau, the gallant but unfortunate brother of the prince of Orange. His army was attacked and utterly destroyed by the Spaniards (April 14, 1574) at the village of Mookerheyde, or Mook, near Nimeguen, and both Louis and his brother Henry of Nassau were slain.] . . . After raising the siege of Alkmaar, the Spanish forces, placed under the command of Francesco di Valdez on the departure of Don Frederic di Toledo, had for some weeks blockaded Leyden; but were recalled in the spring of this year to join the rest of the army on its march against Louis of Nassau. From that time the burghers of Leyden . . . had not only neglected to lay up any fresh stores of corn or other provision, but to occupy or destroy the forts with which the enemy had encompassed the town. This fact coming to the knowledge of Don Louis, he once more dispatched Valdez to renew the siege at the head of 8,000 troops. . . . Mindful of Haarlem and Alkmaar, the Spanish commander . . . brought no artillery, nor made any preparations for assault, but, well aware that there were not provisions in the town sufficient for three months, contented himself with closely investing it on all sides, and determined to await the slow but sure effects of famine. [In this emergency, the states of Holland] . . . decreed that all the dykes between Leyden and the Meuse and Yssel should be cut through, and the sluices opened at Rotterdam and Schiedam, by which the waters of those rivers, overflowing the valuable lands of Schieland and Rhyndland, would admit of the vessels bringing succours up to the very gates of Leyden. The damage was estimated at 600,000 guilders. . . . The cutting through the dykes was a work of time and difficulty, as well from the labour required as from the continual skirmishes with the enemy. . . . Even when completed, it appeared as if the vast sacrifice were utterly unavailing. A steady wind blowing from the north-east kept back the waters. . . . Meanwhile the besieged, who for some weeks heard no tidings of their deliverers, had scarcely hope left to enable them to sustain the appalling sufferings they endured. . . . 'Then,' says the historian, who heard it from the mouths of the sufferers, 'there was no food so odious but it was esteemed a dainty.' . . . The siege had now lasted five months. . . . Not a morsel of food, even the most filthy and loathsome, remained . . . when, on a sudden, the wind veered to the north-west, and thence to the south-west; the waters of the Meuse rushed in full tide over the land, and the ships rode triumphantly on the waves. The Gueux, attacking with vigour the forts on the dykes, succeeded in driving out the garrisons with considerable slaughter. . . . On the . . . 3rd of October . . . Valdez evacuated all the forts in the vicinity. . . . In memory of this eventful siege, the Prince and States offered the inhabitants either to found an university or to establish a fair. They chose the former; but the States . . . granted both: the fair of Leyden was appointed to be held on the 1st of October in every year, the 3rd being ever

after held as a solemn festival; and on the 8th of February in the next year, the University re-received its charter from the Prince of Orange in the name of King Philip. Both proved lasting monuments."—C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, v. 1-2, pt. 2, ch. 8-9.—See also UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1575: Leyden University.

ALSO IN: J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, v. 2, pt. 4, ch. 1-2.—W. G. Hewett, *University of Leiden*, (*Harper's Magazine*, Mar., 1881).—C. M. Yonge, *Cameos from English history*, series 5, cameo 16.

1575-1577.—Congress at Breda.—Offer of sovereignty to English queen.—Death of Requesens.—Mutiny of soldiery.—Spanish fury.—Alliance of northern and southern provinces under the Pacification of Ghent and the Union of Brussels.—Arrival of Don John of Austria.—"The bankrupt state of Philip II's exchequer, and the reverses which his arms had sustained, induced him to accept . . . the proffered mediation of the Emperor Maximilian, which he had before so arrogantly rejected, and a Congress was held at Breda from March till June 1575. But the insurgents were suspicious, and Philip was inflexible; he could not be induced to dismiss his Spanish troops, to allow the meeting of the States-General, or to admit the slightest toleration in matters of religion; and the contest was therefore renewed with more fury than ever. The situation of the patriots became very critical when the enemy, by occupying the islands of Duyveland and Schouwen, cut off the communication between Holland and Zealand; especially as all hope of succour from England had expired. Towards the close of the year envoys were despatched to solicit the aid of Elizabeth, and to offer her, under certain conditions, the sovereignty of Holland and Zealand. Requesens sent Champagny to counteract these negotiations, which ended in nothing. The English Queen was afraid of provoking the power of Spain, and could not even be induced to grant the Hollanders a loan. The attitude assumed at that time by the Duke of Alençon, in France, also prevented them from entering into any *négociations* with that Prince. In these trying circumstances, William the Silent displayed the greatest firmness and courage. It was now that he is said to have contemplated abandoning Holland and seeking with its inhabitants a home in the New World, having first restored the country to its ancient state of a waste of waters; a thought, however, which he probably never seriously entertained, though he may have given utterance to it in a moment of irritation or despondency. . . . The unexpected death of Requesens, who expired of a fever, March 5th, 1576, after a few days' illness, threw the government into confusion. Philip II. had given Requesens a *carte blanche* to name his successor, but the nature of his illness had prevented him from filling it up. The government therefore devolved to the Council of State, the members of which were at variance with one another; but Philip found himself obliged to intrust it 'ad interim' with the administration, till a successor to Requesens could be appointed. Count Mansfeld was made commander-in-chief, but was totally unable to restrain the licentious soldiery. The Spaniards, whose pay was in arrear, had now lost all discipline. After the raising of the siege of Leyden they had beset Utrecht and pillaged and maltreated the inhabitants, till Valdez contrived to furnish their pay. No sooner had Requesens expired than they broke into open mutiny, and acted as if they were entire masters of the country. After wandering about some time and

threatening Brussels, they seized and plundered Alost, where they established themselves; and they were soon afterwards joined by the Walloon and German troops. To repress their violence, the Council of State restored to the Netherlanders the arms of which they had been deprived, and called upon them by a proclamation to repress force by force; but these citizen-soldiers were dispersed with great slaughter by the disciplined troops in various encounters. Ghent, Utrecht, Valenciennes, Maestricht were taken and plundered by the mutineers; and at last the storm fell upon Antwerp, which the Spaniards entered early in November, and sacked during three days. More than 1,000 houses were burnt, 8,000 citizens are said to have been slain, and enormous sums in ready money were plundered. The whole damage was estimated at 24,000,000 florins. The horrible excesses committed in this sack procured for it the name of the 'Spanish Fury.' The government was at this period conducted in the name of the States of Brabant. On the 5th of September, De Hèze, a young Brabant gentleman who was in secret intelligence with the Prince of Orange, had, at the head of 500 soldiers, entered the palace where the Council of State was assembled, and seized and imprisoned the members. William, taking advantage of the alarm created at Brussels by the sack of Antwerp, persuaded the provisional government to summon the States-General, although such a course was at direct variance with the commands of the King. To this assembly all the provinces except Luxemburg sent deputies. The nobles of the southern provinces, although they viewed the Prince of Orange with suspicion, feeling that there was no security for them so long as the Spanish troops remained in possession of Ghent, sought his assistance in expelling them; which William consented to grant only on condition that an alliance should be effected between the northern and the southern, or Catholic provinces of the Netherlands. This proposal was agreed to, and towards the end of September Orange sent several thousand men from Zeeland to Ghent, at whose approach the Spaniards, who had valorously defended themselves for two months under the conduct of the wife of their absent general Mondragon, surrendered, and evacuated the citadel. The proposed alliance was now converted into a formal union by the treaty called the Pacification of Ghent, signed November 8th, 1576; by which it was agreed, without waiting for the sanction of Philip, whose authority however was nominally recognised, to renew the edict of banishment against the Spanish troops, to procure the suspension of the decrees against the Protestant religion, to summon the States-General of the northern and southern provinces, according to the model of the assembly which had received the abdication of Charles V., to provide for the toleration and practise of the Protestant religion in Holland and Zeeland, together with other provisions of a similar character. About the same time with the Pacification of Ghent, all Zeeland, with the exception of the island of Tholen, was recovered from the Spaniards. . . . It was a mistake on the part of Philip II to leave the country eight months with only an 'ad interim' government. Had he immediately filled up the vacancy . . . the States could not have seized upon the government, and the alliance established at Ghent would not have been effected, by which an almost independent commonwealth had been erected. But Philip seems to have been puzzled as to the choice of a successor; and his selection, at length, of his brother Don John of Austria [a natural son of

Charles VI, caused a further considerable delay. . . . The state of the Netherlands compelled Don John to enter them, not with the pomp and dignity becoming the lawful representative of a great monarch, but stealthily, like a traitor or conspirator. In Luxemburg alone, the only province which had not joined the union, could he expect to be received; and he entered its capital a few days before the publication of the treaty of Ghent, in the disguise of a Moorish slave, and in the train of Don Ottavio Gonzaga, brother of the Prince of Meli. Having neither money nor arms, he was obliged to negotiate with the provincial government in order to procure the recognition of his authority. At the instance of the Prince of Orange, the States insisted on the withdrawal of the Spanish troops, the maintenance of the treaty of Ghent, an act of amnesty for past offences, the convocation of the States-General, and an oath



DON JOHN OF AUSTRIA

from Don John that he would respect all the charters and customs of the country. The new governor was violent, but the States were firm, and in January 1577 was formed the Union of Brussels, the professed objects of which were, the immediate expulsion of the Spaniards and the execution of the Pacification of Ghent; while at the same time the Catholic religion and the royal authority were to be upheld. This union, which was only a more popular repetition of the treaty of Ghent, soon obtained numberless signatures. . . . Meanwhile Rodolph II., the new Emperor of Germany, had offered his mediation, and appointed the Bishop of Liège, to use his good offices between the parties; who, with the assistance of Duke William of Juliers, brought, or seemed to bring, the new government to a more reasonable frame of mind. . . . Don John yielded all the points in dispute, and embodied them in what was called the Perpetual Edict, published March 12th, 1577. The Prince of Orange suspected from the first that these concessions were a mere deception."—T. H.

Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 7-9.

ALSO IN: W. Stirling-Maxwell, *Don John of Austria*, v. 2, ch. 4-5.

1577-1581.—Administration of Don John.—Orange's well-founded distrust.—Emancipation of Antwerp.—Battle of Gemblours.—Death of Don John and appointment of Parma.—Corruption of Flemish nobles.—Submission of Walloon provinces.—Pretensions of duke of Anjou.—Constitution and declared independence of Dutch republic.—Form of government.—“It now seemed that the Netherlands had gained all they asked for, and that everything for which they had contended had been conceded. The Blood Council of Alva had almost extirpated the Reformers, and an overwhelming majority of the inhabitants of the Low Countries, with the exception of the Hollanders and Zelanders, belonged to the old Church, provided the Inquisition was done away with, and a religious peace was accorded. But Don John had to reckon with the Prince of Orange. In him William had no confidence. He could not forget the past. He believed that the signatures and concessions of the governor and Philip were only expedients to gain time, and that they would be revoked or set aside as soon as it was convenient or possible to do so. . . . He had intercepted letters from the leading Spaniards in Don John's employment, in which, when the treaty was in course of signature, designs were disclosed of keeping possession of all the strong places in the country, with the object of reducing the patriots in detail. . . . Above all, William distrusted the Flemish nobles. He knew them to be greedy, fickle, treacherous, ready to betray their country for personal advantage, and to ally themselves blindly with their natural enemies. . . . As events proved, Orange was in the right. Hence he refused to recognize the treaty in his own states of Holland and Zeland. As soon as it was published and sent to him, William, after conference with these states, published a severe criticism on its provisions. . . . In all seeming however Don John was prepared to carry out his engagements. He got together with difficulty the funds for paying the arrears due to the troops, and sent them off by the end of April. He caressed the people and he bribed the nobles. He handed over the citadels to Flemish governors, and entered Brussels on May 1st. Everything pointed to success and mutual good will. But we have Don John's letters, in which he speaks most unreservedly and most unflatteringly of his new friends, and of his designs on the liberties of the Netherlands. And all the while that Philip was soothing and flattering his brother, he had determined on ruining him, and on murdering the man [Escovedo] whom that brother loved and trusted. About this time, too, we find that Philip and his deputy were casting about for the means by which they might assassinate the Prince of Orange, ‘who had bewitched the whole people!’ An attempt of Don John to get possession of the citadel of Antwerp for himself failed, and the patriots gained it. The merchants of Antwerp agreed to find the pay still owing to the soldiers, on condition of their quitting the city. But while they were discussing the terms, a fleet of Zeland vessels came sailing up the Scheldt. Immediately a cry was raised, ‘The Beggars are coming,’ and the soldiers fled in dismay [August 1, 1577]. Then the Antwerpens demolished the citadel, and turned the statue of Alva again into cannon. After these events, William of Orange put an end to negotiations with Don John. Prince William was in the

ascendant. But the Catholic nobles conspired against him, and induced the Archduke Matthias, brother of the German Emperor Rodolph, to accept the place of governor of the Netherlands in lieu of Don John. He came, but Orange was made the Ruwaard of Brabant, with full military power. It was the highest office which could be bestowed on him. The ‘Union of Brussels’ followed and was a confederation of all the Netherlands. But the battle of Gemblours was fought in February, 1578, and the patriots were defeated. Many small towns were captured, and it seemed that in course of time the governor would recover at least a part of his lost authority. But in the month of September, Don Juan was seized with a burning fever, and died on October 1st. . . . The new governor of the Netherlands [Alexander], son of Ottavio Farnese, Prince of Parma, and of Margaret of Parma, sister of Philip of Spain, was a very different person from any of the regents who had hitherto controlled the Netherlands. He was, or soon proved himself to be, the greatest general of the age, and he was equally, according to the statesmanship of the age, the most accomplished and versatile statesman. He had no designs beyond those of Philip, and during his long career in the Netherlands, from October, 1578, to December, 1592, he served the King of Spain as faithfully and with as few scruples as Philip could have desired. . . . Parma was religious, but he had no morality whatever. . . . He had no scruple in deceiving, lying, assassinating, and even less scruple in saying or swearing that he had done none of these things. . . . He had an excellent judgment of men, and indeed he had experience of the two extremes, of the exceeding baseness of the Flemish nobles, and of the lofty and pure patriotism of the Dutch patriots. Nothing indeed was more unfortunate for the Dutch than the belief which they entertained, that the Flemings who had been dragooned into uniformity, could be possibly stirred to patriotism. Alva had done his work thoroughly. It is possible to extirpate a reformation. But the success of the process is the moral ruin of those who are the subjects of the experiment. Fortunately for Parma, there was a suitor for the Netherland sovereignty, in the person of . . . the Duke of Anjou, of the house of Valois [see FRANCE: 1577-1578]. This person was favoured by Orange, probably because he had detected Philip's designs on France, and thought that national jealousy would induce the French government, which was Catherine of Medici, to favour the low countries. Besides, Parma had a faction in every Flemish town, who were known as the Malcontents, who were the party of the greedy and unscrupulous nobles. And, besides Anjou there was the party of another pretender, John Casimir, of Poland. He, however, soon left them. Parma quickly found in such dissensions plenty of men whom he could usefully bribe. He made his first purchases in the Walloon district, and secured them. The provinces here were Artois, Hainault, Lille, Douay, and Orchies [which, on January 6, 1579, formed an alliance known as the Union of Arras]. They were soon permanently reunited to Spain. On January 29, 1579, the Union of Utrecht, which was virtually the Constitution of the Dutch Republic, was agreed to. It was greater in extent on the Flemish side than the Dutch Republic finally remained, less on that of Friesland [comprising Holland, Zeland, Gelderland, Zutphen, Utrecht, and the Frisian provinces]. Orange still had hopes of including most of the Netherland seaboard, and he still kept up the form of allegiance to Philip. The principal event

of the year was the siege and capture of Maestricht [with the slaughter of almost its entire population of 34,000]. . . . Mechlin also was betrayed by its commander, De Bours, who reconciled himself to Romanism, and received the pay for his treason from Parma at the same time. In March, 1580, a similar act of treason was committed by Count Renneberg, the governor of Friesland, who betrayed its chief city, Groningen. . . . In the same year, 1580, was published the ban of Philip. This instrument, drawn up by Cardinal Granvelle, declared Orange to be a traitor and miscreant, made him an outlaw, put a heavy price on his head (25,000 gold crowns), offered the assassin the pardon of any crime, however heinous, and nobility, whatever be his rank. . . . William answered the ban by a vigorous appeal to the civilized world. . . . Renneberg, the traitor, laid siege to Steenwyk, the principal fortress of Drenthe, at the beginning of 1581. . . . In February, John Norris, the English general, . . . relieved the town. Renneberg raised the siege, was defeated in July by the same Norris, and died, full of remorse, a few days afterwards. But the most important event in 1581 was the declaration of Dutch Independence formally issued at the Hague on the 26th of July. By this instrument, Orange, though most unwillingly, felt himself obliged to accept the sovereignty over Holland and Zeland, and whatever else of the seven provinces was in the hands of the patriots. The Netherlands were now divided into three portions. The Walloon provinces in the south were reconciled to Philip and Parma. The middle provinces were under the almost nominal sovereignty of Anjou, the northern were under William. . . . Philip's name was now discarded from public documents; . . . his seal was broken, and William was thereafter to conduct the government in his own name. The instrument was styled an 'Act of Abjuration.'—J. E. T. ROGERS, *Story of Holland*, ch. 11-12.—See also ABJURATION, ACT OF.—'The Union of Utrecht, as the only tie which bound the different provinces together, now became a sort of common constitution, something for which it had never been intended and for which it was not in the least adapted. The estates of the seven provinces, as the principle surviving form of the old order of things, were obliged to assume the direct sovereignty of their states and to take the actual government into their own hands. In our days the sovereignty would have gone to the people, but in the sixteenth century the people as such had not yet been invented. They were a vast and intangible mass. The estates were their only tangible representatives. As such they assumed the command of the provinces of the Union. These estates had been in existence for almost two centuries. Originally they had been a sort of advisory board which was consulted by the feudal lord whenever he needed funds. At first they had only consisted of representatives from among the clergy and the nobility. Gradually, with the increase of their economic importance, the cities had been asked to send delegates. The influence of the civic members had quickly increased during the fifteenth century. During the Reformation the clergy had of course disappeared, and their share in the estates had been taken over by the cities. This meant that the nobility lost most of its power, for it was now opposed by two-thirds of the total membership of the different estates. In many other countries, especially in Germany, the share of the clergy fell into the hands of the nobility, and meant a corresponding loss to the cause of the citizens. After the seven provinces had abjured their king, the estates re-

mained on the whole very much what they had been before. They still were chiefly a consulting body, composed of a certain number of representatives from different cities appointed directly by the town council and not in any way by the people. In no two provinces were the estates formed in the same way. The highest body of the central government was the Estates General. This body, which met permanently, had been intended to be both the House of Representatives and the Senate in one, with the addition of a few of the powers of the Executive. Each of the provinces had but one vote, although here, too, each could send as many delegates as it wished, and could appoint them after its own fashion. These delegates met like so many Ambassadors Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiary from a number of independent sovereign powers, who deigned to come together to discuss some matter of common importance, but who intended strictly to maintain their own country's full and absolute autonomy. The Estates General were expected to discuss matters of war and peace, of treaties, of army and navy, of religion, and of taxation. They were also to indicate what foreign policy the Union should follow. Sometimes, indeed, when all these ambassadors happened to agree about some matter of common interest, the Estates General might be said to resemble a modern parliament. But only upon such rare occasions. Usually there was a difference of opinion upon all questions, and unless there was a strong man in the Republic who could force his will upon the whole community, the majority never felt itself bound to obey the decisions of the majority. For the high contracting parties of the Union of Utrecht, even in that moment of extreme danger, had been careful to avoid the institution of a central power which could have turned their old and beloved anarchy into a centralized government. The spirit of the Middle Ages had been too strong for them. Everything was left to the good will of the different provinces, and of this article they had very little. But there was still a third power in the Republic which, with an ill-defined right and prerogative, was apt to make things more complicated. This third power was the Stadholder. Originally the representative of the sovereign, the Stadholder, had been the executive of each province. But when the sovereign was abjured, it was impossible for the provincial estates to make themselves the executive of the whole province. They were too unwieldy a body to do the executive work for which they never had been trained. The office of the Stadholder was therefore continued in all of the provinces. But what were its direct powers? It is very difficult to say, because, as time went on and the estates grew in independence, they continually tried to encroach upon the old right of the Stadholder, while the Stadholder in turn tried to encroach upon the rights of the estates. Nominally the Stadholder, after the sovereign had been abjured, was the paid executive and the hired servant of the estates. But in many ways his power was much more direct and far-reaching than that of his nominal masters. When the Stadholder happened to be a strong man, he was apt to eclipse his masters entirely. He soon became a very undesirable institution in the eyes of the estates, and whenever they could do so the provinces tried to manage their affairs without appointing a stadholder; in which case they drew upon themselves the executive powers. In this way we often find part of the provinces with a stadholder and part of them without one, or a

number of provinces sharing one stadholder."—H. W. Van Loon, *Fall of the Dutch republic*, pp. 18-25.

1581-1584.—Refusal of sovereignty of the United Provinces by Orange.—Bestowal upon duke of Anjou.—Base treachery of Anjou.—"French Fury" at Antwerp.—Assassination of prince of Orange.—"What, then, was the condition of the nation, after this great step [the Act of Abjuration] had been taken? It stood, as it were, with its sovereignty in its hand, dividing it into two portions, and offering it, thus separated, to two distinct individuals. The sovereignty of Holland and Zealand had been reluctantly accepted by Orange. The sovereignty of the United Provinces had been offered to Anjou, but the terms of agreement with that Duke had not yet been ratified. The movement was therefore triple, consisting of an abjuration and of two separate elections of hereditary chiefs; these two elections being accomplished in the same manner by the representative bodies respectively of the united provinces and of Holland and Zealand. . . . Without a direct intention on the part of the people or its leaders to establish a republic, the Republic established itself. Providence did not permit the whole country, so full of wealth, intelligence, healthy political action—so stocked with powerful cities and an energetic population, to be combined into one free and prosperous commonwealth. The factious ambition of a few grandees, the cynical venality of many nobles, the frenzy of the Ghent democracy, the spirit of religious intolerance, the consummate military and political genius of Alexander Farnese, the exaggerated self-abnegation and the tragic fate of Orange, all united to dis sever this group of flourishing and kindred provinces. The want of personal ambition on the part of William the Silent inflicted, perhaps, a serious damage upon his country. He believed a single chief requisite for the united states; he might have been, but always refused to become that chief; and yet he has been held up for centuries by many writers as a conspirator and a self-seeking intriguer. . . . 'These provinces,' said John of Nassau, 'are coming very unwillingly into the arrangement with the Duke of Alençon [soon afterwards made duke of Anjou]. The majority feel much more inclined to elect the Prince, who is daily, and without intermission, implored to give his consent. . . . He refuses only on this account—that it may not be thought that, instead of religious freedom for the country, he has been seeking a kingdom for himself and his own private advancement. Moreover, he believes that the connexion with France will be of more benefit to the country and to Christianity.' . . . The unfortunate negotiations with Anjou, to which no man was more opposed than Count John, proceeded therefore. In the meantime, the sovereignty over the united provinces was provisionally held by the national council, and, at the urgent solicitation of the states-general, by the Prince. The Archduke Matthias, whose functions were most unceremoniously brought to an end by the transactions which we have been recording, took his leave of the states, and departed in the month of October. . . . Thus it was arranged that, for the present, at least, the Prince should exercise sovereignty over Holland and Zealand; although he had himself used his utmost exertions to induce those provinces to join the rest of the United Netherlands in the proposed election of Anjou. This, however, they sternly refused to do. There was also a great disinclination felt by many in the other states to this hazardous offer of their allegiance, and it

was the personal influence of Orange that eventually carried the measure through. . . . By mid-summer [1581] the Duke of Anjou made his appearance in the western part of the Netherlands. The Prince of Parma had recently come before Cambray with the intention of reducing that important city. On the arrival of Anjou, however, . . . Alexander raised the siege precipitately and retired towards Tournay [to which he presently laid siege, and which was surrendered to him in November]."—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, v. 3, pt. 6, ch. 4-5.—"In the face of Parma's menacing attitude, the need of a strong foreign ally was very pressing, and the duke of Anjou seemed the desirable personification of that alliance, as he had obtained his brother's forgiveness for his independent expedition into the Netherlands and as his prospective marriage with Elizabeth was again under discussion. Under these circumstances, it was not wonderful that Orange renewed negotiations with him in June, 1579, since the moment seemed favourable for securing French aid by taking the duke as lord of the land. There were many difficulties to be overcome. In January, 1580, the States-General urged the prince to draw up a draft of the conditions on which the duke might be accepted as sovereign lord. The actual author of this resolution is plain enough. By January 13th, the draft was ready. It was approved, and sent with a memorial from the prince to the provinces for discussion. In mid-February, the deputies were to return and arrive at a decision. The draft was in the same spirit as the treaty made by the Duke in 1576 with Holland and Zealand. Independence in respect to France, maintenance of privileges and of the religious peace in the other provinces, of the *status quo* in Holland and Zealand, recognition of the unions, restriction of sovereign right in financial and military realms, freedom of assembly for the States-General, which was to be convened once a year,—such were the principal stipulations. Probably Anjou thought that, when once sovereign, he could find means to do away with the restrictions, and was much pleased with the draft. The Netherland provinces, in spite of the prince's warnings and explanations, were less inclined to accept it. Flanders alone, now wholly under the prince's influence, approved the scheme. But the others delayed or refused assent outright. . . . After much friction and many difficulties, the famous treaty of Plessis-les-Tours was adopted (September 10th) wherein the duke of Anjou was made 'prince and seigneur' of the Netherlanders as his predecessors of the house of Burgundy had been. The Twenty-seven Articles accorded him only a restricted power, an authority dependent on the coöperation of the States in the most important points. At his death, one of his legitimate male heirs was to be elected by the States, who would rule during a minority. The religious peace was to be maintained, except in Holland and Zealand, where everything was to be *in statu quo*. The duke promised to reside within the provinces, and gave all due guarantees as to the convention of the States, raising of money, etc. He also pledged himself to gain the help of France, while the Netherlands were always to be independent of the French crown. He was also to make treaties with England, Denmark, Portugal, Scotland, Navarre, the Hanse towns, and the German princes. The provinces were to furnish 2,400,000 guilders annually. They protected themselves from French aggression by the provisions that the commander of the French auxiliaries could only be appointed in conjunction with the States; no French garrison could be placed,

nor French troops wintered in any place without its consent, etc. An oath was to be taken to the duke in every province. Any infringement of the new treaty on the part of the new sovereign released the provinces from all obligations. Matthias was to receive *raisonable satisfaction et contentement*. Certain other details were left to further negotiations. In this manner Orange considered that the goal of his policy—French aid for an independent Netherland state—was attained. In connection with the stipulations regarding Holland and Zealand, according to secret promises given in August by Des Pruneaux in the duke's name, Anjou gave a secret declaration wherein he assured to the prince compensation for the outlays of the campaigns of 1568 and 1572, and recognised Orange and his lineal successors as sovereigns of Holland, Zealand, and Utrecht. On January 23, 1581, this declaration was repeated in another form, but still secretly, at the same time with one wherein Anjou formally announced to the States his speedy arrival in the Netherlands to assume the sovereignty. . . . The new protector of the provinces, Anjou, had hoped to obtain the hand of Elizabeth at the same time with the sovereignty of the Netherlands. His negotiations with the English queen, which hung fire for months, finally ended in smoke. There were many cross-currents. Catherine de Médicis was the soul of the numerous intrigues in which the marriage plans were involved. She was determined to secure the possession of the Netherlands to her youngest son, either by an English alliance with the support of arms, or by a Spanish marriage with these as a dowry. In October, the duke went to England, was brilliantly received, actually exchanged rings with his promised bride, who was in correspondence with Parma at the very time she heaped terms of endearment on her 'beloved frog,' who had very little to recommend him. The Netherlanders grew weary of the delays, and finally (January, 1582) sent Marnix to England to tell their sovereign-elect that they would be obliged to choose another protector unless he came in person to fulfil his promises. The duke bade farewell to his bride with protestations on both sides as affectionate as they were hollow, and landed at Flushing with a brilliant escort, which included Elizabeth's favourite, the Earl of Leicester, and young Philip Sydney, afterwards so famous in the Netherland wars. He was received with all honours by Orange and the prince of Epinoy. A few days later the duke made his formal entry into Antwerp, where he received homage as the duke of Brabant and established his temporary residence. In early March, the States-General, convened at Antwerp, gave formal greeting to the new sovereign. No appropriate fair expression was wanting on these occasions, but nevertheless confidence was by no means established between the new ruler and his subjects. Scarce a fortnight had passed when Anjou began to complain of the difficulties raised by the Calvinists in regard to the exercise of Catholic rites by his followers. There was constant friction, too, between his frivolous French nobles and the stiff-necked Flemings, and distrust of the presence of his troops in Flanders. They had to withdraw to Dixmuiden. It was a thorn in the eyes of the Antwerp Calvinists that at the duke's pressure more and more freedom was accorded to the Catholics, who had been restricted to the exercise of the rites of baptism and marriage by a decree of 1580. Then came another wave of profound distrust which threatened to sweep the French from Antwerp. On March

18th, Anjou's birthday, the prince of Orange, whose popularity was still in the ascendant, was dangerously wounded by a would-be assassin, Jean Jaureguy. The first thought of the people was to suspect treason on the part of the French. They recalled St. Bartholomew's night, and it was only with difficulty that the alarmed populace were persuaded that this attack upon the prince was the work of a miserable Spanish bankrupt, d'Anastro, and his fanatic Basque clerk, who, persuaded by his employer, had made the attack, and was slain by the prince's halberdiers immediately after the commission of his crime. On his sick-bed, the prince himself took measures to allay the distrust of Anjou. At the same time, he wrote to Marnix,—in behalf of the murderer's accomplices,—a touching letter which shows his noble character and lofty spirit. He begs that 'they shall not be made to suffer torment,' but that the people shall be contented with a speedy death if it be found deserved. How many would have thought and written so at that time and under those circumstances? Slow, very slow, was the recovery from the dangerous wound. The prince's sister, the Countess of Schwartzburg, and his wife Charlotte were faithful nurses, day and night. The princess was sacrificed to her devotion. She fell a victim to her overexertion, and died on May 5th, a few days after the prince was strong enough to go to church for the first time. His unexpected recovery was a tremendous disappointment to the opposition party, who had already disseminated the news of his death, and rejoiced thereover. As late as September, Granvelle would not believe that the prince was still living. Indeed he had already devoted his offices to his son still detained in Spain. These were dangerous, sombre days for the Netherlands. Marnix, the prince's confidant, sent to the new sovereign as the personal representative of Orange, had great difficulty in keeping Anjou in the right path. The duke was very anxious to receive homage in Flanders, and to have Brussels as his capital, while the proverbial tendency of the French courtiers to prodigality came constantly in conflict with the low state of the finances in the new government. . . . Orange, although still weak from his wound, spent the whole autumn at Antwerp busy with the organisation of the new government and in preparations for an offensive attack upon Parma, which he intended to make with the aid of the expected French force and of newly levied Swiss, English, and German troops. At the same time he was considering the further regulation of the government in Holland and Zealand, where they desired to make him count, and were unwilling to accept the prince's proposition that he should still be 'Sovereign Chief' while Anjou bore the count's title. On August 14, 1582, Orange finally allowed himself to be persuaded to accept the countship, although all was to be done in secret, so as to avoid arousing Anjou's suspicion. The prince was fully aware of the discontent of the duke and his friends, but he relied on his own personal influence to keep his French ally in check. His confidence made it possible for Anjou to push on his plans of seizing Antwerp, although the increase of the number of French in the city had awakened some suspicion, and the municipal government ordered the watch to be doubled on the night of January 16th-17th, and lights to be kept in all windows. In the early morning of January 17th, Anjou asked Orange to review the troops gathered before the city, but both the prince, who was ill, and Norris declined to consider the invitation. At about midday, when the burghers

were at dinner, Anjou left Antwerp to hold the review, but scarcely was he outside of the Kipdorper gate when he gave his favourite, Rochefort, a prearranged signal and hastened back into the city at the head of his men, who cried: '*Ville Gagnée! Tue! Tue!*' ('City gained! Kill! Kill!'). The French, three thousand strong, rushed to the Bourse and began to plunder. A violent street battle began. Orange at once assumed the leadership, and, unwilling to embitter the French, tried to restore tranquillity with as little loss of life as possible. Marnix, who had been very zealous for the French, lost heart at once and sought refuge in Zealand. Thus the French Fury, a counterpart of the Spanish five years previously, ended without serious results. A plan to seize Bruges was no more successful than that to gain Antwerp. Dixmuiden, Dunkirk, and Dendermonde were, however, left in the control of the French, and Anjou took refuge in the last place. Indignation at the treachery was widespread, not only in the Netherlands where the French were ill-treated in many places, but in England, Germany, and among the Huguenots, who had never trusted Anjou. The prince, however, succeeded in persuading the States-General to send a moderate answer to Anjou's demand for his papers and to reopen negotiations in spite of the opposition of his friends. Finally a provisional accord was made with Anjou, who promised to dismiss his troops and pay an indemnity to Antwerp. This did not, however, restore belief in his good faith very effectually, and he returned to France under pretext of consulting his mother and brother. He was thoroughly disappointed and embittered. . . . At the same time with the negotiations with Anjou, those regarding the elevation of Orange to the countship of Holland and Zealand were also in progress. The two provinces desired to maintain independence of Anjou and of the other provinces, and never lost sight of this idea. From the beginning of the revolt, they had taken a peculiar position, which was confirmed by the course of events. The Pacification of Ghent and the union of Brussels had expressly left them their independence. The union of Utrecht was recognised by them because it gave the opportunity to use the other provinces as a bulwark, although, as a matter of fact, little advantage was derived from this bulwark when there was any question of financial support, to the vexation of the college of the nearer union, and to its successor, the national council for the east Meuse. They troubled themselves little about the States-General. The institution of a high council for Holland and Zealand in 1582 as a court of appeal for the two provinces also rendered them independent in judicial matters, while the other provinces still acknowledged, in a measure, the great council of Mechlin in that capacity. For this very reason, immediately after the abjuration of Philip, they were anxious to make the prince their separate sovereign. The prince cared little for the honour, partially because he was afraid of wounding Anjou in his sovereign rights, partially because he could not approve this separate position of the two provinces in the Netherland state which he projected. Thus the matter hung fire after the spring of 1582. Under the impression of the French Fury, the negotiations concerning this change were pushed forward more vigorously, but it was not until April 5th that the nobles and representatives of the big and little cities of Holland set their seals to the official act. After that, they proceeded to consider the conditions under which the prince of Orange should receive homage as count. All kinds of difficulties

—not alone those which had of old hampered the treatment of affairs in the many-headed body of the States—beset the renewed negotiations. Holland would not enter on the matter without Zealand, and in the latter province Middelburg made innumerable difficulties in the desire to secure her rights against Veere and Flushing. In Holland, Amsterdam, Gouda, and Briel fought shy of taking any steps for fear of jeopardising their privileges and exciting discontent among the burghers. It was hoped that Utrecht would enter the combination. The suspicion entertained of the remaining provinces and of Anjou had to be met with the greatest care, while other plans for strengthening the general national government absorbed attention for the moment. Moreover, the fixing of the conditions involved difficulties. The regents were anxious to retain as large a portion as possible of the power they had enjoyed during the past year. On December 30, 1583, the conditions were finally drafted and were accepted by the prince and the Estates of Holland. Before homage was given, the matter was to be referred again to the town councils and special efforts made to convince the hesitating members to approve the measure. The chief leaders of the Estates, among whom were the advocate Buys and the pensionary [the chief magistrate] of Rotterdam, John of Oldenbarnevelt, aided in composing the articles. The new sovereign was to be absolute, inasmuch as no superior was acknowledged, and all former ties with the empire were considered sundered. The 'true reformed religion' was to be maintained exclusively, but no one was to be harassed on account of his belief. Careful conditions were made, some taken from the old charters and some from the treaty with Anjou. Any infringement of these, on the count's part, dissolved all obligations. It is a very remarkable document, and suggestive of the ancient ideals of all the Netherland provinces in political matters. Yet the *Joyeuse Entrée* went farther than this in the limitation of sovereign power by the constitutional authority of the Estates—which was, at this time, primarily the authority of the municipal regents. In the course of the spring of 1584, the articles were discussed in the municipal councils. By June the matter was so far advanced that thirteen cities had signed, while a few others stated their readiness so to do. On July 6th, Gouda declared that they would agree if Zealand did. Amsterdam hesitated, owing to the influence of the burgomaster, Cornelis Pieterszoon Hooft. All opposition would have speedily vanished in Utrecht as well as in Holland and Zealand. We possess a memoir, drawn up by the prince in the beginning of July, wherein he urges Holland, for the sake of his own honour and of the general interest of the security in the land, to take a resolution in the matter. The prince made it perfectly clear that the plan emanated not from him but from the Estates, and indicates several points which should be kept in view at the time of the formal homage. Just then happened what the prince's friends had long feared. After Jaureguy's failure, various other murderers had cherished similar dreams, but also failed in their purpose. A fanatic from the Franche Comté, Balthazar Gérard, succeeded, alas better. For years Gérard nursed this plan of ridding his king and his church of a foe. After the publication of the ban, his desire to accomplish the deed, his belief in his own divine mission, had become irresistible. In the spring of 1582, he betook himself to Luxemburg. After Jaureguy's attempt, his own plans took form. A Jesuit of Trier and a monk at Tournay gave

him absolution at Easter, as he confessed later under torture, and confirmed him in his undertaking. The councillor Assonleville had spoken to him to the same purpose. In May, 1584, under an assumed name, claiming to be the son of a victim of the Catholic persecution, he obtained access to the prince's chaplain, Villiers, to whom he showed several blanks signed by Mansfeld, the stadtholder at Luxemburg, and stolen from him. The court preacher, misled by his Calvinist zeal, sent him to Noël de Caron, the ambassador of the States-General in France, who, at his request, charged him with carrying the news of Anjou's death to the prince. Gérard was admitted to the sleeping-room of Orange to give him further particulars of the event, and declared his readiness to carry an answer back to the ambassador. Then, to his chagrin, he was not prepared and not armed. On July 8th, he went to the prince's house in Delft to examine the exits and the chances offered for escape. Discovered in the act, he explained his presence by saying he had not liked to go into the church opposite the prince's dwelling because of the poverty of his clothing. Orange, being told of this, sent him some money to provide himself better. With this money he bought pistols and bullets, and returned upon July 10th at midday for his passport, just as the prince's family were going to the dining-room. The princess was much impressed by the ill appearance of the man, but her husband ordered that he should have his passport, without paying much attention to him. After dinner, at about two o'clock, the prince, clad in a fine tabbert, passed slowly out of the room, with his family following. He had had an earnest discussion with the guest of the day, Uylenburgh, upon Frisian affairs, and they continued talking as they crossed a little vestibule towards the stair which led to the second story. Suddenly the assassin sprang from a little dark bay which led to a narrow passage, and fired. Two bullets hit the prince. The wound was fatal. The prince exclaimed: '*Mon Dieu, ayez pitié de mon âme! Mon Dieu, ayez pitié de ce pauvre peuple!*' [My God, have pity on my soul! My God, have pity on this poor people!] and answered 'yes' to the question whether he committed his soul to Christ's hands, and gave up the spirit after a few minutes, his last look fixed on the princess and his sister, who stood by him in bitter distress."—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 3, pp. 143-178.

ALSO IN: J. A. Froude, *History of England*, v. 5-6, ch. 26, 29, 31-32.

1583-1680.—Printing at Leyden.—Elzevir family as printers. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1583-1680.

1584-1585.—Limits of United provinces and Spanish provinces.—Republican constitution of United provinces, and organization of their government.—Disgraceful surrender of Ghent.—Practical recovery of Flanders and Brabant by Spanish king.—Effect of Calvinism.—Destruction and decadence of art.—State of literature.—At the time of the assassination of the prince of Orange, "the limit of the Spanish or 'obedient' Provinces, on the one hand, and of the United Provinces on the other, cannot . . . be briefly and distinctly stated. The memorable treason—or, as it was called, the 'reconciliation' of the Walloon Provinces in the year 1583-4—had placed the Provinces of Hainault, Arthois, Douay, with the flourishing cities, Arras, Valenciennes, Lille, Tournay, and others—all Celtic Flanders, in short—in the grasp of Spain. [See above: 1577-1581.] Cambray was still held by the French governor, Sei-

gneur de Balagny, who had taken advantage of the Duke of Anjou's treachery to the States, to establish himself in an unrecognized but practical petty sovereignty, in defiance both of France and Spain; while East Flanders and South Brabant still remained a disputed territory, and the immediate field of contest. With these limitations, it may be assumed, for general purposes, that the territory of the United States was that of the modern Kingdom of the Netherlands, while the obedient Provinces occupied what is now the territory of Belgium. . . . What now was the political position of the United Provinces at this juncture? The sovereignty which had been held by the Estates, ready to be conferred respectively upon Anjou and Orange, remained in the hands of the Estates. There was no opposition to this theory. . . . The people, as such, claimed no sovereignty. . . . What were the Estates? . . . The great characteristic of the Netherland government was the municipality. Each Province contained a large number of cities, which were governed by a board of magistrates, varying in number from 20 to 40. This college, called the *Vroedschap* (Assembly of Sages), consisted of the most notable citizens, and was a self-electing body—a close corporation—the members being appointed for life, from the citizens at large. Whenever vacancies occurred from death or loss of citizenship, the college chose new members—sometimes immediately, sometimes by means of a double or triple selection of names, the choice of one from among which was offered to the stadtholder [governor, or sovereign's deputy] of the province. This functionary was appointed by the Count, as he was called, whether Duke of Bavaria or of Burgundy, Emperor, or King. After the abjuration of Philip [1581], the governors were appointed by the Estates of each Province. The Sage-Men chose annually a board of senators, or *schepens*, whose functions were mainly judicial; and there were generally two, and sometimes three, burgomasters, appointed in the same way. This was the popular branch of the Estates. But, besides this body of representatives, were the nobles, men of ancient lineage and large possessions, who had exercised, according to the general feudal law of Europe, high, low, and intermediate jurisdiction upon their estates, and had long been recognized as an integral part of the body politic, having the right to appear, through delegates of their order, in the provincial and in the general assemblies. Regarded as a machine for bringing the most decided political capacities into the administration of public affairs, and for organizing the most practical opposition to the system of religious tyranny, the Netherland constitution was a healthy, and, for the age, an enlightened one. . . . Thus constituted was the commonwealth upon the death of William the Silent. The gloom produced by that event was tragical. Never in human history was a more poignant and universal sorrow for the death of any individual. The despair was, for a brief season, absolute; but it was soon succeeded by more lofty sentiments. . . . Even on the very day of the murder, the Estates of Holland, then sitting at Delft, passed a resolution 'to maintain the good cause, with God's help, to the uttermost, without sparing gold or blood.' . . . The next movement, after the last solemn obsequies had been rendered to the Prince, was to provide for the immediate wants of his family. For the man who had gone into the revolt with almost royal revenues, left his estate so embarrassed that his carpets, tapestries, household linen—nay, even his silver spoons, and the very clothes of his wardrobe—were disposed of at auction for

the benefit of his creditors. He left eleven children—a son and daughter by the first wife, a son and daughter by Anna of Saxony, six daughters by Charlotte of Bourbon, and an infant, Frederic Henry, born six months before his death. The eldest son, Philip William, had been a captive in Spain for seventeen years, having been kidnapped from school, in Leyden, in the year 1567. He had already become . . . thoroughly Hispaniolized under the masterly treatment of the King and the Jesuits. . . . The next son was Maurice, then 17 years of age. . . . Grandson of Maurice of Saxony, whom he resembled in visage and character, he was summoned by every drop of blood in his veins to do life-long battle with the spirit of Spanish absolutism, and he was already girding himself for his life's work. . . . Very soon afterwards the States General established a State Council, as a provisional executive board, for the term of three months, for the Provinces of Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Friesland, and such parts of Flanders and Brabant as still remained in the Union. At the head of this body was placed young Maurice, who accepted the responsible position, after three days' deliberation. . . . The Council consisted of three members from Brabant, two from Flanders, four from Holland, three from Zeeland, two from Utrecht, one from Mechlin, and three from Friesland—eighteen in all. They were empowered and enjoined to levy troops by land and sea, and to appoint naval and military officers; to establish courts of admiralty, to expend the moneys voted by the States, to maintain the ancient privileges of the country, and to see that all troops in service of the Provinces made oath of fidelity to the Union. Diplomatic relations, questions of peace and war, the treaty-making power, were not entrusted to the Council, without the knowledge and consent of the States General, which body was to be convoked twice a year by the State Council. . . . Alexander of Parma . . . was swift to take advantage of the calamity which had now befallen the rebellious Provinces. . . . In Holland and Zeeland the Prince's blandishments were of no avail. . . . In Flanders and Brabant the spirit was less noble. Those provinces were nearly lost already. Bruges [which had made terms with the king early in 1584] seconded Parma's efforts to induce its sister-city Ghent to imitate its own baseness in surrendering without a struggle; and that powerful, turbulent, but most anarchical little commonwealth was but too ready to listen to the voice of the tempter. . . . Upon the 17th August [1584] Dendermonde surrendered. . . . Upon the 7th September Vilvoorde capitulated, by which event the water-communication between Brussels and Antwerp was cut off. Ghent, now thoroughly disheartened, treated with Parma likewise; and upon the 17th September made its reconciliation with the King. The surrender of so strong and important a place was as disastrous to the cause of the patriots as it was disgraceful to the citizens themselves. It was, however, the result of an intrigue which had been long spinning. . . . The noble city of Ghent—then as large as Paris, thoroughly surrounded with moats, and fortified with bulwarks, ravelins, and counterscarps, constructed of earth, during the previous two years, at great expense, and provided with bread and meat, powder and shot, enough to last a year—was ignominiously surrendered. The population, already a very reduced and slender one for the great extent of the place and its former importance, had been estimated at 70,000. The number of houses was 35,000, so that, as the inhabitants were soon farther

reduced to one-half, there remained but one individual to each house. On the other hand, the 25 monasteries and convents in the town were re-peopled. . . . The fall of Brussels was deferred till March, and that of Mechlin (19th July, 1585), and of Antwerp (19th August, 1585 [see below: 1585]), till Midsummer of the following year; but the surrender of Ghent foreshadowed the fate of Flanders and Brabant. Ostend and Sluys, however, were still in the hands of the patriots, and with them the control of the whole Flemish coast. The command of the sea was destined to remain for centuries with the new republic."—J. L. Motley, *History of the United Netherlands*, v. 1, ch. 1.

"Times were changed in many particulars. There was no longer a desire to adorn churches and chapels, town-halls and private dwellings, with works of art. Calvinism was opposed to such usage in every particular. The storm of iconoclasm which burst in 1566 revived after 1572 in Holland and Zeeland, after 1576 in Flanders, Brabant, and in other provinces, put an end to the high tide of ecclesiastical art in some regions for good, in others temporarily, as long as Calvinism was dominant. The churches, formerly ornamented with works of art, in the midst of which Catholicism was wont to worship, were stripped of every decoration. Nothing was left but bare walls. . . . The two great centres of learning in the Netherlands, Louvain and Leyden,—Douay hardly counted—attracted scholars more and more. The Reformation had decidedly affected the schools in the Netherland cities. Many of their best men had embraced the cause of reform or come under suspicion of Erasmianism. They were persecuted and banished. . . . In the midst of war and theological strife, Netherland learning remained worthy of its reputation in the very circles of the opposition against Spain."—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 3, pp. 192-196.

1585.—Siege and surrender of Antwerp.—"Antwerp was hard pressed. The fate of this last city aroused universal alarm. Her possession by Spain was an event which England, too, could not regard with indifference, the more that a speedy decision to furnish aid to the Netherlands would place this important city virtually in English hands. Meanwhile the authority of the States and of the council of state lost ground. The Union seemed in a condition of decay, as no real central government was in existence. The contributions of the provinces came in not at all, or very slowly. Holland and Zeeland bore the whole cost of the war, three-quarters of which had already been gradually shoved on their shoulders. The eastern provinces were long since overpowered by the foe, and thus out of condition to aid in the common cause. As a rule, they sent no representative to The Hague, where Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, and Friesland—sometimes the first two alone—were obliged to make the most important decisions on their own authority. How lawlessness increased is evident from placards, issued by the States-General and by the council of state, forbidding the export of provisions. Holland, especially Amsterdam, asked that grain be excepted from the prohibition, and when the council of state refused to agree thereto, Holland, or rather the deputed council of the province, simply decided to make the exception on their own responsibility. The States-General and the council of state were very indignant at this resolution, but were powerless to resist it. The Utrecht citizens, who had again attained great influence in the administration, took part in the matter, unasked, and presented a strong remonstrance to the States-

General against the Amsterdam merchants. The assembly thanked them kindly for their interest, but Amsterdam and Holland paid little heed, and went on their way as though the placard respecting the grain trade did not exist. All this had an ill effect upon the condition of Antwerp. Parma wrote letter after letter, urging the city to capitulate. Marnix, who was in command, held out bravely. Then Parma began to build a bridge of ships over the Scheldt, designed to cut off Antwerp from supplies. Marnix refused for a long time to believe this possible. In January, 1585, he realised the extent of the danger, and began to take all the preventive measures. By February 25th, Antwerp was, however, cut off completely from the sea. Covered by two strong forts and a fleet of well armed men-of-war, protected before and behind by two great drifting floats, the bridge could bid defiance to any attack from the sea quarter and from the side towards the beleaguered city. The bridge, declared Parma, was to be his grave or his path to Antwerp. The besieged did not lose heart, nor did their friends in Zealand. Forts sprang up on the city side, while Parma gathered all the forces at his disposal. Every nerve was strained on each side. It was a contest calling to mind the old stories about Troy. Parma and old Mondragon, Count Charles of Mansfield and his hoary-haired father, Count Peter Ernest, the marquis of Richebourg and Caspar de Robles, Italians, Spaniards, Portuguese, and Walloons, on the Spanish side; Hohenlo and Marnix himself, Justin of Nassau and the Zealand admiral Haultain, Captain Herauzière and the English officers, Balfour and Morgan, Hollanders and Zealanders, French and Scots, covered themselves with glory in the skilful attack and the courageous defence. From the beginning, Marnix had to combat with burghers' dissatisfaction, and when supplies grew scarce the disturbances increased. The suffering at Antwerp could not, to be sure, be compared with that at Leyden, but the population of the Scheldt city was six times that of Leyden, and this mass was very difficult to hold in check. Moreover, the steadfastness of Marnix was not so great as that of Van Hout and Van der Does. Utterly discouraged and despairing of success, he soon gave ear to the offer of negotiations made to him in June. On July 9th, after nearly a month of parleying, Marnix had an interview with the besieging general. Marnix was too utterly discouraged, and too much impressed by Parma's personality, which he admired greatly, to hold his own and to insist on his conditions. On August 9th, the Broad Council of the city agreed to the terms of the capitulation. Eight days later the treaty was signed. Amnesty, return of the royalists to their property, restoration of the priests, of cloisters, and of churches; departure of non-Catholics from the city within two years, which they might have to regulate their affairs; further comprehensive maintenance of the Catholic religion, liberation of the prisoners, payment of four hundred thousand florins' indemnity, departure of the garrison with the honours of war, with their weapons and baggage,—such were the conditions on which Antwerp returned to obedience to the king. Great was the joy in the Spanish camp and brilliant the honours showered on Parma when he made his triumphal entry into the city. At the head of his guard and escorted by Aerschot, Chimay, the Mansfelds, Aremberg, and other south Netherland nobles welcomed by Antwerpia, the personification of the city, on a chariot of victory, proudly wearing his order of the Golden Fleece, with

which the king's gratitude honoured him, the victor passed into Antwerp. He lost no time in beginning to rebuild the citadel"—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 3, pp. 202-205.

ALSO IN: J. L. Motley, *History of the United Netherlands*, v. 1, ch. 5.—F. Schiller, *Siege of Antwerp*.

1585-1586.—Proffered sovereignty of United provinces declined by France and England.—Delusive English succors.—Queen's treachery and Leicester's incompetency.—Useless battle at Zutphen.—"It was natural that so small a State, wasted by its protracted struggles, should desire, more earnestly than ever, an alliance with some stronger power; and it was from among States supposed to have sympathies with Protestants, that such an alliance was sought. From the Protestant countries of Germany there was no promise of help; and the eyes of the Dutch diplomatists were therefore turned towards France and England. In France, the Huguenots, having recovered from St. Bartholomew, now enjoyed toleration; and were a rising and hopeful party, under the patronage of Henry of Navarre. If the king of France would protect Holland from Philip, and extend to its people the same toleration which he allowed his own subjects, Holland offered him the sovereignty of the united provinces. This tempting offer was declined: for a new policy was now to be declared, which united France and Spain in a bigoted crusade against the Protestant faith. The League, under the Duke de Guise, gained a fatal ascendancy over the weak and frivolous king, Henry III., and held dominion in France. . . . Nor was the baneful influence of the League confined to France: it formed a close alliance with Philip and the Pope, with whom it was plotting the overthrow of Protestant England, the subjection of the revolted provinces of Spain, and the general extirpation of heresy throughout Europe. . . . The only hope of the Netherlands was now in England, which was threatened by a common danger; and envoys were sent to Elizabeth with offers of the sovereignty, which had been declined by France. So little did the Dutch statesmen as yet contemplate a republic, that they offered their country to any sovereign, in return for protection. Had bolder counsels prevailed, Elizabeth might, at once, have saved the Netherlands, and placed herself at the head of the Protestants of Europe. She saw her own danger, if Philip should recover the provinces; but she held her pursestrings with the grasp of a miser: she dreaded an open rupture with Spain; and she was unwilling to provoke her own Catholic subjects. Sympathy with the Protestant cause, she had none. . . . She desired to afford as much assistance as would protect her own realm against Philip, at the least possible cost, without precipitating a war with Spain. She agreed to send men and money: but required Flushing, Brill, and Rammekens to be held as a security for her loans. She refused the sovereignty of the States: but she despatched troops to the Netherlands, and sent her favourite, the Earl of Leicester, to command them. As she had taken the rebellious subjects of Spain under her protection, Philip retaliated by the seizure of British ships. Spanish vengeance was not averted, while the Netherlands profited little by her aid."—T. E. May, *Democracy in Europe*, v. 2, ch. 11.—Leicester sailed for the Hague in the middle of December, 1585, having been preceded by 8,000 English troops, eager to prevent or revenge the fall of Antwerp. "Had there been good faith and resolution, and had Lord Grey, or

Sir Richard Bingham, or Sir John Norris been in command, 20,000 Dutch and English troops might have taken the field in perfect condition. The States would have spent their last dollar to find them in everything which soldiers could need. They would have had at their backs the enthusiastic sympathy of the population, while the enemy was as universally abhorred; and Parma, exhausted by his efforts in the great siege, with his chest empty, and his ranks thinned almost to extinction, could not have encountered them with a third of their numbers. A lost battle would have been followed by a renewed revolt of the reconciled Provinces, and Elizabeth, if she found peace so necessary to her, might have dictated her own conditions. [But months passed and nothing was done, while Queen Elizabeth was treacherously negotiating with agents of Spain. In the summer of 1586], . . . half and more than half of the brave men who had come over in the past September were dead. Their places were taken by new levies gathered in haste upon the highways, or by mutinous regiments of Irish kerns, confessed Catholics, and led by a man [Sir William Stanley] who was only watching an opportunity to betray his sovereign. . . . Gone was now the enthusiasm which had welcomed the landing of Leicester. In the place of it was suspicion and misgiving, distracted councils, and divided purposes. Elizabeth while she was diplomatising held her army idle. Parma, short-handed as he was, treated with his hand upon his sword, and was for ever carving slice on slice from the receding frontiers of the States. At the time of Leicester's installation he was acting on the Meuse. He held the river as far as Venloo. Venloo and Grave were in the hands of the patriots, both of them strong fortresses, the latter especially. . . . After the fall of Antwerp these two towns were Parma's next object. The siege of Grave was formed in January. In April Colonel Norris and Count Hohenlohe forced the Spanish lines and threw in supplies; but Elizabeth's orders prevented further effort. Parma came before the town in person in June, and after a bombardment which produced little or no effect, Grave, to the surprise of every one, surrendered. Count Hemart, the governor, was said to have been corrupted by his mistress. Leicester hanged him; but Hemart's gallows did not recover Grave or save Venloo, which surrendered also three weeks later. The Earl, conscious of the disgrace, yet seeing no way to mend it, . . . was willing at last to play into his mistress's hands. He understood her [Queen Elizabeth] at last, and saw what she was aiming at. 'As the cause is now followed,' he wrote to her on the 27th of June, 'it is not worth the cost or the danger. . . . They [the Netherlanders] would rather have lived with bread and drink under your Majesty's protection than with all their possessions under the King of Spain. It has almost broken their hearts to think your Majesty should not care any more for them. But if you mean soon to leave them they will be gone almost before you hear of it. I will do my best, therefore, to get into my hands three or four most principal places in North Holland, so as you shall rule these men, and make war and peace as you list. Part not with Brill for anything. With these places you can have what peace you will in an hour, and have your debts and charges readily answered. But your Majesty must deal graciously with them at present, and if you mean to leave them keep it to yourself.' . . . No palliation can be suggested, of the intentions to which Leicester saw that she was still clinging, and which he was

willing to further in spite of his oath to be loyal to the States. . . . The incapacity of Leicester . . . was growing evident. He had been used as a lay figure to dazzle the eyes of the Provinces, while both he and they were mocked by the secret treaty. The treaty was hanging fire. . . . The Queen had . . . so far opened her eyes as to see that she was not improving her position by keeping her army idle; and Leicester, that he might not part with his government in entire disgrace, having done absolutely nothing, took the field for a short campaign in the middle of August [1586]. Parma had established himself in Gelderland, at Zutphen, and Duesberg. The States held Deventer, further down the Issel; but Deventer would probably fall as Grave and Venloo had fallen if the Spaniards kept their hold upon the river; Leicester therefore proposed to attempt to recover Zutphen. Every one was delighted to be moving. . . . The Earl of Essex, Sir William Russell, Lord Willoughby, and others who held no special commands, attached themselves to Leicester's staff; Sir Philip Sidney obtained leave of absence from Flushing; Sir John Norris and his brother brought the English contingent of the States army; Sir William Stanley had arrived with his Irishmen; and with these cavaliers glittering about him, and 9,000 men, Leicester entered Gelderland. Duesberg surrendered to him without a blow; Norris surprised a fort outside Zutphen, which commanded the river and straitened the communications of the town. [Parma made an attempt, on the morning of September 22, to throw supplies into the town, and Leicester's knights and gentlemen, forewarned of this project by a spy], . . . volunteered for an ambuscade to cut off the convoy. . . . Parma brought with him every man that he could spare, and the ambuscade party were preparing unconsciously to encounter 4,000 of the best troops in the world. They were in all about 500. . . . The morning was misty. The waggons were heard coming, but nothing could be seen till a party of horse appeared at the head of the train where the ambuscade was lying. Down charged the 500 . . . magnificently and as uselessly. . . . Never had been a more brilliant action seen or heard of, never one more absurd and profitless. For the ranks of the Spanish infantry were unbroken, the English could not touch them, could not even approach them, and behind the line of their muskets the waggons passed steadily to the town. . . . A few, not many, had been killed; but among those whose lives had been flung away so wildly was Philip Sidney. He was struck by a musket ball on his exposed thigh, as he was returning from his last charge [and died a few weeks later]. . . . Parma immediately afterwards entered Zutphen unmolested. . . . Leicester's presence was found necessary in England. With the natural sympathy of one worthless person for another, he had taken a fancy to Stanley, and chose to give him an independent command; and leaving the government to the Council of the States, and the army again without a chief, he sailed in November for London."—J. A. Froude, *History of England: Reign of Elizabeth*, v. 6, ch. 33.

ALSO IN: *Correspondence of Leicester during his government of the Low countries (Camden Society, 27)*.—W. Gray, *Life and times of Sir Philip Sidney*, ch. 10.—C. R. Markham, *Fighting Veres*, ch. 7-8.

1587-1588.—Ruin of Spanish provinces.—Great prosperity of United provinces.—Siege and capture of Sluys.—Last of Leicester.—"Though the United Provinces were distracted by domestic dissensions and enfeebled by mutual distrust, their

condition, compared with that portion of the Netherlands reduced under the yoke of Spain, was such as to afford matter of deep gratulation and thankfulness. The miseries of war had visited the latter unhappy country in the fullest measure; multitudes of its inhabitants had fled in despair; and the sword, famine, and pestilence, vied with each other in destroying the remainder. . . . The rich and smiling pastures, once the admiration and envy of the less favoured countries of Europe, were now no more; woods, roads, and fields, were confounded in one tangled mass of copse and brier. In the formerly busy and wealthy towns of Flanders and Brabant, Ghent, Antwerp, and Bruges, members of noble families were seen to creep from their wretched abodes in the darkness of night to beg their bread, or to search the streets for bones and offal. A striking and cheering contrast is the picture presented by the United Provinces. The crops had, indeed, failed there also, but the entire command of the sea which they preserved, and the free importation of corn, secured plentiful supplies. . . . They continued to carry on, under Spanish colours, a lucrative half-smuggling traffic, which the government of that nation found it its interest to connive at and encourage. The war, therefore, instead of being, as usual, an hindrance to commerce, rather gave it a new stimulus; the ports were crowded with vessels. . . . Holland and Zealand had now for more than ten years been delivered from the enemy. . . . The security they thus offered, combined with the freedom of religion, and the activity of trade and commerce, drew vast multitudes to their shores; the merchants and artisans expelled, on account of their religion, from the Spanish Netherlands, transferred thither the advantages of their enterprise and skill. . . . The population of the towns became so overflowing that it was found impossible to build houses fast enough to contain it. . . . The miserable condition of the Spanish Netherlands, and the difficulty of finding supplies for his troops, caused the Duke of Parma to delay taking the field until late in the summer [1587]; when, making a feint attack upon Ostend, he afterwards . . . commenced a vigorous siege of Sluys. In order to draw him off from this undertaking, Maurice, with the Count of Hohenlohe, marched towards Bois-le-Duc. . . . The danger of Sluys hastened the return of the Earl of Leicester to the Netherlands, who arrived in Ostend with 7,000 foot and 500 horse. . . . Sluys had been besieged seven weeks, and the garrison was reduced from 1,600 men to scarcely half that number, when Leicester made an attempt to master the fort of Blankenburg, in the neighbourhood of the enemy's camp; but on intelligence that Parma was approaching to give him battle, he hastily retreated to Ostend [and Sluys was surrendered]. . . . The loss of Sluys exasperated the dissensions between Leicester and the States into undisguised and irreconcilable hostility. [He was soon afterwards recalled to England, and early in the following year the queen required him to resign his command and governorship in the Netherlands. In the meantime, the English queen had reopened negotiations with Parma, who occupied her attention while his master, Philip II of Spain, was preparing the formidable Armada which he launched against England the next year.]—C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, v. 2, pt. 3, ch. 2-3.—See also ENGLAND: 1587-1588; 1588: Spanish Armada.

1588-1593.—Successes of Prince Maurice.—Departure of Parma to France.—His death.—Appointment of Archduke Albert to the government.—“The destruction of the great Spanish Ar-

mada by the English in 1588 infused new hopes into all the enemies of Spain, and animated the Dutch with such courage, that Maurice led his army against that of the Duke of Parma, and forced him to raise the siege of Bergen-op-Zoom, at that time garrisoned by a portion of Leicester's army under the command of Sir Francis Vere. . . . The young Stadtholder was induced by this success to surprise the Castle of Blyenbeck, which was yielded to his arms in 1589; and the following year [March 1] he got possession of Breda by a ‘ruse de guerre,’ [having introduced seventy men into the town by concealing them in a boat laden with turf]. . . . The Duke of Parma was now recalled from the Low Countries into France [see FRANCE: 1590], and the old Peter Ernest, Count de Mansfeld, succeeded to the government of the Low Countries. . . . Maurice defeated the Spanish army in the open field at Caervorden, and took Nimeguen [October 21, 1591] and Zutphen [May 30, 1591; also, Deventer, June 10, of the same year]. . . . These successes added greatly to the reputation of Count Maurice, who now made considerable progress, so that in the year 1591 the Dutch saw their frontiers extended, and had well-grounded hopes of driving the Spaniards out of Friesland in another campaign. . . . The death of the Prince of Parma [which occurred December 3, 1592] delivered the Confederates from a formidable adversary; but old Count Mansfeld, at the head of an army of 30,000 men, took the field against them. Maurice, however, in 1593, notwithstanding this covering force, sat down before Gertruydenberg, advantageously situated on the frontier of Brabant. [The siege was regarded as a masterpiece of the military art of the day, and the city was brought to surrender at the end of three months.] . . . With the useful aid of Sir Francis Vere and the English, Maurice afterwards took Gronenburg and Grave, which formed part of his own patrimony. The Duke of Parma was succeeded in the government of the Netherlands by the Archduke Albert, a younger son of the Emperor Maximilian, who was married to Isabella, daughter of King Philip.”—E. Cust, *Lives of the Warriors of the Thirty Years' War: Maurice of Orange-Nassau*, pp. 25-28.

ALSO IN: C. R. Markham, *Fighting Veres*, pt. 1, ch. 10-15.

1593.—Trade with Japan. See JAPAN: 1503-1625.

1594-1597.—Spanish operations in northern France. See FRANCE: 1593-1598.

1594-1609.—Steady decline of Spanish power.—Sovereignty of provinces made over to the Infanta Isabella and the archduke, her husband.—Death of Philip II.—Negotiations for peace.—Twelve years' truce agreed upon.—Acknowledgment of the independence of the republic.—“Philip's French enterprise had failed. The dashing and unscrupulous Henry of Navarre had won his crown, by conforming to the Catholic faith [see FRANCE: 1501-1503]. . . . Great was the shock given by his politic apostacy to the religious sentiments of Europe: but it was fatal to the ambition of Philip; and again the Netherlands could count upon the friendship of a king of France. Their own needs were great: but the gallant little republic still found means to assist the Protestant champion against their common enemy, the king of Spain. In the Netherlands the Spanish power was declining. The feeble successors of Parma were no match for Maurice of Nassau and the republican leaders: the Spanish troops were starving and mutinous: the provinces under Spanish rule were reduced to wretchedness and

beggary. Cities and fortresses fell, one after another, into the hands of the stadtholder. The Dutch fleet joined that of England in a raid upon Spain itself, captured and sacked Cadiz [see SPAIN: 1596; CADIZ: 1596], raised the flag of the republic on the battlements of that famous city; and left the Spanish fleet burning in the harbour. Other events followed, deeply affecting the fortunes of the republic. Philip at length made peace with Henry of Navarre, and was again free to coerce his revolted provinces. But his accursed rule was drawing to a close. In 1598 he made over the sovereignty of the Netherlands to the Infanta Isabella and her affianced husband, the Archduke Albert, who had cast aside his cardinal's hat, his archbishopric, and his priestly vows of celibacy, for a consort so endowed. Philip had ceased to reign in the Netherlands; and a few months afterwards [September 13, 1598] he closed his evil life, in the odour of sanctity. . . . The tyrant was dead; the little republic, which he had scourged so cruelly, was living and prosperous. . . . Far different was the lot of the ill-fated provinces still in the grasp of the tyrant. The land lay waste and desolate: its inhabitants had fled to England or Holland, or were reduced to want and beggary. . . . That the republic should have outlived its chief oppressor was an event of happy augury; but years of trial and danger were still to be passed through. The victory of Nieuport [gained July 2, 1600, by an army of Dutch and English over the superior forces of the Archduke Albert] raised Prince Maurice's fame, as a soldier, to its highest point; and the gallant defence of Ostend, for upwards of three years [against a siege, conducted by the Spanish general Ambrosio de Spínola, a Genoese banker, to which its garrison finally succumbed in 1604, when the town was a heap of ruins, and after 100,000 men are said to have been sacrificed on both sides] . . . proved that the courage and endurance of his soldiers had not declined during the protracted war [while Sluys was taken by the prince the same year]. At sea the Dutch fleets won new victories over the Spaniards and Portuguese; and privateers made constant ravages upon the enemy's commerce. But there were also failures and reverses, on the side of the republic, dissensions among its leaders, and anxieties concerning the attitude of foreign States. And thus, with varied fortunes, this momentous war had now continued for upwards of forty years. . . . On both sides there was a desire for peace. The Dutch would accept nothing short of unconditional independence: the Spaniards almost despaired of reducing them to subjection, while they dreaded more republican victories at sea, and the extension of Dutch maritime enterprise in the East. Overtures for peace were first made cautiously and secretly by the archdukes ['this was the title of the archduke and archduchess'], and received by the States with grave distrust. Jealous and haughty was the bearing of the republic, in the negotiations which ensued. The states-general, in full session, represented Holland, and received the Spanish envoys. The independence of the States was accepted, on both sides, as the basis of any treaty: but, as a preliminary to the negotiations, the republic insisted upon its formal recognition, as a free and equal State, in words dictated by itself. . . . At length an armistice was signed, in order to arrange the terms of a treaty of peace. It was a welcome breathing time: but peace was still beset with difficulties and obstacles. The Spaniards were insincere: they could not bring themselves to treat seriously, and in good faith, with heretics and rebels: they desired the re-

establishment of the Church of Rome; and they claimed the exclusive right of trading with the East and West Indies. The councils of the republic were also divided. Barneveldt, the civilian, was bent upon peace: Prince Maurice, the soldier, was burning for the renewal of the war. But Barneveldt and the peace party prevailed, and negotiations were continued. Again and again, the armistice was renewed: but a treaty of peace seemed as remote as ever. At length [April 9, 1609], after infinite disputes, a truce for twelve years was agreed upon. In form it was a truce, and not a treaty of peace: but otherwise the republic gained every point upon which it had insisted. Its freedom and independence were unconditionally recognised: it accepted no conditions concerning religion: it made no concessions in regard to its trade with the Indies. The great battle for freedom was won: the republic was free: its troubles and perils were at an end. Its oppressors had been the first to sue for peace: their commissioners had treated with the states-general at the Hague; and they had yielded every point for which they had been waging war for nearly half a century."—T. E. May, *Democracy in Europe*, v. 2, ch. 11.

"The treaty thus concluded comprised thirty-eight articles besides the added acts. The first declared that the archdukes in their own name and that of the king concluded a truce for twelve years (Article 2) on the basis of possessions at the time (Article 3). The fourth article provided a universal cessation of hostility both for territory within and without Europe. As regarded the latter, this would not go into force within a year (Article 5), on account of the distance, and with the general stipulation that there should be mutual freedom of trade, while in the Spanish possessions within Europe the inhabitants of the provinces could not trade without the king's express permission, but outside of them should be allowed full freedom of entry. In a secret article, this permission herein mentioned was expressly given by the deputies from the enemy in the name of the king and the archdukes, 'on condition that the trade be free and assured.' The following articles had to do with tolls, taxes, etc., which could not be increased for their respective subjects. Article 7 gave the inhabitants of the northern provinces trading in the lands of kings or archdukes the same rights and same obligations as had been given to and imposed upon the English in 1604, especially as regards freedom of conscience and of respect for the Catholic religion. Article 13 stipulated restoration of confiscated property on payment of debts resting thereon (Article 16), with exception of houses sold in the cities (Article 17), which would make too much complication, and only for the period of the truce, so that nothing could be alienated. Article 20 stipulated the same thing for ecclesiastical property in so far as it was not alienated before January, 1607, in which case a yearly rental was to be paid, all for the profit of churches, colleges, and persons who were submissive to the archdukes and had possessions in the north or who were under the States, and rightfully entitled to property in the south. Article 20 decreed that no new fort could be erected; Article 30, that the house of Nassau could not be sued on account of the debts incurred by Prince William after 1567; Article 34, that all prisoners on both sides should be freed without ransom."—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 3, pp. 311-312.

ALSO IN: C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, v. 2, pt. 3, ch. 3-4.—J. L. Motley, *History of the*

United Netherlands, v. 3-4, ch. 30-52.—D. Campbell, *Puritan in Holland, etc., v. 2, ch. 18.*

1594-1620.—Rise and growth of Eastern trade.—Formation of Dutch East India Company.—“Previous to their assertion of national independence, the commerce of the Dutch did not extend beyond the confines of Europe. But new regions of traffic were now to open to their dauntless enterprise. It was in 1594 that Cornelius Houtman, the son of a brewer at Gouda, returned from Lisbon, where, having passed the preceding year, he had seen the gorgeous produce of the East piled on the quays of the Tagus. His descriptions fired the emulation of his friends at Amsterdam, nine of whom agreed to join stock and equip a little flotilla for a voyage round the Cape of Good Hope; Houtman undertook the command, and thus the marvellous commerce of the Dutch in India began. The influence which their trade with India and their settlements there exerted in maturing and extending the greatness of the Dutch, has often been overrated. It was a source, indeed, of infinite pride, and for a time of rapid and glittering profit; but it was attended with serious drawbacks, both of national expenditure and national danger. . . . From the outset they were forced to go armed. The four ships that sailed on the first voyage of speculation from Amsterdam, in 1595, were fitted out for either war or merchandise. They were about to sail into hitherto interdicted waters; they knew that the Portuguese were already established in the Spice Islands, whither they were bound; and Portugal was then a dependency of Spain. On their arrival at Java, they had, consequently, to encounter open hostility both from Europeans and the natives whom the former influenced against them. At Bali, however, they were better received; and, in 1597, they reached home with a rich cargo of spices and Indian wares. It was a proud and joyous day in Amsterdam when their return was known. . . . From various ports of Zealand and Holland 80 vessels sailed the following year to America, Africa, and India. Vainly the Portuguese colonists laboured to convince the native princes of the East that the Dutch were a mere horde of pirates with whom no dealings were safe. Their businesslike and punctilious demeanour, and probably, likewise, the judiciously selected cargoes with which they freighted their ships outwards, whereby they were enabled to offer better terms for the silk, indigo, and spice they wished to buy, rapidly disarmed the suspicion of several of the chiefs. . . . In 1602 the celebrated East India Company was formed under charter granted by the States-General,—the original capital being 6,000,000 guilders, subscribed by the merchants of Delft, Rotterdam, Hoorn, Enkhuysen, Middleberg, but above all Amsterdam. They established factories at many places, both on the continent of India and in the islands; but their chief depot was fixed at Bantam [until, dissatisfied with certain taxes imposed on them by the lord of Bantam, they looked elsewhere for a station.] . . . The sovereign of Java gladly offered them a settlement not above 100 miles distant, with full permission to erect such buildings as they chose, and an engagement that pepper (the chief spice thence exported) should be sent out of his dominions toll-free. These terms were accepted. Jocatra, a situation very propitious for traffic, was chosen as the site of their future factory. Warehouses of stone and mortar quickly rose; and dwellings, to the number of 1,000, were in a short time added. All nations had leave to settle and trade within its walls; and this was the

origin of Batavia. In six years the Company sent out 46 vessels of which 43 returned in due course laden with rich cargoes. . . . By the books of the Company it appeared that, during the next eleven years, they maintained 30 ships in the Eastern trade, manned by 5,000 seamen. . . . Two hundred per cent. was divided by the proprietors of the Company's stock on their paid-up capital in sixteen years. . . . But of all the proud results of their Indian commerce, that which naturally afforded to the Dutch the keenest sense of exultation, was the opportunity it afforded them of thoroughly undermining the once exclusive trade of Spain, not with foreign nations merely, but with her own colonies, and even at home. The infatuated policy of her government had prepared the way for her decline. . . . In the space of a few years the Dutch had taken and rilled eleven Spanish galleons, ‘carkets and other huge ships, and made about 40 of them unserviceable.’ So crippled was their colonial trade that, even for their own use, the Spaniards were obliged to buy nutmegs, cloves, and mace, from their hated rivals.”—W. T. McCullagh, *Industrial history of free nations, v. 2, ch. 13.*

“The operations of the East India Company had been on a large scale, and had been attended with much success. Not merely had the monopoly of Spain and Portugal in the Orient been invaded, but their dominion there had been seriously shaken. A great fleet of seventeen vessels under the command of Admiral Warwyck and Vice-Admiral de Weert sailed in 1602, and was absent for more than five years. All the principal islands of the Malay Archipelago, as well as Ceylon, Siam, and China, were visited. In 1604 another expedition of thirteen ships, under Steven van der Hagen, was sent to Malabar and the Moluccas. Factories were established and ports built at Amboina, Tidor, and other places; and the fleet returned in 1606 with a very rich cargo of cloves and other spices. On his return voyage van der Hagen met at Mauritius a third outward-bound fleet of the Company, under Cornelis Matelief. This force consisted of eleven small armed ships, manned by 1,400 sailors. In the summer of 1606 Matelief laid siege to the Portuguese fortress of Malacca, situate in a commanding position at the southernmost extremity of the Malay Peninsula. Here he was attacked on August 17 by Alphonso de Castro, the Spanish Viceroy of India, at the head of a vastly superior fleet, consisting of eighteen galleons and galleys, carrying 4000 to 5000 soldiers and sailors. A fierce but indecisive action resulted in the first instance in the raising of the siege of Malacca. On hearing, however, that de Castro had sailed away, leaving only ten ships in the roadstead of Malacca for the defence of the place, Matelief returned, and, on September 21, fell upon the Spaniards. One of the most complete victories in naval records was the result. Every single vessel of the enemy was destroyed or burnt, while the Dutch scarcely lost a man. After visiting China, and establishing the authority of the Company at Amboina, Tidor, Ternate, Bantam, and other places, Matelief left the further conduct of affairs in Eastern waters to Paul van Kaurden, who met him at Bantam at the head of yet another fleet, while he himself returned home with five ships, laden with spices, bringing into the midst of peace negotiations the great tidings of his adventures and victories.”—G. Edmundson, *Cambridge modern history, v. 3, p. 638.*

See also COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 16th-17th centuries: Netherlands; FREEDOM OF THE SEAS: 1400-1650; BORNEO; JAVA: 1521-

1846; MERCHANT ADVENTURERS; MOLUCCAS; PACIFIC OCEAN: 1513-1764; SUMATRA.

ALSO IN: D. McPHERSON, *Annals of commerce*, v. 2, pp. 206-296.

1596.—Barent's discovery of Spitsbergen.—Later exploration and control of whaling industry by the Dutch. See SPITSBERGEN: 1506-1820.

17th century.—British navigation laws.—Effect upon Dutch shipping. See NAVIGATION LAWS: 1849.

1603-1619.—Calvinistic persecution of Arminianism.—Hunting down of John of Barneveldt by Prince Maurice.—Synod of Dort.—Death of Maurice and accession of Frederick Henry.—Calvin's doctrine of predestination was strongly expressed in what was called the Heidelberg catechism. "A synod of the pastors of Holland had decreed that this must be signed by all their preachers, and bc to them what the Thirty-nine Articles are to the English Church and the Confession of Augsburg to the Lutherans. Many preachers hesitated to pledge themselves to doc-



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trines that they did not think Scriptural nor according to primitive faith, and still more, not accordant with the eternal mercy of God. Of these Jacob Hermann, a minister of Amsterdam, or as he Latinised his name, Arminius, was the foremost, and under his influence a number of clergy refused their signature. The University of Leyden in 1603 chose Arminius as their Professor of Theology. The opposite party, in great wrath, insisted on holding a synod, and the States-General gave permission, but at first only on condition that there should be a revision of the confession of faith and catechism. The ministers refused, but the States-General insisted, led by John Barneveldt, then Advocate and Keeper of the Seals, who declared in their name that as 'foster fathers and protectors of the churches to them every right belonged.' It was an Erastian sentiment, but this opinion was held by all reformed governments, including the English, and Barneveldt spoke in the hope of mitigating Calvinistic violence. The Advocate of the States-General was in fact their mouthpiece. They might vote, but no one expressed their decisions at home or abroad save the Advocate; and Barneveldt, both from position and character, was thus the chief manager of civil affairs, and an equal if not a superior power to

Maurice of Nassau, the Stadtholder and commander-in-chief, and recently, by the death of his elder brother, Prince of Orange. The question had even been mooted of giving him the sovereignty, but to this Barneveldt was strongly averse. Maurice knew very little about the argument, and his real feelings were Arminian, though jealousy of Barneveldt made him favour the opposite party, whose chief champion was Jacob Gomer, or Gomerus as he called himself. King James, though really holding with the Arminians, disliked Barneveldt, and therefore threw all the weight of England into the scale against them. Arguments were held before Maurice and before the university, in which three champions on the one side were pitted against three on the other, but nothing came of them but a good deal of audacious profanity, till Arminius, in ministering to the sick during a visitation of the plague at Amsterdam, caught the disease and died. He was so much respected that the University of Leyden pensioned his widow. They chose a young Genevese, named Conrad Voorst or Vorstius, as his successor. Voorst had written two books, one on the nature of God, *Tractatus Theologicus de Deo*, and the other, *Exegesis Apologetica*, in which (by Fuller's account) there was a considerable amount of materialism, and likewise what amounted to a denial of the Divine Omniscience, being no doubt a reaction from extreme Calvinism. King James met with the book, and was horrified at its statements. He conceived himself bound to interfere both as protector to the States—which he said had been cemented with English blood—and because the University of Leyden was much frequented by the youth of England and Scotland, who often completed their legal studies there. He ordered Sir Ralf Winwood, his ambassador at the Hague, to deliver a sharp remonstrance to the States, and to read them a catalogue of the dangerous and blasphemous errors that he had detected, recommending the States to protest against the appointment, and burn the books. Barneveldt was much distressed, and uncertain whether James really was speaking out of zeal for orthodoxy, or to have an excuse for a quarrel. Letters and arguments passed without number. . . . Leyden supported the professor it had invited, and, together with Barneveldt, felt that to expel a man whom they had chosen, at the bidding of a foreign sovereign, was almost accepting a yoke like that of the Inquisition. . . . Maurice, on the other hand, was glad to set the English King against Barneveldt, and to represent that support of the foes of strict Calvinism meant treachery to the Republic and a betrayal to Spain. Winwood, on the King's part, insisted on Vorstius's dismissal and banishment. . . . Maurice's own preacher, Uytenbogen, wrote a remonstrance on behalf of the Arminians, who were therefore sometimes termed Remonstrants, while the Gomerists, from their answer, were called Counter-Remonstrants. Unfortunately, political jealousy of Barneveldt on the part of Maurice caused the influence of Uytenbogen to decline. Most of the preachers and of the populace held to the Counter-Remonstrants and their old-fashioned Calvinism, most of the nobles and magistrates were Remonstrants. The question began to branch into a second, namely, whether the state had power to control the faith of all its subjects, and whether when it convoked a synod it could control its decisions, or was bound to enforce them absolutely and without question. . . . Whichever party was predominant in a place turned the other out of church. Appeals were made to the Stadtholder, and he became angry.



SURRENDER OF BREDA

Justus of Nassau surrendering the keys of the town of Breda to Spinola, 1625

(After Velazquez's painting in the Museo del Prado, Madrid)

The States-General at large, with Barneveldt to speak for them, were Remonstrant; the states of Holland were Counter-Remonstrant; and one of the questions thus at issue was how far the power of the general government outweighed that of a particular state. . . . By steps here impossible to follow, Maurice destroyed the ascendancy of Barneveldt, and the reports that the old statesman was playing into the hands of Spain grew more and more current. The magistrates of the Arminian persuasion found themselves depending for protection on the Waartgelders, a sort of burgher militia, who endeavoured to keep the peace between the furious mobs who struggled on either side. Accusations flew about freely that now Maurice, now Barneveldt wanted the sovereignty. England favoured the former; and after Henri IV. was dead, French support little availed the latter, but rather did him harm. Maurice did not scruple to raise the popular cry that there were two factions in Holland, for Orange or for Spain, though he must have known that there never had been a more steady foe of Spain than the old statesman. The public, however, preferred the general to the statesman, and bit by bit Maurice succeeded in exchanging Remonstrant magistrates for Counter-Remonstrant, or, as Barneveldt explained the matter to Sir Dudley Carleton, who had become ambassador from England, Puritan for double Puritan. . . . Sunday, the 17th of July, 1617, Uytenbogen preached against the assembly of a national synod, knowing well that it would only confirm and narrow the cruel doctrine. Maurice, who was bent on the synod came out in a rage. . . . Barneveldt on this moved the States-General to refuse their consent to the synod as inconsistent with their laws. This was carried by a majority, and was called the Sharp Resolve. . . . The High Council by a majority of one set aside the Sharp Resolve, and decided for the synod. Barneveldt had a severe illness, during which Maurice's influence made progress, assisted by detestable accusations that the Advocate was in league with the Spaniards. At last Maurice mastered Utrecht, hitherto the chief hold of Arminianism. He disbanded the Waartgelders, and when the States-General came together in the summer of 1618, he had all prepared for sweeping his adversaries from his path. On the 20th of August, as Barneveldt was going to take his place at the States-General, he was told by a chamberlain that the Prince wished to speak with him, and in Maurice's ante-room was arrested by a lieutenant of the guard and locked up. In exactly the same manner was arrested his friend and supporter Pensionary Rambolt Hoogenboets, who had protested against the decree by which the High Council reversed that of the States-General, and Hugo Van Groot, or, as he called himself, Hugo Grotius, one of the greatest scholars who ever lived, especially in jurisprudence, and a strong adherent of the Advocate. . . . The synod met at Dordrecht [or Dort] in January, 1619, and lasted till April. The Calvinists carried the day completely, and Arminians were declared heretics, schismatics, incapable of preaching, or of acting as professors or schoolmasters, unless they signed the Heidelberg Catechism and Netherland Confession, which laid down the hard-and-fast doctrine that predestination excluded all free will on man's part, but divided the human race into vessels of wrath and vessels of mercy, without power on their own part to reverse the doom. . . . The trial of Barneveldt was going on at the same time with the Synod of Dordrecht after he had been many months in prison. Twenty-four commissioners

were appointed, twelve from Holland, and two from each of the other states, and most of them were personal enemies of the prisoner. Before them he was examined day by day for three months, without any indictment; no witnesses, no counsel on either side; nor was he permitted pen and ink to prepare his defence, nor the use of his books and papers." Barneveldt and his family protested against the flagrant injustice and illegality of the so-called trial, but refused to sue for pardon, which Maurice was determined they should do. "It was submission that he wanted, not life"; but as the submission was not yielded he coldly exacted the life. Barneveldt was condemned and sentenced to be beheaded by the sword. The sentence was executed on the same day it was pronounced, May 12, 1619. Grotius was condemned to perpetual imprisonment, but made his escape, by the contrivance of his wife, in 1621.—C. M. Yonge, *Camcos from English history*, series 6, cameo 9.—See also DORT, OR DORDRECHT, SYNOD OF.

"The death of Oldenbarneveldt and the complete overthrow of his party left the Prince of Orange (he had succeeded to that title on the death of his brother Philip William in February, 1618) sovereign of the United Netherlands in all but name. He might have had the title as well as the power; but he was unmarried, and was indifferent about the matter. He had never cared for the details of politics, and he now left the management of affairs in the hands of those who had taken the leading part in the opposition to the Advocate, foremost among whom were Francis van Aerssens and Reinier Pauw. These men were determined to reap to the full the fruits of victory. All over the country the Remonstrants were driven from their pulpits, and prominent adherents of Oldenbarneveldt deprived of their offices; the post of Advocate was abolished and never revived, his place being filled by a functionary styled *Raadpensionaris*, whose term of office was to be for five years instead of for life, and whose powers were much restricted. The year 1620 was marked by the death of two prominent members of the House of Nassau. The widow of William the Silent, who had been deeply afflicted by the tragic end of her old and faithful friend, died at Fontainebleau in March. William Lewis expired suddenly in October, to the deep grief of Maurice, who succeeded him in his dignities as Stadholder in Groningen and Drenthe; in Friesland his place was taken by his younger brother, Count Ernest Casimir of Nassau. In August, 1621, the Twelve Years' Truce came to an end, and after certain overtures for peace had been made by the Archdukes, which contained quite unacceptable conditions, war once more broke out, and Maurice took the field against his old adversary Spinola. But owing to the deaths in this year of Philip III, King of Spain, and of Archduke Albert, operations dragged for some time sluggishly along. In 1622 Maurice gained the only success of his last years, by relieving Bergen-op-Zoom, which Spinola was besieging. He sorely missed at the head of affairs the vigorous hand and wise brain of Oldenbarneveldt, and himself confessed that nothing went right after the Advocate's death. In this year a conspiracy was discovered against the life of Maurice, in which two of Oldenbarneveldt's sons were implicated. The younger, William, Lord of Stoutenburg, resented deeply being deprived of his post as Governor of Berzen-op-Zoom and having his property confiscated; and he laid a plot for the assassination of the Stadholder, to which very unwillingly his elder brother, Regnier, Lord of Groeneweld, was persuaded to become a party. The

plot was betrayed, and many arrests were made. Stoutenburg himself contrived to escape, but Groeneveld and a number of others were taken and executed. The health of the Prince of Orange was at this time seriously impaired; and he neither showed the same endurance as before in bearing the fatigues of campaigning, nor the same vigour and skill in his conduct of the war. Misfortune dogged his steps; and in 1624 [1625?] the town of Breda, an ancestral possession of his family, was taken by Spinola under his eyes. Deeply mortified, Maurice now fell seriously ill; and it was evident that his days were numbered. His last cares were to secure that his titles, dignities, and estates should pass to his younger brother Frederick Henry, to whom at his request the States General in the spring of 1625 had confided the command of the forces. The two brothers, despite a temporary estrangement, due to the leaning of the younger to the Remonstrant doctrines and the party of Oldenbarneveldt, had always been deeply attached to each other. Neither of them had shown any inclination for wedlock; but now Maurice on his bed of sickness used all his influence to bring about the marriage of Frederick Henry with the Countess Amalia of Solms. He was anxious to secure the prospect of the family succession, and is reported to have threatened even to disinherit his brother unless he complied with his wishes. The preliminaries were quickly arranged; and the wedding took place at the Hague on April 4, 1625. On the 23rd of April Maurice died, in the 58th year of his age, prematurely worn out by the hardships and privations of a life spent from his youth up in the camp and at the head of armies. He was perhaps the most accomplished soldier of his time, but as a politician weak, hesitating, and easily led, and he passed away under a cloud, for the splendour of his great achievements was overshadowed by the dark memory of the catastrophe of 1619."—G. Edmundson, *Cambridge modern history*, v. 3, pp. 655-656.

Also in: J. L. Motley, *Life and death of John of Barneveldt*, v. 2, ch. 14-22.—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 3, ch. 14-16.

1608-1620.—Residence of exiled Independents, founders of Plymouth colony in New England. See INDEPENDENTS: 1604-1617; 1617-1620.

1609.—Founding of Bank of Amsterdam. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 16th-19th centuries; BANK OF AMSTERDAM.

1609.—Henry Hudson's voyage of exploration. See AMERICA: 1609.

1610-1623.—Possession taken of New Netherland (New York).—First permanent settlement on Manhattan island. See NEW YORK; 1610-1614; NEW YORK CITY: 1623.

1613.—Settlement in Guiana. See GUIANA: 1580-1814.

1614-1621.—Control of trade in New World. See NEW YORK: 1614-1621.

1620.—Extent of territory in America. See AMERICA: Map of King James' Grants.

1621-1623.—Aids Ferdinand of Austria in war against Protestant princes and Evangelical Union. See GERMANY: 1621-1623.

1622-1699.—Settlements in China and nearby islands. See CHINA: 1662-1838.

1623.—Massacre of Amboyna. See INDIA: 1600-1702.

1624-1661.—Conquests in Brazil and their loss. See BRAZIL: 1510-1661.

1625.—Protestant Alliance in Thirty Years' War. See GERMANY: 1624-1626.

1625.—Settlement of Virgin islands. See VIRGIN ISLANDS: Discovery and settlement.

1625-1647.—Frederick Henry Stadtholder.—Siege of Grol.—Capture of the "silver fleet."—Assault on Bois le Duc.—Capture of Venloo.—Fall of Maastricht.—Siege of Breda.—Tromp's attack on the Spanish fleet in the Downs.—Capture of Dunkirk.—French and Spanish diplomacy.—"The offices and dignities held by Maurice were at once conferred on Frederick Henry [his younger brother]. He was elected Stadholder of Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland and Overijssel, and was appointed Captain-General and Admiral-General of the Union and head of the Council of State. During practically the whole of his life the prince spent a considerable part of the year in camp, but he was able all the time to keep in touch with home affairs, and to exercise a constant supervision and control of the foreign policy of the State by the help of his wife, and through the services of Francis van Aerssens, . . . [commonly called Sommelsdijk. Sommelsdijk succeeded in arranging an offensive and defensive alliance with England; but the troubles between Charles I and his parliament had already begun, and little was gained from the treaty; more was to be hoped from France, where Richelieu, a strong opponent of Spain, was now firmly entrenched in power.] Already those close relations between the French and the Dutch, which for the next decade were to be one of the dominating factors in determining the final issue of the Thirty Years' War, were by the diplomatic efforts of Richelieu and of Aerssens being firmly established. France advanced to the States a large subsidy by the aid of which the stadholder was enabled to take the field at the head of a really fine army and to give to the world a brilliant display of his military abilities."—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*, pp. 141-143.—"The third year of Frederick Henry's administration had begun, and very little was as yet accomplished in the war. Now, however, the prince seemed to have something great in mind. At the end of July he laid siege to Grol, from which place the Spaniards had for years ravaged the district of Zutphen, and which Maurice had twice attempted in vain to capture. Notwithstanding the enemy's approach, the prince succeeded within a month in conquering the strong fortress, and his fame as a besieger was immediately established. . . . In 1627 alone fifty-five large and small vessels were captured from the enemy, and in the next year three great squadrons steered toward the west. One of them, under command of Piet Heyn, was specially destined to intercept the 'silver fleet,' sailing every year from Cuba to Spain. . . . Cruising along the northern coast of Cuba he met on September 8th the coveted fleet. . . . Fabulous indeed were the captured treasures of silver, gold, pearls, indigo, sugar, Campeachy wood, and costly furs, which sold in the Netherlands for no less than fifteen million guilders. The rejoicing over the news was boundless. . . . The company was enabled by this rich booty to distribute to its stockholders the unprecedented dividend of fifty per cent. . . . In the spring of 1629 Frederick Henry collected a large force for an assault on Bois-le-Duc. This important fortress, strong by its situation amidst marshes, had, besides about 5000 citizens, a garrison of 3000 foot soldiers and some hundreds of horsemen under the lord of Grobbendonck, while the Spanish army under Van den Bergh was stationed near Wesel and threatened Gelderland. The prince's army was equal to the task. No less than 24,000 infantry under Ernest Casimir, Wolfert van Brederode, the two Veres, the count of Chatillon, Coligny's grandson, and others, and 4000 cavalry under Stakenbroek and the young duke of Bouillon, brother of the later

famous Turenne, were gathered in April upon the heath of Mook and started before the end of the month for Bois-le-Duc. Hundreds of peasants aided the soldiers in quickly throwing up intrenchments. . . . When the moat of the city was at length reached and a great breach had been made in the wall by the explosion of the mines laid by the prince, Grobendonck began to negotiate. . . . [Terms of the capitulation were] signed September 14th. Stipulations favourable to the clergy were due to the prince, who sought to temper the zeal of the Calvinists, and thus gave another proof of his moderation of ecclesiastical matters, even with regard to the Catholics. . . . [In this same year, 1631, an expedition against Dunkirk was planned, but was abandoned]. At the end of May the prince assembled his army at Nimwegen, from where he moved on June 1st along the Meuse towards Venloo with over 20,000 men, while his cousin, Count William of Nassau, with a small division descended the Meuse and fell upon Flanders, capturing some forts near Antwerp. . . . Venloo, deserted by Bergh on the prince's approach, capitulated on these conditions after two days. . . . [On June 10th] the prince laid siege to Maastricht. The labyrinth of earthen ramparts, lines and sconces, redoubts and moats, traverses and hornworks, approaches and galleries of mines in and about the prince's camp awakened the admiration of contemporaries. . . . Early in August [the imperial army under the celebrated] Pappenheim reached the neighbourhood of Maastricht and soon joined Santa Cruz, so that the enemy had 40,000 men, and on the 18th made an attack in force, aided by a sortie of the garrison from Maastricht. Both combats resulted in favour of the Dutch, though they suffered severe losses, Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, being among the killed. Two days later the prince had the city stormed through the breach made by his mines. Attack followed attack, but the brave garrison held its own and repulsed the Dutch. The citizens, afraid of being conquered and plundered by storm, now insisted upon surrender, so the governor, De Lede, consented on the 22d to a capitulation. Honourable withdrawal for the garrison, freedom for the Catholic religion, and retention of ecclesiastical property by the possessors, were the principal conditions. . . . In 1632, before the fall of Maastricht, negotiations were entered into between the States-General of the South and the North for a truce, with an alliance of the two Netherlands. . . . The continuation of the negotiations began to make Richelieu uneasy about the result. Peace or truce in the Netherlands would not at all suit his policy. In February, 1633, therefore, he sent to the aid of the old and not very vigorous Beaugy at The Hague the able Hercule de Charnacé, who was to offer the prince larger subsidies, even a corps of auxiliary troops under a French marshal, or, provided the war was actively prosecuted, a treaty of coöperation for the conquest of the south, thus preventing any peace unless France were included in it. [Stiffened by these proposals the representatives of the North were unbending in their attitude, and negotiations ended in failure.] A closer alliance between France and the United Netherlands was now at hand. . . . Thanks to Charnacé's ability, the French money, the support of the prince and of the war party, they [the negotiations] led in April to a treaty of subsidy notwithstanding the antagonism of Amsterdam. By it the States promised not to negotiate during eight months for peace or truce and not to conclude it within a year, while France in this time was not to make any agreement with Spain. France, unless it began a

war itself with Spain, was to give, besides the customary subsidy of a million, another million and 300,000 livres for a regiment of French troops in the service of the States. [Richelieu, however, was not satisfied with a state of affairs which might place a strong Protestant nation on the northern frontiers of France. He conceived the idea (not a new one) of conquering the southern provinces, and dividing them between France and the United Provinces. For this purpose a new treaty of offensive and defensive alliance was concluded on February 8, 1635 (see GERMANY: 1634-1639)]. Each party furnishing 30,000 men, a joint war was to be waged for the liberation of the southern provinces. . . . Great was the disappointment over this first campaign. The French complained bitterly of the neglect and misery that brought a pestilence upon them. . . . In Holland people complained of financial distress, demanded a reduction of the troops to 22,000 men, and were inclined to participate in the negotiations preparing at Cologne for a general European peace. . . . The war, however, went on. For 1637 a joint attack on Dunkirk was planned, but storm and contrary winds detaining the troops in Zealand, the prince, on July 21st, suddenly laid siege to the coveted Breda, which he surrounded with an intrenched camp as was done with Bois-le-Duc in 1620. . . . The siege of Breda, ending with its surrender on October 10th, was one of the most brilliant military exploits of the time, one of Frederick Henry's most remarkable feats, but it cost much money and many dead and wounded."—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 4, pp. 27-28, 36-37, 45, 40, 55, 57, 107, 110-111, 113, 115-116.

"The Cardinal Infant, Ferdinand, the victor of Nördlingen, had, as Governor-General of the Netherlands, been successful in the conduct of the war against the Dutch and French in the year 1638 and 1639. In the latter year Olivares determined to dispatch a powerful Spanish reinforcement by sea to the Netherlands to take part in the next campaign. Accordingly, early in September, a fleet left the Spanish ports consisting of seventy-seven vessels, many of them of the largest size, commanded by a veteran admiral who had seen much service, Antonio de Oquendo. . . . [On September 16th, the Dutch admiral, Martin Harpertzoon Tromp] sighted the armada. He had with him at the moment only thirteen ships. But without hesitation he fiercely attacked the Spaniards, and after a tremendous fight he forced Oquendo to fly for refuge to the English coast. Oquendo, after passing through the Straits of Dover, anchored under the lee of the Downs, side by side with an English squadron of ten ships under Vice-Admiral Pennington. Tromp sent at once urgent messages to Holland for reinforcements. . . . On October 21, being now at the head of a fleet of 105 sail with 12 fire-ships, the Dutch admiral, although the Spaniards still lay in English waters, resolved to take the offensive. . . . The contest was sharp, but decisive. Under cover of a fog, Oquendo himself with seven vessels made his way to Dunkirk. All the rest were captured or destroyed. Some 15,000 Spaniards perished, about 1,800 were taken prisoners. The Dutch only lost two ships and about 100 killed and wounded. Tromp had won one of the most crushing of naval victories, and had annihilated the power of Spain upon the sea. This daring infringement of English neutrality could not but give deep offence to King Charles, and be hurtful to the feelings of the English people. It was at once felt in the States that an explanation must be offered for the instructions given to Tromp, which had been so successfully carried out. . . . and Francis

van Aarsden [lord of Sommelsdijk was sent to] . . . complain of the help frequently afforded to the Spaniards by the English, and plead that the attack of Tromp at the Downs was a necessary sequel to the previous encounter from which the Spanish fleet had fled to seek refuge in English waters, and that it was justified by Art. 15 of the Treaty of Southampton. . . . Sommelsdijk, finding he could effect no good result, asked permission to return to Holland. . . . His request brought about a change in the King's demeanour. Charles requested him to remain, and showed himself more friendly. . . . On February 8, 1646, . . . [the ambassador] wrote to the Stadholder:—"The scandal of the Downs has been so thoroughly justified, that the greater part of the Council, in the presence of the King, has sustained that we both could and were obliged to do it; so it is sufficiently lulled to sleep, seeing that up to now there has not been made any further complaint."—G. Edmundson, *Anglo-Dutch rivalry during the first half of the seventeenth century*, pp. 121-126.—"The United Netherlands had now become a state which could not possibly submit again to the sceptre of Spain's king. Laying down the law in northern Europe, showing their preponderance in the neighbouring, small, German states, mediating in England driven through dissensions between king and Parliament into civil war, and ruling the seas, they stood the strongest power of Europe with France and against Spain, honoured or feared by those who needed their help or dreaded their enmity. . . . Holland's waxing influence and the waning power of the sickly and aged prince made the Dutch less eager for a joint conquest of the Spanish Netherlands, and uneasiness was felt at the pretensions of France. . . . The alliance continued. Five years more—Mazarin's *felix quinquennium*—the joint war lasted, year by year carefully planned by d'Estrades and the prince of Orange. But the Dutch army accomplished little. . . . On the French side with the help of Tromp's fleet, Mardijk, the bulwark of Dunkirk [which had become a nest of pirates], then Ypres, Cassel, Comines, Menin, Bethune, and other places in Flanders were taken, so that this province was as good as lost to Spain. . . . The French got possession of Courtrai and other towns and finished the campaign brilliantly in October by conquering Dunkirk [1646] with the aid of Tromp's fleet. The fall of this nest of robbers caused an outburst of joy in the Netherlands, but in recent years so many difficulties had arisen with the French government, respecting the trade of the Dutch merchants with the enemy and in consequence of French privateering, that people asked whether Dunkirk in French hands might not become a centre of dangerous commercial rivalry or of new piracies. . . . Not a year passed but Spain made some effort to bring the United Netherlands to a separate negotiation or to show the prince the advantages to be derived from it for him and his house. . . . Deliberations at Hamburg concerning a general European peace resulted, towards the end of 1641, in preliminaries fixing the terms on which representatives were to be sent by the different governments to a peace congress at Münster and Osnabruck. Much was still to be done before this congress could meet, but its foundations were laid."—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pp. 106-107, 110-111, 113, 115-116, 123-126, 121.—"Both sides were exhausted by the long struggle of thirty years, but pride, prejudice, and religious antipathy delayed the conclusion of peace during five years passed in wearying negotiation. The death of Richelieu [in 1642] had brought fresh views into force at Paris, and a

breach was made in the alliance with the United Provinces. Mazarin looked towards Spain and England for allies, and was already speculating on the advantages of a Spanish marriage for the young king Louis XIV. The idea seems to have been first put forward by Contarini, the Venetian envoy, who suggested that the dower of the Infanta chosen might be the Spanish Netherlands. Although destined to bear fruit at a later period its immediate consequence was to alarm the Dutch and to induce them to come to a separate understanding with Spain. It was immediately after the accomplishment of this arrangement [the Peace of Münster] that Frederick Henry died (14th March, 1647). He completed the work of consolidating the Dutch state which his father and brother had begun, and in so doing had established the claims of the House of Orange to the gratitude of the Dutch nation. His successor was his son, William II., a young prince of twenty-one years of age [who was already married to Mary, eldest daughter of Charles I of England]."—D. C. Boulger, *History of Belgium*, pt. 1, p. 347.

1629-1664.—Claim and settlement in Delaware.—Struggle with Swedes for possession.—Loss of colony. See DELAWARE: 1629-1631; 1638-1640; 1640-1656; 1664.

1634.—Extent of holdings in America. See AMERICA: Map showing voyages of discovery.

1638-1664.—Control of New Netherland.—Wars with Indians.—Dispute with England over Connecticut boundary. See NEW YORK: 1638-1647; 1647-1664; 1650.

1641-1643.—Allowed to trade in Deshima, Japan, only.—Discovery of Sakhalin. See JAPAN: 1625-1641; SAKHALIN: 1643-1875.

1646-1682.—Control in Java.—Agreement with native ruler.—War and Treaty with Bantam. See JAVA: 1623-1811.

1648.—Peace of Münster (Westphalia).—Prosperity of the nation.—The agreement with Spain, known as the peace of Münster, which had been negotiated before the death of Frederick Henry, was not effected until January, 1648. "The peace of Münster was brilliant indeed, and the United Netherlands might well be proud of the place it gave them among the powers of Europe. The famous treaty, seventy-nine articles in length, declared in Article 1 'the States-General of the United Netherlands and the respective provinces of the same with all associated districts, towns, and appertaining lands' as 'free and sovereign States,' on which the king of Spain 'makes no claim now, nor ever hereafter shall claim anything for himself, his successors, and descendants,' and with which he concludes 'an eternal peace.' With the German empire there was to be a continuation of neutrality and friendship, the king coöperating until the confirmation of the emperor and empire should be obtained. The territory was indicated by the possessions then held, so that all the conquests of Maurice and Frederick Henry were kept, unless they had been recaptured by Spain. A court, consisting of an equal number of judges from each side, was to settle the minor differences regarding frontiers and rights. The *status quo* was maintained in the East and West Indies, and each party was not to trade there in the ports of the other. The intercourse in Europe between the two countries was restored to the old footing of friendships, with prohibition of higher taxes than their own subjects paid, retention of the former exemptions from toll, and abolition of the king's rights to tolls on the Meuse, Rhine, and Scheldt within the borders of the United Provinces. The Scheldt and its canals were kept closed by the States; the vessels

and goods coming in and out of the Flemish ports were to pay duties equal to what was imposed on those entering and leaving the Scheldt, so that the dreaded competition of Antwerp and Flanders would be finally suppressed. In the matter of religion everything likely to cause scandal was to be avoided in public exercises both in the Netherlands and in the dominions of the king, and ecclesiastical property in the United Netherlands was restored or paid for. Restitution was to be made of the property of the house of Orange, even in Burgundy, with exceptions previously agreed upon. The members of the house of Nassau were not to be prosecuted for the debts of the late Prince William I. of Orange. Prisoners on both sides were to be released without ransom and with complete amnesty for all political offences. All records and documents relating to places ceded, also those concerning litigation, etc., were to be mutually delivered. The allies of both sides, who within three months after the ratification should wish to accede, were to be allowed to participate in the peace, especially Hesse, East Friesland, Emden, and the Hanse towns. Both sides promised to protect the seas and rivers as much as possible from piracy. Such was the treaty alike honourable and advantageous to the United Netherlands. It put an end to the war, which had been waged during the eighty years with varying success, which under the able guidance of the three princes of Orange and of the States of Holland, Zealand, and the other provinces had called into being the strong and independent state now making its appearance among the powers of Europe. The state was destined for at least a hundred years to hold an important place in the history of the world—the glory of its citizens and their descendants, an object of admiration to contemporaries and later generations.—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pp. 139-150.—“The most marvelous feature of the struggle between the little Dutch state and Spain was that Holland grew wealthy during the contest, although the stage of the desolating war. The Dutch drew their riches not from the wasted land, but from the sea; and during the war they plundered the possessions of Spain in the East Indies. The little republic built up a vast colonial empire; and, especially after Spain’s naval supremacy had been engulfed with the Armada, the Dutch held almost a monopoly of the Asiatic trade for all Europe. One hundred thousand of their three million people lived constantly upon the sea. Success in so heroic a war stimulated the people to a wonderful intellectual and industrial activity. Holland taught all Europe scientific agriculture and horticulture, as well as the science of navigation. In the seventeenth century the presses of Holland are said to have put forth more books than all the rest of Europe.”—W. M. West, *Story of modern progress*, p. 170.—See also WESTPHALIA, PEACE OF (1648); BELGIUM: 1648; GERMANY: Map at peace of Westphalia.

ALSO IN: *Cambridge modern history*, v. 4, ch. 14.—E. Cammaerts, *Belgium*, pp. 234-236.

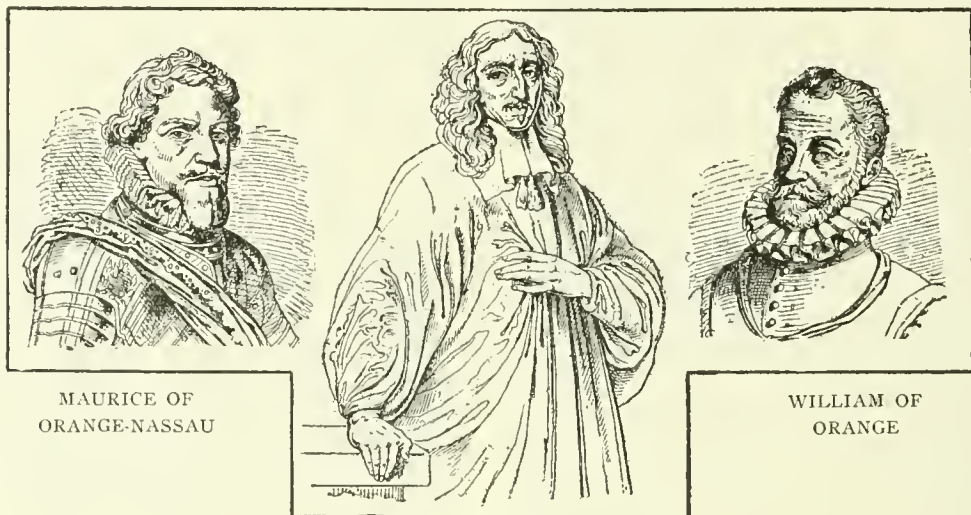
1648.—Battle of Lens.—Effect of Franco-Spanish War and treaties on Anglo-Dutch relations.—“The two states left unaffected in their direct relations by these treaties [of 1648] were France and Spain. The former country was disturbed by the rivalry of Mazarin and the noblesse who formed the Fronde for his overthrow. In the latter Philip IV. still hoped that he might retrieve Rocroi, and overthrow the most formidable of his enemies. Philip accordingly determined to prosecute the war with greater vigour. . . . In the first campaign of 1648, Condé gained over the Spanish

army at Lens a second victory, scarcely less signal than Rocroi, but very soon afterwards his hatred of Mazarin led him not only to join the Fronde, but even to enter openly the service of the King of Spain. . . . The war between France and Spain continued for more than ten years, and the Belgian provinces were the scene of this long struggle. . . . The French Minister cleverly obtained the alliance of Oliver Cromwell, who fully realised the peril to English naval power from the Dutch fleet, and who actively participated in several of the campaigns on land while his Admiral Blake secured for that period at least the command of the seas. The United Provinces held aloof from the struggle except in so far as they were assailed at sea by the fleet of the Lord Protector, resolved to obtain redress for the massacre of Amboyna, and also an admission of equal trade rights for his countrymen in the Spice Islands. They were tied down to this inaction by the arrangements concluded at Münster, and also by the pacific policy of John de Witt, the Grand Pensionary.”—D. C. Boulger, *History of Belgium*, pt. 1, pp. 348-9.

1648-1650.—Suspension of stadtholdership.—Supremacy of states of Holland.—The fourth stadtholder, William II, who succeeded his father, Frederick Henry, in 1647, “was young and enterprising, and not at all disposed to follow the pacific example of his father. . . . He was brother-in-law to the Elector of Brandenburg . . . and son-in-law to Charles I. of England and Henrietta Maria, the sister of Louis XIII. . . . The proud descendant of the Stuarts, the Princess Mary, who had been married to him when hardly more than a child, thought it beneath her not to be the wife of a sovereign, and encouraged her husband not to be satisfied to remain merely ‘the official of a republic.’ Thus encouraged, the son of Frederick Henry cherished the secret purpose of transforming the elective stadtholdership into an hereditary monarchy. . . . He needed supreme authority to enable him to render assistance to Charles I. . . . Finding in the opposition of the States an insurmountable obstacle to his wish of intervention, he sought the support of France, . . . and was now ready to come to an understanding with Mazarin to break the treaty of Münster and wrest the Netherlands from Spain. Mazarin promised in return to help him to assert his authority over the States. . . . But if William desired war, the United Provinces, and in particular the province of Holland, could not dispense with peace. . . . The States of Holland . . . fixed the period for the disbanding of the twenty-nine companies whose dismissal had been promised to them. After twelve days of useless deliberations they issued definite orders to that effect. The step had been provoked, but it was precipitate and might give rise to a legal contest as to their competency. The Prince of Orange, therefore, eager to hasten a struggle from which he expected an easy victory, chose to consider the resolution of the States of Holland as a signal for the rupture of the Union, and the very next day solemnly demanded reparation from the States-General, who in their turn issued a counter order. The Prince made skilful use of the rivalry of power between the two assemblies to obtain for himself extraordinary powers which were contrary to the laws of the Confederation. By the terms of the resolution, which was passed by only four provinces, of which two were represented by but one deputy each, he was authorised to take all measures necessary for the maintenance of order and peace, and particularly for the preservation of the Union. The States-General consequently commissioned him to visit the town councils of Holland, accom-

panied by six members of the States-General and of the Council of State, with all the pomp of a military escort, including a large number of officers. He was charged to address them with remonstrances and threats intended to intimidate the provincial States.' This was the first act of the coup d'état that he had prepared, and his mistake was quickly shown him. [The prince gained nothing by his visitation of the towns. At Amsterdam he was not permitted to enter the place with his following, and he returned to the Hague especially enraged against that hold and independent city. He planned an expedition to take it by surprise; but the citizens got timely warning and his scheme was baffled. He had succeeded, however, in arresting and imprisoning six of the most influential deputies of the assembly of Holland, and his attitude was formidable enough to extort some concessions from the popular party, by way of compromise. A state of suspicious quiet was restored for the time, which William improved by renewing negotiations for a secret treaty with France.] . . . Arrogating to himself already the right to dispose as he pleased of

making the stadtholdership a standing menace to the public freedom. . . . The son of William II., an orphan before his birth, and named William like his father, seemed destined to succeed to little more than the paternal name. . . . Three days after the death of William II., the former deputies, whom he had treated as state prisoners and deprived of all their offices, were recalled to take their seats in the Assembly. At the same time the provincial Town Councils assumed the power of nominating their own magistrates, which had almost always been left to the pleasure of the Stadtholder, and thus obtained the full enjoyment of municipal freedom. The States of Holland, on their side, grasped the authority hitherto exercised in their province by the Prince of Orange, and claimed successively all the rights of sovereignty. The States of Zealand . . . exhibited the same eagerness to free themselves from all subjection. . . . Thus, before declaring the stadtholdership vacant, the office was deprived of its prerogatives. To complete this transformation of the government, the States of Holland took the initiative in summoning

MAURICE OF
ORANGE-NASSAUWILLIAM OF
ORANGE

JOHN DE WITT

the republic, he signed a convention with Count d'Estrades, whom he had summoned to the Hague. By this the King of France and the Prince of Orange engaged themselves 'to attack conjointly the Netherlands on May 1, 1651, with an army of 20,000 foot and 10,000 horse, to break at the same time with Cromwell, to re-establish Charles II. as King of England, and to make no treaty with Spain excepting in concert with each other.' The Prince of Orange guaranteed a fleet of 50 vessels besides the land contingent, and in return for his co-operation was promised the absolute possession of the city of Antwerp and the Duchy of Brabant or Marquisate of the Holy Roman Empire. . . . [But] three months later the Prince of Orange, having over-fatigued and heated himself in the chase, was seized with small-pox, of which in a few days he died. He was thus carried off at the age of 24, in the full force and flower of his age, leaving only one son, born a week after his father's death. . . . His attempt at a coup d'état was destined to press heavily and long upon the fate of the posthumous son, who had to wait 22 years before succeeding to his ancestral functions. It closed the succession to him for many years, by

to the Hague a great assembly of the Confederation, which met at the beginning of the year 1651. . . . The congress was called upon to decide between two forms of constitution. The question was whether the United Provinces should be a republic governed by the States-General, or whether the government should belong to the States of each province, with only a reservation in favour of the obligations imposed by the Act of Union. Was each province to be sovereign in itself, or subject to the federal power? [The result was a suspension and practical abolition of the stadtholdership.] . . . Freed from the counterbalancing power of the Stadtholder, Holland to a great extent absorbed the federal power, and was the gainer by all that that power lost. . . . The States of Holland, . . . destined henceforward to be the principal instrument of government of the republic, was composed partly of nobles and partly of deputies from the towns. . . . The Grand Pensionary was the minister of the States of Holland. He was appointed for five years, and represented them in the States-General. . . . Called upon by the vacancy in the stadtholdership to the government of the United Provinces, without any legal power

of enforcing obedience, Holland required a statesman who could secure this political supremacy and use it for her benefit. The nomination of John de Witt as Grand Pensionary placed at her service one of the youngest members of the assembly."—A. L. Pontalis, *John de Witt*, v. 1, ch. 1-2.

1648-1665.—Prosperity and preëminence of Dutch republic.—Causes.—"That this little patch of earth, a bog rescued from the waters, warred on ever by man and by the elements, without natural advantages except those of contact with the sea, should in the middle of the seventeenth century have become the commercial centre of Europe, is one of the phenomena of history. But in the explanation of this phenomenon history has one of its most instructive lessons. Philip II. said of Holland, 'that it was the country nearest to hell.' Well might he express such an opinion. He had buried around the walls of its cities more than three hundred thousand Spanish soldiers, and had spent in the attempt at its subjugation more than two hundred million ducats. This fact alone would account for his abhorrence, but, in addition, the republic was in its every feature opposed to the ideal country of a bigot and a despot. The first element which contributed to its wealth, as well as to the vast increase of its population, was its religious toleration. . . . This, of course, was as incomprehensible to a Spanish Catholic as it was to a High-Churchman or to a Presbyterian in England. That Lutherans, Calvinists, Anabaptists, Jews, and Catholics should all be permitted to live under the same government seemed to the rest of Europe like lying in the face of Providence. Critics at this time occasionally said that the Hollanders cared nothing for religion; that with them theology was of less account than commerce. To taunts like these no reply was needed by men who could point to their record of eighty years of war. This war had been fought for liberty of conscience, but more than all, as the greater includes the less, for civil liberty. During its continuance, and at every crisis, Catholics had stood side by side with Protestants to defend their country, as they had done in England when the Spanish Armada appeared upon her coast. It would have been a strange reward for their fidelity to subject them, as Elizabeth did, to a relentless persecution, upon the pretext that they were dangerous to the State. In addition to the toleration, there were other causes leading to the marvellous prosperity of the republic, which are of particular interest to Americans. In 1659, Samuel Lamb, a prominent and far-seeing London merchant, published a pamphlet, in the form of a letter to Cromwell, urging the establishment of a bank in England similar to the one at Amsterdam. In this pamphlet, which Lord Somers thought worthy of preservation, the author gives the reasons, as they occurred to him, which accounted for the vast superiority of Holland over the rest of Europe as a commercial nation. . . . As the foundation of a bank for England was the subject of the letter, the author naturally lays particular stress upon that factor, but the other causes which he enumerates as explaining the great trade of the republic are the following: First. The statesmen sitting at the helm in Holland are many of them merchants, bred to trade from their youth, improved by foreign travel, and acquainted with all the necessities of commerce. Hence, their laws and treaties are framed with wisdom. Second. In Holland when a merchant dies, his property is equally divided among his children, and the business is continued and expanded, with all its traditions and inherited experience. In England, on the contrary, the property goes to the eldest son, who

often sets up for a country gentleman, squanders his patrimony, and neglects the business by which his father had become enriched. Third. The honesty of the Hollanders in their manufacturing and commercial dealings. When goods are made up in Holland, they sell everywhere without question, for the purchaser knows that they are exactly as represented in quality, weight, and measure. Not so with England's goods. Our manufacturers are so given to fraud and adulteration as to bring their commodities into disgrace abroad. 'And so the Dutch have the pre-eminence in the sale of their manufactures before us, by their true making, to their very files and needles.' Fourth. The care and vigilance of the government in the laying of impositions so as to encourage their own manufactures; the skill and rapidity with which they are changed to meet the shifting wants of trade; the encouragement given by ample rewards from the public treasury for useful inventions and improvements; and the promotion of men to office for services and not for favor or sinister ends. Such were the causes of the commercial supremacy of the Dutch as they appeared to an English merchant of the time, and all modern investigations support his view; . . . Sir Joshua [Josiah] Child, writing a few years later [*A New Discourse of Trade*, p. 2, and after—1665], gives a fuller explanation of the great prosperity of the Netherland Republic. He evidently had Lamb's pamphlet before him, for he enumerates all the causes set forth by his predecessor. In addition, he gives several others, [among them] . . . the general education of the people, including the women [see EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: Holland], religious toleration, care of the poor, low custom duties and high excise, registration of titles to real estate, low interest, the laws permitting the assignment of debts, and the judicial system under which controversies between merchants can be decided at one fortieth part of the expense in England. . . . Probably, no body of men governing a state were ever more enlightened and better acquainted with the necessities of legislation than were these burghers, merchants, and manufacturers who for two centuries gave laws to Holland. It was largely due to the intelligence displayed by these men that the republic, during the continuance of its war, was enabled to support a burden of taxation such as the world has rarely seen before or since. The internal taxes seem appalling. Rents were taxed twenty-five per cent.; on all sales of real estate two and a half per cent. were levied, and on all collateral inheritances five per cent. On beer, wine, meat, salt, spirits, and all articles of luxury, the tax was one hundred per cent., and on some articles this was doubled. But this was only the internal taxation, in the way of excise duties, which were levied on every one, natives and foreigners alike. In regard to foreign commodities, which the republic needed for its support, the system was very different. Upon them there was imposed only a nominal duty of one per cent., while wool, the great staple for the manufacturers, was admitted free. Here the statesmen of the republic showed the wisdom which placed them, as masters of political economy, at least two centuries in advance of their contemporaries."—D. Campbell, *Puritan in Holland, England, and America*, v. 2, pp. 324-331.

Also in: W. T. McCullagh, *Industrial history of free nations: The Dutch*, v. 2, ch. 12.

1651-1660.—Rule of Holland, and her grand pensionary, John de Witt.—"The Republic had shaken off the domination of a person; it now fell under the domination of a single province. Holland was overwhelmingly preponderant in the fed-

eration. She possessed the richest, most populous, and most powerful towns. She contributed more than one-half of the whole federal taxation. She had the right of naming the ambassadors at Paris, Stockholm, and Vienna. The fact that the States General met on her territory—at the Hague—necessarily gave her additional influence and prestige. . . . With the Stadtholder's power that of the States General also, as representing the idea of centralisation, had largely disappeared. The Provincial Estates of Holland, therefore, under the title of 'Their High Mightinesses,' became the principal power—to such an extent, indeed, that the term 'Holland' had by the time of the Restoration [the English Restoration, 1660] become synony-

was purely commercial and colonial, and she held in this respect the same position relatively to the rest of Europe that England holds at the present day."—O. Airy, *English restoration and Louis XIV*, ch. 9.

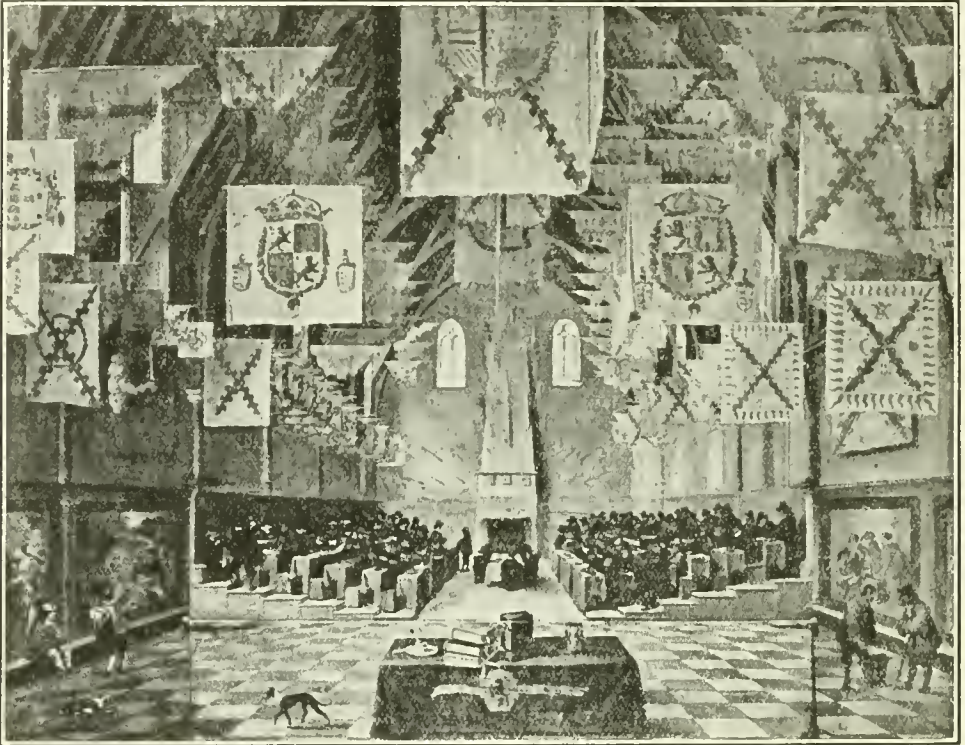
ALSO IN: J. Geddes, *History of the administration of John de Witt*, v. 1.—*Cambridge modern history*, v. 5, pp. 137-160.

1652.—First settlement at Cape of Good Hope. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1486-1806.

1652-1654.—War with English commonwealth. See ENGLAND: 1652-1654.

1660.—Settlement on Celebes. See CELEBES.

1662.—Treaty with France.—"Although the Infanta Maria Theresa [of Spain] and her husband,



MEETING OF THE ESTATES-GENERAL, 1651

In the Great Hall of Binnenhofe at The Hague

(After painting by Dirck van Deelen, in the Royal Gallery at The Hague)

mous among foreign powers with the whole Republic. Their chief minister was called 'The Grand Pensionary,' and the office had been since 1653 filled by one of the most remarkable men of the time, John de Witt. John de Witt therefore represented, roughly speaking, the power of the merchant aristocracy of Holland, as opposed to the claims of the House of Orange, which were supported by the 'noblesse,' the army, the Calvinistic clergy, and the people below the governing class. Abroad the Orange family had the sympathy of monarchical Governments. Louis XIV. despised the Government of 'Meisieurs les Marchands,' while Charles II., at once the uncle and the guardian of the young Prince of the house of Orange, the future William III. of England, and mindful of the scant courtesy which, to satisfy Cromwell, the Dutch had shown him in exile, was ever their bitter and unscrupulous foe. The empire of the Dutch Republic

Louis XIV., had renounced all their rights to succeed to the Spanish throne by the Pyrenees Treaty, the French King at once began to intrigue in anticipation of the day when he could conveniently repudiate the obligation. Of these preliminary measures the most important was a new treaty of mutual offence and defence with the United Provinces, dated 27th April, 1662, which was to remain in force for twenty-five years. This treaty was negotiated with John de Witt who, while he resented and opposed an hereditary stadtholdership, had established in his own person as complete a dictatorship as that of William the Silent or Oliver Cromwell."—D. C. Boulger, *History of Belgium*, pt. 1, p. 351.

1664.—Seizure of New Netherland by English. See NEW YORK: 1664.

1665-1666.—War with England renewed.—Effect of claim to Spanish Netherlands by Louis.

—“A formal declaration of war between Holland and England took place in March, 1665. The English nation, jealous of the commercial prosperity of Holland, eagerly seconded the views of the king against that country, and in regard to the war a remarkable degree of union prevailed throughout Great Britain. Such, however, was not the case with the Dutch, who were very much divided in opinion, and had many reasons to be doubtful of the support of France. One of the grand objects of Charles II. was undoubtedly . . . to restore his nephew the Prince of Orange to all the power which had been held by his ancestors in the United Provinces. But between Holland and England there existed, besides numerous other most fertile causes of discord, unsettled claims upon distant territories, rival colonies in remote parts of the world, maritime jealousy and constant commercial opposition. [See EAST INDIA COMPANY, BRITISH.] These were national motives for hostility, and affected a large body of the Dutch people. But, on the other hand, considerations of general interest were set aside by the political factions which divided the United Provinces, and which may be classed under the names of the Republican and the Monarchical parties. The Monarchical party was, of course, that which was attached to the interests of the House of Orange. . . . In the end of 1664, 130 Dutch merchantmen had been captured by England; acts of hostility had occurred in Guinea, at the Cape de Verd, [in New Netherland], and in the West Indies: but Louis [XIV of France] had continued to avoid taking any active part against Great Britain, notwithstanding all the representations of De Witt, who on this occasion saw in France the natural ally of Holland. On the 13th of June [1665], however, a great naval engagement took place between the Dutch fleet, commanded by Opdam and Van Tromp, and the English fleet, commanded by the Duke of York and Prince Rupert. Opdam was defeated and killed; Van Tromp saved the remains of his fleet; and on the very same day a treaty was concluded between Arlington [the English minister] and an envoy of the Bishop of Münster, by which it was agreed that the warlike and restless prelate should invade the United Provinces with an army of 20,000 men, in consideration of sums of money to be paid by England. This treaty at once called Louis into action, and he notified the Bishop of Münster that if he made any hostile movement against the States of Holland he would find the troops of France prepared to oppose him. This fact was announced to the States by D'Estrades on the 22nd of July, together with the information that the French monarch was about to send to their assistance a body of troops by the way of Flanders. . . . Still, however, Louis hung back in the execution of his purposes, till the aspect of affairs in the beginning of 1666 forced him to declare war against England, on the 26th of January in that year, according to the terms of his treaty with Holland. . . . The part that France took in the war was altogether insignificant, and served but little to free the Dutch from the danger in which they were placed. That nation itself made vast efforts to obtain a superiority at sea; and in the beginning of June, 1666, the Dutch fleet, commanded by De Ruyter and Van Tromp, encountered the English fleet, under Monk and Prince Rupert, and a battle which lasted for four days, with scarcely any intermission, took place. It would seem that some advantage was gained by the Dutch; but both fleets were tremendously shattered, and retired to the ports of their own country to refit. Shortly after, however, they again encountered, and one of the most tremendous naval engagements in history took place,

in which the Dutch suffered a complete defeat; twenty of their first-rate men-of-war were captured or sunk; and three admirals, with 4,000 men, were killed on the part of the States. The French fleet could not come up in time to take part in the battle, and all that Louis did was to furnish De Witt with the means of repairing the losses of the States as rapidly as possible. The energy of the grand pensionary himself, however, effected much more than the slow and unwilling succour of the French king. With almost superhuman exertion new fleets were made ready and manned, while the grand pensionary amused the English ministers with the prospect of a speedy peace on their own terms; and at a moment when England was least prepared, De Ruyter and Cornelius de Witt appeared upon the coast, sailed up the Thames, attacked and took Sheerness, and destroyed a great number of ships of the line. A multitude of smaller vessels were burnt; and the consternation was so great throughout England, that a large quantity of stores and many ships were sunk and destroyed by order of the British authorities themselves, while De Ruyter ravaged the whole sea-coast from the mouth of the Thames to the Land's End. The negotiations for peace, which commenced at Breda, were now carried on upon terms much more advantageous to Holland, and were speedily concluded; England, notwithstanding the naval glory she had gained, being fully as much tired of the war as the States themselves. A general treaty was signed on the 25th of July.”—G. P. R. James, *Life and times of Louis XIV*, v. 2, ch. 6.—“The thunder of the Dutch guns in the Medway and the Thames woke England to a bitter sense of its degradation. The dream of loyalty was roughly broken. ‘Everybody now-a-days,’ Pepys tells us, ‘reflect upon Oliver and commend him: what brave things he did, and made all the neighbour princes fear him.’ But Oliver’s successor was coolly watching this shame and discontent of his people with the one aim of turning it to his own advantage.”—J. R. Green, *History of the English people*, v. 3, bk. 8, ch. 1.—“In May, 1667, Louis made his formal declaration to the effect that he was about to take possession of what belonged to him in the Netherlands by right of his wife. . . . The reception of the news of the French invasion in Holland was anything but favourable. It was sudden and unexpected, but the best arrangement De Witt could propose was that France should define the limits of the part of Belgium she proposed to take so that as wide a gap as possible should be left between the two frontiers. The French made no reply to this suggestion and continued to make conquests.”—D. C. Boulger, *History of Belgium*, pt. 1, pp. 352-353.—See also BELGIUM: 1667.

ALSO IN: C. D. Yonge, *History of the British navy*.

1667-1683.—Campaign of Colbert to drive Dutch from French colonies. See FRANCE: 1661-1683.

1668.—Triple Alliance with England and Sweden against French king.—“The rapid conquests of the French king in Flanders during the . . . summer [of 1667] had drawn the eyes of Europe towards the seat of war in that country. The pope, Clement IX, through pity for the young king of Spain, and the States, alarmed at the approach of the French arms to their frontier, offered their mediation. To both Louis returned the same answer, that he sought nothing more than to vindicate the rights of his wife; that he should be content to retain possession of the conquests which he had already made, or to exchange them either for Luxembourg, or Franche-comté, with the addition of Aire, St. Omer, Douai, Cambrai, and Char-

leroi, to strengthen his northern frontier. . . . But Spain was not sufficiently humbled to submit to so flagrant an injustice. . . . If it was the interest of England, it was still more the interest of the States, to exclude France from the possession of Flanders. Under this persuasion, Sir William Temple, the resident at Brussels, received instructions to proceed to the Hague and sound the disposition of De Witt; and, on his return to London, was despatched back again to Holland with the proposal of a defensive alliance, the object of which should be to compel the French monarch to make peace with Spain on the terms which he had previously offered. . . . Temple acted with promptitude and address: . . . he represented the danger of delay; and, contrary to all precedent at the Hague, in the short space of five days—had the constitutional forms been observed it would have demanded five weeks—he negotiated [January, 1668] three treaties which promised to put an end to the war, or, if they failed in that point, to oppose at least an effectual barrier to the further progress of the invader. The first was a defensive alliance by which the two nations bound themselves to aid each other against any aggressor with a fleet of forty men of war, and an army of 6,400 men, or with assistance in money in proportion to the deficiency in men; by the second, the contracting powers agreed by every means in their power to dispose France to conclude a peace with Spain on the alternative already offered, to persuade Spain to accept one part of that alternative before the end of May, and, in case of a refusal, to compel her by war, on condition that France should not interfere by force of arms. These treaties were meant for the public eye: the third was secret, and bound both England and the States, in case of the refusal of Louis, to unite with Spain in the war, and not to lay down their arms till the peace of the Pyrenees were confirmed. On the same day the Swedish ambassadors gave a provisional, and afterwards a positive assent to the league, which from that circumstance obtained the name of the Triple Alliance. Louis received the news of this transaction with an air of haughty indifference. . . . In consequence of the infirm state of Charles II. of Spain, he had secretly concluded with the emperor Leopold an 'eventual' treaty of partition of the Spanish monarchy on the expected death of that prince, and thus had already bound himself by treaty to do the very thing which it was the object of the allied powers to effect. . . . The intervention of the emperor, in consequence of the eventual treaty, put an end to the hesitation of the Spanish cabinet; the ambassadors of the several powers met at Aix-la-Chapelle [April-May, 1668]; Spain made her choice; the conquered towns in Flanders were ceded to Louis, and peace was re-established between the two crowns. . . . The States could ill dissemble their disappointment. They never doubted that Spain, with the choice in her hands, would preserve Flanders, and part with Franch-comté. . . . The result was owing, it is said, to the resentment of Castel-Rodrigo [the governor of the Spanish Netherlands], who, finding that the States would not join with England to confine France within its ancient limits, resolved to punish them by making a cession, which brought the French frontier to the very neighbourhood of the Dutch territory."—J. Lingard, *History of England*, v. 11, ch. 6.—"Dr. Lingard, who is undoubtedly a very able and well-informed writer, but whose great fundamental rule of judging seems to be that the popular opinion on a historical question cannot possibly be correct, speaks very slightly of this celebrated treaty [of the Triple Alliance]. . . . But grant that Louis was not really stopped in

his progress by this famous league; still it is certain that the world then, and long after, believed that he was so stopped; and that this was the prevailing impression in France as well as in other countries. Temple, therefore, at the very least, succeeded in raising the credit of his country, and lowering the credit of a rival power."—T. B. Macaulay, *Sir William Temple*.

ALSO IN: O. Airy, *English restoration and Louis XIV*, ch. 14.—W. Temple, *Letters*, Jan., 1668 (*Works*, v. 1).—L. von Ranke, *History of England*, 17th century, v. 3, bk. 15, ch. 4.—A. F. Pontalis, *John de Witt*, v. 1, ch. 7.

1670.—Desertion of England from Dutch Alliance.—"The triple alliance, before which he had been compelled to bow, turned Louis from the ally into the enemy of the Dutch Republic, and he declared that 'the only way to conquer the Spanish Netherlands was by humbling the Dutch, and if possible destroying them.' With that object in view he succeeded in detaching England, in the person of Charles the Second, from the Dutch alliance, and in concluding with him the secret treaty of Dover (1st June, 1670) for the conquest of the Dutch Provinces."—D. C. Boulger, *History of Belgium*, pt. 1, p. 353.—See also ENGLAND: 1668-1670.

1672-1674.—War with France and England.—Murder of the De Witts.—Restoration of stadtholdership.—"The storm that had been prepared in secret for Holland began to break in 1672. France and England had declared war at once by land and sea, without any cause of quarrel, except that Louis declared that the Dutch insulted him, and Charles complained that they would not lower their flag to his, and that they refused the Stadtholdership to his nephew, William of Orange. Accordingly, his fleet made a piratical attack on the Dutch ships returning from Smyrna, and Louis, with an immense army, entered Holland. . . . They [the French] would have attempted the passage of the Yssel, but the Dutch forces, under the Prince of Orange, were on the watch, and turned towards the Rhine, which was so low, in consequence of a drouth, that 2,000 adventurous cavalry were able to cross, half wading half swimming and gained a footing on the other side. [This] . . . passage of the Rhine [was absurdly celebrated as a great military exploit by the servile flatterers of the French king]. . . . The passage thus secured, the King crossed the river the next day on a bridge of boats, and rapidly overran the adjoining country, taking the lesser towns, and offering to the Republic the most severe terms, destructive of their independence, but securing the nominal Stadtholdership to the Prince of Orange. The magistrates of Amsterdam had almost decided on carrying the keys to Louis and the Grand Pensionary himself was ready to yield; but William, who preferred ruling a free people by their own choice to being imposed on them by the conqueror, still maintained that perseverance would save Holland, that her dykes, when opened, would admit floods that the enemy could not resist, and that they had only to be firm. The spirit of the people was with him, and in Amsterdam, Dordrecht, and the other cities, there were risings with loud outcries of 'Orange boven,' Up with Orange, insisting that he should be appointed Stadtholder. The Magistracy confirmed the choice, but Cornelius de Witt, too firm to yield to a popular cry, refused to sign the appointment, and thus drew on himself the rage of the people. He was arrested under an absurd accusation of having bribed a man to assassinate the Prince, and . . . [after torture] was sentenced to exile, whereupon his brother [the grand pensionary] announced that he should ac-

company him; but while he was with him in his prison at [the Hague], the atrocious mob again arose [Aug. 20, 1672], broke open the doors, and, dragging out the two brothers, absolutely tore them limb from limb."—C. M. Yonge, *Landmarks of history*, pt. 3, ch. 4, pt. 6.—"The assumption of authority by the Prince of Orange was followed by a speedy alleviation of the situation. The German princes became alarmed at the consequences of a French conquest of Holland, and the ruler of Brandenburg, soon to be known as the great Elector, set an example of action in moving twenty thousand troops to the Rhine. The Emperor followed suit and the attitude of Spain became menacing. The courage of the Dutch themselves revived. They took the supreme step of preparing for an emigration *en masse* if the fortune of war deserted them. Ships were in readiness to convey the population to a new country in the East Indies. The necessity for executing this grave decision did not arrive, and the Prince of Orange enjoyed the honour by his skilful negotiations in every court of Europe, not less than by his dispositions for defence, of inflicting his first serious rebuff on the Grand Monarque."—D. C. Boulger, *History of Belgium*, pt. 1, pp. 354-355.—The Prince of Orange, profiting by the murder of the De Witts, rewarded the murderers, and is smirched by the deed, whether primarily responsible for it or not; but the power which it secured to him was used ably for Holland. The dykes had already been cut, on June 18th, and "the sea poured in, placing a waste of water between Louis and Amsterdam, and the province of Holland at least was saved. The citizens worked with the intensest energy to provide for their defence. . . . Every fourth man among the peasantry was enlisted; mariners and gunners were drawn from the fleet. [Meantime, on June 7, the fleet itself, under De Ruyter, had been victorious, in Southwold bay, or Solebay, over the united fleets of England and France. The victory was indecisive, but it paralyzed the allied navy for a season, and prevented a contemplated descent on Zealand.] . . . All active military operations against Holland were now necessarily at an end. There was not a Dutch town south of the inundation which was not in the hands of the French; and nothing remained for the latter but to lie idle until the ice of winter should enable them to cross the floods which cut them off from Amsterdam. Leaving Turenne in command, Louis therefore returned to St. Germain on August 1. [Before winter came, however, the alarm of Europe at Louis' aggressions had brought about a coalition of the Emperor Leopold and the elector of Brandenburg, to succor the Dutch states. Louis was forced to call Turenne with 16,000 men to Westphalia and Condé with 17,000 to Alsace.] . . . On September 12 the Austrian general Montecuculi, the Duke of Lorraine, and the Grand Elector effected their junction, intending to cross the Rhine and join William; [but Turenne, by a series of masterly movements, forced them to retreat, utterly baffled, into Franconia and Halberstadt. The elector of Brandenburg, discouraged, withdrew from the alliance, and made peace with Louis, June 6, 1673. The spring of 1673 found the French king advantageously situated, and his advantages were improved. Turning on the Spaniards in their Belgian Netherlands, he laid siege to the important stronghold of Maestricht and it was taken for him by the skill of Vauban, on June 30. But while this success was being scored, the Dutch, at sea, had frustrated another attempt of the Anglo-French fleet to land troops on the Zealand coast. On June 7, and again on the 14th, De Ruyter and Van Tromp fought off the invaders,

under Prince Rupert and D'Estrees, driving them back to the Thames. Once more, and for the last time they made their attempt, on August 21, and were beaten in a battle near the Zealand shore which lasted from daylight until dark. The end of August found a new coalition against Louis formed by treaties between Holland, Spain, the emperor and the Duke of Lorraine. A little later, the prince of Orange, after capturing Naarden, effected a junction near Bonn with Montecuculi, who had evaded Turenne. The electors of Trèves and Mainz thereupon joined the coalition and Cologne and Münster made peace. By this time, public opinion in England had become so angrily opposed to the war that Charles was forced to arrange terms of peace with Holland, notwithstanding his engagements with Louis. The tide was now turning fast against France. Denmark had joined the coalition. In March it received the elector palatine; in April the dukes of Brunswick and Lüneburg came into the league; in May the em-



ADMIRAL DE RUYTER

peror procured from the Diet a declaration of war in the name of the empire, and on July 1, the elector of Brandenburg cast in his lot once more with the enemies of France. To effectually meet this new league of his foes, Louis resolved with heroic promptitude to abandon his conquests in the Netherlands. Maestricht and Grave, alone, of the places he had taken, were retained. But Holland still refused to make peace on the terms which the French king proposed, and held her ground in the league."—O. Airy, *English restoration and Louis XI*, ch. 10.—See also NEW YORK: 1673.

ALSO IN: F. P. Guizot, *History of France*, v. 5, ch. 44.—C. D. Yonge, *History of France under the Bourbons*, v. 2, ch. 15.—A. F. Pontalis, *John de Witt*, v. 2, ch. 12-14.—W. Temple, *Memoirs*, pt. 2 (*Works*, v. 2).

1673.—Reconquest of New Netherland from the English. See NEW YORK: 1673.

1674.—Treaty of Westminster.—Relinquishment of New Netherland.—An offer from the Dutch to restore New Netherland to England "was extorted from the necessities of the republic, and its engagement with Spain. With the consent of the States General, the Spanish ambassador offered

advantageous articles to the British government. Charles, finding that Louis refused him further supplies, and that he could not expect any from Parliament, replied that he was willing to accept reasonable conditions. . . . Sir William Temple was summoned from his retirement, and instructed to confer with the Spanish ambassador at London, the Marquis del Fresno, to whom the States General had sent full powers. In three days all the points were arranged, and a treaty was signed at Westminster [February 10, 1674] by Arlington and four other commissioners on the part of Great Britain, and by Fresno on the part of the United Netherlands. The honor of the flag, which had been refused by De Witt, was yielded to England; the Treaty of Breda was revived; the rights of neutrals guaranteed; and the commercial principles of the Triple Alliance renewed. By the sixth article it was covenanted that 'all lands, islands, cities, havens, castles and fortresses, which have been or shall be taken by one party from the other, during the time of this last unhappy war, whether in Europe or elsewhere, and before the expiration of the times above limited for the duration of hostilities, shall be restored to the former Lord and Proprietor in the same condition they shall be in at the time that this peace shall be proclaimed.' This article restored New Netherland to the King of Great Britain. The Treaty of Breda had ceded it to him on the principle of 'uti possidetis.' The Treaty of Westminster gave it back to him on the principle of reciprocal restitution. Peace was soon proclaimed at London and at the Hague. The treaty of Westminster delivered the Dutch from fear of Charles, and cut off the right arm of Louis, their more dreaded foe. England, on her part, slipped out of a disastrous war. . . . By the treaty of Westminster the United Provinces relinquished their conquest of New Netherland to the King of England. The sovereign Dutch States General had treated directly with Charles as sovereign. A question at once arose at Whitehall about the subordinate interest of the Duke of York. It was claimed by some that James's former American proprietorship was revived. . . . The opinion of counsel having been taken, they advised that the duke's proprietorship had been extinguished by the Dutch conquest, and that the king was now alone seized of New Netherland, by virtue of the Treaty of Westminster. . . . A new patent to the Duke of York was therefore sealed. By it the king again conveyed to his brother the territories he had held before, and granted him anew the absolute powers of government he had formerly enjoyed over British subjects, with the like additional authority over 'any other person or persons' inhabiting his province. Under the same description of boundaries, New Jersey, and all the territory west of the Connecticut River, together with Long Island and the adjacent islands, and the region of Pemaquid, were again included in the grant. The new patent did not, as has been commonly, but erroneously stated, 'recite and confirm the former.' It did not in any way allude to that instrument. It read as if no previous English patent had ever existed. . . . As his colonial lieutenant and deputy, the duke, almost necessarily, appointed Major Edmund Andros, whom the king had directed in the previous March to receive New Netherland from the Dutch."—J. R. Brodhead, *History of the State of New York*, v. 2, ch. 5-6.

1674-1678.—Continued war of the coalition against France.—"The enemies of France everywhere took courage. [But] . . . Louis XIV. embraced with a firm glance the whole position, and, well advised by Turenne, clearly took his resolu-

tion. He understood the extreme difficulty of preserving his conquests, and the facility moreover of making others more profitable, while defending his own frontier. To evacuate Holland, to indemnify himself at the expense of Spain, and to endeavor to treat separately with Holland while continuing the war against the House of Austria,—such was the new plan adopted; an excellent plan, the very wisdom of which condemned so much the more severely the war with Holland. . . . The places of the Zuyder-Zee were evacuated in the course of December by the French and the troops of Münster. . . . The evacuation of the United Provinces was wholly finished by spring. . . . Louis resolved to conquer Franche-Comté in person; while Turenne covered Alsace and Lorraine, Schomberg went to defend Roussillon, and Condé labored to strengthen the French positions on the Meuse, by sweeping the enemy from the environs of Liège and Maestricht. On the ocean, the defensive was preserved." Louis entered Franche-Comté at the beginning of May with a small army of 8,000 infantry and 5,000 or 6,000 cavalry, but with Vauban, the great master of sieges, to do his serious work for him. A small corps had been sent into the country in February, and had already taken Gray, Vesoul and Lons-le-Saulnier. Besançon was now reduced by a short siege; Dole surrendered soon afterward, and early in July the subjugation of the province was complete. "The second conquest of Franche-Comté had cost a little more trouble than the first; but it was definitive. The two Burgundies were no more to be separated, and France was never again to lose her frontier of the Jura. . . . The allies, from the beginning of the year, had projected a general attack against France. They had debated among themselves the design of introducing two great armies, one from Belgium into Champagne, the other from Germany, into Alsace and Lorraine; the Spaniards were to invade Roussillon; lastly, the Dutch fleet was to threaten the coasts of France and attempt some enterprise there. The tardiness of the Germanic diet to declare itself" frustrated the first of these plans. Condé, occupying a strong position near Charleroi, from which the allies could not draw him, took quick advantage of an imprudent movement which they made, and routed them by a fierce attack, at the village of Seneffe (Aug. 11, 1674). But William of Orange rallied the flying forces—Dutch, German and Spanish now fighting side by side—so successfully that Condé was repulsed with terrible loss in the end, when he attempted to make his victory complete. The battle was maintained, by the light of the moon, until midnight, and both armies withdrew next morning, badly crippled. Turenne meantime, in June, had crossed the Rhine at Philippsburg and encountered the Imperialists, on the 16th, near Sinsheim, defeated them there and driven them beyond the Neckar. The following month, he again crossed the river and inflicted upon the palatinate the terrible destruction which made it for the time being a desert, and which is the black blot on the fame of the great soldier. "Turenne ordered his troops to consume and waste cattle, forage, and harvests, so that the enemy's army, when it returned in force, as he foresaw it would do, could find nothing whereon to subsist." In September the city of Strassburg opened its gates to the Imperialists and gave them the control of its fortified bridge, crossing the Rhine. Turenne, hastening to prevent the disaster, but arriving too late, attacked his enemies, Oct. 4, at the village of Ensisheim and gained an inconclusive victory. Then followed, before the close of the year, the most famous of the military movements of Turenne. The

allies having been heavily reinforced, he retired before them into Lorraine, meeting and gathering up reinforcements of his own as he moved. Then, when he had completely deceived them as to his intentions, he traversed the whole length of the Vosges with his army, in December, and appeared suddenly at Belfort, finding their forces scattered and entirely unprepared. Defeating them at Mulhausen December 29, and again at Colmar, January 5, he expelled them from Alsace, and offered to Strassburg the renewal of its neutrality, which the anxious city was glad to accept. "Thus ended this celebrated campaign, the most glorious, perhaps presented in the military history of ancient France. None offers higher instruction in the study of the great art of war." In the campaign of 1675, which opened in May, Turenne was confronted by Montecuculi, and the two masterly tacticians became the players of a game which has been the wonder of military students ever since. "Like two valiant athletes struggling foot to foot without either being able to overthrow the other, Turenne and Montecuculi manœuvred for six weeks in the space of a few square leagues [in the canton of Ortnau, Swabia] without succeeding in forcing each other to quit the place." At length, on July 27, Turenne found an opportunity to attack his opponent with advantage, in the defile of Salsbach, and was just completing his preparations to do so, when a cannon-ball from one of the enemy's batteries struck him instantly dead. His two lieutenants, who succeeded to the command, could not carry out his plans, but fought a useless bloody battle at Altenheim and nearly lost their army before retreating across the Rhine. Condé was sent to replace Turenne. Before he arrived, Strassburg had again given its bridge to the Imperialists and they were in possession of lower Alsace; but no important operations were undertaken during the remainder of the year. In other parts of the wide war field the French suffered disaster. Marshal de Créqui, commanding on the Moselle, was badly defeated at Konaarbrück, August 11, and Trèves, which he defended, was lost a few weeks later. The Swedes, also, making a diversion in the north, as allies of France, were beaten back, at Fehrbellin (See SCANDINAVIAN STATES [SWEDEN]: 1644-1697.) But next year (1676) Louis recovered all his prestige. His navy, under the command of Duquesne and Tourville, fought the Dutch and Spaniards on equal terms, and defeated them twice in the Mediterranean, on the Sicilian coast. On land the main effort of the French was directed against the Netherlands. Condé, Bouchain and Aire were taken by siege; and Maestricht was successfully defended against Orange, who besieged it for nearly eight weeks. But Philippsburg, the most important French post on the Rhine, was lost, surrendering to the Duke of Lorraine. Early in 1677, Louis renewed his attacks on the Spanish Netherlands and took Valenciennes March 17, Cambrai April 4, and Saint-Omer April 20, defeating the Prince of Orange at Cassel (April 11) when he attempted to relieve the latter place. At the same time Créqui, unable to defend lower Alsace, destroyed it—burning the villages, leaving the inhabitants to perish—and prevented the allies, who outnumbered him, from making any advance. In November, when they had gone into winter-quarters he suddenly crossed the Rhine and captured Freiburg. The next spring (1678) operations began early on the side of the French with the siege of Ghent. The city capitulated March 9, after a short bombardment. The Spanish governor withdrew to the citadel, but "surrendered, on the 11th, that renowned castle built by Charles V. to hold the city in check. The

city and citadel of Ghent had not cost the French army forty men." Ypres was taken the same month. Serious negotiations were now opened and the Peace of Nimeguen, between France and Holland, was signed August 11, followed early the next year by a general peace. (See AUSTRIA: 1672-1714; NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.) The prince of Orange, who opposed the peace, fought one bootless but bloody battle at Saint-Denis, near Mons, on August 14, three days after it had been signed.—II. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV* (tr. by M. L. Booth), v. 1, ch. 5-6.—"It may be doubted whether Europe has fully realised the greatness of the peril she so narrowly escaped on this occasion. The extinction of political and mental freedom, which would have followed the extinction of the Dutch Republic, would have been one of the most disastrous defeats of the cause of liberty and enlightenment possible in the then condition of the world. . . . The free presses of Holland gave voice to the stifled thought and agony of mankind. And they were the only free presses in the world. But Holland was not only the greatest book mart of Europe, it was emphatically the home of thinkers and the birthplace of ideas. . . . The two men then living to whose genius and courage the modern spirit of mental emancipation and toleration owes its first and most arduous victories were Pierre Bayle and John Locke. And it is beyond dispute that if the French King had worked his will on Holland, neither of them would have been able to accomplish the task they did achieve under the protection of Dutch freedom. They both were forced to seek refuge in Holland from the bigotry which hunted them down in their respective countries. All the works of Bayle were published in Holland, and some of the earliest of Locke's writings appeared there also; and if the remainder saw the light afterwards in England, it is only because the Dutch, by saving their own freedom, were the means of saving England as well. . . . At least, no one can maintain that if Holland had been annihilated in 1672, the English revolution could have occurred in the form and at the time it did."—J. C. Morison, *Reign of Louis XIV* (*Fortnightly Review*, Mar., 1874).

Also in: H. M. Hozier, *Turenne*, ch. 12-13.—T. O. Cockayne, *Life of Turenne*.—Lord Mahon, *Life of Condé*, ch. 12.

1686.—League of Augsburg. See GERMANY: 1686.

1689.—Invasion of England by prince of Orange.—His accession to English throne. See ENGLAND: 1688 (July-November), to 1689 (January-February); IRELAND: 1680.

1689-1694.—Aid to English against French and Irish.—Defeat in battle of Beachy Head.—Attack on Brest. See IRELAND: 1680; ENGLAND: 1600; BREST: 1604.

1689-1696.—War of League of Augsburg, or Grand Alliance against Louis XIV. See FRANCE: 1680-1600, to 1605-1606.

1690-1694.—Internal affairs of Dutch republic.—William III and his heirs.—"In the years after William III. became king of England the state of war, in which the republic existed, was of great importance to its internal condition. There was no thought of reforms in the faulty government, now that the stadholder's personal ambition seemed satisfied by his high dignity elsewhere and his dynastic interests were less strongly felt on account of the childlessness of his marriage. This lack of children imparted a tinge of sadness to the life of the reconciled pair, awakened in the minds of both a feeling of loneliness and desolation, was coupled in the queen with the mournful thought of her

father wandering in exile, and it caused repeated talk of transferring the succession to one of the related families, to the Frisian branch of the house of Nassau, or to a prince of the house of Hohenzollern. But William III. had only slight sympathy with the Frisian cousin, who on his side was not very obliging, and after a short reconciliation withdrew from the army on being passed over in the choice of a first field marshal at Waldeck's death in 1692. Prince Henry Casimir was even drawn into secret negotiation with his country's enemy, Louis XIV., and the serious dissension was not ended until 1694 through the mediation of the Frisian stadtholder's wife. When he died young in March, 1696, and left a son, the eight-year-old John William Friso, whose godfather was William III., the latter inclined to assure the succession to this young prince. After Queen Mary's death he named him as his sole heir by will of October 18, 1695. The death of the council pensionary, Fagel, in December, 1688, in the midst of the English complications, was a great loss to William III. His place was taken by Van Hove, pensionary of Haarlem, and, after his speedy death in May, 1689, and a temporary occupation, by the pensionary of Delft, Antonie Heinsius, who had been pensionary since 1679 and had attracted attention by his sagacity, though he did not at first belong to the Orange party. The prince had employed him in 1683 on a mission to Paris to defend the interests of the principality of Orange against French attacks, and Heinsius had returned from there and later from a mission to London a pronounced adherent of the prince's policy against France. He soon became the friend of Fagel, and when the latter's health began to fail, the prince looked to the Delft pensionary as his helper in treating foreign affairs. Fagel was not unwilling, and offered him in 1686 the office of pensionary of Dordrecht, whose pensionary usually replaced the council pensionary. But Heinsius, already forty-five years old, declined, believing that the employment suited 'neither with his humour, nor with his knowledge, nor with his health.' After reiterated entreaty, the modest man accepted and soon proved himself an excellent aid to William III., less independent and vigorous, much less enthusiastic and ardent than Fagel, but exact, zealous, honest, able, clear-sighted, docile, an invaluable tool in the prince's hand. With Dijkveld and Hop, he belonged to the best statesmen of the last period of William III.'s reign."—P. J. Blok, *History of the people of the Netherlands*, pt. 4, pp. 474-475.

ALSO IN: *Cambridge modern history*, v. 5, pp. 160-168.

1692.—Naval Battle of La Hogue. See ENGLAND: 1692.

1697.—Peace of Ryswick. See FRANCE: 1697.

1698-1700.—Question of Spanish Succession.—Treaties of partition. See SPAIN: 1698-1700.

1702.—William of Orange joins Second Grand Alliance against France and Spain. See SPAIN: 1701-1702; ENGLAND: 1701-1702.

1702.—War of the Spanish Succession.—Expédition to Cadiz.—Sinking of treasure ships in Vigo bay. See SPAIN: 1702; CADIZ: 1702.

1702-1704.—War of the Spanish Succession.—Marlborough's first campaigns.—"The campaign [of 1702] opened late in the Low Countries, owing, doubtless, to the death of king William. The elector of Bavaria, and his brother the elector of Cologne, took part with France. About the middle of April, the prince of Nassau-Saarbruck invested Keyserwerth, a place belonging to the latter elector, on the Rhine; whilst lord Athlone, with the Dutch army, covered the siege, in pursuance of the advice

of lord Marlborough to the states. The place was strong; the French marshal Boufflers made efforts to relieve it; after a vigorous defence, it was carried by assault, with dreadful carnage, about the middle of June. Boufflers, unable to relieve Keyserwerth, made a rapid march to throw himself between Athlone and Nimeguen, with the view to carry that place by surprise; was defeated by a forced and still more rapid march of the Dutch, under Athlone, to cover it; and moved upon Cleves, laying the country waste with wanton barbarity along his line of march. Marlborough now arrived to take the command in chief. It was disputed with him by Athlone, who owed his military rank and the honours of the peerage to the favour of king William. Certain representatives of the states, who attended the army under the name of field deputies, thwarted him by their caution and incompetency; the Prussian and Hanoverian contingents refused to move without the orders of their respective sovereigns. Lord Marlborough, with admirable temper and adroitness, and, doubtless, with the ascendant of his genius, surmounted all these obstacles. The Dutch general cheerfully served under him; the confederates were reconciled to his orders; he crossed the Meuse in pursuit of the French; came within a few leagues of Boufflers' lines; and, addressing the Dutch field deputies who accompanied him, said in a tone of easy confidence, 'I will now rid you of these troublesome neighbours.' Boufflers accordingly retreated,—abandoning Spanish Guelderland and exposing Venloo, Ruremonde, and even Liège, which he had made a demonstration to cover. The young duke of Burgundy, grandson of Louis XIV., and elder brother of the king of Spain, had commanded the French army in name. He now returned to Versailles; and Boufflers could only look on, whilst Marlborough successively captured Venloo, Ruremonde, and Liège. The navigation of the Meuse and communication with Maestricht was now wholly free; the Dutch frontier was secure; and the campaign terminated with the close of October. . . . The duke of Marlborough resumed his command in the Low Countries about the middle of spring. He found the French strong and menacing on every side. Marshal Villars had, like Marlborough, fixed the attention of Europe for the first time in the late campaign. He obtained a splendid victory over the prince of Baden at Fredlingen, near the Black Forest. That prince lost 3,000 men, his cannon and the field. . . . Villars opened this year's campaign by taking Kehl, passed through the Black Forest into Bavaria, and formed a junction with the elector; whilst the prince of Baden, was kept in check by a French army under marshal Tallard. . . . The imperial general, count Styrum was now moving to join the prince of Baden with 20,000 men. Villars persuaded the elector to cross the Danube and prevent this junction; attacked the imperialists in the plain of Hochstedt near Donawert; and put them to the rout. The capture of Augsburg followed: the road was open to Vienna, and the emperor thought of abandoning the capital. . . . Holland was once more threatened on her frontier. Marshal Villeroy, liberated by exchange, was again at the head of an army, and, in conjunction with Boufflers, commenced operations for recovering the ground and the strong places from which Marlborough had dislodged the French on the Meuse. The campaign had opened at this point of the theatre of war with the capture of Rheinberg. It was taken by the Prussians before the duke of Marlborough arrived. The duke's first operation was the capture of Bonne. He returned to the main army with the view to engage the French under Villeroy. That marshal abandoned

his camp, and retired within his lines of defence on the approach of the English general. Marlborough was prevented from attacking the French by the reluctance of the Dutch generals and the positive prohibition of the Dutch field deputies. . . . The only fruit of Marlborough's movement was the easy capture of Huy. Boufflers obtained the slight advantage of surprising and defeating the Dutch general Opdam near Antwerp. Marlborough, still embarrassed by the Dutch field deputies, to whose good intentions and limited views he bowed with a facility which only proves the extent of his superiority, closed the campaign with the acquisition of Limburg and Guelders. . . . In the beginning of . . . [1704] the emperor, threatened by the French and Bavarians in the very capital of the empire, implored aid from the queen; and on the 10th of April, the duke of Marlborough left England to enter upon a campaign memorable for . . . [the] victory of Blenheim. . . . On his arrival at the Hague, he proposed to the states general to alarm France for her frontier by a movement on the Moselle. Their consent even to this slight hazard for their own security, was not easily obtained. Villeroy, who commanded in Flanders, soon lost sight of him; so rapid or so well masked were his movements; Tallard, who commanded on the Moselle, thought only of protecting the frontier of France; and Marlborough, to the amazement of Europe, whether enemies or allies, passed in rapid succession the Rhine, the Maine, and the Necker. Intercepted letters, and a courier from the prince of Baden, apprised him that the French were about to join the Bavarians through the defiles of the Black Forest, and march upon Vienna. He now threw off the mask, sent a courier to the states, acquainting them that he was marching to the succour of the empire by order of the queen of England, and trusted they would permit their troops to share the glory of his enterprise. The pensionary Heinsius alone was in his confidence; and the states, though taken by surprise, conveyed to him their sanction and confidence with the best grace. He met Prince Eugene for the first time at Mindlesheim. Marlborough and Eugene are henceforth associated in the career of war and victory."—J. Mackintosh, *History of England*, v. 9, ch. 4.—See also GERMANY: 1702; 1703.

ALSO IN: L. Creighton, *Life of Marlborough*, ch. 6-7.—G. Saintsbury, *Marlborough*, ch. 5.—W. Coxe, *Memoirs of Marlborough*, v. 1, ch. 11-22.—J. H. Burton, *History of the reign of Queen Anne*, v. 1, ch. 5-6.

1704.—War of the Spanish Succession.—Campaign on Danube and victory at Blenheim. See GERMANY: 1704.

1705.—War of the Spanish Succession.—Campaign spoiled.—After his campaign in Bavaria, with its great victory on the field of Blenheim (see GERMANY: 1704), Marlborough passed the winter in England and returned in the spring of 1705 to the Low Countries, where he had planned to lead, again, the campaign of the year. Prince Eugene was now in Italy, and the jealous, incapable Prince Louis of Baden, commanding the German army, was the coadjutor on whom he must depend. The latter assented to Marlborough's plans and promised coöperation. The Dutch generals and deputies also were reluctantly brought over to his views, which contemplated an invasion of France on the side of the Moselle. "Slight as were the hopes of any effective co-operation which Prince Louis gave, they were much more than he accomplished. When the time came he declared himself sick, threw up his command and set off to drink the waters of Schlangenbad. Count de Frise whom he named in his

place brought to Marlborough only a few ragged battalions, and, moreover, like his principal, showed himself most jealous of the English chief. . . . Marlborough nevertheless took the field and even singly desired to give battle. But positive instructions from Versailles precluded Villars [the commander of the French] from engaging. He intrenched himself in an extremely strong position at Sirk, where it was impossible for an inferior army to assail him. And while the war was thus unprosperous on the Moselle, there came adverse tidings from the Meuse. Marshal Villeroy had suddenly resumed the offensive, had reduced the fortress of Huy, had entered the city and invested the citadel of Liège. [Marlborough, on this news, being applied to for immediate aid by the Dutch General Overkirk—the ablest and best of his colleagues] . . . set out the very next day on his march to Liège, leaving only a sufficient force as he hoped for the security of Treves. [Villeroy] . . . at once relinquished his design upon the citadel of



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Liège and fell back in the direction of Tongres, so that Marlborough and Overkirk effected their junction with ease. Marlborough took prompt measures to re-invest the fortress of Huy, and compelled it to surrender on the 11th of July. Applying his mind to the new sphere before him, Marlborough saw ground to hope that, with the aid of the Dutch troops, he might still make a triumphant campaign. The first object was to force the defensive lines that stretched across the country from near Namur to Antwerp, protected by numerous fortified posts and covered in other places by rivers and morasses, . . . now defended by an army of at least 60,000 men, under Marshal Villeroy and the Elector of Bavaria. Marlborough laid his plans before Generals Overkirk and Slangenberg as also those civilian envoys whom the States were wont to commission at their armies. But he found to his sorrow that for jealousy and lowness a Dutch deputy was fully a match for a German margrave. [He obtained with great difficulty a nominal assent to his plans, and began the execution of them; but in the very midst of his operations, and when one division of the Dutch troops had successfully crossed

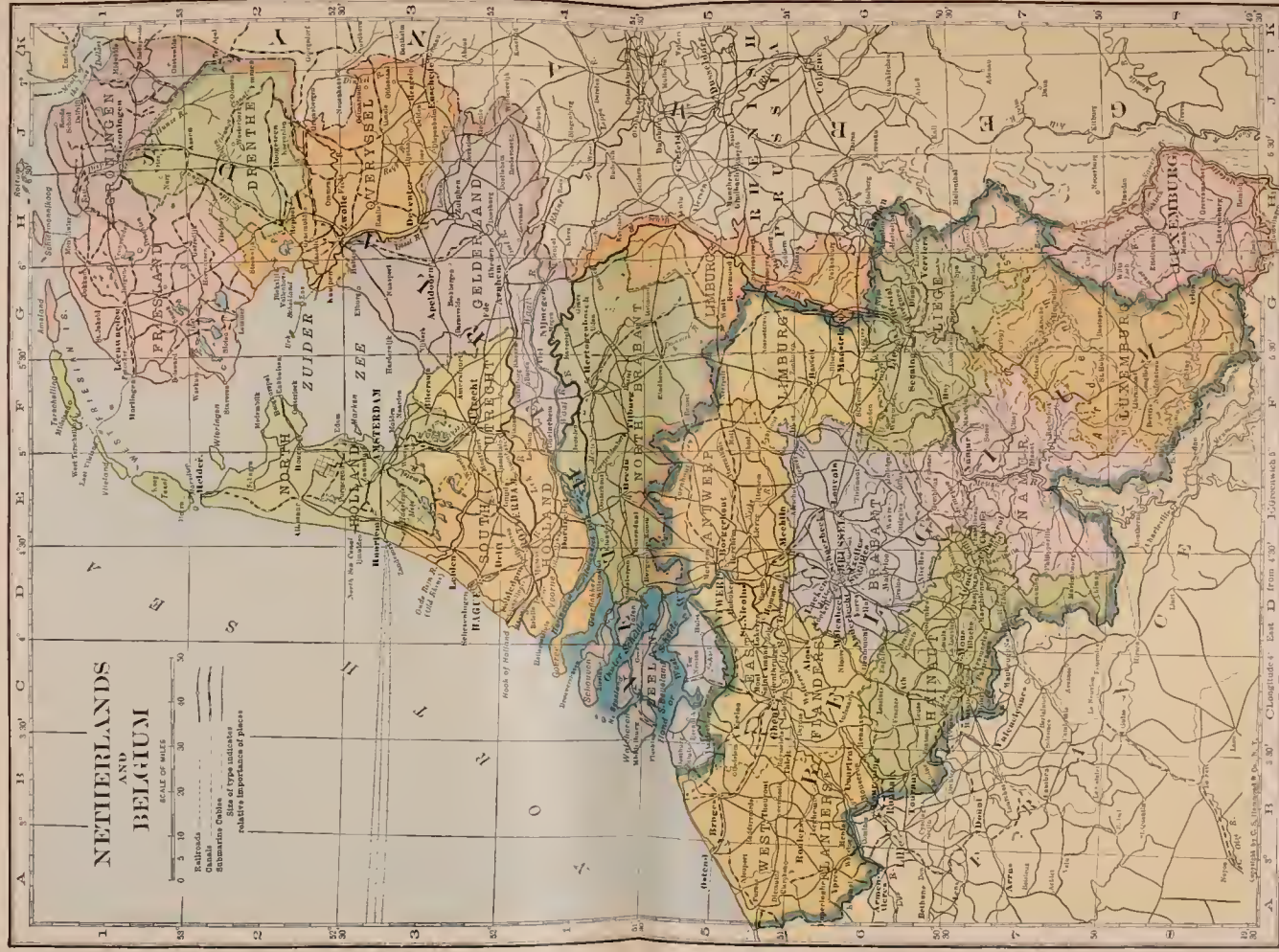
the river Dyle, General Slangenberg and the deputies suddenly drew back and compelled a retreat. Then Marlborough's] . . . fertile genius devised another scheme—to move round the sources of the river [Dyle] and to threaten Brussels from the southern side. . . . On the 15th of August he began his march, as did also Overkirk in a parallel direction, and in two days they reached Genappe near the sources of the Dyle. There uniting in one line of battle they moved next morning towards Brussels by the main chaussée or great paved road; their head-quarters that day being fixed at Fischermont near the borders of the forest of Soignies. On the French side the Elector and Villeroy, observing the march of the allies, had made a corresponding movement of their own for the protection of the capital. They encamped behind the small stream of the Ische, their right and rear being partly covered by the forest. Only the day before they had been joined by Marsin from the Rhine, and they agreed to give battle sooner than yield Brussels. One of their main posts was at Waterloo. . . . It is probable, had a battle now ensued, that it would have been fought on the same, or nearly the same ground as was the memorable conflict a hundred and ten years afterwards. . . . But the expected battle did not take place. [Once more the Dutch deputies and General Slangenberg interfered, refusing to permit their troops to engage; so that Marlborough was robbed of the opportunity for winning a victory which he confidently declared would have been greater than Blenheim. This practically ended the campaign of the year, which had been ruined and wasted throughout by the stupidity, the cowardice and the jealousies of the Dutch deputies and the general who counselled them.]—Earl Stanhope, *History of England: Reign of Queen Anne*, ch. 6.—In Spain, a campaign of more brilliancy was carried on by Charles Mordaunt, earl of Peterborough, in Catalonia. See SPAIN: 1705.

1706-1707.—War of the Spanish Succession.—Battle of Ramillies and its results.—“The campaign of 1706 was begun unusually late by Marlborough, his long stay on the Continent in the winter and his English political business detaining him in London till the end of April, and when he finally landed at the Hague his plans were still coloured by the remembrance of the gratuitous and intolerable hindrances which he had met with from his allies. . . . He had made up his mind to operate with Eugene in Italy, which, if he had done, there would probably have been seen what has not been seen for nearly two thousand years—a successful invasion of France from the southeast. But the kings of Prussia and Denmark, and others of the allies whom Marlborough thought he had propitiated, were as recalcitrant as the Dutch, and the vigorous action of Villars against the Margrave of Baden made the States-General more than ever reluctant to lose their sword and shield. So Marlborough was condemned to action on his old line of the Dyle, and this time fortune was less unkind to him. Secret overtures were made which induced him to threaten Namur, and as Namur was of all posts in the Low Countries that to which the French attached most importance, both on sentimental and strategical grounds, Villeroy was ordered to abandon the defensive policy which he had for nearly two years been forced to maintain, and to fight at all hazards. Accordingly the tedious operations which had for so long been pursued in this quarter were exchanged at once for a vigorous offensive and defensive, and the two generals, Villeroy with rather more than 60,000 men, Marlborough with that number or a little less, came to

blows at Ramillies (a few miles only from the spot where the lines had been forced the year before) on May 23, 1706, or scarcely more than a week after the campaign had begun. Here, as before, the result is assigned by the French to the fault of the general. . . . The battle itself was one completely of generalship, and of generalship as simple as it was masterly. It was in defending his position, not in taking it up, that Villeroy lost the battle. . . . Thirteen thousand of the French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, and taken, and the loss of the allies, who had been throughout the attacking party, was not less than 4,000 men. . . . The Dutch, who bore the burden of the attack on Ramillies, had the credit of the day's fighting on the allied side, as the Bavarian horse had on that of the French. In hardly any of Marlborough's operations had he his hands so free as at Ramillies, and in none did he carry off a completer victory. . . . The strong places of Flanders fell before the allied army like ripe fruit. Brussels surrendered and was occupied on the fourth day after the battle, May 28. Louvain and Malines had fallen already. The French garrison precipitately left Ghent, and the Duke entered it on June 2. Oudenarde came in next day; Antwerp was summoned, expelled the French part of its garrison, and capitulated on September 7. And a vigorous siege in less than a month reduced Ostend, reputed one of the strongest places in Europe. In six weeks from the battle of Ramillies not a French soldier remained in a district which the day before that battle had been occupied by a network of the strongest fortresses and a field army of 80,000 men. The strong places on the Lys and the Dender, tributaries of the Scheldt, gave more trouble, and Menin, a small but very important position, cost nearly half the loss of Ramillies before it could be taken. But it fell, as well as Dendermonde and Ath, and nothing but the recrudescence of Dutch obstruction prevented Marlborough from finishing the campaign with the taking of Mons, almost the last place of any importance held by the French north of their own frontier, as that frontier is now understood. But the difficulties of all generals are said to begin on the morrow of victory, and certainly the saying was true in Marlborough's case. . . . The Dutch were, before all things, set on a strong barrier or zone of territory, studded with fortresses in their own keeping, between themselves and France: the Emperor naturally objected to the alienation of the Spanish-Austrian Netherlands. The barrier disputes were for years the greatest difficulty which Marlborough had to contend with abroad, and the main theme of the objections to the war made by the adverse party at home. . . . It was in the main due, no doubt, to these jealousies and hesitations, strengthened by the alarm caused by the loss of the battle of Almanza in Spain, and by the threatened invasion of Germany under Villars, that made the campaign of 1707 an almost wholly inactive one. . . . The campaign of this year is almost wholly barren of any military operations interesting to anyone but the mere analyst of tactics.”—G. Saintsbury, *Marlborough*, ch. 6.—In Spain, several sharp changes of fortune during two years terminated in a disastrous defeat of the allies at Almanza in April, 1707, by the duke of Berwick. See SPAIN: 1706; 1707; GERMANY: 1706-1711.

ALSO IN: Earl Stanhope, *History of England: Reign of Queen Anne*, ch. 7, 9.

1708-1709.—War of the Spanish Succession.—Oudenarde and Malplaquet.—To the great satisfaction of Marlborough, Prince Eugene of Savoy was sent by the emperor to coöperate with him, in the spring of 1708. The two generals met in April



Maps prepared specially for the NEW LARNED
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to discuss plans; after which Eugene returned into Germany to gather up the various contingents that would compose his army. He encountered many difficulties and delays, and was unable to bring his forces to the field until July. Marlborough, meantime, had been placed in a critical situation. "For whilst the English commander and Eugene had formed the plan to unite and overwhelm Vendôme the Court of Versailles had, on its side, contemplated the despatch of a portion of the Army of the Rhine, commanded by the Elector of Bavaria and the Duke of Berwick, so to reinforce Vendôme that he might overwhelm Marlborough, and Berwick was actually on his march to carry out his portion of the plan. [Prince Eugene crossed the Moselle on June 28], reached Düren the 3rd of July, and learning there that affairs were critical, hastened with an escort of Hussars, in advance of his army, to Brussels. On his arrival there, the 6th, he learned that the French had attacked and occupied the city of Ghent, and were then besieging the castle. [The two commanders having met at Assche, to concert their movements, made haste to throw] . . . a reinforcement into the fortress of Oudenarde, then besieged by the French; and, convinced now that the conquest of that fortress by Vendôme would give him an unassailable position, they pushed forward their troops with all diligence to save it. The two armies united on the 8th. On the 9th they set out for Oudenarde, and crossed the Dender on the 10th. Before daybreak of the 11th Marlborough despatched General Cadogan with a strong corps to the Scheldt, to throw bridges over that river near Oudenarde and to reconnoitre the enemy. The main army followed at 7 o'clock. [In the battle which ensued, Vendôme was hampered by the equal authority of the duke of Burgundy—the king's grandson—who would not concur with his plans.] . . . One after another the positions occupied by the French soldiers were carried. Then these took advantage of the falling night to make a retreat as hurried and disorderly as their defence had been wanting in tenacity. In no pitched battle, indeed, have the French soldiers less distinguished themselves than at Oudenarde. Fighting under a divided leadership, they were fighting virtually without leadership, and they knew it. The Duke of Burgundy contributed as much as either Marlborough or Eugene to gain the battle of Oudenarde for the Allies. [The French army, losing heavily in the retreat, was rallied finally at Ghent.] . . . The Allies, meanwhile, prepared to take advantage of their victory. They were within a circle commanded by three hostile fortresses, Ypres, Lille, and Tournay. After some consideration it was resolved, on the proposition of Eugene, that Lille should be besieged. [The siege of Lille, the capital of French Flanders, fortified by the utmost skill and science of Vauban, and held by a garrison of 10,000 men under Marshal Boufflers, was a formidable undertaking. The city was invested on August 13, and defended heroically by the garrison; but Vendôme, who would have attacked the besiegers, was paralyzed by the royal youth who shared his command. Lille, the town, was surrendered on October 22, and its citadel on December 9. The siege of Ghent followed, and the capitulation of that city, on January 2, 1709, closed the campaign.] . . . The winter of 1709 was spent mainly in negotiations. Louis XIV. was humiliated, and he offered peace on terms which the Allies would have done well to accept. [Their demands, however, rose too high, and the war went on.] . . . It had been decided that the campaign in the Netherlands should be continued under the same skilful generals who had brought that of 1708 to so suc-

cessful an issue. . . . On the 23rd of [June] . . . the allied army, consisting of 110,000 men, was assembled between Courtray and Menin. Marlborough commanded the left wing, about 70,000 strong; Eugene the right, about 40,000. Louis, on his side, had made extraordinary efforts. But even with these he had been able to put in the field an army only 80,000 strong [under Marshal Villars]. . . . Villars had occupied a position between Douai and the Lys, and had there thrown up lines, in the strengthening of which he found daily employment for his troops. [Not venturing to attack the French army in its strong position, Marlborough and Eugene began operations by laying siege to Tournay. The town was yielded to them on July 30, and the citadel on September 3. They next turned their attention to Mons, which the French thought it necessary to save at any cost. The attempt which the latter made to drive the allied army from the position it had gained between themselves and Mons had its outcome in the terribly bloody battle of Malplaquet] . . . the bloodiest known till then in modern history. The loss of the victors was greater than that of the vanquished. That of the former amounted to from 18,000 to 20,000 men; the French admitted a loss of 7,000, but German writers raise it to 15,000. Probably it did not exceed 11,000. . . . The results . . . were in no way proportionate to its cost. The French army retreated in good order, taking with it all its impedimenta, to a new position as strong as the former. There, under Berwick, who was sent to replace Villars, it watched the movements of the Allies. These resumed, indeed, the siege of Mons [which surrendered on October 20]. . . . But this was the solitary result of the victory."—G. B. Malletson, *Prince Eugene of Savoy*, ch. 10-11.

ALSO IN: W. Coxe, *Memoirs of Marlborough*, v. 4-5, ch. 66-83.—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV* (tr. by M. L. Booth), v. 2, ch. 5-6.—J. W. Gerard, *Peace of Utrecht*, ch. 17-19.

1709.—Barrier Treaty with England. See ENGLAND: 1709; BARRIER FORTRESSES.

1710-1712.—War of the Spanish Succession.—Last campaigns of Marlborough.—"As soon as it became clear that the negotiations [at Gertruydenberg] would lead to nothing, Eugene and Marlborough at once began the active business of the campaign. . . . Marlborough began . . . with the siege of Douai, the possession of which would be of the greatest importance to him. . . . In spite of Villars' boasts the French were unable to prevent the capture of Douai. . . . The campaign of 1710 was full of disappointment to Marlborough. He had hoped to carry the war into the heart of France. But after Douai fell, Villars so placed his army that [Marlborough] . . . was obliged to content himself with the capture of Bethune, St. Jeanant, and Aire. Heavy rains and a great deal of illness among his troops prevented further operations. Besides this, his energy was somewhat paralysed by the changes which had taken place in England [where the duchess of Marlborough and the Whig party had lost the favor of the queen, and the Tory opponents of Marlborough and the war had come into power.]"—L. Creighton, *Life of Marlborough*, ch. 15-16.—"In 1711, in a complicated series of operations round Arras, Marlborough, who was now alone, Eugene having been recalled to Vienna, completely outgeneraled Villars and broke through his lines. But he did not fight, and the sole result of the campaign was the capture of Bouchain at the cost of some 10,000 men, while no serious impression was made on the French system of defence. . . . Lille had cost 14,000; Tournay a number not exactly mentioned, but very large; the petty place

of Aire 7,000. How many, discontent Englishmen might well ask themselves, would it cost before Arras, Cambrai, Hesdin, Calais, Namur, and all the rest of the fortresses that studded the country, could be expected to fall? . . . Marlborough had himself, so to speak, spoilt his audience. He had given them four great victories in a little more than five years; it was perhaps unreasonable, but certainly not unnatural that they should grow fretful when he gave them none during nearly half the same time. . . . The expense of the war was frightening men of all classes in England, and, independently of the more strictly political considerations, . . . it will be seen that there was some reason for wishing Marlborough anywhere but on or near the field of battle. He was got rid of none too honourably; restrictions were put upon his successor Ormond, which were none too honourable, either; and when Villars, freed from his invincible antagonist, had inflicted a sharp defeat upon Eugene at Denain, the military situation was changed from one very much in favour of the allies to one slightly against them, and so contributed beyond all doubt to bring about the Peace of Utrecht."—G. Saintsbury, *Marlborough*, ch. 7.—See also ENGLAND: 1710-1712; UTRICHT: 1712-1714.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malleon, *Prince Eugene of Savoy*, ch. 12.—C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, v. 3, pt. 3, ch. 11.

1713-1715.—Second Barrier Treaty with England.—Barrier arrangements with France and Emperor.—Connected with the other arrangements concluded in the treaties negotiated at Utrecht, the States, in 1713, signed a new Barrier Treaty with England, "annulling that of 1709, and providing that the Emperor Charles should be sovereign of the Netherlands [heretofore the 'Spanish Provinces'], but now become the 'Austrian Provinces'], which, neither in the whole nor in the part, should ever be possessed by France. The States, on their side, were bound to support, if required, the succession of the Electress of Hanover to the throne of England. . . . By the treaty concluded between France and the States, it was agreed that . . . the towns of Menin, Tournay, Namur, Ypres, with Warneton, Poperingen, Comines and Werwyk, Furnes, Dixmuyde, and the fort of Knokke, were to be ceded to the States, as a barrier, to be held in such a manner as they should afterwards agree upon with the Emperor. [In the subsequent arrangement, concluded with the emperor in 1715] . . . he permitted the boundary on the side of Flanders to be fixed in a manner highly satisfactory to the States, who sought security rather than extent of dominion. By the possession of Namur they commanded the passage of the Sambre and Meuse; Tournay ensured the navigation of the Scheldt; Menin and Warneton protected the Leyse; while Ypres and the fort of Knokke kept open the communication with Furnes, Nieupoort and Dunkirk. . . . Events proved the barrier, so earnestly insisted upon, to have been wholly insufficient as a means of defence to the United Provinces, and scarcely worth the labour and cost of its maintenance."—C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, v. 3, ch. 11. See EUROPE: Map of Central Europe: 1715.

1713-1725. — Continued Austro-Spanish troubles.—Triple Alliance.—Quadruple Alliance.—Alliance of Hanover. See SPAIN: 1713-1725; also ITALY: 1715-1735; FRANCE: 1717-1710.

1722.—Discovery of Samoan Islands. See SAMOA.

1729-1731.—Treaty of Seville.—Second Treaty of Vienna.—Ostend company abolished. See SPAIN: 1726-1731.

1731-1740.—Question of Austrian Succession.—Guarantee of Pragmatic Sanction. See AUSTRIA: 1718-1738; 1740 (October-November).

1735.—Persecution of Freemasons. See MASONIC SOCIETIES: Anti-masonic agitations.

1740-1741.—Beginning of War of Austrian Succession. See AUSTRIA: 1740-1741.

1743.—War of Austrian Succession.—Dutch subsidies and troops. See AUSTRIA: 1743; 1743-1744.

1745.—War of Austrian Succession.—Battle of Fontenoy.—French conquests. See BELGIUM: 1745.

1746-1747.—Humiliated by France.—Recognition of stadtholder refused.—Defeated at Maestricht. See BELGIUM: 1746-1747.

1747.—Restored stadtholdership.—"When in the spring of 1747 the French troops made ready to penetrate farther into Dutch territory, a terrible panic spread. Whosoever could afford to do so, fled across the Scheldt and escaped to the islands of Walcheren and Beveland. Most of the fugitives went to Middelburg on the island of Walcheren, the capital of Zeeland. Middelburg had been one of the first Dutch cities to throw off the Spanish yoke, and since the disappearance of the Spanish troops its inhabitants had not had opportunity to see what a foreign soldier looked like. They were now thrown into terrible distress by the harrowing stories of their brethren from across the Scheldt. The whole island, one of the richest parts of the whole Republic, saw itself at the mercy of the invading enemy. In Vlissingen and in Veere, the two cities over which the Prince of Orange, in his quality of Marquis of those cities, had always exercised great influence, and which had always been connected with the House of Orange by very affectionate ties, the people assembled in the market-place and caused considerable disorder. Vlissingen was still a prosperous city with a large colonial commerce. Veere was strongly on the decline, and was changing from an important mediæval town into a country village, where to-day the remains of an immense Gothic church, a wonderful town hall, and a few beautiful houses preach a silent lesson of past glory. Curiously enough, it was in Veere, with its thousand and odd inhabitants, that the first outbreak occurred. During the evening of the 24th April of the year 1747 the news of the fall of Aardenburg, the key to the whole of the Republic's part of Flanders, became known. The people flocked to the town hall. Speeches were made. Almost exactly the same thing happened as in the year 1672. There were loud and violent outcries of treachery. The Regents were blamed for everything. The only hope for salvation was seen in the immediate appointment of a stadtholder and commander-general. In the middle of the night the Burgomaster of Veere was visited by an angry multitude. In order to save himself from violence, he was obliged to promise that he would on the morrow advise the Estates of Zeeland to appoint Prince William as Stadtholder. From Veere to Middleburg is only half an hour's walk. The next morning the disorder of Veere had spread to Zeeland capital. The Regents, as always under similar circumstances, were helpless. They had no armed force at their disposal. Within three days the whole of the Province of Zeeland was clamoring for the appointment of William, and on the 28th of April the provincial estates decided to offer the Prince of Orange the dignity of Stadtholder of their province. The first news of this popular uprising reached Holland by way of Rotterdam, which heard of it through

the sailors of the small boats which early each morning brought the fresh vegetables from the Zeeland Islands. No sooner were these small boats, adorned with Orange flags, seen on the Maas, than the crowd along the river broke forth into wild joy. Orange ribbons were produced from somewhere, and soon a procession of much-beribboned people began to move towards the town hall, the final goal of all similar processions. Inside the town hall a number of badly frightened Regents were holding a meeting. Much against their will—for they were defenseless—the burgo-masters were forced to receive a delegation from among the processionists. A baker and a cart-wright were their spokesmen. In very determined words they demanded that the town council should lend its support towards the appointment of Prince William IV as Stadtholder of Holland. The town council could do nothing but acquiesce. Within an hour the Orange flag was floating from the old tower of the Lawrence Church. The rest of the day was spent in celebrations. The taverns did a great business. Exactly the same thing happened in Dordrecht and the Hague and Haarlem and Leyden. Processions formed everywhere; the town council was bullied into submission, and the old flag of the Prince was gloriously hoisted on the highest available church tower. Three days this peaceful revolution lasted. No blood flowed. Only a few very unpopular Regents suffered material damage in the form of broken window-panes. That was all. But on the 3d of May the Estates of Holland offered the Stadtholder of Friesland, Groningen, and Gelderland the dignity of Stadtholder of their own province, and on the next day they appointed him commander-in-chief of the Republic's armies and of the navy. The young Prince saw himself reinstated in all the dignities which had formerly belonged to his great-uncles. His patience was rewarded. Without himself contributing to the final results in any way, he was called to his high office. A deputation from among the Estates of Zeeland crossed the Zuyderzee and arrived in Leeuwarden on the 5th of May. They asked His Highness to proceed at once to their province. On the 10th of May His Highness with his young wife, Anna, daughter of George II of England, proceeded to Holland . . . [and was welcomed in Amsterdam] by the Burgo-master and deputations from all influential commercial and civic bodies of the town. . . . The enthusiasm was immense, and wherever the Prince appeared he was greeted as a returning hero. . . . [The people felt] as of old, the Prince of Orange would protect the country against the foreign enemy, and would put an end to all the many unbearable abuses which had gradually developed while the Regents were in supreme command of the country."—H. W. Van Loon, *Fall of the Dutch republic*, pp. 129-133.

1747-1795.—Last years of republic.—"When the terms at Aix La Chapelle restored their losses to the Dutch and confirmed the stipulations of previous treaties in their favour, it was felt that the Republic was indebted to the exertions of its allies, and not to any strength or successes of its own. It was well for the Republic that she could rest. The days of her greatness had gone by, and the recent struggle had manifested her decline to Europe. . . . The next forty years were years of peace. . . . When war again arrived it was again external circumstances [connected with the war between England and her revolted colonies in America] that compelled the Republic to take up arms. . . . She . . . contemplated, as it was discovered, an alliance with the American insurgents.

The exposure of her designs drew on her a declaration of war from England, which was followed by the temporary loss of many of her colonies both in the East and West Indies. But in Europe the struggle was more equally sustained. The hostile fleets engaged in 1781 off the Dogger Bank; and the Dutch sailors fought with a success that made them claim a victory, and that at least secured them from the consequences of a defeat. The war indeed caused far less injury to the Republic than might have been supposed. . . . When she concluded peace in 1783, the whole of her lost colonies, with the one exception of Negapatam, were restored to her. But the occasion of the war had been made use of by Austria, and a blow had been meanwhile inflicted upon the United Provinces the fatal effect of which was soon to be apparent. The Emperor Joseph II. had long protested against the existence of the Barrier; and he had seized upon the opportunity to undo by an arbitrary act all that the blood and treasure of Europe had been lavished to secure. 'The Emperor will hear no more of barriers,' wrote his minister; 'our connection with France has made them needless;' and the fortresses for which William III. had schemed and Marlborough had fought, were razed to the ground [1782]. Holland, unable at the moment to resist, withdrew her garrisons in silence; and Joseph, emboldened by his success, proceeded to ask for more [1784]. The rectification of the Dutch frontiers, the opening of the Scheldt, and the release for his subjects from the long-enforced restrictions upon their trade did not appear too much to him. But the spirit of the Dutch had not yet left them. They fired at the vessels which dared to attempt to navigate the Scheldt, and war again appeared imminent. The support of France, however, upon which the Emperor had relied, was now given to the Republic, and Joseph recognized that he had gone too far. The Barrier, once destroyed, was not to be restored; but the claims which had been put forward were abandoned upon the payment of money compensation by the States. The feverous age of revolution was now at hand, and party spirit, which had ever divided the United Provinces, and had been quickened by the intercourse and alliance with America during the war, broke out in an insurrection against the Stadtholder [William V.], which drove him from his country, and compelled him to appeal to Prussian troops for his restoration. Almost at the same time, in the Austrian provinces, a Belgic Republic was proclaimed [1787], the result in a great degree of imprudent changes which Joseph II. had enforced. The Dutch returned to their obedience under Prussian threats [and invasion of Holland by an army of 30,000 men—September, 1787], and Belgium under the concessions of Leopold III. But these were the clouds foreshadowing the coming storm, beneath whose fury all Europe was to tremble."—C. F. Johnstone, *Historical abstracts*, ch. 2.

Also in: T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 3, bk. 6, ch. 8.—F. C. Schlosser, *History of the 18th century*, period 4, v. 5, ch. 1, sect. 2, ch. 2, sect. 2.

1748.—Termination and results of the War of the Austrian Succession.—French conquests restored to Austria and Holland. See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 2.

1780.—Member of Armed Neutrality or Neutral League of the North. See ARMED NEUTRALITY.

1782.—Recognition of United States of America. See U.S.A.: 1782 (April).

1792-1793.—Austrian provinces occupied by French revolutionary army.—Determination to annex them to French republic.—Preparations to attack Holland. See FRANCE: 1792 (September-December); 1792-1793 (December-February).

1793 (February-April).—French invasion of Holland.—Defeat at Neerwinden and retreat.—Recovery of Belgian provinces by Austrians. See FRANCE: 1793 (February-April).

1793 (March-December).—Coalition against revolutionary France. See FRANCE: 1793 (March-September); (July-December).

1794.—French conquest of Austrian provinces.—Holland open to invasion. See FRANCE: 1794 (March-July).

1794-1795.—Subjugation and occupation by French.—Overthrow of stadtholdership.—Establishment of Batavian republic in alliance with France. See FRANCE: 1794-1795 (October-May); BATAVIAN REPUBLIC; EUROPE: Map of central Europe: 1797.

1795-1816.—Possession of Java after Treaty of Vienna.—Government of Java. See JAVA: 1795-1816; Government.

1797.—Naval defeat by English in battle of Camperdown. See ENGLAND: 1797.

1799.—English and Russian invasion.—Capture of Dutch fleet.—Ignominious ending of expedition.—Capitulation of the duke of York.—Dissolution of Dutch East India Company. See FRANCE: 1799 (April-September); (September-October).

19th century.—Interests in Borneo. See BORNEO: 1521-1848: Contact with Europeans.

1801.—Revolution instigated and enforced by Bonaparte.—New constitution. See FRANCE: 1801-1803.

1802.—Peace of Amiens.—Recovery of Cape of Good Hope and Dutch Guiana. See FRANCE: 1801-1802.

1802-1824.—Contests with British over Straits Settlements.—Control of Sumatra.—Malacca yielded to British. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement.

1803.—Embargo on Dutch merchant vessels by England. See EMBARGO: Definition.

1803.—Pledged to support France in war against England. See FRANCE: 1802-1804.

1803.—Territory gained by Treaty of Lunéville. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

1806.—Final seizure of Cape colony by English. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1486-1806.

1806-1810.—Commercial blockade by English orders in council and Napoleon's decrees. See FRANCE: 1806-1810.

1806-1810.—Batavian republic transformed into kingdom of Holland.—Louis Bonaparte made king.—His fidelity to the country offensive to Napoleon.—His abdication.—Annexation of Holland to French empire.—“While Bonaparte was the chief of the French republic, he had no objection to the existence of a Batavian republic in the north of France, and he equally tolerated the Cisalpine republic in the south. But after the coronation all the republics, which were grouped like satellites round the grand republic, were converted into kingdoms, subject to the empire, if not avowedly, at least in fact. In this respect there was no difference between the Batavian and Cisalpine republic. The latter having been metamorphosed into the kingdom of Italy, it was necessary to find some pretext for transforming the former into the kingdom of Holland. . . . The Emperor kept up such an extensive agency in Holland that he easily got up a deputation, soliciting him to choose a king for the Batavian republic.

This submissive deputation came to Paris in 1806, to solicit the Emperor, as a favour, to place Prince Louis [Napoleon's brother] on the throne of Holland. . . . Louis became King of Holland much against his inclination, for he opposed the proposition as much as he dared, alleging as an objection the state of his health, to which certainly the climate of Holland was not favourable; but Bonaparte sternly replied to his remonstrance—‘It is better to die a king than live a prince.’ He was then obliged to accept the crown. He went to Holland accompanied by Hortense, who, however, did not stay long there. The new king wanted to make himself beloved by his subjects, and as they were an entirely commercial people, the best way to win their affections was . . . not to adopt Napoleon's rigid laws against commercial intercourse with England. Hence the first coolness between the two brothers, which ended in the abdication of Louis. I know not whether Napoleon recollected the motive assigned by Louis for at first refusing the crown of Holland, namely, the climate of the country, or whether he calculated upon greater submission in another of his brothers; but this is certain, that Joseph was not called from the throne of Naples to the throne of Spain, until after the refusal of Louis. . . . Before finally seizing Holland, Napoleon formed the project of separating from it Brabant and Zealand, in exchange for other provinces, the possession of which was doubtful: but Louis successfully resisted this first act of usurpation. Bonaparte was too intent on the great business in Spain, to risk any commotion in the north, where the declaration of Russia against Sweden already sufficiently occupied him. He therefore did not insist upon, and even affected indifference to the proposed augmentation of the territory of the empire. . . . But when he got his brother Joseph recognized, and when he had himself struck an important blow in the Peninsula, he began to change his tone to Louis. On the 20th of December [1808] he wrote to him a very remarkable letter, which exhibits the unreserved expression of that tyranny which he wished to exercise over all his family in order to make them the instruments of his despotism. He reproached Louis for not following his system of policy, telling him that he had forgotten he was a Frenchman, and that he wished to become a Dutchman. Among other things he said: . . . ‘I have been obliged a second time to prohibit trade with Holland. In this state of things we may consider ourselves really at war. In my speech to the legislative body I manifested my displeasure; for I will not conceal from you, that my intention is to unite Holland with France. This will be the most severe blow I can aim against England, and will deliver me from the perpetual insults which the plotters of your cabinet are constantly directing against me. The mouths of the Rhine, and of the Meuse, ought, indeed, to belong to me. . . . The following are my conditions:—First, the interdiction of all trade and communication with England. Second. The supply of a fleet of fourteen sail of the line, seven frigates and seven brigs or corvettes, armed and manned. Third, an army of 25,000 men. Fourth. The suppression of the rank of Marshals. Fifth. The abolition of all the privileges of nobility, which is contrary to the constitution. Your Majesty may negotiate on these bases with the Duke de Cadore, through the medium of your minister; but be assured, that on the entrance of the first packet-boat into Holland, I will restore my prohibitions, and that the first Dutch officer who may presume to insult my flag, shall be seized and hanged at the main-yard.

Your Majesty will find in me a brother if you prove yourself a Frenchman; but if you forget the sentiments which attach you to our common country, you cannot think it extraordinary that I should lose sight of those which nature has raised between us. In short, the union of Holland and France will be, of all things, most useful to France, Holland and the Continent, because it will be most injurious to England. This union must be effected willingly, or by force.' . . . Here the correspondence between the two brothers was suspended for a time; but Louis still continued exposed to new vexations on the part of Napoleon. About the end of 1809, the Emperor summoned to Paris the sovereigns who might be called his vassals. Among the number was Louis, who, however, did not shew himself very willing to quit his states. He called a council of his ministers, who were of opinion that for the interest of Holland he ought to make this new sacrifice. He did so with resignation. Indeed, every day passed on the throne was a sacrifice to Louis. . . . Amidst the general silence of the servants of the empire, and even of the kings and princes assembled in the capital, he ventured to say:—'I have been deceived by promises which were never intended to be kept. Holland is tired of being the sport of France.' The Emperor who was unused to such language as this, was highly incensed at it. Louis had now no alternative, but to yield to the incessant exactions of Napoleon, or to see Holland united to France. He chose the latter, though not before he had exerted all his feeble power in behalf of the subjects whom Napoleon had consigned to him; but he would not be the accomplice of him who had resolved to make those subjects the victims of his hatred against England. . . . Louis was, however, permitted to return to his states, to contemplate the stagnating effect of the continental blockade on every branch of trade and industry, formerly so active in Holland. Distressed at witnessing evils to which he could apply no remedy, he endeavoured by some prudent remonstrances to avert the utter ruin with which Holland was threatened. On the 23rd of March, 1810, he wrote . . . [a] letter to Napoleon. . . . Written remonstrances were not more to Napoleon's taste than verbal ones at a time when, as I was informed by my friends, whom fortune chained to his destiny, no one presumed to address a word to him, except to answer his questions. . . . His brother's letter highly roused his displeasure. Two months after he received it, being on a journey in the north, he addressed to Louis from Ostend a letter [followed in a few days by another in which latter he said]: . . . 'I want no more phrases and protestations. It is time I should know whether you intend, by your follies, to ruin Holland. I do not choose that you should again send a Minister to Austria, or that you should dismiss the French who are in your service. I have recalled my Ambassador, as I intend only to have a Chargé-d'affaires in Holland. The Sieur Serrurier, who remains there in that capacity, will communicate to you my intentions. My Ambassador shall no longer be exposed to your insults. Write to me no more those set phrases which you have been repeating for the last three years, and the falsehood of which is proved every day. This is the last letter I will ever write to you as long as I live.' . . . Thus reduced to the cruel alternative of crushing Holland with his own hands, or leaving that task to the Emperor, Louis did not hesitate to lay down his sceptre. Having formed this resolution, he addressed a message to the legislative body of the kingdom of Holland,

explaining the motives of his abdication. . . . The French troops entered Holland under the command of the Duke de Reggio; and that Marshal, who was more King than the King himself, threatened to occupy Amsterdam. Louis then descended from his throne [July 1, 1810]. . . . Louis bade farewell to the people of Holland in a proclamation, after the publication of which he repaired to the waters of Toeplitz. There he was living in tranquil retirement, when he learnt that his brother had united Holland to the Empire [December 10, 1810]. He then published a protest. . . . Thus there seemed to be an end of all intercourse between these two brothers, who were so opposite in character and disposition. But Napoleon, who was enraged that Louis should have presumed to protest, and that in energetic terms, against the union of his kingdom with the empire, ordered him to return to France, whither he was summoned in his character of Constable and French Prince. Louis, however, did not think proper to obey this summons, and Napoleon, faithful to his promise of never writing to him again, ordered . . . [a] letter to be addressed to him by M. Otto, . . . Ambassador from France to Vienna, [saying]: 'The Emperor requires that Prince Louis shall return, at the latest, by the 1st of December next, under pain of being considered as disobeying the constitution of the empire and the head of his family and being treated accordingly.'—M. de Bourrienne, *Private memoirs of Napoleon*, v. 4, ch. 2.—See also FRANCE: 1806 (January-October).

ALSO IN: D. A. Bingham, *Marriages of the Bonapartes*, v. 2, ch. 11.—T. C. Grattan, *History of the Netherlands*, ch. 22.

1809.—English Walcheren expedition against Antwerp. See ENGLAND: 1809 (July-December).

1811.—Java taken by English. See INDIA: 1805-1816.

1813.—Expulsion of French.—Independence regained.—Restoration of prince of Orange.—'The universal fermentation produced in Europe by the deliverance of Germany [see GERMANY: 1812-1813, to 1813 (October-December)] was not long of spreading to the Dutch Provinces. The yoke of Napoleon, universally grievous from the enormous pecuniary exactions with which it was attended, and the wasting military conscriptions to which it immediately led, had been in a peculiar manner felt as oppressive in Holland, from the maritime and commercial habits of the people, and the total stoppage of all their sources of industry, which the naval war and long-continued blockade of their coasts had occasioned. They had tasted for nearly twenty years of the last drop of humiliation in the cup of the vanquished—that of being compelled themselves to aid in upholding the system which was exterminating their resources, and to purchase with the blood of their children the ruin of their country. These feelings, which had for years existed in such intensity, as to have rendered revolt inevitable but for the evident hopelessness at all former times of the attempt, could no longer be restrained after the battle of Leipsic had thrown down the colossus of French external power, and the approach of the Allied standards to their frontiers had opened to the people the means of salvation [see GERMANY: 1813 (October); (October-December)]. From the Hansa Towns the flame of independence spread to the nearest cities of the old United Provinces; and the small number of French troops in the country at once encouraged revolt and paved the way for external aid. At this period, the whole troops which Napoleon had in Holland did not exceed 6,000 French, and

two regiments of Germans, upon whose fidelity to their colours little reliance could be placed. Upon the approach of the Allied troops under Bulow, who advanced by the road of Münster, and Winzingerode, who soon followed from the same quarter, the douaniers all withdrew from the coast, the garrison of Amsterdam retired, and the whole disposable force of the country was concentrated at Utrecht, to form a corps of observation, and act according to circumstances. This was the signal for a general revolt. At Amsterdam [Nov. 15], the troops were no sooner gone than the inhabitants rose in insurrection, deposed the Imperial authorities, hoisted the orange flag, and established a provisional government with a view to the restoration of the ancient order of things; yet not violently or with cruelty, but with the calmness and composure which attest the exercise of social rights by a people long habituated to their enjoyment. The same change took place, at the same time and in the same orderly manner, at Rotterdam, Dordrecht, Delft, Leyden, Haarlem, and the other chief towns; the people, everywhere, amidst cries of 'Orange Boven' and universal rapture, mounted the orange cockade, and reinstated the ancient authorities. . . . Military and political consequences of the highest importance immediately followed this uncontrollable outbreak of public enthusiasm. A deputation from Holland waited on the Prince Regent of England and the Prince of Orange, in London: the latter shortly after embarked on board an English line-of-battle ship, the Warrior, and on the 27th landed at Scheveling, from whence he proceeded to the Hague. Meantime the French troops and coast-guards, who had concentrated at Utrecht, seeing that the general effervescence was not as yet supported by any solid military force, and that the people, though they had all hoisted the orange flag, were not aided by any corps of the Allies, recovered from their consternation, and made a general forward movement against Amsterdam. Before they got there, however, a body of 300 Cossacks had reached that capital, where they were received with enthusiastic joy: and this advanced guard was soon after followed by General Benkendorf's brigade, which, after travelling by post from Zwoll to Harderwyk, embarked at the latter place, and, by the aid of a favourable wind, reached Amsterdam on the 1st December. The Russian general immediately advanced against the forts of Mayder and Halfweg, of which he made himself master, taking twenty pieces of cannon and 600 prisoners; while on the eastern frontier, General Oppen, with Bulow's advanced guards, carried Dornbourg by assault on the 23d, and, advancing against Arnheim, threw the garrison, 3,000 strong, which strove to prevent the place being invested, with great loss back into the town. Next day, Bulow himself came up with the main strength of his corps, and, as the ditches were still dry, hazarded an escalade, which proved entirely successful; the greater part of the garrison retiring to Nimeguen, by the bridge of the Rhine. The French troops, finding themselves thus threatened on all sides, withdrew altogether from Holland: the fleet at the Texel hoisted the orange flag, with the exception of Admiral Verhuel, who, with a body of marines that still proved faithful to Napoleon, threw himself with honourable fidelity into the fort of the Texel. Amsterdam, amidst transports of enthusiasm, received the beloved representative of the House of Orange. Before the close of the year, the tricolour flag floated only on Bergen-op-zoom and a few of the southern frontier fortresses; and Europe beheld the prodigy of the seat of war

having been transferred in a single year from the banks of the Niemen to those of the Scheldt."—A. Alison, *History of Europe*, v. 17, ch. 82.

1813-1830.—Union of Austrian Netherlands with United Provinces.—Reign of William I.—Causes of friction.—"After the Treaty of Amiens (1802), a proposal had been entertained by Great Britain and Russia for the union of Austria's Flemish domain with the United Provinces (Holland), which conferred the title 'Sovereign Prince' on William of Nassau upon his return and restoration in 1813. In 1814 Great Britain proposed to the Allies at Chaumont, and the first Treaty of Paris agreed (May 30), that 'Holland, placed under the Sovereignty of the House of Orange, shall receive an increase of Territory.' A secret clause provided, that 'the establishment of a just Balance of Power in Europe requiring that Holland shall be so constituted as to be enabled to support her independence through her own resources,' the Belgian provinces of Austria 'shall be given up for ever to Holland.' [See also BELGIUM: 1797-1815.] In fact, the new kingdom united three areas which had been separate before their conquest by France: (1) the former Austrian Netherlands, (2) the Bishopric of Liège, and (3) the United Provinces of the Netherlands. In July, 1814, William accepted the Eight Articles drawn up by the four Powers to regulate the union. They provided that the enlarged kingdom should adopt the monarchical Constitution formulated in Holland's Fundamental Law (*Grond-wet*) of February, 1814, with the necessary modifications. Religious equality was guaranteed, and adequate representation was promised to the extra-Dutch territory in the Assembly of the States General of the new kingdom, whose sittings were to be held in turn in a Dutch and Belgian town. The Belgians were promised equal commercial and political rights with their fellow subjects, and the public debt of Belgium and Holland was to be pooled. The arrangement in large measure was the work of British diplomacy, and a supplementary Convention of London (August, 1814) between Great Britain and Holland restored to the latter her losses since January 1, 1803, except the Cape of Good Hope and the Guiana region (Essequibo, Berbice, and Demerara). As Holland already (1802) had surrendered Ceylon to Great Britain, the Kingdom of the Netherlands came into existence possessed of the Dutch East Indies, and the islands Curaçao, Oruba, Buen Ayre, Saba, St. Eustatius, St. Martin (with the French) in the Antilles. . . . In March, 1815, William of Nassau assumed the title 'King of the Netherlands and Duke of Luxemburg,' receiving the duchy (excepting the federal fortress of Luxemburg) and membership of the Germanic *Bund* from the Vienna Congress as compensation for Nassau-Dillenburg and his other German territories acquired by Prussia. The second Treaty of Paris (November 20, 1815) added the districts of Philippeville and Marienburg and the Duchy of Bouillon, which were taken from France. But in forming the new kingdom the Allies paid little regard to considerations of race, religion, language, economics, or political tradition, neglect which endangered the union. William, like his Dutch compatriots, despised the Belgians. The latter resented the flippant diplomacy that dealt with their territory as a mere 'increase' of Holland and treated it as a fortuitous 'collection of provinces in which in turn every horse in Europe has stabled.' The Belgian Liberals disliked a Constitution which was essentially aristocratic and autocratic. The Belgian Catholics condemned the religious equality which

THE HOUSE OF ORANGE-NASSAU.

1st GENERATION.

15TH

12TH

11TH

10TH

9TH

8TH

7TH

6TH

5TH

4TH

3D

2D

WILLIAM I.,
(*The Silent*),
France
of Orange,
1533-1584,
married
1. Anne
of Egmont.

Philip William,
died 1618,
married
Eleanor
of Conde.

William,
(*The Rich*),
Count of
Nassau,
died 1559.

MAURICE,
1587-1625.

**FREDERICK
HENRY,**
1625-1647.

WILLIAM II.,
1647-1650,
married
Mary,
(daughter of
Charles I.,
King of
England).

Emilia,
married
William
Frederick.
(See below.)

WILLIAM III.,
(also William III.,
of England),
1672-1702,
married
Mary,
(daughter of
James II.,
King of England.)
(See Genealogical
Table, Sovereigns
of England, under
ENGLAND;
1483-1485.)

John
William
Friso.

WILLIAM I.,
147-1751,
married
Anne
of England.

WILLIAM I.,
King of the
Netherlands,
1815-1840,
married
Frederica
of Prussia.

WILLIAM V.,
1751-1802,
married
Wilhelmina
of Prussia.

WILLIAM II.,
1810-1849,
married
Anne
of Russia.

WILLIAM III.,
1849-1890,
married
1. Sophia
of Württemberg
2. Emma
of Waldeck

WILHELMINA,
1890-
married
Prince Henry
of Mecklenburg-
Schwerin

JULIANA,
b. 1909.

John.

Ernest Casimir,
Count of Dietz.

(See above.)

it guaranteed, and the bishops forbade (1815) their congregations to take the oath to support it. An added grievance was the king's insistence on a philosophic curriculum at the University of Louvain for candidates for the priesthood, and his refusal to allow Catholics to study abroad lest they should come under Jesuit influence. None was the equality of treatment promised to Belgium by the Eight Articles accorded. The Court resided regularly at the Hague. The States General never met out of Holland, and all the important public Departments were housed there. In 1830 the Court of Appeal was settled at the Hague, though about three-quarters of its litigation during the previous ten years came from Belgium. Even the administration of the coal-mines was established in Holland, though the industry was exclusively a Belgian one. In the civil service the same partiality was shown; in 1830 only one of the seven Ministers was a Belgian. In the army (1830) all but 147 of over 2000 officers were Dutch. Probably two-thirds of the Belgians spoke a dialect closely akin to the Dutch, but French for long had been the official language and that of the bar. With a sincere desire to promote a 'national' language, William made knowledge of Dutch a condition of public employment and eventually constituted it the sole language of official intercourse. The union also saddled Belgium with a share of a Public Debt much greater than her own, and the *mouture* (tax on grist or flour) and *abbatage* (tax on meat) affected her particularly. Belgium's population was far larger than that of Holland, but she had the same representation in the States General. While Belgium, a manufacturing and industrial country, demanded protective tariffs, Holland, a trading and commercial community, maintained a system of free exchange. Though the Fundamental Law, adopted after joint conference in 1815, guaranteed the freedom of the Press, Napoleon's invasion of Belgium in 1815 encouraged the government to introduce repressive legislation. The 'Law of Five Hundred Florins' (1816) imposed that sum on offending journalists for a first offence, and imprisonment from one to three years for its repetition."—C. S. Terry, *Short history of Europe*, pp. 153-155. See FRANCE: 1814 (April-June); VIENNA, CONGRESS OF; GERMANY: Map.

1814.—Establishment of Bank of the Netherlands. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1814-1919.

1815.—Control of Luxemburg.—Embraced in Germanic Confederation. See LUXEMBURG: 1780-1914; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

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

1815.—Poor relief. See CHARITIES: Holland.

1815-1845.—Constitution.—"In fulfillment of a promise made his people, King William promulgated, August 24, 1815, a new constitution, drafted by a commission consisting of an equal number of Dutch and Belgian members. The instrument provided for a States-General of two chambers, one consisting of members appointed for life by the crown, the other composed of an equal number (55) of Dutch and Belgian deputies elected by the provincial estates. Bills might be rejected, but might not be originated or amended, by this assembly. The suffrage was severely restricted; trial by jury was guaranteed; the budget was to be voted for a number of years at a time; ministers were declared responsible solely to the king; and, all in all, there was in the new system little enough of liberalism. When the instrument was laid before a Belgian assembly it was overwhelmingly

rejected. None the less it was declared in effect, and it continued the fundamental law of the united dominions of William I, until 1830. . . . The revision of 1840 was forced upon the king by the Liberals, whose position was strengthened by the fiscal chaos into which the nation had fallen under the previous autocratic régime. . . . The reformers got very much less than they demanded. Instead of the ministerial responsibility and the public control of the finances for which they asked they procured only an arrangement to the effect that the budget should be submitted to the States-General every two years and the colonial balance sheet yearly, together with certain changes of detail, including a curtailment of the civil list and a reduction of the membership of the States-General in consequence of the loss of Belgium."—F. A. Ogg, *Governments of Europe*, pp. 519-522.

ALSO IN: G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*.

1825.—Revolt in Java led by Diponegara. See JAVA: 1825-1920.

1828.—Possession of island of New Guinea officially proclaimed. See NEW GUINEA.

1830-1832.—Secession of Belgium. See BELGIUM: 1830-1832.

1839-1842.—Separation of Belgium.—Limburg and Luxemburg.—Treaty of The Hague.—"On April 13, 1839, the Five Powers, Belgium, and Holland signed a group of treaties which conveyed to Holland, Limburg, east of the Meuse, as a sovereign duchy within the Germanic *Bund*, which received it in compensation for the surrender of Western (Belgian) Luxemburg. Only eastern or Dutch Luxemburg remained within the *Bund*; it was neutralized (1867) as a separate State upon the formation of the North-German Confederation, and passed with the Dutch Crown until Queen Wilhelmina's accession in 1890, when the operation of the Salic Law gave it to the male heir. Limburg also, on the dissolution of the *Deutsche Bund*, became an integral part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands. The adjustment of matters relating to the Public Debt, the frontier, and the navigation of the Scheldt and Meuse was concluded between Holland and Belgium in 1842 (Treaty of the Hague)."—C. S. Terry, *Short history of Europe*, p. 159.

ALSO IN: A. H. L. Heeren, *Manual of history of political history of Europe and its colonies*, v. 2, pp. 416-418.

1840-1849.—Abdication of William I.—Reign of William II.—Amendment to constitution.—The stubborn attitude of William I in the Belgian question, had caused great discontent. The king lost the vestige of his popularity by marrying a Catholic Belgian countess, Henriette d'Outremont. He abdicated at Het Loo, October 7, 1840. His son William II began his reign under great financial difficulties. A voluntary loan of 127 million guilders at 3 per cent. closed in a very short time. The constitution of 1840 proved unsatisfactory. A "concept of revision" was introduced in the second chamber, March 8, 1848. Under the impression, made by the February revolution in France, the king decided on a more liberal revision than proposed in this "concept." A committee of five, composed of Donker Curtius, Luzac, Thorbecke, De Kampenaer and Storm brought in a new "concept," which was adopted in an extraordinary session of the states-general, and promulgated on November 3, 1848. "The revision of 1848 introduced into the Dutch constitutional system many fundamental changes. Instead of being appointed by the crown, members of the upper branch of the States-General were thereafter to be elected by the

provincial estates; and in the choice of members of the lower house, direct popular elections were substituted for indirect. The ministers of the king were made responsible to the States-General, and the powers of the legislative body were otherwise increased through the extension of its authority over colonial affairs, provision for a regular annual budget, and, most of all, recognition of the right to initiate and to amend projects of legislation. Constitutional government in Holland may be said virtually to have had its beginning in 1848."—F. A. Ogg, *Governments of Europe*, p. 522.—The king died at Tilburg, March 17, 1849, and his son was inaugurated as William III on May 12 at Amsterdam.

1848-1921.—**Suffrage movement.** See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Netherlands: 1848-1921.

1849-1890.—**Reign of William III.**—The reign of William III began under the most fortunate circumstances. An improvement of the finances and various organic laws, carrying out the provisions of the constitution of 1848 were the fruits of the first Donker-Curtius Cabinet and its successor, that of the liberal statesman and economist Thorbecke. An electoral law, provincial and communal laws, navigation laws and a law establishing a telegraph system were enacted. (See TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES: 1847-1852.) "The Catholics for the first time obtained in 1849 the full privileges of citizenship. They owed this to the liberals, and for some years they gave their support to that party. . . . The anti-revolutionaries placed in the foreground the upholding of the Reformed (orthodox Calvinistic) faith in the State, and of religious teaching in the schools. . . . [The] liberal majority in the newly elected States-General was considerable. . . . The king, however, suspected the aims of [Thorbecke] the liberal leader, and personally disliked him, . . . but, after a vain struggle against the hostile majority, . . . [the Donker-Curtius cabinet] was compelled to resign, and Thorbecke was called upon to form a ministry. Thorbecke was thus the first constitutional prime-minister of Holland. . . . A law was passed which added 55,000 votes to the electorate; and by two other laws the provincial and communal assemblies were placed upon a popular representative basis. The system of finance was reformed by the gradual substitution of direct for indirect taxation."—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*, pp. 411-412.—"The antiquated state of things in which Old Dutch, French imperial, and post-revolutionary Dutch arrangements struggled for the mastery, was superseded by a system instinct with the modern spirit. Trade soon felt the benefit of the new impulse. The navigation laws fell in 1850, [tolls on through cargoes on the rivers were abolished] and improvements were rapidly made in taxation and the tariff; railways were pushed forward, a geological survey of the whole country was made, and the judicial system was reorganised. [In 1852 the empoldering of the Haarlem lake was completed. (See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Meaning of reclamation.)]"—M. E. Grant-Duff, *Studies in European politics*, pp. 296-297.—The dissolution of the German League in 1866 dragged the Netherlands into international complications. William III as duke of Luxemburg and Limburg had remained neutral in the Prussian-Austrian war and refused to join the newly formed North German League. While recognition of his new status was postponed by Prussia, Napoleon III attempted to buy Luxemburg. William III was willing to sell the duchy, but Prussia opposed this most vigorously. War was avoided between Prussia and France by the stipulations of the Treaty of London.

Luxemburg became an independent duchy and Limburg a province of the Netherlands. "For a quarter of a century the colonial system notably in Java and Madura, had been disturbed by a troublesome and costly war which the Dutch had to carry on with the Achinese of Western Sumatra. The war began in 1872, the year after Holland acquired England's rights in the island."—C. Mc L. Andrews, *Contemporary Europe, Asia and Africa (History of all nations, v. 20, pp. 309-310)*.—This costly war, created a deficit in the budget of 1877, caused another division in the liberal ranks, and brought about the downfall of the Kappeyne ministry. Van Lynden, Kappeyne's successor, had a difficult task in which he succeeded admirably and was able to carry his government through four difficult years. This period included the revolt in the Transvaal against British rule, during which in spite of the openly expressed sympathy felt in Holland for the Boers, he maintained cordial rela-



WILLIAM III

tions with Great Britain. "In 1877 Queen Sophie died. . . . The king's brother, Henry, for thirty years Stadholder of Luxemburg, died childless early in 1879; and shortly afterwards in June the Prince of Orange, who had never married, passed away suddenly at Paris. The two sons of William III's uncle Frederick predeceased their father, whose death took place in 1881. Alexander, the younger son of the king, [who] was sickly and feeble-minded . . . [died] in 1884, [and of] the male line of the House of Orange-Nassau . . . [only the king was left]. Foreseeing . . . [the possibility of the extinction of his house] in January, 1879, the already aged king took in second wedlock the youthful Princess Emma of Waldeck-Pyrmont. Great was the joy of the Dutch people, when, on August 31, 1880, she gave birth to a princess, Wilhelmina, who became from this time forth the hope of a dynasty, whose history for three centuries had been bound up with that of the nation. . . . The death of Prince Alexander and the king's growing infirmities made it necessary to provide, by a bill passed on August 2, 1884, that Queen Emma should become regent

during her daughter's minority."—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*, p. 421.

1853.—April movement.—"In 1853 a storm suddenly gathered in a clear sky. The Vatican . . . converted Holland, which [from the sixteenth century] had been . . . a mission, into a country regularly provided with an episcopate. This it had, no doubt, a perfect right to do, for in modern Holland the state has nothing to say to the internal arrangements of the various churches which it recognizes and pays. It was not surprising, however, that a people whose history was so deeply coloured by hatred of Rome should have taken alarm at such an exercise of power, and there was nothing about the manner of the proceeding to make the matter of it more palatable. [Utrecht was erected into an archbishopric, Haarlem, Breda, Hertogenbosch, and Roremonde were made bishoprics.] The ministry itself, while it could not take exception to what had been done, was justly provoked by the way in which it was done. [The prime minister] M. Thorbecke, however, did not think himself justified in throwing himself into the first ranks of the agitation against this papal aggression. The tide, nevertheless, of popular feeling was too strong for him, and, deserted by the king, he and several of his colleagues left the cabinet. The issue of this agitation—the April movement, as it was called—was a bill regulating the relations of the state and the religious communities, which obtained the support of the more moderate Liberals, and the storm passed by without doing any serious damage to the free institutions of Holland."—M. E. Grant-Duff, *Studies in European politics*, pp. 296-297.—"At the meeting of the Second Chamber of the States-General on April 12, Thorbecke had little difficulty in convincing the majority that the Pope had proceeded without consultation with the ministry, and that under the Constitution the Catholics had acted within their rights in remodelling their Church organisation. But his arguments were far from satisfying outside public opinion. On the occasion of a visit of the king to Amsterdam the ministry took the step of advising him not to receive any address hostile to the establishment of the hierarchy, on the ground that this did not require the royal approval. William, who had never been friendly to Thorbecke, was annoyed at being thus instructed in the discharge of his duties; and he not only received an address containing 51,000 signatures but expressed his great pleasure in being thus approached (April 15). At the same time he summoned Van Hall, the leader of the opposition, to Amsterdam for a private consultation. The ministry, on hearing of what had taken place, sent in its resignation, which was accepted on April 19. Thus fell the Thorbecke ministry, not by a parliamentary defeat, but because the king associated himself with the uprising of hostile public opinion, known as the 'April Movement.'"—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*, p. 413.

1853-1867.—Political developments.—Economic and educational progress.—Three parties were dominant during this period: the Conservatives, the Liberals and the Anti-Revolutionaries, the last named under leadership of the famous historian and statesman Groen van Prinsterer. The pendulum of political power swung frequently from the Conservatives, or Anti-Revolutionaries to the Liberals. "The four chief interests, . . . the subject of debate and party division, were schools, colonies, the army, and the franchise. Parties in the Netherlands were formed more or less on these issues: the Roman Catholics desired compulsory education in their interest; one branch of the Lib-

erals urged Calvinistic education, the other a strictly non-sectarian education. A law of 1857, which required that every commune should maintain non-sectarian public schools, led to the establishment of large numbers of private schools by both Roman Catholics and Calvinists."—C. McL. Andrews, *Contemporary Europe, Asia and Africa (History of all nations, v. 20, pp. 309-310)*.—In 1860 slavery was abolished in the East Indies. In 1862 a national militia was organized. "With the advent of Fransen van de Putte, as colonial minister in 1863, began a series of far-reaching reforms in the East Indies, including the lowering of the differential duties. His views, however, concerning the scandal of the cultivation-system in Java did not meet with the approval of some of his colleagues; and Thorbecke himself supported the dissentients. The ministry resigned, and Van de Putte became head of the government. He held office for four months only. His bill for the abolition of the cultivation-system and the conversion of the native cultivators into possessors of their farms was thrown out by a small majority, Thorbecke with a few liberals and some Catholics voting with the conservatives against it. This was the beginning of a definite liberal split, which was to continue for years."—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*, pp. 416, 420.—Secondary education was reorganized in the year 1863 and various technical and agricultural schools were established. Medical legislation was enacted. The building of railways was encouraged by Minister Van Hall and the railway network was considerably enlarged by using the profits from the East Indian administration. In 1864 credits were opened for the digging of the canals from Rotterdam and Amsterdam to the sea.

1857-1868.—Commercial treaty with Japan.—Shimonoseki affair. See JAPAN: 1857-1862; 1863-1868.

1867-1870.—Germany's opposition to cession of Luxemburg to France by king of Holland.—Luxemburg made independent state. See GERMANY: 1866-1870.

1867-1887.—Political developments.—Economic and educational progress.—The abolition of the death penalty took place in 1870 and an important agrarian law for Java was enacted. The postal service was reorganized. (See POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS: 1881.) The Franco-Prussian war revealed, during the maintenance of Dutch neutrality, the weakness of the Dutch army. The third cabinet of Thorbecke reorganized the defense of the country. Thorbecke died June 4, 1872. After the death of his opponent Groen Van Prinsterer in 1876, the leadership of the Anti-Revolutionary party was assumed by Dr. Abraham Kuyper. "The elections of 1877 strengthened the liberals; and, an amendment to the speech from the throne being carried [the ministry resigned, and a new ministry was formed by] . . . Joannes Kappcyne, leader of the progressive liberals. A new department of State was now created, that of Waterways and Commerce, whose duties in a country like Holland, covered with a net-work of dykes and canals, were of great importance. A measure which denied State support to the 'private' schools was bitterly resisted by the anti-revolutionaries and the Catholics, whose union in defence of religious education was from this time forward to become closer."—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*, p. 420.—Under the Conservative second cabinet of Van Heemskerck important judicial reforms were accomplished. Five new provincial courts were established. A new law regulating higher education was enacted in 1876 and an important law regulating primary education in 1878. The last named allowed subsidies for re-

ligious schools, but never satisfied the Anti-Revolutionaries. A new criminal code was substituted for the Napoleonic "Code Pénal." The "New Waterway" from Rotterdam to the sea was opened in 1871 and the "North Sea Canal," connecting Amsterdam with the sea in 1876. (See CANALS: Principal European canals: Holland.) An enlargement of the government railway net was begun. The first important piece of social legislation was the child labor law of 1874 on initiative of Samuel van Houten. From 1883 until 1885 Van Heemskerck and his councillors were engaged on a revision of the constitution. See NETHERLANDS, CONSTITUTION OF.

1873-1881.—Gold standard adopted for international exchange.—Attitude at international conference on bimetalism standard. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1867-1893.

1883.—Queensland takes possession of New Guinea. See NEW GUINEA.

1887-1890.—Last years of reign of William III.—"The demand for an extension of the franchise, which had first made itself heard in 1872, was not granted until 1887, when, after a six years' struggle, the States-General voted for revision of the existing electoral system. This important reform extended the right to vote from 130,000 electors to 200,000, for it granted the privilege to all male citizens who paid 10 guilders taxes on real property or a personal tax on property beyond the amount that was partially exempt. [The elections of 1888 brought the Anti-Revolutionaries in power and the first socialist, F. Domela Nieuwenhuis, in the Second Chamber. Under the minister of the interior, De Savornin Lohman in 1889 a new law on primary education was enacted. With coöperation of the Liberals this law contained clauses, granting government subsidies to religious schools. A law against excessive labor by women and children was also enacted.] On the king's death on November 23, 1890, the succession passed to Wilhelmina, his daughter by his second marriage, . . . who occupied the throne under the tutelage of her mother, Emma of Waldeck. With William, the male branch of the house of Orange became extinct; and immediately a separation took place between Holland and Luxemburg, the latter of which, under the Salic law, fell to Duke Adolphus of Nassau."—C. McL. Andrews, *Contemporary Europe, Asia and Africa (History of all nations, v. 20, p. 310)*.

1890-1898.—Regency of Queen Emma.—The elections of 1891 were won by the Liberals. A series of taxation laws were enacted under the minister N. G. Pierson. A revision of the electoral franchise was defeated in the Second Chamber. (Tak van Poortvliet). "A new administration . . . came into office (May, 1894) under the presidency of Jonkheer Johan Roëll with Van Houten as minister of the interior. On Van Houten's shoulders fell the task of preparing a new electoral law. His proposals were finally approved in 1896. Before this took place the minister of finance, Spenger van Eyk, had succeeded in relieving the treasury by the conversion of the public debt from a 3½ to a 3 per cent. security."—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland, p. 429*.—"The organization of the army, which retained the old system of enlistment for a term of years with drafting by lot, was for years hotly discussed. Many efforts had been made to introduce the continental system of universal personal and obligatory service, but without success, and a bill to that effect was defeated by the Clericals in 1893. In 1898, however, the matter was made an issue in the elections, and a bill providing for the reorganization of the army was finally passed in the summer of that year, containing a

special clause exempting from military service ministers of religion."—C. McL. Andrews, *Contemporary Europe, Asia and Africa (History of all nations, v. 20, pp. 310-311)*.

1890-1920.—Housing problem. See HOUSING: Holland.

1894-1901.—Accident insurance.—Social insurance.—Workmen's compensation. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Holland: 1894-1901.

1896.—Electoral Reform Act.—"The Van Houten reform of the franchise was very complicated, as there were six different categories of persons entitled to exercise the suffrage: (1) payers of at least one guilder in direct taxation; (2) householders or lodgers paying a certain minimum rent and having a residential qualification; (3) proprietors or hirers of vessels of 24 tons at least; (4) earners of a certain specified wage or salary; (5) investors of 100 guilders in the public funds or of 50 guilders in a savings bank; (6) persons holding certain education diplomas. This very wide and comprehensive franchise raised the number of electors to about 700,000."—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland, p. 424*.—"The upper House of the States-General (the parliament keeps that ancient name) is chosen by the local legislatures of the various provinces for nine years, one third going out each third year. This plan of partial renewals of a branch of the legislature has been adopted in many countries, as in the Senate of the United States, but it seems to have originated in Holland some centuries ago. The House of Representatives (lower House of the States-General) is elected directly by the people. . . . [By the law of 1896] about three fourths of the adult men . . . [received] votes,—nearly all except paupers, vagabonds, and unmarried sons in poor families. The monarchy has been of the Prussian rather than the English type, until recently; but during the long minority of the girl-queen the ministries began to be truly 'responsible' to the Representatives."—W. M. West, *Story of modern progress, p. 539*.

1897.—First election under new franchise law.—The first election in Holland under the new franchise law, held June 15-25, 1897, returned to the Chamber forty-seven Liberals, twenty-two Catholics, twenty-two Protestant Anti-Revolutionists, four Radicals, one deputy, styled an Historic Christian, and four Socialists, among whom was the now famous leader, Pieter Jelles Troelstra. The new cabinet of Pierson and Goeman Borgesius (1897-1901) enacted many important social laws: personal military service act; compulsory education; housing act; accident insurance; child laws. Improvements in the condition of army and navy were introduced.

1898-1902.—Sugar conferences at Brussels. See SUGAR BOUNTIES.

1898-1903.—Enthronement of Queen Wilhelmina.—Elections of 1901.—Marriage of Queen Wilhelmina.—Threatened general strike.—War in Achin.—Queen Wilhelmina, who succeeded to the crown on the death of her father, William III, in 1890, reached the age of eighteen on August 31, 1898, and received the reins of government from her mother, Queen Emma, who had acted as regent until that time. The young queen was enthroned September 6 in the New Church at Amsterdam, where she delivered, with a simplicity and fervor which impressed those present, her address to the states-general and took her oath of allegiance to the constitution. "I am happy and thankful," the queen said, "to rule over the people of the Netherlands, who, although small in numbers, are great in virtue and strong by nature and character.

I esteem it a great privilege that it is my life's task and duty to dedicate all my powers to the prosperity and interests of my dear fatherland; and I adopt the words of my beloved father,—'Yes, Orange can never do enough for the Netherlands.'" After the queen and the queen-mother, the most striking figures at the ceremony were the princes from the Dutch Indies. "Queen Wilhelmina attained her majority (August 31, 1898) amidst public enthusiasm. At the same time the Queen-Mother received many expressions of high appreciation for the admirable manner in which for eight years she had discharged her constitutional duties. The measures passed by . . . [the liberal administration then in power] dealt with many subjects of importance. Personal military service was at last, after years of controversy, enforced by law, ecclesiastics and students alone being excepted. Attendance at school up to the age of 13 was made obligatory [in 1900], and the subsidies for the upkeep of the schools and the payment of teachers were substantially increased. . . . [October 10, 1899] a war broke out, in which the Dutch people felt a great and sympathetic interest, between the two Boer republics of South Africa and Great Britain. Bitter feelings were aroused, and the queen did but reflect the national sentiment when she personally received in the most friendly manner President Krüger, who arrived in Holland as a fugitive on board a Dutch man-of-war in the summer of 1900. The official attitude of the government was, however, perfectly correct, and there was never any breach in the relations between Great Britain and the Netherlands. The marriage of Queen Wilhelmina, on February 7, 1901, with Prince Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin was welcomed by the people, as affording hopes . . . of the birth of an heir to the throne. The elections of 1901 found the liberal ministry out of favour through the laws enforcing military service and obligatory attendance at school. Against them the indefatigable Dr. Kuyper, who had returned to active politics in 1897, had succeeded in uniting the three 'Church' groups—the democratic anti-revolutionaries, the aristocratic Historical Christians (both orthodox Calvinists) and the Catholics of all sections—into a 'Christian Coalition' in support of religious teaching in the schools. The victory lay with the coalition, and Dr. Kuyper became first minister. The new administration introduced a measure on Higher Education, which was rejected by the First Chamber. A dissolution of this Chamber led to the majority being reversed, and the measure was passed. Another measure revised the Mackay Law and conferred a larger subsidy on 'private' schools. The socialist party under the able leadership of Troelstra had won several seats at the election; and in 1903 a general strike was threatened unless the government concede the demands of the socialist labour party. The threat was met with firmness; an anti-strike law was quickly passed; the military was called out; and the strike collapsed. The costly war in Achin, which had been smouldering for some years, burst out again with violence in the years 1902-3. [See below: 1904.]"—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*, pp. 426-427.

1898-1912.—**Army reform.—Compulsory military service.** See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1898-1913.

1899.—**Represented at Hague peace conference.** See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: First international conference; Conference.

1899 (May-August).—**Advice to President Krüger of South African Republic.** See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899.

1902.—**Offer of mediation between Great Britain and Boers.** See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1901-1902.

1903.—**Agreement for settlement of claims against Venezuela.** See VENEZUELA: 1902-1904.

1904.—**Military operations against Achin.**—A Dutch military expedition against the long insurgent natives of the old Sultanate of Achin, in Sumatra, which was said to have carried death to a thousand women and children, gave rise to stormy scenes in the Netherlands when its session was opened in September. The excuse of the government was that the warriors used the women and children as shields.

1905-1914.—**Defeat of "Christian" coalition.—Social reform legislation.—Closing of Scheldt at outbreak of World War.**—"The quadrennial elections of 1905 found all the liberal groups united in a combined assault upon the Christian Coalition. A severe electoral struggle ensued, with the result that 45 liberals and 7 socialists were returned against 48 coalitionists. Dr. Kuyper resigned; and a new ministry, under the leadership of the moderate liberal [Theodore H.] De Meester, took its place. The De Meester government was however dependent upon the socialist vote, and possessed no independent majority in either Chamber. For the first time a ministry of agriculture, industry and trade was created. Such an administration could only lead a precarious existence, and in 1907 an adverse vote upon the military estimates led to its resignation [in 1908]. Th. Heemskerck undertook the task of forming a new cabinet from the anti-revolutionary and Catholic groups, and at the next general election of 1909 he won a conclusive victory at the polls. This victory was obtained by wholesale promises of social reforms, including old age pensions and poor and sick relief. As so often happens, such a program could not be carried into effect without heavy expenditure; and the means were not forthcoming. To meet the demand a bill was introduced in August, 1911, by the finance minister, Dr. Kolkman, to increase considerably the existing duties, and to extend largely the list of dutiable imports. This bill led to a widespread agitation in the country, and many petitions were presented against it, with the result that it was withdrawn. . . . [In 1900, the birth of the Princess Juliana, the only child of the queen, ensured the succession, to the joy of the great majority of the people.] The election of 1913 reversed the verdict of 1909. Probably in no country has the principle of the 'swing of the pendulum' been so systematically verified as it has in Holland in recent times. The returns were in 1913: church parties, 41; liberals of all groups, 39; socialists, 15. The most striking change was the increase in the socialist vote, their representation being more than doubled; and, as in 1905, they held the balance of parties in their hands. [The queen asked Dr. Bos to form a cabinet; he failed through the refusal of the Socialists to take part in its formation. Cort van der Linden then formed an "extra-parliamentary" cabinet. This cabinet had on its program the final solution of the school subsidy issue and revision of the constitution.] With some difficulty Dr. Cort van der Linden succeeded in forming a liberal ministry. The outbreak of the Great War in August, 1914, prevented them from turning their attention to any other matters than those arising from the maintenance of a strict neutrality in a conflict which placed them in a most difficult and dangerous position. One of the first questions on which they had to take a critical decision was the closing of the Scheldt. As soon as Great Britain declared war on Germany (August 4), Holland refused to allow any

belligerent vessels to pass over its territorial waters."—G. Edmundson, *History of Holland*, pp. 427-428.

1907.—Second Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

1907-1909.—Relations with Venezuela. See VENEZUELA: 1907-1909.

1908.—Treaty with England, Denmark, France, Germany and Sweden, maintaining status quo on North sea.—Present at Maritime conference in London. See NORTH SEA: 1908; LONDON, DECLARATION OF.

1909.—Represented at International Opium Commission. See OPIUM PROBLEM: 1909 (February): International opium commission.

1909.—Dutch Guiana boundary settled with Brazil. See BRAZIL: 1909.

1910-1919.—Statistics for trade unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1914.—In Pan-German League. See PAN-GERMANISM: Pan-German League and its branches.

1914-1918.—German propaganda. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship: d, 1.

1914-1918.—During World War.—When the World War broke out emergency measures took preference over social legislation. The army was mobilized in less than a day in order to enforce neutrality. In December, 1914, a loan of \$100,000,000 was floated to carry the military burdens. The loan was oversubscribed nearly 100 per cent. in January, 1915. On January 4, 1915, the Netherlands Overseas Trust company was organized to take over from the government the responsibility for all shipments to the Netherlands. Late in November a new taxation bill was introduced making the total taxation \$105,000,000 or \$21 per capita. Throughout the year the Netherlands was in constant trouble with the Allies or Germany with regard to violation of its territory, or hindrance to its shipping. In fact, a crisis was averted, several times, only by the diplomatic ability of Loudon, the minister of foreign affairs. About 1,200,000 Belgian refugees fled to the Netherlands, from the occupied territory, during 1914-1915, and were hospitably welcomed, and well cared for. During the next two years the majority returned to their homes. But, nevertheless a large number remained until after the armistice. In 1916, the strain on Dutch neutrality was severe. The Dutch were aroused by the torpedoing of the *Tubantia* (March 16), and *Palembang* (March 18), by the Germans, and on the other hand, restriction of trade by the British orders in council was strongly resented. (See WORLD WAR: 1914: XII. Neutral nations.)

Cort van der Linden had been enabled to form his ministry by undertaking to adopt social legislation and electoral reform from the programs of the Socialist and Liberal parties, which between them formed a majority, and thus obtained the name "extra-parliamentary," by which the ministry was known. In accordance with this agreement, on November 15, by a unanimous vote of the States General, a constitutional amendment, providing for universal suffrage was passed. The Lower House on November 17, voted to make women eligible to membership in the States-General. In November, under the influence of the German, Austrian and Hungarian revolutions, serious riots broke out and it looked as if the Netherlands might turn again to a republican form of government. Troelstra declared in the Second Chamber, that the time had come for the working class to assume control of the government, and large counter-demonstrations were organized by the Conservative parties and trade unions. The failure, however, of Troelstra's

revolutionary movement had become plain by the beginning of 1919. (See below: 1919-1921.) In November 1918 Emperor William II of Germany fled to the Netherlands. Diplomatic notes were exchanged during 1918 and 1919, with the Allied governments, who demanded extradition but the Netherlands maintained the right of political asylum to be paramount. In June 1918 elections took place for the first time under the new electoral Act. The Liberals of all shades lost heavily, the extreme Conservatives and Radicals gained. The Catholics had become the strongest party and the Catholic leader, Dr. Nolens, was requested by the queen to form a cabinet. On the ground, however, that his position as a priest precluded him from leadership in the government, Dr. Nolens declined, and after some delay Jhr. Ruys de Beerenbrouck was appointed on September 9, 1918, and succeeded in forming a cabinet. The program of this cabinet comprised: changes in the primary education law; revision of the constitution; the establishment of a supreme court of labor; the eight hour day; a law regulating the collective labor contract; drastic revision of the law on health and medical care; laws combating the housing shortage; the Primary Education Act provided for by the constitutional amendment of 1916, and old age pensions.

1914-1922.—Economic effect of World War.—Relations with belligerents.—Commercial difficulties.—Financial effects of war.—"Before the war the prosperity of Holland was based on the transit trade which passed through Rotterdam, on the colonial trade with the Dutch East Indies, and on her exports of agricultural produce. The transit trade, being chiefly German trade, came suddenly to an end on the outbreak of war. The colonial trade was slower to decline, but in the year 1918 it had fallen to negligible dimensions. These two blows were fatal to the prosperity of Rotterdam; even in 1917 the traffic of the port was only 10 per cent. of the total of 1913. There remained only the export trade in agricultural produce and in a few native manufactures (such as margarine) to which the war had given a temporary stimulus. Depending upon both groups of belligerents for necessary supplies and facilities—on the Associated Powers for cereals, fodder-stuffs, and fertilizers, on Germany for coal, iron, and potash—Holland was obliged to divide between them her surplus of agricultural produce in agreed proportions, and to allow her importers to give the most stringent undertakings and guarantees that the goods which they received from one group would not be used for the advantage of the other. Thanks to this policy of balance and exchange, the country managed to maintain its more important industries (apart from those dependent on the transit trade) at a tolerable level until the United States entered the war in 1917. But she was then confronted, like the other northern neutrals, with the demand that she should drastically reduce her exports to Germany, on pain of being deprived of all shipping facilities and of practically all the supplies controlled by the Associated Powers. Against this pressure Holland held out until the Armistice was signed. . . . One consequence of the line taken by the Dutch Government was that practically no grain was imported into Holland during 1918, and that the national food-supply remained throughout the year in a precarious position. Bread cards had been instituted in February 1917 on the basis of a normal weekly ration of 2,800 grm. per head per week. But this relatively generous allowance was soon reduced, and by the end of the year the standard ration of

2,800 grm. had to suffice for eleven days. . . . At the end of March [1918], as the hope of a compromise with the Associated Powers seemed more remote than ever, the ration was reduced to 1,400 grm. a week, in the hope that existing stocks would thus be made to last until the new harvest. The farmers and the peasants, who numbered 60 per cent. of the population, were able for the most part to ensure their own supplies of foodstuffs in defiance of rationing and requisitioning orders; and, although the Government was obliged, after the spring of 1918, to prohibit exports of food to Germany, the loss of the German market was to some extent balanced by the high prices obtained from the Dutch consumer. . . . In spite of the inducements given to farmers to extend the arable area [owing to lack of fertilizers], the yield of the chief crops was below the average; and the shortage of [imported] fodderstuffs led to wholesale slaughtering of dairy cattle in the autumn of 1917. Another consequence was enforced idleness of those national industries which depended upon foreign raw materials. The margarine trade . . . collapsed sharply because Great Britain was no longer dependent on it; and no supplies were forthcoming from other sources. [By 1918 most of] the cotton-spinning mills, which employed about 26,000 hands, . . . had closed for want of raw cotton. The cotton-weavers were similarly brought to a standstill because England would no longer supply them with her yarns, of which they had been accustomed to consume 40,000 tons per annum. The shipping yards appeared to be exceptionally fortunate, in that their iron and steel could be obtained from Germany. But in 1917 and 1918 the conditions which Germany attached to deliveries of iron and steel were so severe, and the prices exacted were so high, that many shipbuilders preferred to wait until British materials should be available. The systematic fashion in which Germany exploited the necessities of Holland was for the Dutch a most galling feature of the situation. . . . Up to the end of March 1918 it was the German practice, besides charging heavy prices for coal, to claim extensive 'compensation' in the form of licenses to export from Holland fixed quantities of . . . [foodstuffs]. After March the Dutch Government could no longer undertake to permit these exports on the old scale, and Germany recognized that a renewal of the old agreement was impracticable. None the less she prolonged the negotiations for a new coal agreement up to the end of July, and in those four months suspended her deliveries of coal. . . . These commercial arrangements with Germany were a confession of Holland's economic weakness and threw a heavy strain upon her industries. It is, however, probable that patriotic Dutchmen realized more acutely their country's military and political weakness when England and the United States combined, in March 1918, to requisition the whole of the Dutch shipping which lay in their respective ports. This step, justified by an appeal to the belligerent right of *angary*, was taken by the English and American Governments after the Dutch Government had deliberately refused to approve a chartering arrangement with the owners. . . . But the Dutch Cabinet argued, with some reason, that more respect was shown for the rights of the individual shipowners than for the sovereign rights of Holland. There was another aspect of the question which was forcibly stated by the American Government in a published dispatch. For the past twelve months Great Britain [1917-1918] and the United States had seen large numbers of Dutch vessels lying idle in their ports

at a time when every ton of shipping was urgently required; and it had become apparent that these vessels would not be employed without compulsion in any services that the Associated Powers could facilitate. . . . With this point of view the States-General were disposed to agree, especially when the Associated Powers offered Holland 100,000 tons of grain as a solatium. But the Dutch Cabinet felt the humiliation deeply. [Eighty-seven Dutch vessels, 980,000 tons, were seized by the United States government alone.] . . . For Holland the economic situation was materially eased by the Armistice. Late in November an agreement was concluded under which the Associated Powers undertook to facilitate, within fixed limits, Dutch imports of wheat and rice, oils and fats, fertilizers, and maize for a period of twelve months. But, as a matter of course, this undertaking was accompanied by severe restrictions on Dutch exports to Germany, to be maintained until the conclusion of peace. And it was difficult after the Armistice to obtain any coal from Germany. In November only 44,000 tons reached Holland out of the 120,000 which were due; and at the end of the month the German Government signified that they were unable to make further deliveries for the present. England promised to supply 60,000 tons as a stop-gap, but could not fulfil her promise as promptly as the situation required. It seemed for a time as though Holland would be forced to depend entirely on her own coal-mines, which produced only about 50 per cent. of her normal requirements. Matters improved in January 1919 with the resumption, on a small scale, of the German deliveries, and the prospect of larger supplies from Belgium. But before Holland's supplies of coal—and of a hundred other necessary articles—could be assured it was necessary that conditions of order and peaceful industry should be restored in neighbouring countries. On the political settlement at Paris would depend the future of her colonial trade and of her agriculture, the two most solid of her assets."—*History of the peace conference of Paris* (H. W. V. Temperley, ed., v. 1, pp. 148-152).—"The losses [of Dutch investments] in Russia and Austria alone may be estimated at a billion florins. Moreover, the losses suffered through the falling foreign exchanges, especially marks and kronen, cannot be much less than another billion. . . . Despite the wartime profits, the war . . . inflicted a heavy loss on the people as a whole. This is seen the more plainly in the increase of the national debt due to the war expenditure, . . . from an economic point of view, . . . a squandering of the national fortune. The total of this expenditure amounts to 2,275,000,000 florins, . . . about a billion of which was covered by increased taxation and by sums received from various sources in connection with the war crisis, the remaining 1,275,000,000 florins, or about 57 per cent., being obtained through loans. The interest and amortization payments on these loans amount to 80,000,000 florins per annum, . . . obtained by special taxation, appropriated for this purpose, and by percentages added to some of the existing taxes. Under the Acts authorizing the loans the amortization is so fixed as to extinguish the debt entirely in 1960; 480 millions, or one-third of the total, is to be paid off by 1943. Apart from this expenditure on interest and amortization of war-time loans, the ordinary expenditure of the State had risen in 1918 to 333,400,000 florins, or nearly 70 per cent above that of 1913. The ordinary revenues amounted in 1918 to 329,100,000 florins, or fully 60 per cent above 1913. The deficit on the ordinary Budget thus amounted

in 1918 to 4,300,000 florins, as compared with a surplus of 8,100,000 florins in 1913. The increase both in expenditure and revenue in the ordinary Budget is mainly attributable to the depreciation of money. . . . The Dutch people as a whole suffered considerably in consequence of the war. . . . The temporary revival which set in after the end of the war was regarded as of a permanent nature. . . . All acted as though the world had arrived at great wealth and prosperity instead of its appalling impoverishment through the destruction of capital on an unprecedented scale. . . . The 45-hour working week was introduced. For the two great railway companies alone this entailed the fresh engagement of 8,000 persons and an increased expenditure of 15 to 20 millions. . . . New company flotations were the order of the day. 1. 1920 building work to a total value of 259,000,000 florins was contracted for, against 50,400,000 florins in 1914. . . . Prices of building materials and rates of wages rose to an unprecedented level. Average hourly rates of wages in the building trade rose in Amsterdam from 0.42 florins in 1913 to 1.50 florin and more in 1921. . . . The ordinary expenditure, excluding that for interest and amortization of war loans, increased from 333,400,000 florins in 1918 to 626,600,000 in 1921 and the ordinary revenues increased from 329,000,000 to 591,600,000. Thus, in spite of the utmost increase in the burden of taxation, the ordinary Budget for 1921 showed a deficit of 35 million florins. . . . Per head of population, the national and municipal taxation in 1921 amounted to about 120 florins. In the large towns, persons with an income of 100,000 florins and upwards must pay 50 to 60 per cent of their income in direct taxes alone. . . . The extraordinary expenditure, financed by loans, amounted in 1921 to 287 million florins, of which no less than 209 millions was for working and middle-class housing. In the period from 1918 to November 1, 1922, more than 580 million florins was advanced from the Exchequer for this purpose. In 1921 the reaction set in. The index figure of unemployment, which had fallen in 1920 to 5.8, rose in 1921 to 9, and had reached 12 by March, 1922. Nevertheless, in comparison with other countries, unemployment in Holland [up to February, 1923] remained within relatively moderate limits. This is a notable phenomenon in a country which has abstained from protective measures and held fast to the sound principle of Free Trade. Opportunities of work were conserved as far as possible, but profits of any importance were hardly made any longer. The number of bankruptcies rose from 1,648 in the period from January 1 to October 13, 1921, to 2,392 in the corresponding period in 1922, or 45 per cent."—L. A. Tripp, *Financial situation in Holland (Holland and her colonies, Feb., 1923)*.—See also COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1914-1921; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 9; i.

1917.—Percentage of government control of railways.—Railways in Dutch East India. See RAILROADS: 1917-1919; 1919.

1917 (December).—Attitude toward separation from Belgium. See WORLD WAR: 1917: XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: h, 4.

1917-1918.—Arbitration boards.—Actions in strikes. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Holland.

1918.—Loss by German submarine warfare. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: i, 2.

1918-1922.—Relief work of A. R. A. in Holland. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: American relief administration.

1919.—Represented at conference for international union of academies. See INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES: Conference called by French Academy.

1919.—Netherlands at peace conference.—Disputes with Belgium.—Holland had troubles of her own with the peace conference. The demands for territorial adjustments for the benefit of Belgium, which began soon after the signing of the armistice in newspaper articles in the French press and some few organs of public opinion in Belgium, took a strong tone in the first weeks of February. These questions commanded the most serious attention of the Dutch press, although the government has not taken notice of them officially. Newspapers in the principal Dutch cities devoted a large amount of space to arguments against any cession of territory of Holland, together with expressions from societies in the disputed territory in favor of retaining their ties with Holland. The territory in question is the peninsula of Maastricht, or Dutch Limburg, [east of the Meuse] and the south bank of the river Scheldt, or Dutch Flanders. "The questions at issue between Belgium and Holland are at once the most important, the most complicated, and the most difficult to settle. . . . The Belgian case was presented to the Conference by M. Hymans, and was referred to a special Commission for Belgian Affairs whose terms of reference were to examine the neutral status of Belgium, as established in 1830, and to suggest modifications. The report of the Commission was adopted by the Supreme Council; it urged revision in order to remove the 'risks and inconveniences' which had been imposed upon Belgium, and stated that 'the territorial and fluvial articles' of the Treaties had 'seriously diminished the Belgian capacity for defence.' In communicating this view to the Dutch Government the Supreme Council invited it to send representatives to put the Dutch view before them. The Dutch agreed to this proposal and sent their Foreign Minister, M. van Karnebeek, to take part in a Conference in Paris, which included the Foreign Ministers of the five Great Powers together with Belgian representatives. On the 4th June 1919 the question was referred back to a Commission of the five Great Powers with Belgian and Dutch representatives who were instructed to 'submit proposals which involve neither transfer of territory nor international servitudes.' . . . The Conference naturally decided that it was not within its province to consider any transfer of territory from a neutral State which was not represented at its sittings. The Dutch Government, no less naturally, refused to consider the possibility of any such cession, and a resolution of the 4th June definitely excluded it from subsequent negotiations. . . . The Belgians maintain that the long narrow salient of Dutch Limburg which projects southward into Belgian territory towards Liège is equally hampering to their own and to the Dutch system of military defence. . . . The Belgians have dwelt with great emphasis on the incident which occurred immediately after the Armistice, when some 75,000 disorganized German troops escaped to Germany by this short route. . . . The Belgians further complain of the economic disadvantages which are imposed upon them by Dutch Limburg. They declare that water-borne traffic between Antwerp and the Meuse is seriously hindered by the narrowness of the canal where it passes through Dutch territory. . . . The Dutch obtained control over the mouth of the Scheldt in 1648, when they were secured by the Treaty of Münster in their possession of the left bank. Except for the period between 1792 and 1814 they have maintained that control

ever since. The Treaties of 1839 placed Antwerp under serious strategic and economic disabilities. The port, in accordance with the stipulations of Article XV of the Treaty of Paris of the 30th May 1814, was to continue to be *uniquement un port de commerce*. This implied that no Belgian warships could pass up and down the Scheldt in peace or war; and that Antwerp could not become a naval base. Further, the mouth of the Scheldt was closed by the Dutch on the outbreak of war in 1914. . . . It is difficult to estimate accurately how far the existing regime is injurious to Belgium commercially. The navigation of the Scheldt has been entirely free since the capitalization of the dues in 1863, and the prosperity of Antwerp has been largely enhanced in consequence. On the other hand, the Belgians complain that the Dutch members of the mixed Board of Control which regulates navigation constantly block suggested improvements owing to their lack of interest in the prosperity of Antwerp, which indeed they are bound to regard as the rival of Rotterdam. The Dutch are also able to prevent the dredging of the Western Scheldt, and thereby to make the navigation of the Channel a constant danger."—*History of the peace conference in Paris* (H. W. V. Temperley, ed., v. 2, pp. 102-105).—Direct negotiations, which were entered into between the two governments, broke down in 1920 and prior to 1923 had not been resumed.—See also BELGIUM: 1920 (January).

1919-1921.—Anti-revolutionary feeling.—Social legislation.—Anti-Revolution Act.—Social disturbances in Holland, predicted for the latter part of January, failed to materialize. David Wijnkoop, a Socialist leader, positively asserted that a revolution would be carried out on January 20, 1910. Nothing happened. A correspondent at the Hague said: "People of Holland were greatly surprised at the final outcome of the last uprising. The great royalist demonstration at the time was the feat of the Catholic party, with the help of the capitalist and Court circles. The oldest and most aristocratic families turned out to cheer the Queen on Amalia Field at The Hague, but big demonstrations of this sort can hardly be repeated." During 1919, 1920 and 1921 much of the important legislation promised by the government was passed. In 1919 old age pensions and invalidity insurance were included in the Talma Act; an increase in salary was granted to government employees and teachers in October, 1920; the Primary Education Act became law in November 1920, and it is hoped that this law settles the long controversy, which has poisoned Dutch political life since the first half of the nineteenth century. (See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Netherlands.) On January 1, 1921, the eight hour law was promulgated. In the first half of 1920 the "Anti-Revolution" Act caused bitter controversies in the Second Chamber; but the law passed with a substantial majority.

1920.—Transport workers' strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1920-1922: Industrial disturbances.

1920.—Relations with Vatican. See PAPACY: 1920.

1921.—Extent of colonial possessions. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Map of the world; AFRICA: Map.

1921.—United States seeks concessions in Sumatra oil fields. See U.S.A.: 1921 (April-July).

1922.—Represented at Genoa conference.—At Allied economic conference at The Hague. See GENOA CONFERENCE (1922); HAGUE (ALLIED) CONFERENCE, 1922.

See also CHARITIES: Holland; COLONIZATION:

Dutch; EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Netherlands; FLAGS: Netherlands; LIBRARIES: Modern: Netherlands; MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: The Netherlands: Holland; PAINTING: Dutch; PRISON REFORM: Holland.

ALSO IN: P. Geyl, *Holland and Belgium*.—J. E. Barker, *Rise and decline of the Netherlands*.—E. Cammaerts, *Belgium and Holland (Nineteenth century, Sept., 1919)*.—C. Vallenhoven, *Holland's international policy (Political Science Quarterly, June, 1910)*.

NETHERLANDS, Constitution of.—The first constitution of the Kingdom of the Netherlands—known as the Fundamental Law—was granted in 1815. Important changes have been made since then, however. In 1887 it was modified to such an extent that the instrument as then amended is known as the Constitution of 1887. The principal articles of this Constitution are as follows:

CHAPTER I. THE KINGDOM AND ITS INHABITANTS

[The first three articles define the kingdom, declare the constitution to be binding only in Europe unless otherwise stated, and declare that the boundaries of the provinces, communes and the kingdom may be changed by law.]

Art. 4. All persons within the territory of the Kingdom shall have an equal right to protection of person and property. The law shall regulate the admission and expulsion of foreigners and the general conditions under which treaties may be concluded with foreign powers regarding their extradition. . . .

Art. 6. The inhabitants have the rights of assembly and association. The law regulates and restricts the exercise of these rights in the interests of public order. . . .

CHAPTER II. THE KING

Section 1. Succession to the throne

[Articles 10 to 17 determine the succession to the crown. The succession lies in the direct male line, in order of primogeniture, but failing a male heir, the crown passes to the female line.]

Art. 18. All children born of a marriage concluded by a king or by a queen without the consent of the States-General, or by a prince or princess of the reigning dynasty without the consent to be granted by a law, shall be excluded from the succession, both as regards themselves and their descendants. By contracting such a marriage a queen shall abdicate the throne and a princess shall forfeit her right thereto. . . .

Art. 19. Whenever special circumstances render advisable any change in or provision regarding the order of succession . . . The States-General, convened for this purpose in double number, shall deliberate and resolve thereon in joint session . . .

Art. 20. When no competent heir exists according to the constitution, one shall be appointed by a law, the draft of which shall be presented by the King. The States-General, convened for this purpose in double number, shall deliberate and decide thereon in joint session.

Art. 21. When no competent successor exists according to the constitution, upon the death of the King, the appointment shall be made directly by the States-General in joint session. It shall be convened for this purpose in double number within a month after the King's death. . . .

Art. 23. The King shall wear no foreign crown, except that of Luxemburg.

In no case shall the seat of government be transferred beyond the kingdom. . . .

Section 2. The Revenues of the Crown.

. . .

Section 3. Guardianship of the King.

. . .

Art. 31. The King shall be of age when he reaches his eighteenth year. The same principle shall apply to the Prince of Orange in case he becomes regent. . . .

Section 4. The Regency

Art. 36. During the minority of the King the royal authority shall be exercised by a regent.

Art. 37. The regent shall be appointed by a law, which may at the same time regulate the succession to the regency until the King attains his majority. This law shall be discussed and enacted by the States-General in joint session. The law shall be enacted during the life of the King for the event that his successor may be a minor.

Art. 38. The royal authority shall likewise be conferred upon a regent in case the King becomes incapable of performing the duties of government. Whenever the heads of the ministerial departments, assembled in council, conclude that this condition exists, they shall make their conclusion known to the Council of State and shall ask it to express its opinion within a fixed period. . . .

Section 5. Installation of the King

Art. 51. Upon assuming the government, the King shall be solemnly sworn in and installed as soon as possible in a public joint session of the States-General in the city of Amsterdam.

Art. 52. At this session the following oath or promise shall be taken by the king, on the constitution: 'I swear (promise) to the people of the Netherlands that I will always observe and maintain the constitution. I swear (promise) that I will defend and preserve the independence and the territory of the kingdom with all my power, that I will protect public and individual liberty and the rights of all my subjects, and that I will employ all means which the laws place at my disposal for the preservation and promotion of the general and individual welfare, just as a good king ought to do. So truly help me God Almighty! (This I promise!)

Art. 53. After taking this oath or promise, the King shall be installed at the same session by the States-General; the president of the States-General shall pronounce the following solemn declaration, which shall thereupon be sworn to and confirmed by him and by each of the members separately: 'In the name of the people of the Netherlands and by virtue of the constitution, we receive and swear allegiance to you as King; we swear (promise) that we will maintain your inviolability and the rights of your crown; we swear (promise) to do everything that a good and loyal States-General ought to do. So truly help us God Almighty! (This we promise!)

Section 6. The Powers of the King

Art. 54. The King is inviolable; the ministers are responsible.

Art. 55. The executive power shall be vested in the King.

Art. 56. General administrative regulations shall

be issued by the King. Provisions to be enforced by penalties shall not be included among such regulations except by virtue of a law. The penalties to be imposed shall be regulated by law.

Art. 57. The King shall have supreme control of foreign relations.

Art. 58. The King declares war. He shall give immediate notice thereof to the two houses of the States-General, together with such additional information as he deems consistent with the interests of the state.

Art. 59. The King shall conclude and ratify all treaties with foreign powers. He shall also communicate the purport of these treaties to the two houses of the States-General, as soon as he considers that the interests of the state permit. Treaties which contain modifications of the territory of the state, which impose pecuniary obligations upon the kingdom, or which contain any other provision concerning legal rights, shall not be ratified by the King until after approval by the States-General. This approval is not required if the power has been reserved to the King by law to conclude such treaty.

Art. 60. The King shall have the supreme control over the land and naval forces. The Military officers shall be appointed by him. They shall be promoted, discharged, or retired by him in accordance with the rules prescribed by law. . . .

Art. 61. The King shall have supreme control of the colonies and possessions of the kingdom in other parts of the world. The regulations for the conduct of the government in the colonies and possessions shall be established by law. The monetary system shall be regulated by law. Other matters relating to these colonies and possessions shall be regulated by law as soon as the necessity therefor appears to exist.

Art. 62. The King shall cause a detailed report to be made annually to the States-General regarding the government and condition of the colonies and possessions. The law shall regulate the manner in which the finances of the colonies are to be administered and accounted for.

Art. 63. The King shall have supreme control of the public finances. He shall regulate the salaries of all bodies and officials who are paid out of the national treasury. The salaries of the Council of State, of the Court of Accounts, and of the judicial officers shall be regulated by law. The King shall include the salaries in the estimates of expenses of the kingdom. The pensions of officials shall be regulated by law. The King shall have the right to coin money. . . .

Art. 64. The King shall have the right to grant pardon in case of penalties imposed by judicial sentence. He shall exercise this right after receiving the opinion of the judge designated for this purpose by a general administrative regulation. Amnesty or exemptions from the legal consequences of crime shall be granted only by law.

Art. 65. Dispensation from legal provisions shall be granted by the King only under the authority of law. The law conferring this authority shall specify the provisions to which the authorization to grant dispensation applies. Dispensation from the provisions of general administrative regulations is permitted, provided this right has been expressly reserved to the King in the regulation in question.

Art. 70. The King shall settle differences arising between provinces, between provinces and communes, between communes, and between provinces or communes and *waterchappen*, *veenschappen*, and *veenpolders*, which are not comprised among those mentioned in Art. 153 or among those

the settlement of which is intrusted, by virtue of Art. 154, to the regular courts, or to a body vested with administrative jurisdiction.

Art. 71. The King shall recommend projects of law to the States-General and make such other recommendations to them as he considers proper. He shall have the right to approve or to reject the laws adopted by the States-General. . . .

Art. 73. The King shall have the right to dissolve the houses of the State-General, either separately or simultaneously. The decree of dissolution shall at the same time contain an order for the election of new houses within fourteen days, and for the assembling of the newly elected houses within two months. When the Council of State exercises the royal authority it shall not have the right of dissolution.

Section 7. Council of State and Ministerial Departments

Art. 74. There shall be a Council of State whose composition and powers shall be regulated by law. The King shall be president of the Council and shall appoint its members. . . .

Art. 75. The King shall submit for discussion in the Council of State all matters to be presented by him to the States-General or which may be presented to him by the States-General, and all general administrative measures of the kingdom and of its colonies and possessions in other parts of the world. At the head of decrees to be issued, it shall be stated that the Council of State has been consulted upon the matter. The King shall also consult the Council of State upon all matters regarding which he thinks it proper to do so. The King alone shall decide and shall always make known his decision to the Council of State. . . .

Art. 77. The King establishes ministerial departments and appoints and dismisses the heads thereof at his will. The heads of the ministerial departments are charged with the enforcement of the constitution and of the other laws in so far as such enforcement is within the power of the crown. Their responsibility shall be regulated by law. All royal decrees and orders shall be countersigned by the head of one of the ministerial departments.

CHAPTER III. STATES-GENERAL

Section 1. Composition of States-General

Art. 78. The States-General represents all the people of the Netherlands.

Art. 79. The States-General shall be divided into an Upper and a Lower House.

Art. 80. The members of the Lower House shall be elected directly by the male inhabitants, who are at the same time citizens of the Netherlands, and who fulfil the requirements of the election law. . . . From the exercise of the right to vote are excluded those who have been deprived of this right by judicial sentence; those who are in prison or custody; those who have lost control or management of their property by judicial sentence; those who, during the civil year preceding the preparation of the electoral lists, have received assistance from a charitable institution or from a communal government. . . .

Art. 81. The Lower House shall be composed of one hundred members, who shall be elected in electoral districts. The division of the kingdom into electoral districts, as well as everything per-

taining to the right to vote and the manner of voting shall be regulated by law.

Art. 82. The Upper House shall be composed of fifty members. They shall be elected by the provincial estates in the following proportions: North Brabant, 6; Gelderland, 6; South Holland, 10; North Holland, 9; Zealand, 2; Utrecht, 2; Friesland, 4; Overijssel, 3; Groningen, 3; Drenthe, 2; Limberg, 3-50. In case of the union, division, or change in boundaries of provinces, or of the formation of new ones, the law shall provide for the changes thereby rendered necessary in this apportionment.

Art. 83. When the States-General is convened in double number, there shall be added to the regular members of each house an equal number of extraordinary members, to be elected in the same manner as the regular members. The decree of convocation shall also fix the day for the election.

Section 2. Lower House of States-General

Art. 84. In order to be eligible to membership in the Lower House, the only requisites are to be a male citizen of the Netherlands, not to have lost the control or management of one's property or to have been rendered ineligible by a judicial sentence, and to have attained the age of thirty years.

Art. 85. The members of the Lower House shall be elected for four years. They shall retire as a body and shall be immediately re-eligible. . . .

Art. 88. The president shall be appointed by the King, for the period of one session, from a list of three members submitted by the House. . . .

Section 3. Upper House of States-General.

Art. 91. The members of the Upper House shall be chosen for nine years. . . . One-third shall retire every three years in accordance with a list prepared for this purpose. The retiring members are immediately re-eligible.

Art. 92. The president shall be appointed by the King from among the members for the period of one session. . . .

Section 4. Provisions Common to Both Houses.

Art. 94. The heads of the ministerial departments shall have seats in both houses. They shall have only a deliberative voice, unless they have been elected members of the house in which they sit. They shall furnish the houses, orally or in writing, such information, as is requested and the furnishing of which is not considered detrimental to the interests of the state. They may be summoned by either of the two houses to attend its meetings for this purpose.

Art. 95. Both houses shall have the right to investigate the conduct of public affairs, either separately or in joint session, in the manner provided by law.

Art. 96. A member of the States-General shall not at the same time be vice-president or member of the Council of States; president, vice-president, member, attorney-general, or advocate-general of the High Court; president or member of the Court of Accounts, or commissioner of the King in a province. . . .

Art. 97. The members of the States-General shall not be liable to judicial prosecution for anything which they may have said in its sessions or which they may have presented to it in writing. . . .

Art. 100. The States-General shall meet at least once each year. Its regular session shall commence on the third Tuesday in September. The King may call an extraordinary session as often as he thinks proper.

Art. 101. The separate sessions of the two houses, as well as their joint sessions, shall be held publicly. The doors shall be closed whenever one-tenth of the members present so demand or when the president considers it necessary. The assembly shall decide whether the deliberations are to take place with closed doors. Matters considered in secret session may also be decided therein.

Art. 102. In case the King dies or abdicates the throne when the States-General is not in session, that body shall assemble without being called. Such extraordinary session shall meet on the fifth day after the King's death or abdication. If the houses are dissolved, this period shall begin at the conclusion of the new elections.

Art. 103. The session of the States-General shall be opened, in a joint meeting of the two houses, by the King or by a committee acting on his behalf. It shall be closed in the same manner whenever he thinks that the interests of the state no longer require its continuance. . . .

Section 5. Legislative Power

Art. 109. The legislative power shall be exercised jointly by the King and the States-General.

Art. 110. The King shall send his recommendations, whether of laws or of other matters, to the Lower House in a written message or by a committee. He may instruct special commissioners, designated by him, to support the ministers during the consideration of such measures in the meetings of the States-General.

Art. 111. Any measure recommended by the King shall always first be examined before being submitted to a public discussion. The House shall determine in its Rules of Order in what manner this examination shall be made.

Art. 112. The Lower House, as well as a joint session of the States-General, shall have the right to amend a measure proposed by the King.

Art. 113. Whenever the Lower House decides to adopt a proposition, either unchanged or amended, it shall send it to the Upper House. . . .

Art. 114. The Upper House, in accordance with Art. 111, shall consider the proposition as it is adopted by the Lower House. When it decides to adopt the proposition, it shall make the fact known to the King and to the Lower House. . . .

Art. 115. Until the Upper House takes action upon it, the King shall have the power to withdraw the proposition made by him.

Art. 116. The States-General shall have the power to present projects of law to the King.

Art. 117. The initiative in this regard shall belong exclusively to the Lower House, which shall consider the proposed measure in the same manner as prescribed for measures proposed by the King, sending it, after adoption, to the Upper House. . . .

Art. 118. When the Upper House, after having deliberated on the measure in the usual manner, shall have approved it, it shall send the measure to the King. . . .

Art. 119. Other recommendations than projects of laws may be presented to the King by either of the houses separately.

Art. 120. The King shall make known to the States-General as soon as possible whether or not he approves a project of law adopted by that body. . . .

Art. 121. All bills adopted by the States-General and approved by the King shall acquire the

force of law and shall be promulgated by the King. The laws are inviolable.

Art. 122. The laws shall be binding only for the kingdom unless it is expressed therein that they are binding for the colonies and possessions in other parts of the world.

Section 6. Budget

Art. 123. The estimates of all expenses of the kingdom shall be fixed and the means of meeting such expenses provided by law.

Art. 124. The projects of the general budgetary laws shall be annually presented to the Lower House in the name of the King, immediately after the opening of the regular session of the States-General, before the beginning of the year for which the budget is to serve. . . .

Art. 126. An account of the receipts and expenditures of the kingdom for each year shall, after approval by the Court of Accounts, be presented to the legislative bodies in the manner provided by law.

CHAPTER IV. PROVINCIAL ESTATES AND COMMUNAL GOVERNMENTS

Section 1. Composition of Provincial Estates

Art. 127. The members of the Provincial Estates shall be chosen directly for six years by the male inhabitants of the province, who are citizens of the Netherlands, and who fulfil the requirements of the law as to aptitude and social condition and have reached the age prescribed by the law, which shall not be under twenty-three. . . . Half of the members shall retire every three years. In order to be eligible to membership in the Provincial Estates it is necessary to be a male citizen of the Netherlands and a resident of the province, not to have lost the control or management of one's property or have been deprived of the right to vote by judicial sentence, and to have attained the age of twenty-five years. The election of the members of the Provincial Estates shall take place in the manner prescribed by law.

Art. 128. No one shall at the same time be a member of the Upper House of the States-General and of the Estates of a province nor a member of the Estates of more than one province.

Art. 130. The Estates shall meet as often during the year as the law provides, and also whenever they are convened in extraordinary session by the King.

The meetings shall be public. . . .

Section 2. Powers of Provincial Estates

Art. 133. The authority and powers of the Estates shall be regulated by law. . . .

Art. 134. The Estates shall be intrusted with the regulation and administration of the affairs of the province. They may enact such ordinances as they consider necessary for the interests of the province. Such ordinances shall require the approval of the King. This approval shall not be refused except by a decree giving the reasons therefor, after consultation with the Council of State. . . .

Art. 136. Every resolution of the Estates establishing, altering, or abolishing a provincial tax shall require the approval of the King. . . .

Art. 137. The budget of the provincial receipts and expenditures, to be prepared annually by the Estates, shall require the approval of the King. . . .

Art. 139. The Estates shall appoint from their

own members a Committee of the Estates, to which, in accordance with rules to be established by law, the daily administration of affairs shall be intrusted, and this whether the Estates are or are not in session.

Art. 140. The power of the King to suspend or annul the decisions of Provincial Estates or of the Committee of the Estates which conflict with the law or with public interests shall be regulated by law.

Art. 141. The King shall appoint a commissioner in each province, who shall be charged with the execution of royal orders and with supervision over the acts of the Estates. This commissioner shall be president of the Provincial Estates and of the Committee of the Estates, and shall have a vote in the latter body. . . .

Section 3. Communal Governments.

Art. 143. At the head of the commune shall be a council, the members of which shall be directly elected for a certain number of years by the male inhabitants of the commune who are citizens of the Netherlands, who fulfil the requirements of the law as to aptitude and social condition, and who have attained the age prescribed by the law, which shall not be less than twenty-three years. . . . In order to be eligible to membership in the council it is necessary to be a male citizen of the Netherlands and a resident of the commune, not to have lost the control or management of one's property or have been deprived of the right to vote by judicial sentence, and to have attained the age of twenty-three years. The president shall be appointed by the King, from among or from without the members of the council, and may be dismissed by him.

Art. 144. The council shall be intrusted with the regulation and administration of the local affairs of the commune. It may adopt such ordinances as it considers necessary for the interests of the commune. . . . The law shall determine what authority takes the place of the communal government when the latter fails to execute the laws, the general administrative measures, or the provincial ordinances.

Art. 145. A law shall regulate the power of the King to suspend or to annul the resolutions of communal governments which conflict with the law or with public interests. This power is unlimited in the case of local ordinances and regulations.

Art. 146. The decisions of communal governments concerning such control over communal property or such other civil acts as the law prescribes and concerning the budgets and expenditures shall be submitted to the approval of the Committee of the Provincial Estates. The preparation of the budgets and of the accounts shall be regulated by law.

Art. 147. The resolution of a communal government establishing, altering, or abolishing a local tax shall be presented to the committee of the Provincial Estates, which shall report thereon to the King, without whose approval no action shall be taken in the matter. . . .

CHAPTER V. JUSTICE

Section 1. General Provisions

Art. 149. Justice shall be administered throughout the kingdom in the name of the King.

Art. 150. Civil and commercial law, criminal law, military criminal law, the administration of justice, and the organization of the courts shall

be regulated by law in general codes, saving the right of the legislative power to regulate particular subjects by separate laws.

Art. 151. No one shall be deprived of his property without a previous declaration by law that the public utility requires that it be taken, and without receiving a compensation previously paid or determined, both in accordance with the provisions of a general law. . . .

Section 2. Courts

Art. 162. There shall be a supreme court called the High Court of the Netherlands, the members of which shall be appointed by the King in conformity with the following article.

Art. 163. When a vacancy occurs the fact shall be made known by the High Court to the Lower House of the States-General, which, in order to fill it, shall present a list of three persons from which the King shall choose one. The King shall appoint the president and the vice-president from among the members of the High Court.

Art. 164. Members of the States-General, heads of the ministerial departments, governors-general, and higher officers who under different titles are clothed with the same power in the colonies or possessions in other parts of the world, members of the Council of State, and commissioners of the King in the provinces shall, even after their retirement from office, be subject to prosecution before the High Court, either by the King or by the Lower House, because of offenses committed in the exercise of these offices. . . .

Art. 166. Judicial officers shall be appointed by the King. Judicial officers who are vested with the power to try cases, and the attorney-general of the High Court shall be appointed for life. They may be dismissed or relieved of their duties by judgment of the High Court in the cases prescribed by law. They may at their own request be relieved of their duties by the King. . . .

CHAPTER VI. RELIGIOUS WORSHIP

Art. 167. Every person shall be absolutely free to profess his religious opinions, except that society and its members shall be protected against violations of the criminal law.

Art. 168. Equal protection shall be granted to all religious denominations in the kingdom.

Art. 169. The adherents of the various religious denominations shall all enjoy the same civil and political rights and shall have an equal right to hold dignities, offices, and employments. . . .

CHAPTER VII. FINANCES

Art. 174. No taxes shall be levied for the benefit of the national treasury except by virtue of law. This provision is also applicable to taxes levied for the benefit of national works and institutions, in so far as the right to regulate these taxes is not reserved to the King.

Art. 175. No exemptions shall be granted in the matter of taxation.

Art. 176. The state guarantees the fulfilment of its obligations toward its creditors. The debt shall be taken under consideration annually for the purpose of protecting the interests of the creditors of the state.

Art. 177. The weight, standard, and value of the coin shall be regulated by law.

Art. 178. The supervision and management of affairs relating to the mint, and the settlement of controversies regarding the alloy, assay, and

other matters relating to coinage shall be regulated by law. . . .

CHAPTER VIII. DEFENSE

Art. 180. All citizens of the Netherlands who are able to do so are obliged to assist in maintaining the independence of the kingdom and in defending its territory. This obligation may also be imposed upon residents who are not citizens.

Art. 181. For the protection of the interests of the state there shall be an army and a navy composed of volunteers and of those who are required to perform military service. Compulsory military service shall be regulated by law. The obligations which may be imposed, with regard to national defense, upon those who do not belong to the army or navy, shall also be regulated by law. . . .

CHAPTER IX. WATERSTAAT¹

Art. 188. The law shall prescribe rules regarding the administration of the *waterstaat*, including the supreme immediate control thereof, regard being had for the provisions contained in the following articles of this chapter.

Art. 189. The King shall exercise supreme control over everything relating to the *waterstaat*, regardless of whether the costs thereof are defrayed from the national treasury or in some other manner.

Art. 190. The Provincial Estates shall have the immediate control over all works pertaining to the *waterstaat*, *waterschappen*, *veenschappen*, and *veenpolders*. Nevertheless the law may assign the control over these works to others. . . .

CHAPTER X. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION AND RELIEF OF POOR

Art. 192. Public instruction shall be an object of constant care on the part of the government. The organization of public instruction shall be regulated by law, the religious convictions of everyone being respected. Adequate public primary instruction shall be provided by the government throughout the kingdom. The imparting of instruction shall be free, except that it shall be under the supervision of the authorities, and that, as far as intermediate and primary instruction is concerned, the teachers shall be subject to examination as to their ability and moral character; all to be regulated by law. The King shall cause a detailed report to be made annually to the States-General on the condition of the higher, intermediate, and primary schools. . . .

CHAPTER XI. AMENDMENTS

Art. 194. In every project to amend the Constitution the proposed amendment shall be expressly indicated. A law shall declare that there is a reason for taking under consideration the proposed amendment as set forth in it.

Art. 195. After the promulgation of this law the houses shall be dissolved. The new houses shall consider the proposed amendment, and two-thirds of the votes cast shall be necessary to adopt the

¹ Under *waterstaat* are included all works for protection against the sea, dunes, dikes, dams, rivers, bridges, railways, other public works in general, and the exploitation of peat bogs. *Waterstaat* are associations formed for the purpose of protecting lands against the sea, and for drainage or irrigation. *Veenschappen* are peat bogs, and *veenpolders* are districts whose owners are grouped into associations for the administration and exploitation of peat bogs.

amendment as presented to them in accordance with the aforementioned law. . . .

Art. 197. Amendments to the constitution, adopted by the King and the States-General, shall be solemnly promulgated and added to the constitution. . . .

Amendments.—Primary Education Act, Universal suffrage, Revision of electoral system. See NETHERLANDS: 1887-1890; 1914-1918.

NEUCHÂTEL, or Neuchâtel, canton in the west of Switzerland, between Lake Neuchâtel and the French frontier. It has an area of 312 square miles and a population, 1920, of 131,349. Neuchâtel (German Neuenburg), chief town and seat of the cantonal government, is situated on the shore of Neuchâtel, eighty-five miles north-east of Geneva. The town had its origin in the fifth century. During the eleventh century Neuchâtel was under the suzerainty of the dukes of Burgogne, but in the thirteenth century the Count Rodolphe of Neuchâtel ceded his rights to Rudolph of Hapsburg, German emperor, who presented the territory in 1288 to Jean de Chalons. By a marriage Neuchâtel passed into the possession of Louis d'Orleans-Longueville, who came into conflicts with the adjacent cantons and was finally expelled in 1512. After his death his widow recovered the countship of Neuchâtel in 1520. On the death of the duchess de Nemours in 1707 the countship passed by succession to the king of Prussia, Frederick I, whose heirs held it until 1806.

1814.—Separation from Prussia.—Union with Swiss Confederation. See SWITZERLAND: 1803-1848; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

NEU-CHINS, Chinese tribe. See MANCHURIA: Early history.

NEUENBERG, town in the central part of West Prussia, Germany. It was captured by Duke Bernhard in 1638. See GERMANY: 1634-1639.

NEUFCHATEAU, town in eastern France. It was held by the Germans in 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: j.

NEUHAUSEL, Battle of (1621). See GERMANY: 1621-1623.

NEUHOFF, Theodore Stephen, Baron von (c. 1690-1756), German adventurer, king of Corsica, 1736. See CORSICA: 1720-1760.

NEUILLY, Treaty of (1919), dictated to Bulgaria by the Allied and Associated Powers at the Paris Peace Conference, contained the terms of settlement resulting from Bulgaria's participation in the World War. The Treaty was handed to the Bulgarian delegation in Paris on September 10, 1919. It was signed at Neuilly, France, on November 27, 1919, ratified by the Bulgarian Sobranje on January 12, 1920, and became effective on August 9. The first part contained the Covenant of the League of Nations, to which Bulgaria was admitted in December, 1920. (For territorial changes stipulated by the Treaty, see BULGARIA: 1919.) By Section I, "Bulgaria recognizes the Serb-Croat-Slovene State and renounces in favor of that State all rights and title over the territories of the Bulgarian Monarchy situated outside the frontiers of Bulgaria, as defined by the present treaty." Provision is made for Bulgarian nationals residing in those territories to acquire Jugo-Slav nationality. In Section II, Bulgaria makes similar renunciation of territory in favor of Greece, while provision is made to grant choice of nationality to Greeks in Bulgarian territory and Bulgarians in Greek territory. In Section III, Bulgaria "renounces in favor of the Allied and Associated Powers all rights and titles over the territories in Thrace which used to belong to the Bulgarian Monarchy and . . . undertakes to accept whatever settlement" the Allies may

decide on, the latter, "on the other hand [undertake] to ensure economic outlets for Bulgaria to the Aegean Sea under conditions which will be fixed at a later date." Section IV, devoted to the protection of minorities, reproduces those laid down in the Austrian Treaty of St. Germain. Under this head, Article 49 "Bulgaria undertakes that the stipulations contained in the section shall be recognized as fundamental laws, and that no law, regulation or official action shall conflict or interfere with these stipulations, nor shall any law, regulation or official action prevail over them." Some of the other provisions are as follows:

Art. 50. Bulgaria undertakes to assure full and complete protection of life and liberty to all inhabitants of Bulgaria without distinction of birth, language, race or religion. All inhabitants of Bulgaria shall be entitled to the free exercise, whether public or private, of any creed, religion or belief, whose practices are not inconsistent with public order or public morals.

Art. 51. Bulgaria admits and declares to be Bulgarian nationals *ipso facto* and without the requirement of any formality all persons who are habitually resident within Bulgarian territory at the date of the coming into force of the present treaty and who are not nationals of any other State.

Art. 52. All persons born in Bulgarian territory who are not born nationals of another State shall *ipso facto* become Bulgarian nationals.

Art. 53. All Bulgarian nationals shall be equal before the law and shall enjoy the same civil and political rights without distinction as to race, language or religion. . . . No restriction shall be imposed on the free use by any Bulgarian national of any language in private intercourse, in commerce, in religion, in the press or in publications of any kind, or at public meetings. . . .

Art. 54. Bulgarian nationals who belong to racial, religious or linguistic minorities shall enjoy the same treatment and security in law and in fact as the other Bulgarian nationals. In particular they shall have an equal right to establish, manage and control at their own expense charitable, religious and social institutions, schools and other educational establishments, with the right to use their own language and to exercise their religion freely therein.

Art. 55. Bulgaria will provide in the public educational system in towns and districts in which a considerable proportion of Bulgarian nationals of other than Bulgarian speech are resident adequate facilities for insuring that in the primary schools the instruction shall be given to the children of such Bulgarian nationals through the medium of their own language. This provision shall not prevent the Bulgarian Government from making the teaching of the Bulgarian language obligatory in the said schools. . . .

Art. 56. Bulgaria undertakes to place no obstacles in the way of the exercise of the right which persons may have under the present treaty, or under the treaties concluded by the allied and associated powers with Germany, Austria, Hungary, Russia or Turkey, or with any of the allied and associated powers themselves, to choose whether or not they will recover Bulgarian nationality. . . .

Art. 57. Bulgaria agrees that the stipulations in the foregoing articles of this section, so far as they affect persons belonging to racial, religious or linguistic minorities, constitute obligations of international concern and shall be placed under the guarantee of the League of Nations. They shall not be modified without the assent of a majority of the council of the League of Nations. . . . Bulgaria agrees that any member of the council of the

League of Nations shall have the right to bring to the attention of the council any infraction, or any danger of infraction, of any of these obligations, and that the council may thereupon take such action and give such direction as it may deem proper and effective in the circumstances. . . .

The General provisions are as follows: "Following this section are general provisions by which Bulgaria accepts the abrogation of the Brest-Litovsk treaties and other pacts with the Bolshevik Government of Russia, and recognizes the frontiers, as they will finally be fixed, of Austria, Greece, Hungary, Rumania, Jugoslavia and Czechoslovakia; also the treaties concluded by the Allies with Germany, Austria, Hungary and Turkey, as well as the French protectorate over Morocco and the British protectorate over Egypt. . . . Among the most important of the general clauses are the following: Limiting the Bulgarian military forces to 20,000 and abolishing universal compulsory military service; limiting the Bulgarian Navy to four torpedo boats and six motor boats, all without torpedoes; forbidding the employment of any military or naval air forces or the keeping of any dirigibles. The reparation clauses compel Bulgaria to pay 2,250,000,000 francs gold (about \$450,000,000) in semi-annual installments over a period of thirty-seven years, beginning July 1, 1920, with interest at 5 per cent. per annum. In addition, it provides for the return to Greece, Rumania and Serbia of any objects or securities seized during the invasion. It requires Bulgaria to deliver to Greece, Rumania and Serbia within six months after the treaty came into force [certain] live stock. . . . It also provides that 50,000 tons of coal shall be delivered annually for five years to Jugoslavia. There is a provision requiring Bulgaria to pay the total cost of all armies of the allied and associated powers occupying Bulgarian territory from the signing of the armistice, Sept. 29, 1918, to the coming into force of the treaty."—*New York Times Current History*, June, 1920, pp. 548-550.—See also BULGARIA; 1919; BALKAN STATES; 1921; Bulgaria; THRACE; 1918-1921.

NEUSANDEC, Capture of. See WORLD WAR; 1914; II. Eastern front; d, 3.

NEUSTRIA, ancient name for the western kingdom of the Franks. See AUSTRASIA; FRANCE; 843; GERMANY; 687-800.

"NEUTRAL GROUND," territory in Westchester county, New York, between English and American forces during the Revolutionary War. See U.S.A.; 1780.

NEUTRAL NATION, North American Indian tribe, named for their neutrality in war between the Hurons and Five Nations. See HURONS; IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests and wide dominions.

NEUTRALISED STATE.—"A neutralised nation is one which is prohibited indefinitely, or for a considerable period, from carrying on war except in its own defence, and from entering into such political engagements with other states as might endanger its neutrality in the event of war; in return its neutrality or the inviolability of its territory is guaranteed by the great powers. It is, so to speak, bound over to keep the peace; and the undertaking is not regarded as impairing its sovereignty. The prohibition must proceed from the general body of nations, for a particular state cannot of its own accord cut itself adrift from the ordinary incidents of international character. Neutralisation is easily distinguished from neutrality. It is normally permanent, general and involuntary, whereas neutrality is temporary, particular and voluntary. Neutralisation necessarily involves neu-

trality, but neutrality does not necessarily involve neutralisation. The three instances of neutralisation usually cited are those of Switzerland, Belgium and Luxemburg.—F. Smith, *International law*, pp. 66-67.—See SWITZERLAND: 1803-1848; BELGIUM: 1839-1914; LUXEMBURG: 1780-1914.

NEUTRALITY: Development.—The conception of neutrality was not entirely unknown in ancient times, though, undoubtedly, there never was then uniform and systematic practice. The States of Hellas sometimes put into practice some of the fundamental principles involved in the conception, and their writers often use expressions signifying 'keeping quiet,' 'being of neither party,' 'occupying an intermediate position,' and the like. Roman writers speak of 'medii,' 'amici,' 'pacati'; but neutrality was scarcely compatible with their State's policy which regarded another country either as an ally or as an enemy. In the Middle Ages a similar view obtained. As time went on maritime commerce developed, interstate relations increased, colonies were founded, efforts to promote peace were made by the Church, the objects of war became modified, and the notion of neutrality came to be more and more clearly defined. Treaties and conventions aided this progress. Early in the seventeenth century practice was yet unsettled; but by the following century the duty of a non-combatant State's impartiality, and the belligerents' respect of the latter's territory began to be more definitely recognized and insisted on—thought it was still thought legitimate for a third State to furnish troops to a belligerent conformably to treaty obligations, and also for troops to be raised on neutral territory in general. A certain attempt to put into force something like a consistent doctrine was made—though unsuccessfully—in the case of the First Armed Neutrality formed by Russia in 1780 [see ARMED NEUTRALITY]; but it may be said that the essential principles of neutrality, conferring rights on the one hand and imposing obligations on the other, were first applied in practice by the United States during the Washington administration. Thus in regard to the conduct of the French envoy Genêt . . . Jefferson formulated in 1793 the obligations of neutral States: 'That a neutral nation must, in all things relating to the war, observe and enact impartiality toward the parties; that favours to one to the prejudice of the other would impart a fraudulent neutrality, of which no nation would be the dupe; that no succour should be given to either unless stipulated by treaty, in men, arms, or anything else directly serving for war; that the right of raising troops being one of the rights of sovereignty, and consequently appertaining exclusively to the nation itself, no foreign Power or person can levy men within its territory without its consent; and he who does may be rightfully and severely punished; that if the United States have a right to refuse the permission to arm vessels and raise men within their ports and territories, they are bound by the laws of neutrality to exercise that right, and to prohibit such armaments and enlistments.' Then followed both in Great Britain and in the United States notable enactments imposing on their subjects certain important duties in respect of neutrality.—C. Phillipson, *International law and the Great War*, pp. 262-264.

Present law.—"The present law of neutrality is founded partly on usage and partly on written law. The latter is contained in several Conventions of The Hague—more particularly the fifth Convention of 1907 (see HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907) dealing with the case of war on land, and the thirteenth dealing with maritime war—and in the Declaration of London, 1909. . . . In summary form it may be

said that the obligations thus laid on every neutral State are, firstly, to abstain from doing certain acts, for example, furnishing a belligerent with troops, war material, and any supplies calculated to aid him in prosecuting the war; secondly, to prevent others from doing within its territory anything intended for belligerent service, for example, enlisting men, making there a base of operations, dispatching thence warships; thirdly, to acquiesce in certain belligerent acts that interfere with its subjects or their property, for example, searching merchantmen and seizing contraband. To these is to be added the general duty of impartiality, that is, all belligerents must be treated equally by the neutral State when it carries out its duties and exercises its discretionary powers. . . . A neutral Power must abstain from supplying instruments and munitions of war or giving or lending money to a belligerent; but it need not prevent its subjects from so doing. (Of course such commodities, specie and negotiable securities would, as contraband of war, be liable to capture by a combatant when on their way to an enemy destination.) A neutral Government is not bound to forbid its subjects to take stock in loans issued by a belligerent. However, States have sometimes construed their duties of neutrality so strictly that they have gone to the extent of prohibiting such transactions on the part of their subjects. For the transactions might, indeed, assume such enormous proportions that they would, in effect, be equivalent to aid furnished, not by a few individual persons, but by the whole country, by the very State itself. And to assent to or to tolerate the entering into such extensive transactions would virtually, if not nominally, make the State a party to them. Thus, about the middle of August, 1914, the American State Department announced that 'loans by American bankers to any foreign nation which is at war are inconsistent with the true spirit of neutrality.' This announcement called forth a great deal of controversy in America. Some critics thought that if it was intended to apply to such transactions as the Morgan French loan proposal—which was not a war loan in the ordinary sense of the term, but simply an arrangement to purchase foodstuffs for France on a credit to be established in the United States—then the Government's policy was to be condemned. Others asked whether, 'if Dr. Wilson and Mr. Bryan hold that it is a violation of the true spirit of neutrality to lend a belligerent funds to buy foodstuffs, it is not equally a violation of that spirit to sell a belligerent foodstuffs.' Further, the opinion was expressed that the position of the American Administration was incompatible with the modern theory of international law. Whatever exceptions these critics may have taken to their Government's policy, the position from the point of view of international law is as we have stated above. A Government may interpret the provisions of neutrality more or less strictly as it deems fit in view of the special circumstances of each case, provided, of course, that its interpretation be not inconsistent with the injunctions of international law. If it chooses to remain neutral with the utmost particularity, and thereby prejudices the commercial interests of its subjects, international law can have nothing to say—as the question is purely a domestic one concerning differences between the Government and the governed. Finally, with regard to the question of neutral supplies of war munitions to belligerents, and the raising of war loans, we may refer to the following observations that were made in January, 1915, by Mr. Bryan, the United States Secretary of State, to the Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. 'There is no

power in the Executive,' he declared, 'to prevent the sale of ammunition to belligerents. The duty of a neutral to restrict trade in munitions of war has never been imposed by international law or by municipal statute. It has never been the policy of this Government to prevent the shipment of arms or ammunition into belligerent territory, except in the case of neighbouring American Republics, and then only when civil strife prevailed.'—C. Phillipson, *International law and the Great War*, pp. 264-273.

Difficulties of neutrality.—“Taking into account the basis and the nature of neutrality and the extraordinary difficulties in the way of its effective maintenance, it would appear that the nation which desires to insist on a free exercise of neutral privileges virtually finds itself reduced to the following alternatives. (I) Having no concern with regard to the outcome of the war, it would trade indifferently with both sides, thus aiding them to prolong the fight at its own profit. It cannot serve effectively to help end the contest. As Lorimer pertinently remarks, it ‘cannot strike up the swords of the combatants by putting swords into their hands, money into their pockets, or food into their bodies.’ (II) By reason of the ability of one belligerent to control the seas, the neutral nation must find itself reduced to the role of supplying only one of the belligerents. Whatever it supplies, whether guns, food, or money, if greatly needed by the belligerent, will necessarily be of the nature of munitions of war. Under such circumstances it will not be strange if the other belligerent quotes reproachfully the words of Demosthenes: ‘That person whoever he be, who prepares and provides the means of my destruction, he makes war upon me, though he have never cast a javelin or drawn a bow against me.’ (III) If the neutral nation finds that its interests and sympathies are on the side of the belligerent which through the fortunes of war has lost control of the seas, it may find itself in the extraordinary situation of becoming the main support of the very side it desires to see defeated. (IV) If, however, its interests and sympathies are with the belligerent which controls the seas, the neutral nation may prefer to permit that side to place restrictions of perhaps a severe and unprecedented character even on its commercial intercourse with the other belligerent. In this case, if it tolerates under the thin guise of a benevolent neutrality technical violations of neutral privileges, it lays itself open to bitter and vigorous protests by the other belligerent against its patent failure to preserve strictly the impartial attitude of a true neutral.”—P. M. Brown, *International realities*, p. 131-133.—See also PARIS, DECLARATION OF.

Belgium: Perpetual neutrality guaranteed. See BELGIUM: 1830-1014.

1914 (July).—Belgium's determination to maintain neutrality. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 24.

1914 (August).—Germany demands passage through territory. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 51.

1914 (August).—Neutrality violated. See BELGIUM: 1014: World War.

Bosporus.—Straits convention (1841).—Turkish peace treaty. See BOSPORUS: 1832-1878; 1020.

Chile.—Declaration of neutrality in World War.—Violated by von Spee at Valparaiso. See CHILE: 1014: Declaration of neutrality; WORLD WAR: 1014: IX. operations: f, 2.

Germany.—Memoranda on barred sea zone district and blockade.—Warning to neutral ships. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VIII. United States and the war: a, 2.

Italy.—Attitude towards World War. See ITALY: 1014: Austro-Serbian crisis.

Luxemburg.—Under “collective guarantee” (1867).—Neutrality broken by Germany (1914). See LUXEMBURG: 1780-1014; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 50.

Scandinavian states.—Neutrality of Norway, Sweden and Denmark in World War. See SCANDINAVIAN LEAGUE.

Switzerland.—Neutrality guaranteed by Congress of Vienna. See SWITZERLAND: 1803-1848.

United States: Relations with England and France. See U.S.A.: 1804-1809; 1808; 1808-1810; 1810-1812; FRANCE: 1806-1810.

1914.—Proclamation of neutrality in World War. See U.S.A.: 1914 (August): State of American opinion on World War.

1917.—Food embargo. See EMBARGO: During World War.

1919.—Question of interned German vessels. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Question of interned German vessels.

See also ARMED NEUTRALITY; BELLIGERENT; BLOCKADE; CONTINUOUS VOYAGE: Origin; FREEDOM OF THE SEAS; GENEVA CONVENTIONS; INTERNATIONAL LAW: 1713-1800; NON-COMBATANTS: Practice and theory; PAPACY: 1015-1017; RULE OF 1756.

ALSO IN: J. Bryce, *Neutral nations and the war*.—M. Bernard, *Historical account of the neutrality of Great Britain during the American Civil War*.—T. E. Holland, *Letters to The Times on war and neutrality*.—R. N. A. Lane (Norman Angell), *World's highway*.—C. G. Fenwick, *Neutrality laws of the United States*.—M. Nijhoff, *Conventions and declarations concerning war, arbitration and neutrality*.

NEUVE CHAPPELLE, village in northeastern France, about ten miles west of Lille. In 1015 and 1018, it was the scene of severe fighting between the British and the Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1014: I. Western front: w, 16; 1015: II. Western front: b.

NEUVE ÉGLISE, town in western Belgium. It was captured by the Germans in 1018. See WORLD WAR: 1018: II. Western front: d, 11.

NEVADA, one of the far western states of the United States popularly known as the “Silver,” or “Sage Brush” state. The name Nevada, a Spanish word meaning “snow clad” or “snowy land,” was originally applied to the snow covered mountains along the western boundary of the state. The state is bounded on the north by Oregon and Idaho; on the east, by Utah and Arizona, the Colorado river separating it in part from the latter state; on the south and west by California. Nevada has an area of 110,600 square miles, and a population, 1020, of 77,407. As a result of the falling off in the mining industry, Nevada is the only state in the Union in which a decrease in population is taking place.

Resources.—Nevada is essentially a metal producing state. The mineral resources of the state are chiefly gold and silver; but copper, lead, zinc, pyrites, iron, quicksilver, tungsten, sulphur, and graphite are worked. In 1019, the output of gold was valued at \$6,610,037; silver, \$10,000,599; and the total mineral output at \$48,528,124. Owing to aridity and the lack of proper transport facilities, the state has not reached its ultimate limit of agricultural productiveness. In 1023 the federal irrigation project embraced 160,000 acres. The state has 3,163 farms with an area of 2,357,163 acres, of which 504,741 are improved land, largely given over to the raising of cereals. There is also considerable activity in stock raising. See U.S.A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America; Southwest area; SHOSHONEAN FAMILY.

1767-1850.—Early exploration.—First immigrants.—Mormon colonists.—"Not to the pioneers crossing the plains; not to the Mormon saints looking for an empire of their own to build; . . . but to the religious fervor of the Franciscan monks of Spain and Mexico are we indebted for our first knowledge of the country of which Nevada is a part. [Francisco Garces is supposed to have been the first white man on Nevada soil.] In the year 1767 the Spanish government expelled the Jesuits from Mexico and the fathers were driven forth to the wilds of what then was known as the Californias. Following this, in the year 1771, the great unknown, indefinite 'California' was divided, the lower portion being given to the Jesuits, and the more northern portions to the Franciscan Fathers for their exploitation. . . . After the Franciscan monks came the trappers and traders. They followed the trails made by the wild animals far out into the Great American Desert, often to the springs and streams of water found in its mountain fastnesses and sheltered valleys."—H. J. Stewart, *Early knowledge of Nevada* (S. P. Davis, ed., *History of Nevada*, v. 1, pp. 214, 216).—"In 1825 one of the leaders of the expedition that explored the Great Salt Lake region, was Jedediah S. Smith, . . . who after hunting around the lake, crossed over the great desert of sagebrush between the Humboldt River and Salt Lake, and trapped down the Humboldt, which he named Mary's River . . . and crossed over from the Humboldt Sink to the Carson River, and then up Churchill Canyon to the Walker River in Mason Valley. He followed the Walker River to its source. . . . This was in 1825. On his return he saw Mono Lake and is said to have found gold. His second trip through Nevada was made over the southern route through what is now Lincoln County. From southern California he returned to the Rocky Mountains by way of the Columbia River, accompanying Peter Ogden's party to the winter home of the trappers in Jackson's Hole, just south of Yellowstone Park. In 1853 the famous Bonneville party passed through Nevada on its way to California. . . . It is supposed that this was the first party to follow the Truckee River route into California. This same year Kit Carson came into Nevada with Thomas McCoy's trappers. About 1841 the first emigrants passed through Nevada, comprising the Bartleson party from Independent, Mo."—J. W. Ingalls, *Indians of Nevada* (S. P. Davis, ed., *History of Nevada*, v. 1, p. 20).—"In the winter of 1850 the Mormon Church began to send its colonists into southern Utah, southern Nevada and Southern California in great numbers. . . . At Las Vegas they began the construction of a fort as protection against the Indians, and also built homes for their families. . . . In 1847, '48 and '49 travel across Nevada was more or less brisk, and in the latter part of 1849 and 1850 the discovery of gold in California had materially increased the number of emigrant trains. The road was now comparatively well-beaten, and enterprising traders from Salt Lake City and from California reaped large profits by establishing trading stations along the road to supply the hungry travelers with flour, bacon and clothing."—R. Lewers, *Early emigrants* (S. P. Davis, ed., *History of Nevada*, v. 1, pp. 214, 225).

1848-1864.—Acquisition from Mexico.—Silver discoveries.—Territorial and state organization.—"Ceded to the United States at the same time, and, indeed, as one with California [see MEXICO: 1848], this region of the Spanish domain had not,

like that west of the Sierra Nevada, a distinctive name, but was described by local names, and divided into valleys. In March following the treaty with Mexico and the discovery of gold, the inhabitants of Salt Lake valley met and organized the state of Deseret, the boundaries of which included the whole of the recently acquired Mexican territory outside of California, and something more. [But Congress, failing to recognize the state of Deseret, created instead, by an act passed on September 9, 1850, the territory of Utah, with boundaries which embraced Nevada likewise. This association was continued until (March 2), 1861, when the territory of Nevada was organized by act of Congress out of western Utah.]"—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states: v. 20, Nevada*, p. 66.—"Nevada's Territorial history began November 12, 1851. On that date a public meeting was held for the purpose of organizing a squatter government. Less than a hundred persons took part in the gathering which was held at 'Mormon Station' (now Genoa). The object of the meeting was to adopt local rules and regulations for the benefit of the settlers then coming into the country. There was but little semblance of law and order at the time, and life and property rights seemed to need additional protection. But little was done at the preliminary meeting, and it was adjourned to a later date the same month. Subsequently a local form of government was adopted. . . . The first attempt at representation at Washington was made by electing James W. Crane as a delegate to represent the claims of the settlers to a Territorial Government. Crane having died, John J. Musser was elected his successor November 12, 1850. On June 6, 1850, a mass meeting of delegates from the several districts was held, at which the 14th day of July, 1850, was fixed for holding an election to elect delegates to a constitutional convention. Delegates met at Genoa on the 18th day of the same month, and in a ten days' session adopted a declaration of rights and a Constitution. The Constitution was submitted to the people September 1, 1850, and was adopted, and Isaac Roop elected Governor, with a Legislature and other State officers. Roop was the only officer who attempted to qualify. The Legislature met at Genoa on the 15th day of December, 1850, and adjourned to meet in July, 1860. They never met again."—S. P. Davis, ed., *Organizing the territory (History of Nevada, v. 1, pp. 190-191)*.—"Meantime the discovery in 1850 of the extraordinary deposit of silver which became famous as the Comstock Lode, and other mining successes of importance, had rapidly attracted to the region a large population of adventurers. It was this which had brought about the separate territorial organization. Three years later the young territory was permitted to frame a state constitution and was admitted into the Union in October 31, 1864.—Based on H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states: v. 20, Nevada*, p. 66—"The total vote on the acceptance of the constitution was 11,303, the majority in favor of it, 6,131. There were elected at the same time the members of the legislature for 1864, and a delegate to congress, John Cradlebaugh, on the independent ticket. . . . However, all these elections went for nothing when the president on the 31st of October proclaimed Nevada a state of the union. As the presidential election was yet to take place in November, a new election for representatives and state officers was ordered to be held at the same time. Two full tickets were put in the field, but the Republicans elected their candidates by large majorities. The choice of the people fell upon H. G. Worthington of Lander county for member of congress to fill the

unexpired term ending in March, 1865. H. G. Blasdel was chosen governor. Under the constitution the state was divided into nine judicial districts, one judge to be elected in each, with the exception of the 1st district, comprising Storey county, which might have three district judges. According to the constitution, also, the first legislature convened on the 12th of December, and on being organized listened on the 14th to the message of Governor Blasdel, which communicated to them, among other facts affecting the state, that the new government had inherited from the territory a debt of \$264,000 exclusive of the expenses of the last constitutional convention, and that to meet this indebtedness there was an empty treasury and an uncollected tax of \$70,000. . . . On the 16th of February the senate and assembly ratified the thirteenth amendment to the constitution of the United States by which slavery was abolished. But to return to more purely local affairs. On the 15th of December, both houses being organized, they proceeded to the election of two United States senators, Stewart, Nye, Charles E. De Long, Cradlebaugh, and B. C. Whitman being nominated. Stewart was elected on the first ballot. Then followed a number of ballottings for a senator among the remaining candidates, Nye receiving on every one the greatest number of votes, but not enough to elect him, and De Long receiving the next greatest number. An adjournment took place, which permitted the presentation of informal arguments, and at the first ballot on the 16th Nye was elected."—H. H. Bancroft, *History of Nevada, Colorado and Wyoming*, pp. 183-187.

1853-1856.—Attempts at annexation to California.—"In February, 1853, there was presented in the legislature of California a petition of fifty-three citizens of Carson Valley, praying to be annexed to California. . . . In January, 1856, the inhabitants of Carson Valley again petitioned the California assembly to annex them for judicial and other purposes."—H. H. Bancroft, *History of Nevada, Colorado and Wyoming*, v. 25, pp. 74, 78. —"Following the construction of the Central Pacific, the Virginia and Truckee Railroad was built; then the Nevada Central, from Battle Mountain to Austin; the Eureka and Palisade; Eureka and Ruby Hill; Pioche and Bullionville; Carson and Colorado; Nevada and Oregon narrow gauge, and in later years many other small roads, all of which act as feeders to the Central Pacific. Nevada today [1913] is a network of railroads, practically all of them depending a great deal on the mining industry. . . . Now there is hardly a town in Nevada with a population of 300, save possibly a few of the newest mining camps, which is not reached by rail. . . . Nevada depends almost entirely upon its railroads for its prosperity. Without them this State would soon become almost destitute of population."—S. P. Davis, ed., *History of Nevada*, v. 1, p. 591.

1860-1913.—Transportation.—"Transportation was always an important subject in Nevada. . . . In 1861 a daily overland mail stage business was established. As early as 1860 an application was made for a railroad franchise from Carson City to Virginia City. . . . Several projects were before the State's first legislature, which granted charters to four companies, namely, the Nevada Railroad Company, with the privilege of constructing a road from the western to the eastern boundary; to Leland Stanford, Charles Crocker, Collis P. Huntington, Lucius A. Booth, Mark Hopkins, Theodore D. Judah, James Bailey and Samuel Silliman; the Virginia City and Washoe Company; Virginia, Carson and Truckee Company; and the Esmeralda and Walker River Company. Only the first of

these roads was built under these legislative grants. So eager were the people of the West for cheap and rapid means of transportation to and from California gold fields and Nevada's silver fields, that in the first State constitution was introduced a clause permitting the legislative to give \$3,000,000 in bonds to the first company that should connect Nevada with navigable waters. This constitution was rejected, however, although the clause was not stricken out. It was at this period that the Central Pacific was building eastward from Sacramento and the engineers were making one of the greatest fights in history in an effort to conquer the Sierra Nevada Mountains. The actual race in the construction of a railroad from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean occurred in Nevada. The Pacific Railroad Bill, which authorized the construction of the railroad, provided that the Union Pacific build westward and that the Central Pacific build eastward. With every mile constructed went many acres of Government land, so the further east the Central Pacific was built the more land it received. The further west the Union Pacific was built the more land was granted it. All the time the Pacific Railroad Bill was pending before the legislators at Washington, and during a great part of the time that the actual construction work was being pushed from both ends toward the centre, the United States was in the throes of the great Civil war. . . . The traffic from the silver mines of Nevada was the principal object that induced the backers of the Central Pacific to devote their fortunes and energies to this enterprise. . . . In the early part of 1869, rails or both the Central Pacific and Union Pacific were being laid at the rate of from six to ten miles a day. When the two tracks came together, the Central Pacific had nearly sixty miles of grading done parallel to the Union Pacific track, while the Union Pacific had located their line to the California State line and most of the grading was done as far west as Humboldt, Nevada. The laying of the last rail and the driving of the last spike occurred on May 10, at Promontory Point, Utah, in sight of Great Salt Lake."—S. P. Davis, ed., *History of Nevada*, v. 1, pp. 587-590.

1861-1874.—Boundary settlement.—"The organic Act for the Territory of Nevada, March 2, 1861, gave the eastern limit of Nevada as the 39th meridian west from Washington, while the south was bounded by the northern line of New Mexico. The next year after its Territorial organization Nevada secured by Act of Congress, July 14, 1862, a degree of longitude on the east, making the 38th meridian west from Washington, instead of the 39th, the dividing line between Nevada and Utah. . . . [Later] Senator Stewart of Nevada presented a bill which made the 37th meridian west from Washington the eastern boundary, and the Colorado River the southern boundary. It was passed, and became a law May 5, 1866. . . . The last attempt to gain more territory was made by Nevada in 1871, by way of a memorial from the Nevada Legislature to Congress asking for a portion of Idaho lying between the Snake River and the northern boundary of Nevada. [This petition failed.] . . . The northern boundary of Nevada was run by the authority and under the direction of the United States, and was completed in 1874. It was reported by the United States Surveyor-General at the same time with the survey of the line between California and Nevada. The southern boundary followed the channel of the Colorado River. Thus, the last line being established, the boundaries of Nevada were finally adjusted."—B. Hershiser, *Adjustment of boundaries* (S. P. Davis, ed., *History of Nevada*, v. 1, pp. 211-213).

1862-1864.—Part played in Civil War.—“It was the spring of 1862 before a recruiting office was opened in Nevada, the first one being in Virginia City. . . . In the spring of 1863 Nevada received permission to raise a battalion of cavalry. . . . Two companies were mustered into service and marched to Salt Lake, in 1864. . . . [Captain Zabriski, Company A] declined promotion and Baldwin [Company B] was promoted to major of the battalion and placed in command of Fort Bridger. Four more companies were added to this battalion. . . . There were also 1,000 men in six infantry companies, . . . stationed at various places in Nevada territory and Utah.”—T. Wren, ed., *History of the State of Nevada: Its resources and people*, pp. 226-227.

1864-1913.—Mining.—Silver, copper, iron and lead.—“In 1864 a bullion production of \$16,000,000 was made by the Comstock mines. Prospectors spread out over the State and the search for another Comstock caused many other mines and districts to be discovered. Mining litigation, arising out of the uncertainty of the titles and boundaries of the early claims and the cupidity of the claim owners, characterized the years from 1866 to 1866. Ten million dollars were spent in almost endless litigation during this time. . . . The exhaustion of the ore bodies first discovered, troubles with water encountered in the mines, and a stock panic in San Francisco, combined with the interminable litigation, soon caused a temporary set-back to the Comstock. Shrewd men saw the combination of interests and the securing of sufficient capital to properly equip and work the mines was necessary if successful mining was to be carried on. The period which followed was one of readjustment. William Sharon appeared upon the scene and as representative of the Bank of California became an active participant in mining affairs. He acquired control of a number of mills, and formed the Union Mill and Mining Company. . . . The organization, known as the Bank of California ring, continued to exercise a dominating position in Comstock affairs well into the next period. . . . Discoveries of ore in the Hale and Norcross, Chollar-Potosi and Yellow Jacket sustained the stock market for a while, but towards the close of this period Comstock affairs were depressed. The next period was one of great expansion. . . . No dividends were being paid and no new discoveries had been made. . . . In 1871 . . . a healthier tone supplanted . . . pessimism. . . . About the beginning of this period John W. Mackay and James G. Fair became associated in the Hale and Norcross. . . . Through the persistence of Fair, ore was at last discovered in 1873 upon Con Virginia ground. The discovery came none too soon as the treasury of the Con Virginia was nearly empty. Rapid work upon the ore body soon gave some idea of its great extent and richness. A bonanza had been struck and it was ‘the big bonanza.’ The four men associated in this third controlling and new combination were known as the four bonanza kings. They quickly acquired their own mills and started reduction of their ores. The bullion production of the Comstock exceeded \$21,000,000 in 1873 and steadily increased until it reached a maximum of over \$36,000,000 in 1877. The discovery of ore at depth rejuvenated the Comstock. Deep shafts were projected and started. Bigger plants were constructed and heavier machinery was installed. The stock market boomed. . . . By 1870 the inevitable decline began. In 1882 an immense flow of hot water was struck in the Exchequer Mine and the lower workings of the Yellow Jacket, Crown Point, Belcher, Overman, Confidence and Imperial mines were flooded. . . .

The succeeding years marked a constant struggle with heat and water in the north end mines, and finally in 1886 all work ceased below the Sutro Tunnel level from end to end of the Comstock. The miners returned to the upper levels and the low grade ores which had been left in the mad search for bonanza ore were extracted. With the end in sight the stock market slumped even more rapidly than the mines. Bullion production continued but in steadily diminishing amounts. During this period mines in other parts of the State were developed and production was made. The principal district was Eureka, and here the smelting of silver lead ores on a large scale was carried out. . . . No doubt the reputation of Nevada as a silver mining State, the decline in production of many of the camps and the rapid decline in the value of silver contributed to make the next period one of great depression. Industrial depression in the United States made capital hard to secure. During this period small amounts of ore and tailings were worked in Virginia City, and desultory mining and prospecting were carried out in the State. The only important discovery in this period was the Bamberger-De Lamar mine in Lincoln County. This mine was discovered in 1893 and soon became a producer. Until 1900 this mine made the principal bullion production of the State. The end of this period was marked by more active prospecting. . . . In 1900 electric power was generated at a hydro-electric plant upon the Truckee River and transmitted to Virginia. . . . The steady lowering of the water followed and in 1902 electric driven Reidler pumps were installed upon the 2,150 level of the C & C shaft. The opening up of an ore body in Con Virginia ground furnished sufficient impetus to rejuvenate the Comstock, not to anything like its former glory, but a good start. The discovery of rich surface ores at Tonopah by J. L. Butler marked the beginning of the mining revival in the State. Fast upon the heels of this discovery came that of Goldfield, and once more Nevada became the Mecca for an army of adventurers, miners and others, all seeking a short-cut to fortune. The distinctive feature of the opening up of these camps was the introduction of the leasing system. Tributing or leasing is not uncommon during the last stages of a mine, but it is uncommon during the initial stages of a mine’s development. The system was introduced from Colorado and proved successful in rapidly opening up and developing the mines. . . . In 1902 Goldfield was discovered, and in 1903 a rush to that locality followed. The leasing system was adopted and rapid development followed. The progress of the camp was steady and more and more attention was drawn to it. Many of the leases were successful and rich gold ores were produced. The rich strike by Hayes and Monette upon the Mohawk claim in 1906 introduced an era of intense excitement. Other discoveries added to it. . . . The extent and richness of the ore bodies were uncertain. . . . The population of Goldfield reached 15,000. Five mills were in operation and two sampling works received ores for shipment to the distant smelters. . . . In the Yerington district in the western part of the State another group of copper mines was developed. The Yerington Copper Company and the Mason Valley Copper Company acquired groups of claims and systematically developed them. Success rewarded their efforts and while this district does not show the tonnages that have been developed in the Ely district, it does show promise of considerable importance. In 1910 a railroad, the Nevada Copper Belt, was constructed between the mines and Wabuska. In 1912 a smelter was constructed and put in operation. At

present over 2,000 tons per day are supplied from the Yerington district. . . . The last mining camp to be discovered is Rochester, some 12 miles east of the old mining town of Oreana. This was discovered late in 1912 and early in 1913 a small rush started. The absence of high grade ore prevented this rush from assuming any size, although several thousand people went to the new camp. . . . From a silver State Nevada has passed, in this last period, to a State of varied mineral resources."—G. J. Young, *History of mining in Nevada* (S. P. Davis, ed., *History of Nevada*, v. 1, pp. 317-326).—See also U. S. A.: 1865-1885.

1872-1878.—Political changes.—Attempt to revise constitution.—Amendment to state constitution.—"The republican candidate for congressman, C. C. Goodwin, was defeated in 1872 by Charles W. Kendall, reflected on the democratic ticket, but the [Republican] party gained the presidential electors by over 2,000 majority; also the supreme judge and state printer, the only state officers voted for. The senatorial contest of 1874 was another struggle between men with large moneyed interests principally. The democrats again chose in convention Thomas H. Williams, and the republicans William Sharon. A third, or independent, party had for its leader Adolph Sutro, who feared if Sharon should be elected it would redouble the power of the bank of California and Comstock Lode, against which he was making his great fight for the Sutro tunnel. Party lines were less rigidly drawn than ever before. There were some men on the independent ticket from both the other parties, but more from the democratic than the republican ticket. This insured the reelection of Governor Bradley, the election of Jewett W. Adams lieutenant-governor, J. R. Kittell attorney-general, J. J. Hill state printer, and J. Schooling treasurer; the remaining offices being given to the republicans, who also elected their candidate for congressman, William Woodburn of Storey county. The legislature consisted of forty-seven republicans and twenty-eight democrats, the full number of members allowed by the constitution. . . . The state congressional and presidential election of 1876 gave results showing the very gradual restoration of the ante-bellum political balance. Again the republicans obtained the presidential electors, their representative in congress, Thomas Wren, and supreme judge, O. R. Leonard. They still had a large majority in the assembly, but in the senate the democrats had a majority of one. A movement to call a convention to revise the constitution, and also to change the time of the beginning of the fiscal year from the 31st to the 1st of December, was set on foot by a resolution of the legislature, passed February 18, 1875, and voted upon at this election, there being a majority of 3,341 against it, and against the design of the agitators to abolish the tax on mining products. In the political canvass of 1878 this matter of refusing to repeal the tax on bullion was made a plank in the republican platform, but afterward withdrawn through the influence of the bonanza firm. . . . J. H. Kinkead, republican, was elected governor."—H. H. Bancroft, *History of Nevada, Colorado and Wyoming*, pp. 191-193.

1890-1902.—Formation of Silver party.—Fusion of Silver and Democratic parties.—"Since its admission into the Union, Nevada has been normally Republican and could be safely counted on to cast its electoral vote for a Republican President, until the formation of the Silver Party [or People's party], which first appeared in Nevada politics in the election of 1892 when it swept

the State by majorities averaging in the neighborhood of 5,000. In that year the Republican vote was less than 3,000 and the Democratic vote fell below 1,000. The first suggestion relative to the formation of a Silver Party to protect Nevada's chief industry appeared in the Morning Appeal published at Carson City. On January 1, 1890, it made the announcement, editorially, that it was time for Nevada to raise the standard of revolt against the Republican party for its demonetizing of the chief product of Nevada's industry. It called for the formation of a party having the remonetization of silver, the chief plank of its platform. This stand was treated derisively at the time, but within a year other newspapers took the matter up and finally in 1891 the Editorial Association of the State met at Reno and passed a resolution that it would have nothing to do with any political party that did not include in its platform a plank demanding the free and unlimited coinage of silver. . . . In 1896 the Democrats and Silver men fused on most of the nominations and carried the State by heavy majorities, not losing a man on the ticket."—S. P. Davis, ed., *History of Nevada*, v. 1, pp. 426, 428.—"In 1898 the Silver party elected the lieutenant governor, Reinhold Sadler, governor, and J. R. Judge, lieutenant governor. Although a nomination from the Silver party was considered equivalent to an election, McMillan, the Democratic candidate, came so close to Sadler that it was at first thought he had beaten him. Recourse to the courts was had, and after nine months the decision was given to Sadler, by a very close margin, his plurality being less than 25. Orvis Ring, superintendent of public instruction, was the only Republican elected in Nevada at this election. In 1899 W. M. Stewart found it more difficult to secure his election. . . . In August, 1902, the Silver and Democratic parties fused, John Sparks, for governor, and C. D. Van Duzer, for congressman-at-large, heading the ticket. A. C. Cleveland was offered the gubernatorial nomination by the Republican convention, but he refused to take it on a silver platform. . . . In the interest of harmony he was forced to take it, Frank H. Button being nominated for lieutenant-governor and E. A. Farrington for congressman-at-large. C. C. Wallace, commonly known as 'Black' Wallace, of Eureka county, who had bitterly fought Van Duzer for years, died January 30, 1901, and Mr. Van Duzer was elected with the rest of the fusion ticket."—T. Wren, ed., *History of the State of Nevada*, pp. 91-92.

1904.—Referendum adopted. See INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States.

1906.—Goldfield strike.—In 1906 disturbance attendant upon the strikes of the workers in the gold mines at Goldfield and other points reached such proportions as to make it necessary to send United States troops to the state.

1907-1913.—Railroad commission.—Legislation.—"The Railroad Commission of Nevada is one of the newer branches of the State government. It was created under the provisions of an Act of the Legislature, approved March 5, 1907. . . . The Commission consists of three members. They are appointed by the Railroad Board consisting of the Governor, Lieutenant Governor and Attorney General. . . . On March 27, 1911, the Railroad Commission law was amended so as to provide for a Chief Commissioner, who is to be chairman and who is also to be an attorney well versed in railroad law; a First Associate Commissioner, who must be a practical railroad man, and a Second Associate Commissioner, who must

be a business man having a general knowledge of fares and freights, tolls and charges as levied by common carriers coming within the meaning of the term 'railroad' as defined by law. This made no change in the personnel of the Commission. . . . The creation of the Railroad Commission was prompted both by the progressive legislative spirit of the age, and by the transportation conditions existing in this State."—S. P. Davis, ed., *History of Nevada*, v. 1, pp. 607-608.—In 1909, several measures were passed to prevent Japanese owning land in the state. Among important acts of legislation in 1911 were workmen's compensation and compulsory education acts, acts to regulate banks and to prevent the enticement of workmen into the state under false pretenses, the establishment of a Juvenile Court and of a bureau of industry, agriculture, and irrigation. A primary election law was passed (See PRIMARIES), and the Sixteenth Federal Amendment (Income Tax) was ratified. In 1913 a tax commission was created, the Seventeenth Federal Amendment was ratified providing direct election of senators, and the Industrial Insurance Act, elective instead of compulsory, a corrupt practices act, and an inheritance tax law were passed. A divorce law was passed which required one year's residence before a suit could be brought. This law was intended to diminish the number of divorces. It was later repealed and the former practice of six months' residence restored.

1907-1913.—Organization of public school system.—"At the very organization of Nevada as a Territory, in 1861, provision was made for a system of public schools supported by county taxation; and while still a territory, provision was further made for district taxation. Enlarged provision was made in the State Constitution adopted in September, 1864. The system, as adopted in 1865, provided for school districts throughout the State. . . . From 1865 to 1885, good schools were built up in all the larger towns, . . . but as there was no required course of study, each school was a law unto itself. . . . The rural schools fared worse in the matter of aid from the State or county through supervision, as they were seldom reached by a school official who understood school work or requirements. . . . About the year 1887 the County Superintendent as an elective officer was dispensed with on the score of economy, and his duties were devolved on the District Attorney, who became *ex-officio* County Superintendent. . . . The opening of the State University in Reno in 1885 largely aided in centering interest on educational matters through the State. . . . While the coöperation of the University with the teachers of the State, in the absence of definite school organization and supervision, has been an important factor in Nevada's educational growth, our large progress in public school education dates from the Reorganization Act of 1907. . . . The system thus inaugurated did away with the varieties and inequalities of county supervision, substituting therefor unified supervision by the State. . . . By the Reorganization Act the various County Superintendents were done away with. . . . The State Superintendent and five Deputy State Superintendents took the place of these with larger powers and duties. . . . Through the State Board of Education, composed of the Governor of the State, the President of the State University and the Superintendent of Public Instruction, courses of study for the elementary and high schools are prepared and promulgated. . . . The primary and grammar schools are placed on a definite basis, and preparation for entrance to high schools is improved

and made substantially uniform. . . . In response to popular interest and demand, voiced by many teachers and school officers, the Legislature of 1909 passed an act authorizing industrial education in schools, and a movement was at once begun in several districts to make manual training, domestic science and commercial courses features of regular school work. . . . All the larger high schools of the State are accredited to the University of Nevada, the University of California and Stanford University. This fact sufficiently tells the story of the present excellency of work and attainment in Nevada schools. . . . Nevada has over \$2,000,000 in its Irreducible State School Fund. This is invested in State and United States bonds, the interest on which is semi-annually distributed to the schools."—S. B. Doten, *Education* (S. P. Davis, ed., *History of Nevada*, v. 1, pp. 518-523, 525, 527).

1909-1921.—Legislation.—Part played in World War.—Gubernatorial changes.—Amendments to the constitution were passed in 1909, 1913, 1915, and 1919, the first two the recall, and woman suffrage were the most important and the third was to permit a state debt amounting to one per cent of the assessed valuation of property. In 1917, a labor law was passed for women in industries, providing an eight hour day. In 1918, a state prohibition law was passed, and on January 21, 1919, the Eighteenth Federal Amendment (Prohibition) was ratified. A land settlement act was passed, 1919, providing a bond issue of \$1,000,000 for soldier settlement work in coöperation with the Federal government. On February 7, 1920, the Nineteenth Federal Amendment was ratified. In 1921, acts were passed providing: four year terms of office for county officers; criminal execution by lethal gas; standardized testing and weighing of dairy products; prophylactic treatment of the eyes of the newly born; creation of town-planning commissions for incorporated cities and towns; a state budget; and oil pipe lines were made common carriers. During the World War, the state furnished 5,105 men or .14 per cent of the whole Expeditionary Forces. The governors for the period 1907 to 1921 were as follows: D. S. Dickerson, 1907-1910; Tasker L. Oddie, 1911-1914; E. D. Boule, 1915-1921.

ALSO IN: *Nevada Historical Society Papers*, 1913-1916, pp. 69-81, 105-110, 168-192.—*Second Biennial Report of the Nevada Historical Society*, 1909-1910, pp. 52-58, 72-82, 100-154.—A. G. Bracket, *Nevada and the silver mines* (*Western Monthly Magazine*, Apr., 1869).—J. J. Powell, *Nevada: Land of silver*.

1916.—Suffrage granted to women by state. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: United States: 1851-1920.

1918.—Irrigation and reclamation projects. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1918.

NEVELLE, Battle of (1381). See FLANDERS: 1370-1381.

NEVILLE'S CROSS, or DURHAM, Battle of.—A crushing defeat suffered by an army of the Scots, invading England under their young king, David Bruce, who was taken prisoner. The battle was fought near Durham, October 17, 1346.—J. H. Burton, *History of Scotland*, v. 3, ch. 25.—See also SCOTLAND: 1333-1370.

NEVIS, British island of the West Indies, united in 1882 with St. Kitts (St. Christopher) and Anguilla to form one presidency. It has an area of fifty square miles and a population, in 1911 of little over 12,045. The capital is Charlestown with a population of about 1,000. The island, which is simply a single cone-shaped mountain sur-

rounded by a margin of lowlands, "was included in the grant to James Hay, earl of Carlisle in 1627 [and] was colonised by some English from St. Kitts in 1628. . . . In 1706 it was ravaged by the French, who destroyed property to the value of half a million sterling and carried off between three and four thousand slaves. On April 30, 1680, Jamestown, the first capital, was engulfed with its inhabitants; in 1737 cultivation was destroyed by a blight; and in 1772 the island was visited by a devastating hurricane; but in spite of an occasional setback it prospered exceedingly, being made the slave market of the Leeward Islands by the Royal African Company, while for a short period it was the seat of the government of this group. In 1782 the island was invaded by the French. Alexander Hamilton, the statesman who drafted the constitution of the United States, was born in Nevis on January 11, 1757."—A. E. Aspinall, *British West Indies*, pp. 37-38.

NEW ALBION, name applied by Drake to the western coast of North America. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1513-1764.

NEW ALBION, County Palatine of.—By a royal charter, witnessed by the Deputy-General of Ireland, at Dublin, June 21, 1634, King Charles I granted to Sir Edmund Plowden and eight other petitioners, the whole of Long Island ("Manitie, or Long Isle"), together with forty leagues square of the adjoining continent, constituting the said domain a county palatine and calling it New Albion, while the island received the name of Isle Plowden. "In this document the boundaries of New Albion are so defined as to include all of New Jersey, Maryland, Delaware, and Pennsylvania embraced in a square, the eastern side of which, forty leagues in length, extended (along the coast) from Sandy Hook to Cape May, together with Long Island, and all other 'isles and islands in the sea within ten leagues of the shores of the said region.' The province is expressly erected into a county palatine, under the jurisdiction of Sir Edmund Plowden as earl, depending upon his Majesty's 'royal person and imperial crown, as King of Ireland.'" Subsequently, within the year 1634, the whole of the grant was acquired by and became vested in Plowden and his three sons. Sir Edmund, who died in 1650, spent the remainder of his life in futile attempts to make good his claim against the Swedes on the Delaware and the Dutch, and in exploiting his magnificent title as Earl Palatine of New Albion. The claim and the title seem to have reappeared occasionally among his descendants until some time near the close of the 18th century.—G. B. Keen, *Note on New Albion* (J. Winsor, ed., *Narrative and critical history of America*, v. 3, pp. 457-468).—See also NEW JERSEY: 1640-1655.

ALSO IN: S. Hazard, *Annals of Pennsylvania*, pp. 36-38, 108-112.

NEW AMSTERDAM, old Dutch name for New York City and also given to Buffalo. See NEW YORK: 1634; 1653; 1664; 1786-1799.

NEW ANDALUSIA, early name for part of Colombia. See COLUMBIA: Description.

1509.—Given to Ojeda. See AMERICA: 1509-1511.

NEW BRANDENBURG, Assault of (1631). See GERMANY: 1630-1631.

NEW BRITAIN, early name of New Pomerania. See BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO; MELANESIA; PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1014.

NEW BRUNSWICK: Geographic description.—Area.—Population.—Resources.—New Brunswick, a province of the Dominion of Canada, lies northeast of the state of Maine, from which

it is separated by the international boundary. On the north it is bounded by the province of Quebec and the Bay of Chaleur; on the east by the Gulf of St. Lawrence on the south by the little river Missiguash, and the Bay of Fundy, and on the west by Maine. It is divided from Prince Edward island by Northumberland strait, and is joined to Nova Scotia by the isthmus known as the Gut of Canso. The area is 27,985 square miles. The population in 1921 was 388,092. The chief industries are agriculture, manufacturing, lumbering and fishing. The province is rich in minerals; but only gypsum and some coal is mined. About a third of the area of the province is covered by crown land forests.—See also CANADA: Agriculture; Names; U. S. A.: Economic map.

Included in Norumbega. See NORUMBEGA.

1713.—Uncertain disposition by Treaty of Utrecht. See CANADA: 1713.

1758-1785.—Early settlement.—Coming of Loyalists.—"In 1758, at the same time the last expedition proceeded against Louisburg, a British force was sent to take possession of this Harbour [i.e., St. John]. . . . In 1760 a party of rangers was despatched from Quebec under Capt. Rogers, to drive the French Settlers off the St. John. They performed the duty ferociously, ravaging the country & burning and destroying all before them. The French fled in all directions; some of them making their way up the River toward Canada, . . . [and] conceiving that they were not likely to be disturbed formed the settlement of Madawaska. . . . In 1761, Fort Frederick in this Harbour was garrisoned by a Highland Regiment, . . . [and] the Harbour of St. John was first regularly surveyed. . . . The Governor of Massachusetts, in 1761, dispatched an exploring party, for the purpose of ascertaining the position of affairs and the state of the country on the St. John. The leader of that party was Israel Perley. . . . They found the country a wide waste, and no obstacles, save what might be offered by the Indians, to its being at once occupied and settled, and with this report they returned to Boston. In May 1762, a party of about twenty, came to this Harbour of St. John, in a small vessel from Newburyport. Mr. Samuel Peabody, Mr. James Simonds, and Mr. James White, were the three principal persons of this party. . . . The next year, 1763, . . . about 200 families, in all about 800 souls, under the charge of Israel Perley proceeded to the new Township of Maugerville, where they established themselves, and thus made the first permanent British settlement on the river St. John. . . . The settlers on the St. John, at Maugerville, in addition to the many difficulties and privations attendant on establishing new settlements in a remote part of a wilderness country, were for some time also annoyed by threatened attacks from the Indians. But in 1765 an amicable arrangement was entered into, and a good feeling established between them and the white settlers. . . . On the 30th April 1765, all the country bordering on the St. John, was erected into a county, called the county of Sunbury in the Province of Nova Scotia. This year, 1765, was an important one to this Province. Mr. DesBarres surveyed the whole of the Bay of Fundy for the first time. . . . The settlements on the River continued to increase slowly for some years, and a few more persons began to settle about this harbor. . . . In 1768 all the troops at Annapolis, Cumberland, Amherst and this place were removed to Boston, in consequence of some threatened disturbances there. . . . On the 4th May 1770 Wm. Owen, Plato Denny and Wm. Sherwood were appointed the first Jus-

tices of the Peace in the County of Sunbury and the boundaries of the County were then defined. . . . All the eastern part of this Province, at that time appears to have been considered part of the County of Cumberland in Nova Scotia. . . . At this time hostilities were going on between Great Britain and her revolted Colonies, . . . and the inhabitants in this quarter were much pressed, & solicited to join the confederacy. But they stood firm in their faith to the British flag, and thereby incurred the displeasure of their western neighbours. In August, 1775, the rebels from Machias landed at this place, burned the fort & Barracks at Fort Frederick; and captured a brig laden with oxen and sheep for the British Army then at Boston. The following year the Vulture, Sloop of war, was stationed in this Bay, between Annapolis and St. John, for the protection of both places; but . . . the rebels, visited and plundered the Inhabitants several times in that year. . . . On the 4th July 1776, the day on which the Americans declared their independence, Mr. Michael Franklin, the agent for Indian affairs, concluded a treaty of peace with the Indians on . . . [the St. John], and induced them to deliver up to him an agreement they had entered into with an agent of the rebels, to furnish them with 600 fighting men. For some time after, however, the Indians were kept in a state of ferment, by emissaries from the rebels. . . . In 1777 a rebel privateer visited this harbor and plundered the Inhabitants of everything of value. . . . This last visit almost beggared them, and then, upon their urgent representation, a party of soldiers was sent from Halifax, in a transport, Dec. 1777. . . . In 1778, the Indians were incited by a Colonel Allen, who resided among and had great influence over the Penobscot Indians to make an attack upon the Settlers on this harbor & also upon Fort Howe, . . . [which was prevented by the bravery and address of one of the settlers, named White. Under his influence, the principal chief, Pierre Thoms, informed the band that] he had determined to keep peace with King George & his people, and should return with his followers to *Ock-pa-haag*. . . . And now we come to a point of great interest in our history. On the 16th December, 1782, the governor of Nova Scotia received a letter from General Carleton, dated at New York, stating that many families determined on maintaining their allegiance to the British Crown, would come to Nova Scotia, and settle on the ungranted lands, within its extensive limits. . . . The first party of Loyalists that arrived, landed at the present Market Square [of Halifax], cleared away the dense forest then standing upon it, . . . [and] with ships' sails made hurricane houses. . . . In a dispatch dated 30th Sept. 1783, Gov. Parr stated to the Colonial Minister, that the number of Loyalists who had arrived in Nova Scotia up to that time amounted to 18,000 & three weeks after he reported the arrival of 2000 more. . . . In the summer of 1784 more persons came from the United States. . . . On the 16th Aug. 1784 a Comm. issued under the Privy Seal to Thomas Carleton Esquire appointing him Captain General & Govr. in Chief of the Province of New Brunswick, the boundaries of which (the same as at present) [written 1841] were defined and established by Commission. On the 22nd day of Novr. 1784 this commission was received & promulgated at this place, and the first entry in our Council Records . . . [was made]. Before . . . [New Brunswick] was erected into a separate Province, and while it remained a county of Nova Scotia, a great number of extravagant and improvident grants had been made. Among others Sir Andrew

Snape Hammond, at one period Govr. of Nova Scotia, got 100,000 acres on the Hammond River. . . . Sir John St. Clair got 100,000 acres between the Kennebeckasis and the Washademoac. Our Govr. & Council forthwith set about escheating these large grants, because the conditions of settlement were not complied with, and they acted with such spirit, determination, and high sense of duty, that nearly the whole of the lands so improvidently granted were reverted to the crown, and thus a great barrier to the settlement of the Province was removed. . . . In October following [1785] writs were issued to the Sheriffs of the Several Counties for a General Election at which every Inhabitant, who had been three months a resident was entitled to vote. The Election proceeded and it appears that there were great riots during its continuance in the City. . . . On the 9th Jan. 1786 the first Genl. Assembly met in St. John."—M. H. Perley, *On the early history of New Brunswick* (*Educational Review*, 1891, no. 45-49, pp. 20, 23).

1820-1837.—Family compact. See CANADA: 1820-1837.

1824-1854.—First census.—Great fire of Miramichi.—Boundary disputes.—Irish immigration.—"In 1824 the first census of New Brunswick was taken, and the population found to be 74,176 persons. . . . But the flow of population and the prosperity of these years was to be followed by a period of loss and ruin. . . . The Great Fire of Miramichi, in October, 1825, not only destroyed a vast extent of forest, but the flourishing towns and settlements along the Miramichi, built up with patient toil and industry, were swept away, and with such awful suddenness that many people were burned to death or drowned in the river where they had sought refuge. At that time the Miramichi river was settled on both sides for the distance of one hundred miles from its mouth. On the north bank of the river lay the thriving town of Newcastle, then containing a thousand inhabitants, and Douglstown, near by, with one-third as many. On the south side was Chatham, already a flourishing trading port, and on both sides of the river there were numerous villages and settlements. . . . The town of Chatham happily escaped the flames and afforded a place of refuge. . . . The loss, not including the timber on Crown lands, was estimated at \$1,250,000. . . . It would appear that the only border lines of New Brunswick not subject to dispute are those 'writ in water' along her coasts. Nova Scotia was not satisfied with the Missiguash river boundary, and wished to have the line placed farther north, so as to include all the settlements made at the head of the Bay of Fundy before New Brunswick became a separate province in 1784. It was more than half a century after the separation that the present boundary line between the two provinces was agreed upon. . . . Quebec claimed all the north-west portion of . . . the province beyond a line starting from Mars Hill and running east and north to the mouth of the Restigouche. But, as in the case of Maine, New Brunswick had a counter claim which, if admitted, would place her northern limit as far up as the St. Lawrence watershed. After various efforts to settle the dispute, the present boundary line was decided upon in 1855. . . . Between 1840 and 1850, thirty-seven thousand Irish people settled in various parts of New Brunswick. More than fifteen thousand arrived in St. John in the year 1847, and many at Miramichi. In the year 1854 St. John was visited by Asiatic cholera, and more than 2,000 people died from this terrible scourge. The shipyards and places of business were almost

deserted, and hundreds fled from the city to avoid the plague."—G. U. Hay, *History of New Brunswick (Gage's 20th Century Series, pp. 121-123, 125-126, 136-138)*.

1838.—Boundary dispute with the United States. See AROOSTOOK WAR.

1854.—Reciprocity Treaty with the United States. See TARIFF: 1854-1866.

1867.—Embraced in Dominion of Canada. See CANADA: 1867.

1898.—Vote on prohibition. See CANADA: 1898 (September).

1901-1902.—Census.—Reduced representation in Parliament. See CANADA: 1901-1902.

1921.—Electoral system. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 1921.

1921.—Extent of territory. See CANADA: Map of Dominion of Canada and Newfoundland.

NEW CÆSAREA, early name of New Jersey. See NEW JERSEY: 1664-1667.

NEW CALEDONIA, one of the Melanesian islands, in the Pacific ocean. See MELANESIA; PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914; PRISON REFORM: France.

NEW CARTHAGE. See CARTAGENA, CARTHAGENA, or NEW CARTHAGE.

NEW CARTHAGE, early name for Costa Rica. See COSTA RICA: Origin of name.

NEW CASTILE, southern part of Castile, composed of the provinces of Ciudad Real, Cuenca, Guadalajara, Madrid and Toledo. It was annexed to Castile in 1085 at the conquest of the Moorish kingdom of Toledo. Toledo became the capital of the Castilian monarchs, although Valladolid often served as a royal residence.

NEW CHURCH. See SWEDENBORG AND THE NEW CHURCH.

NEW ENGLAND.—The name "New England," though no longer of governmental significance, is still applied to the group of northeastern states of the United States included in the original colonial settlements. It was first applied in 1614 by Captain John Smith to the territory from Penobscot to Cape Cod. (See AMERICA: 1614-1615.) The New England states are Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Eastern woodlands area; IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests and wide dominion; STOCKBRIDGE INDIANS.

Norumbega of early geographers. See NORUMBEGA.

1498.—First coasted by Sebastian Cabot. See AMERICA: 1498.

1524.—Coasted by Verrazano. See AMERICA: 1523-1524; 1524.

17th century.—Educational development.—Dame schools. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: United States.

17th century.—Liquor situation. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1607-1775.

1602-1607.—Voyages of Gosnold, Pring and Weymouth. See AMERICA: 1602-1605.

1604.—Embraced in region claimed as Acadia by French. See CANADA: 1603-1605.

1605.—Coast explored by Champlain. See CANADA: 1603-1605.

1606.—Embraced in grant to North Virginia Company of Plymouth. See VIRGINIA: 1606-1607; AMERICA: Map of King James' Grants.

1607-1608.—Popham colony on the Kennebec.—Fruitless venture of Plymouth Company. See MAINE: 1607-1608; U. S. A.: 1607-1752.

1614.—Named, mapped and described by Captain John Smith. See AMERICA: 1614-1615.

1620.—Voyage of the Mayflower and planting of Plymouth colony. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1620.

1620.—Settlement of Congregationalists. See CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH: Origin: 1620-1650.

1620-1623.—Incorporation of Council for New England successor to Plymouth Company.—Great domain and monopoly of fisheries.—"While the king was engaged in the overthrow of the London company [see VIRGINIA: 1622-1624], its more loyal rival in the West of England [the Plymouth company, or North Virginia branch of the Virginia company] sought new letters-patent, with a great enlargement of their domain. The remonstrances of the Virginia corporation and the rights of English commerce could delay for two years, but not defeat, the measure that was pressed by the friends of the monarch. On the 3d of November, 1620, King James incorporated 40 of his subjects—some of them members of his household and his government, the most wealthy and powerful of the English nobility—as 'The Council established at Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for the planting, ruling, ordering, and governing New England in America.' The territory, which was conferred on them in absolute property, with unlimited powers of legislation and government, extended from the 40th to the 48th degree of north latitude, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The grant included the fisheries; and a revenue was considered certain from a duty to be imposed on all tonnage employed in them. The patent placed emigrants to New England under the absolute authority of the corporation, and it was through grants from that plenary power, confirmed by the crown, that institutions the most favorable to colonial independence and the rights of mankind came into being. The French derided the action of the British monarch in bestowing lands and privileges which their own sovereign, seventeen years before, had appropriated. The English nation was incensed at the largess of immense monopolies by the royal prerogative; and in April, 1621, Sir Edwin Sandys brought the grievance before the house of Commons. . . . But the parliament was dissolved before a bill could be perfected. In 1622, five and thirty sail of vessels went to fish on the coasts of New England, and made good voyages. The monopolists appealed to King James, and he issued a proclamation, which forbade any to approach the northern coast of America, except with the leave of their company or of the privy council. In June, 1623, Francis West was despatched as admiral of New England, to exclude such fishermen as came without a license. But they refused to pay the tax which he imposed, and his ineffectual authority was soon resigned."—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States, v. 1, pt. 1, ch. 13*.

ALSO IN: C. Deane, *New England (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 3, ch. 9)*.—F. Gorges, *Brief narration (Maine Historical Society Collections, v. 2)*.

1620-1660.—Puritan domination. See PURITANS: 1620-1660.

1621-1631.—Grants made by Council for New England.—Settlements planted.—Nova Scotia, Maine and New Hampshire conferred.—Captain John Mason, a native of King's Lynn, in Norfolk, became governor of Newfoundland in 1615. "While there he wrote a tract entitled 'A Brief Discourse of the Newfoundland,' and sent it to his friend Sir John Scot of Edinburgh, to peruse, and to print if he thought it worthy. It was printed in the year 1620. . . . In the spring or summer of 1621, Mason returned into England, and immediately found proof of the effect of his little tract. . . . Sir William Alexander, afterwards Earl of

Stirling, immediately sought him out. He had been appointed Gentleman of the Privy Chamber to Prince Henry, honored with Knighthood, and was Master of Requests for Scotland. He invited Mason to his house, where he discussed with him a scheme of Scotch colonization, and he resolved to undertake settling a colony in what is now Nova Scotia. He begged Mason to aid him in procuring a grant of this territory from the Council for New England, it being within their limits. Mason referred him to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, one of the Council and their Treasurer. The king readily recommended Alexander to Gorges, and Gorges heartily approved the plan. In September, 1621, Alexander obtained a Royal Patent for a tract of land which he called New Scotland, a name attractive to his countrymen. This must have been gratifying to Mason, who had urged Scotch emigration in his tract printed only a year before. The Council for New England, established in November, 1620, was now granting and ready to grant to associations or to individuals parcels of its vast domain in America. . . . The second patent for land granted by the Council was to Capt. John Mason, bearing date March 9, 1621-2. It was all the land lying between the Naumkeag and the Merrimac rivers, extending back from the sea-coast to the heads of both of these rivers, with all the islands within three miles of the shore. Mason called this Mariana. This tract of territory lies wholly within the present bounds of Massachusetts. We now arrive at a period when Mason and Gorges have a joint interest in New England. On the 10th of August, 1622, the Council made a third grant. This was to Gorges and Mason jointly of land lying upon the sea-coast between the Merrimac and the Kennebec rivers, extending three-score miles into the country, with all islands within five leagues of the premises to be, or intended to be, called the Province of Maine. Thus was the territory destined seven years later to bear the name of New Hampshire, first carved from the vast domain of New England, whose boundaries were fixed by the great circles of the heavens. Thus was Capt. Mason joint proprietor of his territory afterwards known as New Hampshire, before a single settler had built a cabin on the Pascataqua. Capt. Robert Gorges, son of Sir Ferdinando, was authorized to give the grantees possession of this new Province. Great enthusiasm on the subject of colonization now prevailed in England, extending from the king, through all ranks. . . . Before the year 1622 closed, the Council issued many patents for land, in small divisions, to persons intending to make plantations. Among the grants, is one to David Thomson and two associates, of land on the Pascataqua. The bounds and extent of this patent are unknown. Only the fact that such a patent was granted is preserved. . . . The Council for New England, in view of the many intended settlements, as well as the few already made, now proposed to set up a general government in New England. Capt. Robert Gorges, recently returned from the Venetian wars, was appointed Governor, with Capt. Francis West, Capt. Christopher Levett, and the governor of New Plymouth as his Council. Capt. Gorges arrived here the middle of September, 1623, having been preceded some months by Capt. West, who was Vice-Admiral of New England as well as Councillor. Capt. Levett came as late as November. . . . The next year, 1624, war between England and Spain broke out, and drew off for a while Gorges and Mason from their interests in colonization. Gorges was Captain of the Castle and Island of St. Nicholas, at Plymouth, a post

that he had held for thirty years; and he was now wholly taken up with the duties of his office. Mason's services were required as a naval officer of experience. . . . In 1626 England plunged into a war with France, without having ended the war with Spain. Capt. Mason was advanced to be Treasurer and Paymaster of the English armies employed in the wars. There was no time now to think of American colonization. His duties were arduous. . . . In 1629 peace was made with France, and the war with Spain was coming to an end. No sooner were Gorges and Mason a little relieved from their public duties than they sprang at once to their old New England enterprise. They resolved to push forward their interests. They came to some understanding about a division of their Province of Maine. On the 7th of November, 1629, a day memorable in the history of New Hampshire, the Council granted to Mason a patent of all that part of the Province of Maine lying between the Merrimac and Pascataqua rivers; and Mason called it New Hampshire, out of regard to the favor in which he held Hampshire in England, where he had resided many years. . . . This grant had hardly been made when Champlain was brought to London, a prisoner, from Canada, by Kirke. The French had been driven from that region. Gorges and Mason procured immediately a grant from the Council of a vast tract of land in the region of Lake Champlain, supposed to be not only a fine country for peltry, but to contain vast mineral wealth. The Province was called Laconia on account of the numerous lakes supposed or known to be there, and was the most northern grant hitherto made by the Council. The patent bears date Nov. 17, 1629, only ten days later than Mason's New Hampshire grant. . . . For the purpose of advancing the interests of Gorges and Mason in Laconia as well as on the Pascataqua, they joined with them six merchants in London, and received from the Council a grant dated Nov. 3, 1631, of a tract of land lying on both sides of the Pascataqua river, on the sea-coast and within territory already owned by Gorges and Mason in severalty. This patent, called the Pascataqua Patent, covered, on the west side of the river, the present towns of Portsmouth, New Castle, Rye and part of Greenland; on the east side, Kittery, Eliot, the Berwicks, and the western part of Lebanon."—C. W. Tuttle, *Captain John Mason (Prince Society Publications, 1887, pp. 12-24)*.—During the period, 1621-1631, permanent settlements sprang up at Agamenticum, Saco, Biddeford, Portland, and Scarborough.—See also MASSACHUSETTS: 1623-1629; CONNECTICUT: 1631.

ALSO IN: S. F. Haven, *Grants under the Great Council for New England (Lowell Institute Lectures: Early History of Massachusetts, pp. 127-162)*.—J. P. Baxter, ed., *Sir Ferdinando Gorges and his province of Maine (Prince Society Publications, 1890)*.—J. G. Palirey, *History of New England, v. 1, p. 307, foot-note*.

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

1622-1664.—Early divisions of territory by colonial grants. See AMERICA: Map of early colonial grants.

1623-1629.—Dorchester Company and royal charter to governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay. See, MASSACHUSETTS: 1623-1629: Dorchester Company.

1624-1776.—Colonial government. See U. S. A.: 1624-1776.

1629.—New patent granted to Plymouth colony. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1623-1629: Plymouth colony.

1629-1630.—Immigration of governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay from London. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1629-1630.

1630.—Founding of Boston. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1630.

1631.—Arrival of Roger Williams. See RHODE ISLAND: 1631-1636.

1631-1833.—Growth of Congregationalism. See CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH: 1631-1833.

1634-1637.—Massachusetts Company.—Pioneer settlements in Connecticut and their government. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1634-1637; CONNECTICUT: 1634-1637.

1635.—Dissolution of Council for New England and partitioning of its territory claims by lot.—“The Council for New England, having struggled through nearly fifteen years of maladministration and ill-luck, had yielded to the discouragements which beset it. By the royal favor, it had triumphed over the rival Virginia Company, to be overwhelmed in its turn by the just jealousy of Parliament, and by dissensions among its members. The Council, having, by profuse and inconsistent grants of its lands, exhausted its common property, as well as its credit with purchasers for keeping its engagements, had no motive to continue its organization. Under these circumstances, it determined on a resignation of its charter to the king, and a surrender of the administration of its domain to a General Governor of his appointment, on the condition that all the territory, a large portion of which by its corporate action had already been alienated to other parties [see above: 1621-1631], should be granted in severalty by the king to the members of the Council. Twelve associates accordingly proceeded to a distribution of New England among themselves by lot; and nothing was wanting to render the transaction complete, and to transfer to them the ownership of that region, except to oust the previous patentees, of whom the most powerful body were colonists in Massachusetts Bay. To effect this, Sir John Banks, Attorney-General, brought a writ of ‘quo warranto’ in Westminster Hall against the Massachusetts Company. [See MASSACHUSETTS: 1634-1637.] . . . It seemed that, when a few more forms should be gone through, all would be over with the presumptuous Colony. . . . But . . . everything went on as if Westminster Hall had not spoken. ‘The Lord frustrated their design.’ The disorders of the mother country were a safeguard of the infant liberty of New England.”—J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 1, ch. 10.—In the parcelling of New England by lot among the members of the Council, the divisions were: (1) Between the St. Croix and Pemaquid, to William Alexander. (2) From Pemaquid to Sagadahoc, in part to the marquis of Hamilton. (3) Between the Kennebec and Androscoggin; and (4) from Sagadahoc to Piscataqua, to Sir F. Gorges. (5) From Piscataqua to the Naumkeag, to Mason. (6) From the Naumkeag round the sea-coast, by Cape Cod to Narragansett, to the marquis of Hamilton. (7) From Narragansett to the half-way bound, between that and the Connecticut river, and fifty miles up into the country, to Lord Edward Gorges. (8) From this midway point to the Connecticut river, to the earl of Carlisle. (9 and 10) From the Connecticut to the Hudson, to the duke of Lennox. (11 and 12) From the Hudson to the limits of the Plymouth company’s territory, to Lord Mulgrave.—W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *History of the United States*, v. 1, p. 337, foot-note.

ALSO IN: T. Hutchinson, *History of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay*, v. 1, p. 48-50.

1636.—Providence plantation and Roger Williams. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1636; RHODE ISLAND: 1636.

1636-1639.—First American constitution.—Genesis of a state. See CONNECTICUT: 1636-1639.

1636-1641.—Public registry laws. See COMMON LAW: 1630-1641.

1637.—Pequot War.—“The region extending from the bounds of Rhode Island to the banks of the Hudson was at the time of the colonization held in strips of territory mainly by three tribes of the natives, who had long had feuds among themselves and with other tribes. They were the Narragansetts, the Mohegans, and the Pequots. The Mohegans were then tributaries of the Pequots, and were restive under subjection to their fierce and warlike conquerors, who were estimated to number at the time 1,000 fighting men. . . . The policy of the whites was to aggravate the dissensions of the tribes, and to make alliance with one or more of them. Winthrop records in March, 1631, the visit to Boston of a Connecticut Indian, probably a Mohegan, who invited the English to come and plant near the river, and who offered presents, with the promise of a profitable trade. His object proved to be to engage the interest of the whites against the Pequots. His errand was for the time unsuccessful. Further advances of a similar character were made afterwards, the result being to persuade the English that, sooner or later, they would need to interfere as umpires, and must use discretion in a wise regard to what would prove to be for their own interest. In 1633 the Pequots had savagely mutilated and murdered a party of English traders, who, under Captain Stone, of Virginia, had gone up the Connecticut. The Boston magistrates had instituted measures to call the Pequots to account, but nothing effectual was done. The Dutch had a fort on the river near Hartford, and the English had built one at its mouth. In 1636 several settlements had been made in Connecticut by the English from Cambridge, Dorchester, and other places. John Oldham, of Watertown, had in that year been murdered, while on a trading voyage, by some Indians belonging on Block Island. To avenge this act our magistrates sent Endicott, as general, with a body of 90 men, with orders to kill all the male Indians on that island, sparing only the women and little children. He accomplished his bloody work only in part, but after destroying all the corn-fields and wigwams, he turned to hunt the Pequots on the main. After this expedition, which simply exasperated the Pequots, they made a desperate effort to induce the Narragansetts to come into a league with them against the English. It seemed for a while as if they would succeed in this, and the consequences would doubtless have been most disastrous to the whites. The scheme was thwarted largely through the wise and friendly intervention of Roger Williams, whose diplomacy was made effective by the confidence which his red neighbors had in him. The Narragansett messengers then entered into a friendly league with the English in Boston. All through the winter of 1637 the Pequots continued to pick off the whites in their territory, and they mutilated, tortured, roasted, and murdered at least thirty victims, becoming more and more vindictive and cruel in their doings. There were then in Connecticut some 250 Englishmen, and, as has been said, about 1,000 Pequot ‘braves.’ The authorities in Connecticut resolutely started a military organization, giving the command to the redoubtable John Mason, a Low-Country soldier, who had recently gone from Dorchester. Massachusetts and Plymouth

contributed their quotas, having as allies the Mohegans, of whose fidelity they had fearful misgivings, but who proved constant though not very effective. Of the 160 men raised by Massachusetts, only about 20, under Captain Underhill,—a good fighter, but a sorry scamp,—reached the scene in season to join with Mason in surprising the unsuspecting and sleeping Pequots in one of their forts near the Mystic. Fire, lead, and steel with the infuriated vengeance of Puritan soldiers against murderous and fiendish heathen, did effectively the exterminating work. Hundreds of the savages, in their maddened frenzy of fear and dismay, were shot or run through as they were impaled on their own palisades in their efforts to rush from their blazing wigwams, crowded within their frail enclosures. The English showed no mercy, for they felt none. . . . A very few of the wretched savages escaped to another fort, to which the victorious English followed them. This, however, they soon abandoned, taking refuge, with their old people and children, in the protection of swamps and thickets. Here, too, the English, who had lost but two men killed, though they had many wounded, and who were now reinforced, pursued and surrounded them, allowing the aged and the children, by a parley, to come out. The men, however, were mostly slain, and the feeble remnant of them which sought protection among the so-called river Indians, higher up the Connecticut, and among the Mohawks, were but scornfully received,—the Pequot sachem Sassacus, being beheaded by the latter. A few of the prisoners were sold in the West Indies as slaves, others were reduced to the same humiliation among the Mohegans, or as farm and house servants to the English. . . . But the alliances into which the whites had entered in order to divide their savage foes were the occasions of future entanglements in a tortuous policy, and of later bloody struggles of an appalling character. . . . In all candor the admission must be made, that the Christian white men . . . allowed themselves to be trained by the experience of Indian warfare into a savage cruelty and a desperate vengeance.”—G. E. Ellis, *Indians of eastern Massachusetts (Memorial History of Boston, v. 1, pp. 252-254)*.—“More than 800 [of the Pequots] had been slain in the war, and less than 200 remained to share the fate of captives. These were distributed among the Narragansetts and Mohegans, with the pledge that they should no more be called Pequots, nor inhabit their native country again. To make the annihilation of the race yet more complete, their very name was extinguished in Connecticut by legislative act. Pequot river was called the Thames, Pequot town was named New London.”—S. G. Arnold, *History of Rhode Island, v. 1, ch. 3*.—See also RHODE ISLAND: 1637.

ALSO IN: G. H. Hollister, *History of Connecticut, ch. 2-3*.—G. E. Ellis, *Life of John Mason (Library of American Biography, series 2, v. 3)*.

1638.—Purchase, settlement and naming of Rhode Island.—Founding of New Haven colony. See RHODE ISLAND: 1638-1640; CONNECTICUT: 1638.

1638.—Roger Williams purchases land from Indians. See RHODE ISLAND: 1636-1661.

1638-1647.—Providence plantation chartered.—Religious freedom granted in Providence. See RHODE ISLAND: 1638-1647.

1639.—Fundamental Agreement of New Haven. See CONNECTICUT: 1630.

1639-1662.—“Blue Laws” of New Haven. See CONNECTICUT: 1630-1662.

1640-1644.—Growth of population and rise of

towns.—End of Puritan exodus.—“Over 20,000 persons are estimated to have arrived in New England in the fifteen years before the assembling of the Long Parliament [1640]; one hundred and ninety-eight ships bore them over the Atlantic; and the whole cost of their transportation, and of the establishment of the plantation, is computed at about £200,000, or nearly a million of dollars. The progress of settlement had been proportionally rapid. . . . Hingham was settled in 1634. Newbury, Concord, and Dedham were incorporated in 1635. And from that date to 1643, acts were passed incorporating Lynn, North Chelsea, Salisbury, Rowley, Sudbury, Braintree, Woburn, Gloucester, Haverhill, Wenham, and Hull. West of Worcester, the only town incorporated within the present limits of the state was Springfield, for which an act was passed in 1636. These little municipalities were, in a measure, peculiar to New England; each was sovereign within itself; each sustained a relation to the whole, analogous to that which the states of our Union hold respectively to the central power, or the constitution of the United States; and the idea of the formation of such communities was probably derived from the parishes of England, for each town was a parish, and each, as it was incorporated, was required to contribute to the maintenance of the ministry as the basis of its grant of municipal rights. Four counties were erected at this time: Suffolk, Essex, Middlesex, and Old Norfolk, all which were incorporated in 1643. Each of the first three contained eight towns, and Old Norfolk six.”—J. S. Barry, *History of Massachusetts, v. 1, ch. 8*.—“Events in England had now [1640] reached a crisis, and the Puritan party, rising rapidly into power, no longer looked to America for a refuge. The great tide of emigration ceased to flow; but the government of Massachusetts went on wisely and strongly under the alternating rule of Winthrop, Dudley, and Bellingham. The English troubles crippled the holders of the Mason and Gorges grants, and the settlements in New Hampshire—whither Wheelwright had gone, and where turbulence had reigned—were gradually added to the jurisdiction of Massachusetts. In domestic matters everything went smoothly. There was some trouble with Bellingham, and Winthrop was again made Governor [1642]. The oath of allegiance to the King taken by the magistrates was abandoned, because Charles violated the privileges of Parliament, and the last vestige of dependence vanished. Massachusetts was divided into counties; and out of a ludicrous contest about a stray pig, in which deputies and magistrates took different sides, grew a very important controversy as to the powers of deputies and assistants, which resulted [1644] in the division of the legislature into two branches, and a consequent improvement in the symmetry and solidity of the political system.”—H. C. Lodge, *Short history of the English colonies, ch. 18*.—See also TOWNSHIP AND TOWN-MEETING; GEORGIA: 1735-1750.

1640-1655.—Colonizing enterprises of New Haven on the Delaware. See NEW JERSEY: 1640-1655.

1641-1679.—Massachusetts claims to New Hampshire asserted and defeated. See NEW HAMPSHIRE: 1641-1670.

1642-1779.—Poor relief.—Law of settlement.—Apprenticeship of pauper children.—Overseers.—Almshouses. See CHARITIES: United States: 1642-1770.

1643.—Confederation of colonies.—In May, 1643, “a confederacy, to be known as the United

Colonies of New England, was entered into at Boston, between delegates from Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven on the one hand, and the General Court of Massachusetts on the other. Supposed dangers from the Indians, and their quarrels with the Dutch of Manhattan, had induced the people of Connecticut to withdraw their formal objections to this measure. Two commissioners from each colony were to meet annually, or oftener, if necessary; the sessions to be held alternately at Boston, Hartford, New Haven, and Plymouth; but Boston was to have two sessions for one at each of the other places. The commissioners, all of whom must be church members, were to choose a president from among themselves, and everything was to be decided by six voices out of the eight. No war was to be declared by either colony without the consent of the commissioners, to whose province Indian affairs and foreign relations were especially assigned. The sustentation of the 'truth and liberties of the Gospel' was declared to be one great object of this alliance. All war expenses were to be a common charge, to be apportioned according to the number of male inhabitants in each colony. Runaway servants and fugitive criminals were to be delivered up, a provision afterward introduced into the Constitution of the United States; and the commissioners soon recommended, what remained ever after the practice of New England, and ultimately became, also, a provision of the United States Constitution, that judgments of courts of law and probates of wills in each colony should have full faith and credit in all the others. The commissioners from Massachusetts, as representing by far the most powerful colony of the alliance, claimed an honorary precedence, which the others readily conceded. Plymouth, though far outgrown by Massachusetts, and even by Connecticut, had made, however, some progress. It now contained seven towns, and had lately adopted a representative system. But the old town of Plymouth was in decay, the people being drawn off to the new settlements. Bradford had remained governor, except for four years, during two of which he had been relieved by Edward Winslow, and the other two by Thomas Prince. New Haven was, perhaps, the weakest member of the alliance. Besides that town, the inhabitants of which were principally given to commerce, there were two others, Milford and Guilford, agricultural settlements; Southold, at the eastern extremity of Long Island, also acknowledged the jurisdiction of New Haven, and a new settlement had recently been established at Stamford. . . . The colony of Connecticut, not limited to the towns on the river, to which several new ones had already been added, included also Stratford and Fairfield, on the coast of the Sound, west of New Haven. . . . The town of Southampton, on Long Island, acknowledged also the jurisdiction of Connecticut. Fort Saybrook, at the mouth of the river, was still an independent settlement, and Fenwick, as the head of it, became a party to the articles of confederation. But the next year he sold out his interest to Connecticut, and into that colony Saybrook was absorbed. . . . Gorges's province of Maine was not received into the New England alliance, 'because the people there ran a different course both in their ministry and civil administration.' The same objection applied with still greater force to Aquidday and Providence."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States*, v. 1, ch. 10.—See also U. S. A.: 1607-1752.

ALSO IN: J. S. Barry, *History of Massachusetts*, v. 1, ch. 11.—G. P. Fisher, *Colonial era*, ch. 8.

1644.—Chartering of Providence plantation,

and Rhode Island Union. See RHODE ISLAND: 1638-1647.

1647-1775.—Religious liberty granted by Rhode Island.—Influx of Jews from Spain. See RHODE ISLAND: 1647-1770; JEWS: United States: 17th-18th centuries: In the colonies.

1649-1651.—Under Cromwell and the Commonwealth. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1649-1651.

1650.—Adjustment of Connecticut boundaries with the Dutch. See NEW YORK: 1650.

1651-1660.—Disputed jurisdiction in Maine.—Claims of Massachusetts made good. See MAINE: 1643-1677.

1656-1661.—Persecution of Quakers. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1656-1661.

1657-1662.—Halfway covenant. See BOSTON: 1657-1662.

1660-1664.—Protection of Regicides. See CONNECTICUT: 1660-1664.

1660-1665.—Under restored monarchy.—First collision of Massachusetts with the crown. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1660-1665.

1662.—Union of Connecticut and New Haven by royal charter. See CONNECTICUT: 1662-1664.

1663.—Rhode Island charter, and beginning of boundary conflicts with Connecticut. See RHODE ISLAND: 1660-1663.

1668-1848.—Forerunners of the Y. M. C. A. See Y. M. C. A.: 1625-1844.

1674-1675.—King Philip's War: Causes and beginning.—"The Pokanokets had always rejected the Christian faith and Christian manners, and their chief had desired to insert in a treaty, what the Puritans always rejected, that the English should never attempt to convert the warriors of his tribe from the religion of their race. The aged Massasoit—he who had welcomed the pilgrims to the soil of New England, and had opened his cabin to shelter the founder of Rhode Island—now slept with his fathers, and Philip, his son, had succeeded him as head of the allied tribes. Repeated sales of land had narrowed their domains, and the English had artfully crowded them into the tongues of land, as 'most suitable and convenient for them,' and as more easily watched. The principal seats of the Pokanokets were the peninsulas which we now call Bristol and Tiverton. As the English villages drew nearer and nearer to them, their hunting-grounds were put under culture, their natural parks were turned into pastures, their best fields for planting corn were gradually alienated, their fisheries were impaired by more skilful methods, till they found themselves deprived of their broad acres, and, by their own legal contracts, driven, as it were, into the sea. Collisions and mutual distrust were the necessary consequence. There exists no evidence of a deliberate conspiracy on the part of all the tribes. The commencement of war was accidental; many of the Indians were in a maze, not knowing what to do, and disposed to stand for the English; sure proof of no ripened conspiracy. But they had the same complaints, recollections, and fears; and, when they met, they could not but grieve together at the alienation of the domains of their fathers. They spurned the English claim of jurisdiction over them, and were indignant that Indian chiefs or warriors should be arraigned before a jury. And, when the language of their anger and sorrow was reported to the men of Plymouth colony by an Indian tale-bearer, fear professed to discover in their unguarded words the evidence of an organized conspiracy. The haughty Philip, who had once before been compelled to surrender his 'English arms' and pay an onerous tribute, was, in 1674, summoned to submit to an examination,

and could not escape suspicion. The wrath of his tribe was roused, and the informer was murdered. The murderers, in their turn, were identified, seized, tried by a jury, of which one half were Indians, and, in June, 1675, on conviction, were hanged. The young men of the tribe panted for revenge; without delay, eight or nine of the English were slain in or about Swansea, and the alarm of war spread through the colonies. Thus was Philip hurried into 'his rebellion,' and he is reported to have wept as he heard that a white man's blood had been shed. . . . What chances had he of success? The English were united; the Indians had no alliance, and half of them joined the English, or were quiet spectators of the fight: the English had guns enough; few of the Indians were well armed, and they could get no new supplies: the English had towns for their shelter and safe retreat; the miserable wigwams of the natives were defenceless: the English had sure supplies of food; the Indians might easily lose their precarious stores. They rose without hope, and they fought without mercy. For them as a nation there was no to-morrow. . . . At the first alarm, volunteers from Massachusetts joined the troops of Plymouth; on the twenty-ninth of June, within a week from the beginning of hostilities, the Pokanokets were driven from Mount Hope; and in less than a month Philip was a fugitive among the Nipmucks, the interior tribes of Massachusetts. The little army of the colonists then entered the territory of the Narragansetts, and from the reluctant tribe extorted a treaty of neutrality, with a promise to deliver up every hostile Indian. Victory seemed promptly assured. But it was only the commencement of horrors. Canonchet, the chief sachem of the Narragansetts, was the son of Miantonomoh; and could he forget his father's wrongs? Desolation extended along the whole frontier. Banished from his patrimony where the pilgrims found a friend, and from his cabin which had sheltered exiles, Philip and his warriors spread through the country, awakening their race to a warfare of extermination."—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 5.—"At this time, according to loose estimates, there may have been some 36,000 Indians and 60,000 whites in New England; 10,000 of the former fit for war, and 15,000 of the latter capable of bearing arms. . . . At the outset, the Narragansetts, numbering 2,000 warriors, did not actually second Philip's resistance. But Canonchet, their sachem, might well remember the death of his father Miantonomo [who, taken prisoner in a war with the Mohegans, and surrendered by them to the English, in 1643, with a request for permission to put him to death, was deliberately returned to his savage captors, on advice taken from the ministers at Boston—doomed to death without his knowledge]. . . . No efforts at conciliation seem to have been made by either party; for the whites felt their superiority (were they not 'the Lord's chosen people?'); and Philip knew the desperate nature of the struggle between united and well-armed whites, and divided uncontrolled savages; yet when the emergency came he met it, and never faltered or plead from that day forth."—C. W. Elliott, *New England history*, v. 1, ch. 40.

ALSO IN: B. Church, *History of King Philip's War* (*Prince Society Publication*, 1867).—S. G. Drake, *Aboriginal races of North America*, bk. 3.

1675 (July-September).—**King Philip's War.**—**Savage successes of the Indian enemy.**—**Increasing rage and terror among the colonists.**—The Nipmucks, into whose country Philip retreated, "had already commenced hostilities by

attacking Mendon. They waylaid and killed Captain Hutchinson, a son of the famous Mrs. Hutchinson, and 16 out of a party of 20 sent from Boston to Brookfield to parley with them. Attacking Brookfield itself, they burned it, except one fortified house. The inhabitants were saved by Major Willard, who, on information of their danger, came with a troop of horse from Lancaster, thirty miles through the woods, to their rescue. A body of troops presently arrived from the eastward, and were stationed for some time at Brookfield. The colonists now found that by driving Philip to extremity they had roused a host of unexpected enemies. The River Indians, anticipating an intended attack upon them, joined the assailants. Deerfield and Northfield, the northernmost towns on the Connecticut River, settled within a few years past, were attacked and several of the inhabitants killed and wounded. Captain Beers, sent from Hadley to their relief with a convoy of provisions, was surprised near Northfield and slain, with 20 of his men. Northfield was abandoned and burned by the Indians. . . . Driven to the necessity of defensive warfare, those in command on the river determined to establish a magazine and garrison at Hadley. Captain Lathrop, who had been dispatched from the eastward to the assistance of the river towns, was sent with 80 men, the flower of the youth of Essex county, to guard the wagons intended to convey to Hadley 3,000 bushels of unthreshed wheat, the produce of the fertile Deerfield meadows. Just before arriving at Deerfield, near a small stream still known as Bloody Brook, under the shadow of the abrupt conical Sugar Loaf, the southern termination of the Deerfield mountain, Lathrop fell into an ambush, and, after a brave resistance, perished there with all his company. Captain Moseley, stationed at Deerfield, marched to his assistance, but arrived too late to help him. That town, also, was abandoned, and burned by the Indians. Springfield, about the same time, was set on fire, but was partially saved by the arrival of Major Treat, with aid from Connecticut. Hatfield, now the frontier town on the north, was vigorously attacked, but the garrison succeeded in repelling the assailants. Meanwhile, hostilities were spreading; the Indians on the Merrimac began to attack the towns in their vicinity; and the whole of Massachusetts was soon in the utmost alarm. Except in the immediate neighborhood of Boston, the country still remained an immense forest, dotted by a few openings. The frontier settlements . . . were mostly broken up, and the inhabitants, retiring towards Boston, spread everywhere dread and intense hatred of 'the bloody heathen.' Even the praying Indians, and the small dependent and tributary tribes, became objects of suspicion and terror. . . . Not content with realities sufficiently frightful, superstition, as usual, added bugbears of her own. Indian bows were seen in the sky, and scalps in the moon. The northern lights became an object of terror. Phantom horsemen careered among the clouds, or were heard to gallop invisible through the air. The howling of wolves was turned into a terrible omen. The war was regarded as a special judgment in punishment of prevailing sins. . . . About the time of the first collision with Philip, the Tarenteens, or Eastern Indians, had attacked the settlements in Maine and New Hampshire, plundering and burning the houses, and massacring such of the inhabitants as fell into their hands. This sudden diffusion of hostilities and vigor of attack from opposite quarters, made the colonists believe that Philip had long been plotting and had gradually matured an extensive con-

spiracy, into which most of the tribes had liberally entered, for the extermination of the whites. This belief infuriated the colonists, and suggested some very questionable proceedings. . . . But there is no evidence of any deliberate concert; nor, in fact, were the Indians united. Had they been so, the war would have been far more serious. The Connecticut tribes proved faithful, and that colony remained untouched. Even the Narragansetts, the most powerful confederacy in New England, in spite of so many former provocations, had not yet taken up arms. But they were strongly suspected of intention to do so, and were accused, notwithstanding their recent assurances, of giving aid and shelter to the hostile tribes."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States*, v. 1, ch. 14.

ALSO IN: R. Markham, *History of King Philip's War*, ch. 7-8.—G. H. Hollister, *History of Connecticut*, v. 1, ch. 12.—M. A. Green, *Springfield, 1636-1886*, ch. 9.

1675 (October-December).—King Philip's War.—Crushing of Narragansetts.—"The attitude of the powerful Narragansett tribe was regarded with anxiety. It was known that, so far from keeping their compact to surrender such enemies of the English as should fall into their hands, they had harbored numbers of Philip's dispersed retainers and allies. While the Federal Commissioners were in session at Boston [October], Canonchet, sachem of the Narragansetts, came thither with other chiefs, and promised that the hostile Indians whom they acknowledged to be then under their protection should be surrendered within ten days. But probably the course of events on Connecticut River emboldened them. At all events, they did not keep their engagement. The day for the surrender came and went, and no Indians appeared. If that faithless tribe, the most powerful in New England, should assume active hostilities, a terrible desolation would ensue. The Commissioners moved promptly. The fifth day after the breach of the treaty found them reassembled after a short recess. They immediately determined to raise an additional force of 1,000 men for service in the Narragansett country. They appointed Governor Winslow, of Plymouth, to be commander-in-chief, and desired the colony of Connecticut to name his lieutenant. The General was to place himself at the head of his troops within six weeks, 'a solemn day of prayer and humiliation' being kept through all the colonies meanwhile. . . . Time was thus given to the Narragansetts to make their peace 'by actual performance of their covenants made with the Commissioners; as also making reparation for all damages sustained by their neglect hitherto, together with security for their further fidelity.' . . . It is not known whether Philip was among the Narragansetts at this time. Under whatever influence it was, whether from stupidity or from confidence, they made no further attempt at pacification. . . . The Massachusetts troops marched from Dedham to Attleborough on the day before that which had been appointed by the Commissioners for them to meet the Plymouth levy at the northeastern corner of the Narragansett country. The following day they reached Seekonk. A week earlier, the few English houses at Quinsigamond (Worcester) had been burned by a party of natives; and a few days later, the house of Jeremiah Bull, at Pettyquamscott, which had been designated as the place of general rendezvous for the English, was fired, and ten men and five women and children, who had taken refuge in it, were put to death. . . . The place where the Narragansetts were to be sought was in what is now the town of South Kingston,

18 miles distant, in a northwesterly direction, from Pettyquamscott, and a little further from that Pequot fort to the southwest, which had been destroyed by the force under Captain Mason forty years before. According to information afterwards received from a captive, the Indian warriors here collected were no fewer than 3,500. They were on their guard, and had fortified their hold to the best of their skill. It was on a solid piece of upland of five or six acres, wholly surrounded by a swamp. On the inner side of this natural defence they had driven rows of palisades, making a barrier nearly a rod in thickness; and the only entrance to the enclosure was over a rude bridge consisting of a felled tree, four or five feet from the ground, the bridge being protected by a block-house. The English [whose forces, after a considerable delay of the Connecticut troops, had been all assembled at Pettyquamscott on Saturday, December 18], breaking up their camp [on the morning of the 19th] while it was yet dark, arrived before the place at one o'clock after noon. Having passed, without shelter, a very cold night, they had made a march of 18 miles through deep snow, scarcely halting to refresh themselves with food. In this condition they immediately advanced to the attack. The Massachusetts troops were in the van of the storming column; next came the two Plymouth companies; and then the force from Connecticut. The foremost of the assailants were received with a well-directed fire, [and seven of their captains were killed or mortally wounded]. . . . Nothing discouraged by the fall of their leaders, the men pressed on, and a sharp conflict followed, which, with fluctuating success, lasted for two or three hours. Once the assailants were beaten out of the fort; but they presently rallied and regained their ground. There was nothing for either party but to conquer or die, enclosed together as they were. At length victory declared for the English, who finished their work by setting fire to the wigwams within the fort. They lost 70 men killed and 150 wounded. Of the Connecticut contingent alone, out of 300 men 40 were killed and as many wounded. The number of the enemy that perished is uncertain. . . . What is both certain and material is that on that day the military strength of the formidable Narragansett tribe was irreparably broken."—J. G. Palfrey, *Compendious history of New England*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: S. G. Arnold, *History of Rhode Island*, v. 1, ch. 10.

1676-1678.—King Philip's War.—End of conflict.—"While the overthrow of the Narragansetts changed the face of things, it was far from putting an end to the war. It showed that when the white man could find his enemy he could deal crushing blows, but the Indian was not always so easy to find. Before the end of January Winslow's little army was partially disbanded for want of food, and its three contingents fell back upon Stonington, Boston, and Plymouth. Early in February the Federal Commissioners called for a new levy of 600 men to assemble at Brookfield, for the Nipmucks were beginning to renew their incursions, and after an interval of six months the figure of Philip again appears for a moment upon the scene. What he had been doing or where he had been, since the Brookfield fight in August, was never known. When in February, 1676, he reappeared, it was still in company with his allies the Nipmucks, in their bloody assault upon Lancaster. On the 10th of that month at sunrise the Indians came swarming into the lovely village. Danger had already been apprehended, the pastor,

Joseph Rowlandson, the only Harvard graduate of 1652, had gone to Boston to solicit aid, and Captain Wadsworth's company was slowly making its way over the difficult roads from Marlborough, but the Indians were beforehand. Several houses were at once surrounded and set on fire, and men, women, and children began falling under the tomahawk. The minister's house was large and strongly built, and more than forty people found shelter there until at length it took fire and they were driven out by the flames. Only one escaped, a dozen or more were slain, and the rest, chiefly women and children, taken captive. . . . Among the captives was Mary Rowlandson, the minister's wife, who afterward wrote the story of her sad experiences. . . . It was a busy winter and spring for these Nipmucks. Before February was over, their exploit at Lancaster was followed by a shocking massacre at Medfield. They sacked and destroyed the towns of Worcester, Marlborough, Mendon, and Groton, and even burned some houses in Weymouth, within a dozen miles of Boston. Murderous attacks were made upon Sudbury, Chelmsford, Springfield, Hatfield, Hadley, Northampton, Wrentham, Andover, Bridgewater, Scituate, and Middleborough. On the 18th of April Captain Wadsworth, with 70 men, was drawn into an ambush near Sudbury, surrounded by 500 Nipmucks, and killed with 50 of his men; six unfortunate captives were burned alive over slow fires. But Wadsworth's party made the enemy pay dearly for his victory; that afternoon 120 Nipmucks bit the dust. In such wise, by killing two or three for one, did the English wear out and annihilate their adversaries. Just one month from that day, Captain Turner surprised and slaughtered 300 of these warriors near the falls of the Connecticut river which have since borne his name, and this blow at last broke the strength of the Nipmucks. Meanwhile the Narragansetts and Wampanoags had burned the towns of Warwick and Providence. After the wholesale ruin of the great swamp fight, Canonchet had still some 600 or 700 warriors left, and with these, on the 26th of March, in the neighbourhood of Pawtuxet, he surprised a company of 50 Plymouth men, under Captain Pierce, and slew them all, but not until he had lost 140 of his best warriors. Ten days later, Captain Denison, with his Connecticut company, defeated and captured Canonchet, and the proud son of Miantonomo met the same fate as his father. He was handed over to the Mohegans and tomahawked. . . . The fall of Canonchet marked the beginning of the end. In four sharp fights in the last week of June, Major Talcott of Hartford slew from 300 to 400 warriors, being nearly all that were left of the Narragansetts; and during the month of July Captain Church patrolled the country about Taunton, making prisoners of the Wampanoags. Once more King Philip, shorn of his prestige, comes upon the scene. . . . Defeated at Taunton, the son of Massasoit was hunted by Church to his ancient lair at Bristol Neck and there, "betrayed by one of his own followers, he was surprised on the morning of August 12, and shot as he attempted to fly. "His severed head was sent to Plymouth, where it was mounted on a pole and exposed aloft upon the village green, while the meeting-house bell summoned the townspeople to a special service of thanksgiving. . . . By midsummer of 1678 the Indians had been everywhere suppressed, and there was peace in the land. . . . In Massachusetts and Plymouth . . . the destruction of life and property had been simply frightful. Of 90 towns, 12 had been utterly destroyed, while more than 40

others had been the scene of fire and slaughter. Out of this little society nearly 1,000 staunch men . . . had lost their lives, while of the scores of fair women and poor little children that had perished under the ruthless tomahawk, one can hardly give an accurate account. . . . But . . . henceforth the red man figures no more in the history of New England, except as an ally of the French in bloody raids upon the frontier."—J. Fiske, *Beginnings of New England*, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: W. Hubbard, *History of the Indian wars in New England* (S. G. Drake, ed.), v. 1.—Mrs. Rowlandson, *Narrative of captivity*.

1634.—Overthrow of Massachusetts charter. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1671-1686.

1686.—Overthrow of Connecticut charter. See CONNECTICUT: 1685-1687.

1686.—Consolidation of "Territory and Dominion of New England" under a royal governor-general.—"It was . . . determined in the Privy Council that Connecticut, New Plymouth, and Rhode Island should be united with Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Maine, and the Narragansett country, and be made 'one entire government, the better to defend themselves against invasion.' This was good policy for England. It was the despotic idea of consolidation. It was opposed to the republican system of confederation. . . . Consolidation was indeed the best mode of establishing in his colonies the direct government which Charles had adopted in November, 1684, and which was now to enforce. . . . For more than twenty years James had been trying his 'prentice hand' upon New York. The time had now come when he was to use his master hand on New England. . . . By the advice of Sunderland, James commissioned Colonel Sir Edmund Andros to be captain general and governor-in-chief over his 'Territory and Dominion of New England in America,' which meant Massachusetts Bay, New Plymouth, New Hampshire, Maine, and the Narragansett country, or the King's Province. Andros' commission was drawn in the traditional form, settled by the Plantation Board for those of other royal governors in Virginia, Jamaica, and New Hampshire. Its substance, however, was much more despotic. Andros was authorized, with the consent of a council appointed by the crown, to make laws and levy taxes, and to govern the territory of New England in obedience to its sovereign's Instructions, and according to the laws then in force, or afterward to be established. . . . To secure Andros in his government, two companies of regular soldiers, chiefly Irish Papists, were raised in London and placed under his orders."—J. R. Brodhead, *History of the State of New York*, v. 2, ch. 9.—See also MASSACHUSETTS: 1671-1686; CONNECTICUT: 1685-1687; U.S.A.: 1686-1689.

1688.—New York and New Jersey brought under governor-generalship of Andros. See NEW YORK: 1688.

1689.—Bloodless revolution, arrest of Andros, and proclamation of William and Mary. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1686-1689.

1689-1697.—King William's War (First Intercolonial War). See CANADA: 1680-1690; 1602-1697; U.S.A.: 1600.

1689.—Connecticut charter reinstated. See CONNECTICUT: 1680-1701; U.S.A.: 1680-1601.

1690.—First Colonial Congress. See U.S.A.: 1600.

1692.—Massachusetts chartered as a royal province.—Plymouth absorbed. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1680-1602.

1692.—Salem witchcraft madness. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1692; 1602-1603.

1696-1749.—Suppression of colonial manufactures.—Oppressive commercial policy of England. See U. S. A.: 1696-1749.

18th century.—Educational advances.—Teachers' requirements. See EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: United States.

18th century.—Trade. See COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 17th-18th centuries: North American colonies.

1700.—Local institutions contrasted with those of Virginia. See VIRGINIA: Contrast to New England.

1702-1710.—Queen Anne's War (Second Intercolonial War).—Border incursions by French and Indians.—Final conquest of Acadia.—“But a few years of peace succeeded the treaty of Ryswick. First came the contest in Europe over the Spanish succession,” and then the recognition of “the Pretender” by Louis XIV. “This recognition was, of course, a challenge to England and preparations were made for war. William III. died in March, 1702, and was succeeded by Anne, the sister of his wife, and daughter of James II. War was declared by England against France, May 15th, 1702. The contest that followed is known in European history as the War of the Spanish Succession; in American history it is usually called Queen Anne's War; or the Second Intercolonial War. On one side were France, Spain, and Bavaria; on the other, England, Holland, Savoy, Austria, Prussia, Portugal, and Denmark. It was in this war that the Duke of Marlborough won his fame. To the people of New England, war between France and England meant the hideous midnight war-whoop, the tomahawk and scalping-knife, burning hamlets, and horrible captivity. To provide against it, a conference was called to meet at Falmouth, on Casco Bay, in June, 1703, when Governor Dudley, of Massachusetts, met many of the chiefs of the Abenakis. The Indians, professing to have no thought of war, promised peace and friendship by their accustomed tokens. . . . But, as usual, only a part of the tribes had been brought into the alliance,” and some lawless provocations by a party of English marauders soon drove the Abenakis again into their old French Alliance. “By August, 500 French and Indians were assembled, ready for incursions into the New England settlements. They divided into several bands and fell upon a number of places at the same time. Wells, Saco, and Casco were again among the doomed villages, but the fort at Casco was not taken, owing to the arrival of an armed vessel under Captain Southwick. About 150 persons were killed or captured in these attacks.” In February, the town of Deerfield, Massachusetts, was destroyed, 47 of the inhabitants were killed and 112 carried away captive. “On the 30th of July, the town of Lancaster was assailed, and a few people were killed, seven buildings burned, and much property destroyed. These and other depredations of war-parties along the coasts filled New England with consternation. . . . It was . . . resolved to fit out an expedition for retaliation, and as usual the people of Acadia were selected to expiate the sins of the Indians and Canadians. Colonel Benjamin Church was put in command of 550 men, 14 transports, and 36 whale-boats, conveyed by three ships of war. Sailing from Boston in May, 1704,” Church ravaged the lesser French settlements on the Acadian coast, but ventured no attack on Port Royal. “In 1705, 450 men under Subercase—soldiers, Canadian peasants, adventurers, and Indians, well armed, and with rations for twenty days, blankets and tents—set out to destroy the English settlements in Newfoundland, marching on snow-

shoes. They took Petit Havre and St. John's, and devastated all the little settlements along the eastern coast, and the English trade was for the time completely broken up. Subercase was made Governor of Acadia in 1706. The following spring New England sent Colonel March to Port Royal with two regiments, but he returned without assaulting the fort. Governor Dudley forbade the troops to land when they came back to Boston, and ordered them to go again. Colonel March was ill, and Colonel Wainwright took command; but after a pretence of besieging the fort for eleven days he retired with small loss, the expedition having cost Massachusetts £2,200. In 1708 a council at Montreal decided to send a large number of Canadians and Indians to devastate New England. But after a long march through the almost impassable mountain region of northern New Hampshire, a murderous attack on Haverhill, in which 30 or 40 were killed, was the only result. . . . In 1709 a plan was formed in England for the capture of New France by a fleet and five regiments of British soldiers aided by the colonists. But a defeat in Portugal called away the ships destined for America, and a force gathered at Lake Champlain under Colonel Nicholson for a land attack was so reduced by sickness—said to have resulted from the poisoning of a spring by Indians—that they burned their canoes and retreated. The next year, Nicholson was furnished with six ships of war, thirty transports, and one British and four New England regiments for the capture of Port Royal. Subercase had only 260 men and an insufficient supply of provisions.” He surrendered after a short bombardment, “and on the 16th of October the starving and ragged garrison marched out to be sent to France. For the last time the French flag was hauled down from the fort, and Port Royal was henceforth an English fortress, which was re-named Annapolis Royal, in honor of Queen Anne.”—R. Johnson, *History of the French War*, ch. 8.—“With a change of masters came a change of names. Acadie was again called ‘Nova Scotia’—the name bestowed upon it by James I. in 1621; and Port Royal, ‘Annapolis.’”—R. Brown, *History of the Island of Cape Breton*, letter 8.—See also CANADA: 1711-1713; U. S. A.: 1690-1748.

ALSO IN: P. H. Smith, *Acadia*, pp. 108-111.
1704-1729.—First newspapers. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1704-1729.

1722-1730.—Renewed war with northeastern Indians. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1713-1730.

1744.—King George's War (Third Intercolonial War).—Hostilities in Nova Scotia.—“The war that had prevailed for several years between Britain and Spain [see ENGLAND: 1739-1741], inflicted upon the greater number of the British provinces of America no farther share of its evils than the burden of contributing to the expeditions of Admiral Vernon, and the waste of life by which his disastrous naval campaigns were signalized. Only South Carolina and Georgia had been exposed to actual attack and danger. But this year [1744], by an enlargement of the hostile relations of the parent state, the scenes of war was extended to the more northern provinces. The French, though professing peace with Britain, had repeatedly given assistance to Spain; while the British king, as Elector of Hanover, had espoused the quarrel of the emperor of Germany with the French monarch; and after various mutual threats and demonstrations of hostility that consequently ensued between Britain and France, war [the War of the Austrian Succession] was now formally declared by these states against each other [see AUSTRIA: 1718-1738 to 1744-1745]. The French colonists in America,

having been apprized of this event before it was known in New England, were tempted to improve the advantage of their prior intelligence by an instant and unexpected commencement of hostilities, which accordingly broke forth without notice or delay in the quarter of Nova Scotia. . . . On the island of Canso, adjoining the coast of Nova Scotia, the British had formed a settlement, which was resorted to by the fishermen of New England, and defended by a small fortification garrisoned by a detachment of troops from Annapolis. . . . Duquesnel, the governor of Cape Breton, on receiving intelligence of the declaration of war between the two parent states, conceived the hope of destroying the fishing establishments of the English by the suddenness and vigor of an unexpected attack. His first blow, which was aimed at Canso, proved successful (May 13, 1744). Duvivier, whom he despatched from his headquarters at Louisburg, with a few armed vessels and a force of 900 men, took unresisted possession of this island, burned the fort and houses, and made prisoners of the garrison and inhabitants. This success Duquesnel endeavoured to follow up by the conquest of Placentia in Newfoundland, and of Annapolis in Nova Scotia; but at both these places his forces were repulsed. In the attack of Annapolis, the French were joined by the Indians of Nova Scotia; but the prudent forecast of Shirley, the governor of Massachusetts, had induced the assembly of this province, some time before, to contribute a reinforcement of 200 men for the greater security of the garrison of Annapolis; and to the opportune arrival of the succour thus afforded the preservation of the place was ascribed. . . . The people of New England were stimulated to a pitch of resentment, apprehension, and martial energy, that very shortly produced an effort of which neither their friends nor their enemies had supposed them to be capable, and which excited the admiration of both Europe and America. . . . War was declared against the Indians of Nova Scotia, who had assisted in the attack upon Annapolis; all the frontier garrisons were reinforced; new forts were erected; and the materials of defence were enlarged by a seasonable gift of artillery from the king. Meanwhile, though the French were not prepared to prosecute the extensive plan of conquest which their first operations announced, their privateers actively waged a harassing naval warfare that greatly endamaged the commerce of New England. The British fisheries on the coast of Nova Scotia were interrupted; the fishermen declared their intention of returning no more to their wonted stations on that coast; and so many merchant vessels were captured and carried into Louisburg in the course of this summer, that it was expected that in the following year no branch of maritime trade would be pursued by the New England merchants, except under the protection of convoy."—J. Grahame, *History [Colonial] of the United States*, v. 2, bk. 10, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: P. H. Smith, *Acadia*, pp. 123-128.

1745.—King George's War.—Taking of Louisburg.—"Louisburg, on which the French had spent much money [see CAPE BRETON ISLAND: 1720-1745], was by far the strongest fort north of the Gulf of Mexico. But the prisoners of Canso, carried thither, and afterward dismissed on parole, reported the garrison to be weak and the works out of repair. So long as the French held this fortress, it was sure to be a source of annoyance to New England, but to wait for British aid to capture it would be tedious and uncertain, public attention in Great Britain being much engrossed by a threatened invasion. Under these circumstances, Shirley proposed to the General Court of Massachusetts the

bold enterprise of a colonial expedition, of which Louisburg should be the object. After six days' deliberation and two additional messages from the governor, this proposal was adopted by a majority of one vote. A circular letter, asking aid and cooperation, was sent to all the colonies as far south as Pennsylvania. In answer to this application, urged by a special messenger from Massachusetts, the Pennsylvania Assembly . . . voted £4,000 of their currency to purchase provisions. The New Jersey Assembly . . . furnished . . . £2,000 toward the Louisburg expedition, but declined to raise any men. The New York Assembly, after a long debate, voted £3,000 of their currency; but this seemed to Clinton a niggardly grant, and he sent, besides, a quantity of provisions purchased by private subscription, and ten eighteen-pounders from the king's magazine. Connecticut voted 500 men, led by Roger Wolcott, afterward governor, and appointed, by stipulation of the Connecticut Assembly, second in command of the expedition. Rhode Island and New Hampshire each raised a regiment of 300 men; but the Rhode Island troops did not arrive till after Louisburg was taken. The chief burden of the enterprise, as was to be expected, fell on Massachusetts. In seven weeks an army of 3,250 men was enlisted, transports were pressed, and bills of credit were profusely issued to pay the expense. Ten armed vessels were provided by Massachusetts, and one by each of the other New England colonies. The command in chief was given to William Pepperell, a native of Maine, a wealthy merchant, who had inherited and augmented a large fortune acquired by his father in the fisheries; a popular, enterprising, sagacious man, noted for his universal good fortune, but unacquainted with military affairs, except as a militia officer. . . . The enterprise . . . assumed something of the character of an anti-Catholic crusade. One of the chaplains, a disciple of Whitfield, carried a hatchet, specially provided to hew down the images in the French churches. Eleven days after embarking at Boston [April, 1745], the Massachusetts armament assembled at Casco, to wait there the arrival of the Connecticut and Rhode Island quotas, and the melting of the ice by which Cape Breton was environed. The New Hampshire troops were already there; those from Connecticut came a few days after. Notice having been sent to England and the West Indies of the intended expedition, Captain Warren presently arrived with four ships of war, and, cruising before Louisburg, captured several vessels bound thither with supplies. Already, before his arrival, the New England cruisers had prevented the entry of a French thirty-gun ship. As soon as the ice permitted, the troops landed and commenced the siege, but not with much skill, for they had no engineers. . . . Five unsuccessful attacks were made, one after another, upon an island battery which protected the harbor. In that cold, foggy climate, the troops, very imperfectly provided with tents, suffered severely from sickness, and more than a third were unfit for duty. But the French garrison was feeble and mutinous, and when the commander found that his supplies had been captured, he relieved the embarrassment of the besiegers by offering to capitulate. The capitulation [June 17] included 650 regular soldiers, and near 1,300 effective inhabitants of the town, all of whom were to be shipped to France. The island of St. John's presently submitted on the same terms. The loss during the siege was less than 150, but among those reluctantly detained to garrison the conquered fortress ten times as many perished afterward by sickness. In the expedition of Vernon and this against Louis-

burg perished a large number of the remaining Indians of New England, persuaded to enlist as soldiers in the colonial regiments. Some dispute arose as to the relative merits of the land and naval forces, which had been joined during the siege by additional ships from England. Pepperell, however, was made a baronet, and both he and Shirley were commissioned as colonels in the British army. Warren was promoted to the rank of rear admiral. The capture of this strong fortress, effected in the face of many obstacles, shed, indeed, a momentary luster over one of the most unsuccessful wars in which Britain was ever engaged."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States*, v. 2, ch. 25.—"As far as England was concerned, it [the taking of Louisburg] was the great event of the war of the Austrian succession. England had no other success in that war to compare with it. As things turned out, it is not too much to say that this exploit of New England gave peace to Europe."—J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 5, bk. 5, ch. 9.—"Though it was the most brilliant success the English achieved during the war, English historians scarcely mention it."—R. Johnson, *History of the French war*, ch. 9.

ALSO IN: T. C. Haliburton, *History and statistical accounts of Nova Scotia*, v. 1, ch. 3.—R. Brown, *History of Cape Breton*, letters 12-14.—S. A. Drake, *Taking of Louisburg*.—U. Parsons, *Life of Sir William Pepperell*, ch. 3-5.—F. Parkman, *Capture of Louisbourg* (*Atlantic Monthly*, Mar.-May, 1891).

1745-1748.—King George's War.—Mortifying end.—Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and restoration of Louisburg to France.—"Elated by their success [at Louisburg], the Provincials now offered to undertake the conquest of Canada; but the Duke of Bedford, to whom Governor Shirley's plan had been submitted, disapproved of it, as exhibiting to the colonists too plainly their own strength. . . . He therefore advised to place the chief dependence on the fleet and army to be sent from England, and to look on the Americans as useful only when joined with others. Finally, the Whigs determined to send a powerful fleet to Quebec, at the same time that an army should attack Montreal by the route of Lake Champlain; and so late as April, 1746, orders were issued to the several governors to levy troops without limitation, which, when assembled on the frontiers, the king would pay. From some unknown cause, the plan was abandoned as soon as formed. The general appointed to the chief command was ordered not to embark, but the instructions to enlist troops had been transmitted to America, and were acted on with alacrity. Massachusetts raised 3,500 men to co-operate with the fleet, which, however, they were doomed never to see. After being kept a long time in suspense, they were dispersed, in several places, to strengthen garrisons which were supposed to be too weak for the defenses assigned them. Upward of 3,000 men, belonging to other colonies, were assembled at Albany, undisciplined, without a commissariat, and under no control. After the season for active operations was allowed to pass away, they disbanded themselves, some with arms in their hands demanding pay of their governors, and others suing their captains. In addition to this disgraceful affair, the Provincials had the mortification to have a large detachment of their men cut off in Lower Horton, then known as Minas, situated nearly in the centre of Nova Scotia. The Canadian forces, which had traveled thither to co-operate with an immense fleet expected from France, determining to winter in that province, rendered it a subject of continued anxiety and expense to Massachusetts. Governor Shirley resolved, after again reinforcing the garrison at

Annapolis, to drive them from the shores of Minas Basin, where they were seated; and in the winter of the year 1746, a body of troops was embarked at Boston for the former place. After the loss of a transport, and the greatest part of the soldiers on board, the troops arrived, and re-embarked for Grand Pré in the district of Minas, in the latter end of December. . . . The issue was, that being cantoned at too great distances from each other, La Corne, a commander of the French, having intelligence of their situation, forced a march from Schiegnieto, through a most tempestuous snow-storm, and surprised them at midnight. After losing 160 of their men, in killed, wounded and prisoners, the party were obliged to capitulate, not, however, on dishonorable terms, and the French, in their turn, abandoned their posts. On the 8th of May, 1749, peace was proclaimed at Boston [according to the terms of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, concluded October 7, 1748], much to the mortification of the Provincials; Cape Breton was restored to France; and Louisburg, which had created so much dread, and inflicted such injuries on their commerce, was handed over to their inveterate enemies, to be rendered still stronger by additional fortifications. The French also obtained the islands of St. Pierre and Michelon, on the south coast of Newfoundland, as stations for their fisheries. [England reimbursed the colonies to the extent of £183,000 for the expenses of their vain conquest of Louisburg, and £135,000 for their losses in raising troops under the orders that were revoked.]—T. C. Haliburton, *Rule and misrule of the English in America*, bk. 3, ch. 1.—See also AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 2.

ALSO IN: J. Hannay, *History of Acadia*, ch. 10.—S. G. Drake, *Particular history of the Five Years' French and Indian War*, ch. 6-9.—J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 5, bk. 5, ch. 10.

1749-1774.—Boundary dispute of New Hampshire and Vermont.—Green Mountain Boys. See VERMONT: 1749-1774.

1750-1753.—Dissensions among colonies at opening of great French war. See U.S.A.: 1750-1753.

1754.—Colonial Congress at Albany.—Franklin's Plan of Union. See U.S.A.: 1754.

1754.—Conquest of Nova Scotia. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1749-1755.

1755.—Emigration of Acadians. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1755.

1755-1763.—Last Intercolonial or French and Indian War.—English conquest of Canada. See CANADA: 1750-1753, to 1763; OHIO: 1748-1754; 1754; 1755; CAPE BRETON ISLAND: 1758-1760.

1761.—Harsh enforcement of revenue laws.—Writs of assistance and Otis's speech. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1761; U.S.A.: 1761.

1763-1764.—Enforcement of the Sugar (or Molasses) Act. See U.S.A.: 1763-1764.

1765-1766.—Stamp Act.—Effects and repeal.—Stamp Act Congress.—Declaratory Act. See U.S.A.: 1765; 1766.

1766-1768.—Townshend duties.—Circular Letter of Massachusetts. See U.S.A.: 1766-1767; 1767-1768.

1768-1770.—Quartering of troops in Boston.—"Massacre," and removal of troops. See BOSTON: 1768; 1770.

1769.—Massachusetts threatened and Virginia roused to her support. See U.S.A.: 1769.

1769-1785.—Ending of slavery. See SLAVERY: 1638-1781; 1760-1785; 1774.

1770-1773.—Repeal of Townshend duties except on tea.—Committees of Correspondence instituted.—Tea ships and the Boston Tea-party.

See U. S. A.: 1770; 1772-1773; BOSTON: 1773; NEW YORK: 1773-1774.

1774.—Boston Port Bill, Massachusetts Act, and Quebec Act.—First Continental Congress. See U. S. A.: 1774.

1774-1775.—Provincial Congress and Committee of Safety.—Military preparations. See U. S. A.: 1774-1775.

1775.—Beginning of War of American Revolution.—Lexington.—Concord.—Country in arms and Boston under siege.—Ticonderoga.—Bunker Hill.—Second Continental Congress. See U. S. A.: 1775.

1775-1783.—War of the Revolution.—Articles of Confederation.—Independence achieved. See U. S. A.: 1775 (April), to 1783.

1776.—Rhode Island declares its independence from England. See RHODE ISLAND: 1776.

1777-1778.—Vermont name chosen.—Constitution framed. See VERMONT: 1777-1778.

1783-1790.—Rhode Island not represented at constitutional convention.—Accepts constitution. See RHODE ISLAND: 1783-1790.

1783-1812.—Desire of Maine and Massachusetts for separation. See MAINE: 1783-1812.

1787-1789.—Formation and adoption of Federal constitution. See U. S. A.: 1787; 1787-1789. 19th century.—Development of industry. See INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: United States.

1803-1804.—Federalist secession movement. See U. S. A.: 1803-1804.

1808.—Embargo and its effects. See U. S. A.: 1804-1809; 1808; 1808-1810.

1810-1860.—Agricultural revolution. See U. S. A.: 1810-1860.

1812-1814.—War of 1812.—Federalist opposition. See U. S. A.: 1812-1814.

1814-1819.—Agitation for separation of Maine from Massachusetts.—Separation Act. See MAINE: 1814-1819.

1814.—Hartford Convention. See U. S. A.: 1814 (December); Hartford Convention.

1828.—Change of front on tariff question. See TARIFF: 1828; United States.

1830-1845.—Literary leadership. See AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1830-1845.

1831-1832.—Rise of abolitionists. See SLAVERY: 1828-1832.

1832-1850.—Emigration to Wisconsin. See WISCONSIN: 1832-1850.

1861-1867.—Civil War.—Reconstruction. See U. S. A.: 1861 (April), to 1866-1867.

1909-1921.—Influx of Negro population. See RACE PROBLEM: 1905-1921.

1918-1919.—Telephone strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1918-1919; New England telephone operators' strike.

1921.—Railroad system.—Need for freight traffic.—Plan for consolidation. See RAILROADS: 1921; Transition period of New England; Twenty rail systems proposed.

1922.—Textile strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1922; New England textile strike.

See also INSURANCE: Life Insurance; Development in the United States.

Also in: C. J. Johnson, *New England*.—H. A. Budgman, *New England in the life of the world*.

NEW ERA MOVEMENT, Presbyterian church. See PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH: 1910-1920.

NEW FOREST.—"To create a new royal hunting ground in his English dominion, William the Conqueror ruthlessly demolished villages, manors, chapels, and parish churches throughout thirty miles of country, along the coast side of Hampshire, from the Avon on the west to Southampton Water on the east, and called this wilderness of his

making The New Forest. His son William Rufus was killed in it—which people thought to be a judgment. The New Forest still exists and embraces no less than 66,000 acres, extending over a district twenty miles by fifteen in area, of woodland, health, bog and rough pasture."—J. C. Brown, *Forests of England*, pt. 1, ch. 2, D.

NEW FRANCE, early name of French possessions in Canada. See CANADA.

NEW GLARUS, Swiss settlement in Wisconsin. See WISCONSIN: 1832-1920.

NEW GRANADA, early name for Colombia. See BOGOTÁ: Origin and early history, to 1816-1819; COLOMBIA.

1824.—Union with Venezuela. See LATIN AMERICA: 1778-1824.

NEW GUINEA, or Papua.—"This great island is [after Australia, the largest body of land in the Pacific [see BRITISH EMPIRE: Map of the World]]; from its northwestern to its southeastern extremity the distance is nearly 1500 miles; its area is equal to one and a half times that of France. It is abundantly watered and rich in varied productions. Nevertheless it has remained until our own time almost outside of the domain of civilized humanity. Most historians attribute the real discovery of the island, or at least of some among its attendant isles, to the Portuguese, Jorge de Menezes, in 1526 or 1527. It was not, however, until 1606 that the insularity of the land was practically demonstrated by the Spanish pilot Torres. But that discovery, carefully concealed as a state secret, buried in the archives of Manila, was finally forgotten by the Spanish themselves, and, after more than a century and a half, was newly made by English navigators. The expedition of Captain Cook opened an era of modern exploration on the New Guinea coasts, in which English, Dutch and French took part. The Dutch were the first to attempt an occupation of any part of the island [see MOLUCCAS], and in 1828 their government officially proclaimed possession of the western part of the island as far east as to long. 141° E. of Greenwich."—E. Reclus, *Nouvelle géographie universelle*, v. 14, pp. 617-20.—Until recent years no other attempts at the occupation of the island were made; but, after Fiji had been ceded to the British crown, in 1874, there began to be an agitation in Australia of proposals for securing control of eastern New Guinea. "It appeared that the claims of the Dutch, who had undoubtedly been intimately connected with the island since the beginning of the 17th century, were confined to a somewhat uncertain portion of New Guinea towards the west, the eastern part being admittedly a sort of No-man's land. Its shores had been continually visited for survey purposes during the present century by British ships, but no assertion of sovereignty over the numerous aboriginal tribes had been made by the British Government. On the occasion of the organization of Fiji [1874], strong representations as to the desirability of taking a similar course with regard to eastern New Guinea were made to the Secretary of State (Lord Carnarvon); but the Minister, after consulting the various Australasian governments, and finding them by no means unanimous, refused to take the step unless the colonies desiring it would undertake to contribute towards the expense likely to be incurred. The colonies were not prepared to assume this responsibility. . . . Thus the matter rested, until, at the close of the year 1877, the reported discovery of gold in New Guinea again brought the question prominently forward. The news immediately attracted numbers of Australian gold-diggers, and, following

in their wake, crowds of less reputable characters, who not only attempted to settle, or rather to lodge, in New Guinea itself, but took irregular possession of more than one of the numerous islands lying between Australia and New Guinea in Torres Strait, within the coast line of Queensland. Here they caused considerable trouble; and the Queensland Government, after acting as police authority in the islands in question for some little time without legal warrant, endeavoured to make its position constitutional with regard to them. In this it was successful. The British Admiralty, on the report of Commander Heath, certified that there was no known claim to the islands in question by any foreign power, and that there appeared no serious objection to the alteration of the Queensland coast boundaries for the purpose of including them. . . . Also at the request of the Queensland Government, the Admiralty stationed a war-ship at Port Moresby in New Guinea. But the Imperial Government, though pressed by representative bodies of various kinds connected with the colonies, still firmly declined to extend the principle of absorption by annexing any part of New Guinea itself to the Empire. The pressure, however, became very great. Companies were formed in Australia for the development of New Guinea. The Queensland Government's agent at Port Moresby began to assume more and more the character of an administrator of the country near the Port. . . . In February of the year 1883 the matter assumed a new phase by the definite offer of the Queensland Government . . . to bear the expense of the administration of New Guinea, if the Imperial authorities would sanction its annexation. The reasons urged by Queensland were, the increasing traffic through Torres Strait, the rapid development of coast industries, such as beche-de-mer [an edible sea-slug exported to China in large quantities] and pearl fishing, the danger of the escape of convicts from New Caledonia, and the inadequacy of the High Commissionership. The proposal of Queensland was being discussed by the Colonial Office in somewhat leisurely fashion, when the news reached Australia that a German association had been formed for the settlement of New Guinea. . . . Lord Granville (Foreign Secretary) declined to believe in the existence of the plan, at least so far as the German Government was concerned. The colonists took a different view; and, on the 4th April, 1883, the Queensland Government formally took possession of New Guinea in the name of Her Majesty. [See also QUEENSLAND: 1824-1900.] . . . Still . . . [the Imperial Government] declined to accede to the wishes of the colonists. . . . But the colonists did not intend to give way [and ultimately they carried their point]. . . . In April 1886 Sir Edward Malet and Count Herbert Bismarck signed at Berlin a declaration which marks out the limits of mutual acquisition in the Western Pacific. The German possession of Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, on the north-east coast of New Guinea, is definitely recognized; and an imaginary line, starting from its south-eastern corner, travels due east to the Salomon Islands, which it bisects, then north-east to the Marshall group, and finally due north to an indefinite point in the ocean. All to the west and north of this line is secured from British influence; Germany may not acquire any possession or protectorate to the south or east. Samoa, Tonga, and one or two other places, already provided for by other treaties, are excluded from the Declaration. The way being thus prepared, and the Queensland Government definitely undertaking to contribute

for 15 years an annual sum not exceeding £15,000 towards the expenses of the new possession, British New Guinea was, in June 1888, in pursuance of a new Act of Parliament passed in 1887, definitely created a possession of the British Crown. . . . Shortly before this date, the New Hebrides question had been temporarily settled by the mutual withdrawal, on the part of both England and France, of all territorial claims.—E. Jenks, *History of the Australasian colonies*, ch. 14.—See also MELANESIA: MALAY ARCHIPELAGO: People; MYTHOLOGY: Oceania: Melanesian.

1884-1914.—Control by Germany and Australia. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914.

1901.—British territory under Australia.—In 1901, control of British territory comprising more than 90,000 square miles, passed to the federal government of the new commonwealth of Australia.

1905.—Papua Act.—In 1905, the political organization of the island was completed by the Papua Act of the Australian Parliament.

1906.—Name changed.—The name of the British territory was officially changed to Territory of Papua in 1906.

1914.—German territory occupied.—German territory on the island of New Guinea, together with the adjacent Bismarck archipelago was occupied in 1914 by Australian forces.—See also BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO; WORLD WAR: 1914: VII. German Pacific islands; AUSTRALIA: 1914-1915.

1920.—Status under League of Nations.—German possessions in and about New Guinea were given over to the commonwealth of Australia as mandatory under the League of Nations.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent; Treaties promoting expansion: 1920; PACIFIC OCEAN: Map.

NEW HAMPSHIRE, popularly known as the "Granite State" is a north Atlantic state of the United States and one of the original thirteen states of the Union. It is bounded on the north by the Canadian province of Quebec; on the east, by Maine, and the Atlantic ocean; on the south-east and south by Massachusetts; and on the west by Vermont. It has an area of 9,341 square miles of which 310 are water, and a population, 1920, of 443,083.

Resources.—New Hampshire, largely given over to agriculture, has 20,523 farms with a total of 2,603,806 acres of which 702,902 are improved land. The chief crops are hay, corn, oats, potatoes and apples. See U.S.A.: Economic Map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

17th century.—Education.—Support of schools by taxation. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: United States.

1606-1620.—Part in King James' grant to Plymouth Company. See AMERICA: Map of King James' Grants.

1622-1679.—Colonization.—Union with Massachusetts.—Pioneering conditions.—"John Mason, the territorial proprietor of New Hampshire, was the promoter of its earliest settlements. His efforts contemplated the establishment of a great manorial estate of which he and his successors were to be the actual and titular heads. This design failed eventually, not because Mason and those who succeeded to his rights and adopted his plans were not powerful, persistent and well sustained by the home government, but because that style and theory of proprietorship and the form of government upon which it was, from the very nature of things, dependent, could not thrive, —indeed could not survive under the conditions which developed in New England."—G. F. Willey,

ed., *State builders*, p. 1.—As early as 1623, David Thomson "took possession of a grant of land made to him in 1622, apparently with the consent of Mason, at what is now Little Harbor in the town of Rye, but then called Pannaway. Possibly in the same year, 1623, William and Edward Hilton settled, under a grant to themselves, in what was afterward called Dover, some miles up the Piscataqua River, and this is alleged by some to have been the first actual settlement made in New Hampshire. As the Hiltons and Thomsons were friends of the Church of England, and neither Pilgrims like the Plymouth colonists of 1620, nor Puritans like those who soon after settled Massachusetts, it is probable they settled in New Hampshire, under some agreement with Mason and Gorges, who were ardent supporters of the state church. . . . Under this partnership [Mason and Gorges] and the previous arrangements, whatever they were, with Thomson, Walter Neale, and others, more than sixty men and twenty-two women were sent out by Mason and his partners, or adopted by them from other small colonies. . . . By . . . 1635 the little colony had become established, and the advantages of the situation were so many that it continued to grow in numbers and in wealth, and soon became a shipping and fishing station of some importance. Under the original name of Strawberry Bank, this particular settlement included all that is now Portsmouth, Rye, New Castle, Newington, and Greenland; a slight organization for local government was formed, and arrangements made for establishing there a church conformed to the ritual of the English Church, with glebe lands and proper support for a clergyman."—F. B. Sanborn, *New Hampshire (American commonwealths, pp. 4-5)*.—"This colony occupied a unique position from 1622, the year when Thomson's indenture was drawn and the first settlement definitely planned, to 1641-1643, when the four towns, Portsmouth, Dover, Hampton and Exeter, each an independent democracy, became, by their own choice, constituent parts of Massachusetts. This was the first union with the Bay colony. It was conditional on certain important privileges and guarantees, accorded to the four towns by the Massachusetts General Court. The time of this union, 1641-1679, constitutes the second period of New Hampshire history. It is in a large measure identical with that of Massachusetts Bay. The Masonian heirs succeeded in 1679, by influences exerted upon the home government in England, in the establishment of a separate province for the four frontier towns, then occupying a little break in the wilderness along the coast line and a few miles into the interior between Massachusetts bay and the territory of Maine."—G. F. Willey, ed., *State builders*, pp. 1-2.—"With every succeeding year the long, thin, sinuous line of settlements stretched farther and farther away to the northeast, fringing the wild shores of the Atlantic with houses and farms gathered together at the mouths or on the banks of the rivers, and with the homes of hardy fishermen which clustered in little groups beneath the shelter of the rocky headlands. The extension of these plantations was chiefly along the coast, but there was also a movement up the river courses toward the west and into the interior. The line of northeastern settlements began first to broaden in this way very slowly but still steadily from the plantations at Portsmouth and Dover, which were nearly coeval with the flourishing towns of the Bay. These settlements beyond the Massachusetts line all had one common and marked characteristic. They were all exposed to Indian attack from the

earliest days down to the period of the Revolution. Long after the dangers of Indian raids had become little more than a tradition to the populous and flourishing communities of Massachusetts Bay, the towns and villages of Maine and New Hampshire continued to be the outposts of a dark and bloody border land. French and Indian warfare with all its attendant horrors was the normal condition during the latter part of the seventeenth and the first quarter of the eighteenth century. . . . The people who waged this fierce war and managed to make headway in despite of it were engaged at the same time in a conflict with nature which was hardly less desperate. The soil, even in the most favored places, was none of the best, and the predominant characteristic of New Hampshire was the great rock formation which has given it the name of the Granite State. Slowly and painfully the settlers made their way back into the country, seizing on every fertile spot, and wringing subsistence and even a certain prosperity from a niggardly soil and a harsh climate. Their little hamlets crept onward toward the base of those beautiful hills [the White Mountains] which have now become one of the favorite play-grounds of America. . . . This life of constant battle with nature and with the savages, this work of wresting a subsistence from the unwilling earth while the hand was always armed against a subtle and cruel foe, had, of course, a marked effect upon the people who endured it. That, under such circumstances, men should have succeeded not only in gaining a livelihood, but should have attained also a certain measure of prosperity, established a free government, founded schools and churches, and built up a small but vigorous and thriving commonwealth, is little short of marvellous. . . . The people of New Hampshire were of the English Puritan stock. They were the borderers of New England, and were among the hardiest and boldest of their race. Their fierce battle for existence during nearly a century and a half left a deep impress upon them. Although it did not add new traits to their character, it strengthened and developed many of the qualities which chiefly distinguished the Puritan Englishmen."—H. C. Lodge, *Life of Daniel Webster*, pp. 1-2, 4.—See also NEW ENGLAND: 1621-1631; AMERICA: Map of early colonial grants.

1641-1679.—Claims of Massachusetts asserted and defeated.—According to its terms, the Massachusetts patent embraced a territory extending northward three miles beyond the head-waters of the Merrimack, and covered, therefore, the greater part of Mason's New Hampshire grant, as well as that of Gorges in Maine. In 1641, when this fact had been ascertained, the General Court of Massachusetts "passed an order (with the consent of the settlers at Dover and Strawberry-bank, on the Piscataqua), 'That from thenceforth, the said people inhabiting there are and shall be accepted and reputed under the Government of the Massachusetts,' etc. Mason had died, and confusion ensued, so that the settlers were mostly glad of the transfer. A long controversy ensued between Mason's heirs and Massachusetts as to the right of jurisdiction. The history of New Hampshire and Maine at this period was much the same. In 1660, at the time of the Restoration, the heirs of Mason applied to the Attorney-General in England, who decided that they had a good title to New Hampshire. The Commissioners who came over in 1664 attempted to re-establish them; but as the settlers favored Massachusetts, she resumed her government when they left. Mason's heirs renewed their claim in 1675, and in 1679 it was

solemnly decided against the claim of the Massachusetts Colony, although their grant technically included all lands extending to three miles north of the waters of the Merrimack river. John Cutt was the first President in New Hampshire, and thenceforward, to the American Revolution, New Hampshire was treated as a Royal province, the Governors and Lieutenant-Governors being appointed by the King, and the laws made by the people being subject to his revision."—C. W. Elliott, *New England history*, v. 1, ch. 26.—See also NEW ENGLAND: 1640-1644.

ALSO IN: G. Barstow, *History of New Hampshire*, ch. 2-5.—J. Belknap, *History of New Hampshire*, v. 1, ch. 2-9.—N. Adams, *Annals of Portsmouth*, pp. 28-64.—W. H. Fry, *New Hampshire as a royal province*.

1675.—Outbreak of Taranteens. See NEW ENGLAND: 1675 (July-September).

1680-1776.—Franchise qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1621-1776.

1681-1692.—First president and his immediate successors.—Second union with Massachusetts Bay.—Province government by royal commission reestablished.—"John Cutt, a man of the people, was the first president. He died in 1681, and was succeeded by his deputy, Richard Waldron. Under a new commission, Edward Cranfield held office from 1682 to 1686, his deputy, Walter Barefoote, having been the acting Governor in the latter part of the period. The four towns were made a part of the Dominion of New England in 1686. [See NEW ENGLAND: 1686.] This government, under Dudley and Andros, with its concomitants of abolished provincial legislatures and other measures absolutely abhorrent to the political sense of a large majority of the people of New England, survived only three years. The four New Hampshire towns, from the spring of 1689 to the closing half of the winter of 1689-90, governed themselves in the independent democratic fashion of the first period of their history. A second union with Massachusetts Bay was then effected, and continued during a period of two years. In 1692 a province government by royal commission was reestablished over the four towns. The course of events, with this unpretentious province, moved on through much adversity to the time of the achievement of a position and potency among the American dependencies of the mother country, in which, eighty-three years later, it was able to demand independence and join in a successful defiance of the imperial power of England."—G. F. Willey, ed., *State builders*, pp. 2-3.

1692-1775.—Intervening governments.—Provincial assembly.—Conventions.—Reorganization of militia.—"The intervening governments between 1692 and 1775 were administered by Samuel Allen, Governor, with John Usher, John Hinckes and William Partridge, Lieutenant or acting Governors, 1692-1699; the Earl of Bellomont with William Partridge, Lieutenant Governor, 1699-1702, the Governor dying in 1701; Joseph Dudley, Governor, with William Partridge, John Usher and George Vaughan, Lieutenant Governors, 1702-1716 (Eliseus Buegess having been appointed Governor in 1715, but declining the office); Samuel Shute, Governor, with George Vaughan and John Wentworth, Lieutenant Governors, 1716-1728; William Burnet, governor, with John Wentworth, Lieutenant Governor, 1728-1729; Jonathan Belcher, Governor, with John Wentworth and David Dunbar, Lieutenant Governors, 1730-1741; Benning Wentworth, Governor, with John Temple, Lieutenant Governor, 1741-1767; John Wentworth, Governor, with John Temple, Lieu-

tenant Governor, 1767-1775. Between 1675 and 1762, the people of New Hampshire participated in six wars against the French and Indians, aggregating thirty-eight years. The politics of New Hampshire in the Colonial period largely related to those persistent and irrepressible subjects, the Masonian title and the boundary line against Massachusetts. The provincial assembly was continued in New Hampshire until Governor Wentworth's departure in 1775. A succession of conventions, beginning July 21, 1774, finally resulted in the formal organization of a legislative body on a full representation of the people, and with a definite purpose of establishing a new state government. The importance and activity of the old assembly diminished at that of the successive conventions was augmented. . . . The convention which met in July, 1775, ordered a reorganization of the militia, and in 1777 the number of regiments had been increased to seventeen. The number of men enrolled was 16,710, and this comprised practically all residents of military age in the state."—G. F. Willey, ed., *State builders*, pp. 3-6.

1693-1910.—Development of public school system.—"From the first settlement by David Thompson at Pannaway, in 1623, until the union of New Hampshire with Massachusetts eighteen years later there is no record that any form of education was provided for the youth of the colony; but after the union, the small settlements at Hampton, Portsmouth, Dover and Exeter came under the excellent school laws of Massachusetts. . . . During the troublesome period between 1679 and 1692 . . . little was done for education. . . . The first year after their separation from the Bay Colony (1693) [a school law was passed for the building of a school house and remuneration of school teachers]. . . . In 1789 the general court of New Hampshire repealed all previous laws in regard to the common schools and started anew on the basis of taxing all the inhabitants of the several towns except non-residents, on the polls and real estate at the rate of five pounds for every twenty shillings that each town paid to the support of the state. . . . In 1827 the legislature passed a law the spirit of which remains active even to the present time. It accurately defined how the town should be divided into districts, and laid down provisions regarding the authority of school districts and their officers. The qualifications for teachers were raised and the law required all pupils to be provided with books, either by parents or guardians, or at the public expense in case of the needy. A superintending school committee were also to be appointed annually. . . . In 1845 the authority was given to any two or more contiguous school districts in any town or towns in this state to associate together and form a union for the purpose of establishing and maintaining a high school or schools for the instruction of the older and more advanced scholars belonging to the associated districts. In 1846 a state commissioner of common schools was appointed. . . . Two years later the 'Somersworth Act' was passed, which allowed school districts, independent of the town, to raise money for the maintenance of high schools. . . . In 1850 the office of the state commissioner of common schools was abolished, and in its place a board of county school commissioners was appointed. . . . This board of county school commissioners continued until 1867, when it was discontinued, and again one man was placed at the head of the educational affairs of the state. This officer was now termed the superintendent of public instruction, and he with the governor and council constituted the State Board of Education.

In 1868 a bill was passed requiring each county to hold a teacher's institute annually at the expense of the state. This law, followed closely by one passed in 1870 establishing a state Normal School, marks a period of decided awakening to the needs of educational improvement, and aside from a slight setback in 1874, when the state failed to make any appropriation for institutes and did away for a short time with a state superintendent, the progress in educational matters has been steady if not rapid."—G. F. Willey, ed., *State builders*, pp. 60, 63, 87, 90-94.—"The crowning institution of the public school system of New Hampshire is the New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. . . . It was established at Hanover, in connection with Dartmouth College, in 1866 and was based upon a land grant made by the United States government, valued at \$80,000. Here Culver Hall and Conant Hall were erected, which afterward came into the possession of the college. Congress made some appropriations. . . . In 1891, . . . an act of the legislature required the trustees to terminate its connection with Dartmouth College and to remove from Hanover to Durham. This was because Benjamin Thompson of Durham had bequeathed property to the institution amounting to \$800,000 with its accumulation of interest down to 1910, when the income of \$32,000 annually became available. The State appropriated \$100,000 for building purposes in 1891, and an additional appropriation of \$35,000 was made in 1893, when the college entered upon its new and expanding career."—E. S. Stackpole, *History of New Hampshire*, v. 3, p. 229.

1744-1748.—King George's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1744; 1745; 1745-1748.

1749-1774.—Boundary dispute with New York. —See VERMONT: 1749-1774.

1754.—Colonial Congress at Albany, and Franklin's Plan of Union. See U.S.A.: 1754.

1755-1763.—French and Indian War.—Conquest of Canada. See CANADA: 1750-1753, to 1763; NOVA SCOTIA: 1749-1755; 1755; OHIO: 1748-1754, to 1755.

1760-1766.—Question of taxation by Parliament.—Sugar Act.—Stamp Act and its repeal.—Declaratory Act.—Stamp Act Congress. See U.S.A.: 1760-1775; 1763-1764; 1765; 1766: Repeal of Stamp Act.

1766-1768.—Townshend duties.—Circular Letter of Massachusetts. See U.S.A.: 1766-1767; 1767-1768.

1769.—Dartmouth College case. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1754-1760.

1770-1773.—Repeal of Townshend duties except on tea.—Committees of correspondence instituted. See U.S.A.: 1770; 1772-1773.

1774.—First Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1774.

1775-1783.—War of American Revolution. See U.S.A.: 1775, to 1783.

1775-1776.—End of royal government.—Adoption of a constitution.—Declaration of Independence.—The New Hampshire Assembly, called by Governor Wentworth, came together June 12, 1775, in the midst of the excitements produced by news of Lexington and Ticonderoga. Meantime, a convention of the people had been called and was sitting at Exeter. Acting on a demand from the latter, the assembly proceeded first to expel from its body three members whom the governor had called by the king's writ from three new townships, and who were notorious royalists. "One of the expelled members, having censured this proceeding, was assaulted by the populace, and fled for shelter to the governor's house. The people

demanding him, and, being refused, they pointed a gun at the governor's door; whereupon the offender was surrendered and carried to Exeter. The governor retired to the fort, and his house was pillaged. He afterwards went on board the Scarborough and sailed for Boston. He had adjourned the assembly to the 28th of September. But they met no more. In September, he issued a proclamation from the Isles of Shoals, adjourning them to April next. This was the closing act of his administration. It was the last receding step of royalty. It had subsisted in the province 95 years. The government of New Hampshire was henceforth to be a government of the people. . . . The convention which had assembled at Exeter was elected but for six months. Previous to their dissolution in November, they made provisions, pursuant to the recommendations of congress, for calling a new convention, which should be a more full representation of the people. They sent copies of these provisions to the several towns, and dissolved. The elections were forthwith held. The new convention promptly assembled, and drew up a temporary form of government. Having assumed the name of 'House of Representatives,' they adopted a constitution [January, 1776], and proceeded to choose twelve persons to constitute a distinct and a co-ordinate branch of the legislature, by the name of a Council. [The constitution provided for no executive.] . . . The two houses assumed to themselves the executive duty during the session, and they appointed a committee of safety to sit in the recess, varying in number from six to sixteen, vested with executive powers. The president of the council was president of the executive committee. . . . On the 11th of June, 1776, a committee was chosen by the assembly, and another by the council of New Hampshire, 'to make a draught of a declaration of the independence of the united colonies.' On the 15th, the committees of both houses reported a 'Declaration of Independence,' which was adopted unanimously, and a copy sent forthwith to their delegates in congress."—G. Bartow, *History of New Hampshire*, ch. 6.

1776.—Ending of slavery. See SLAVERY: 1760-1785.

1776 (July).—Signing of Declaration of Independence. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Authorship, etc.

1776-1779.—Becomes one of the thirteen states.—Framing and adoption of state constitution. See U.S.A.: 1776-1779.

1777-1781.—Adoption and ratification of Articles of Confederation. See U.S.A.: 1777-1781.

1783-1816.—Early state officers.—Fall of Federalists.—"The leaders in the Revolution naturally became the leaders in civil affairs upon the settlement of a permanent government. The first period under the constitution of 1783 will be included between the beginning of the new government in June, 1784, and the government under the amended constitution in 1793. By general consent the patriot Weare became president of the state and served from June, 1784, to June, 1785.

President Weare's war administration was in the most trying epoch through which the state has ever passed. . . . When Meshech Weare passed from the sphere of political activity the not unfriendly rivalry of John Langdon and John Sullivan for the honors of state became the most interesting feature of New Hampshire politics. Langdon succeeded Weare for one term; Sullivan succeeded Langdon for two terms. Langdon was again elected in 1788, and Sullivan was returned to office in 1780. Josiah Bartlett took office in 1790, serving three terms in succession. He was

the last to hold the title of president. Meanwhile the federal convention of 1787, of which John Langdon and Nicholas Gilman were the New Hampshire members, had formulated a constitution for the United States of America. . . . Under [the] new federal government John Langdon and Paine Wingate became senators in the winter of 1788-9, while Nicholas Gilman, Samuel Livermore and Abiel Foster were the first representatives in congress elected by this state. John Sullivan was appointed as the first district judge of New Hampshire by President Washington in the ensuing year. He was at the same time president of the state and held both offices until the end of his term as president in June, 1790. Senator Langdon, who was president of the state for the year 1788-9, resigned this office January 22, 1789, to take his seat in the senate. John Pickering then succeeded to the office as president of the state, and was the incumbent of it until the following June. This fact is often overlooked in tables of official succession and in political histories of the state. . . . Debt and paper money disturbed and deranged the business affairs of the new state and were the causes of great distress among the people. The disaffected elements were upon the verge of rebellion in 1780 and surrounded the assembled legislature in a clamorous mob. This uprising was successfully quelled under the discreet management of President Sullivan,—a display of military force being made under the command of the veteran, Cilley. . . . If the political standards of a free people may be fairly judged at any given time by the character of the chief magistrates whom they select, it may be said of New Hampshire that in no other period does this test respond as it does in that under review. . . . It was in this period that the prestige of service in the Revolution continued many of the old leaders in the highest prominence in the state. At the same time a later generation of politicians of transcendent ability was developing such statesmen-jurists as William Plumer, Jeremiah Smith, Jeremiah Mason and Daniel Webster, and the national service of Webster and Mason were not more useful to the state than were the achievements of Jeremiah Smith in the reform and construction of a system of jurisprudence, and what Plumer accomplished in the reforms of the political system embodied in the constitution of 1792, and in other lines of political effort, notably that which resulted finally in the Toleration Act of 1810. This was a period of ascendancy of the Federalists in this state the greater part of the time, but the not infrequent successes of Langdon and Plumer in contesting the governorship and the fatal mistakes of the party in its war policy and its alliance with the standing order in ecclesiastical affairs foreshadowed the sure approach of its complete and permanent failure as a political power. The Anti-Federalists, then known as Republicans—the Jefferson party of that day—controlled the state government in whole or in part from 1804 to 1812, Jeremiah Smith having for a single term broken in on the succession as governor in 1809. The court system had remained without material change, as far as the court of last resort was concerned, both in the province and state from 1609 to 1813. In these later years the Federalists having recovered control of the legislature and re-elected John Taylor Gilman, abolished the existing judicial system and reorganized the courts. This added fuel to the flames of opposition and added to the causes which were effectual in the final downfall of the party in 1816. Many important institutions had been established in the state be-

tween the close of the Revolutionary War and the termination of the War of 1812. One hundred and forty-two library associations were incorporated; sixteen academies, including Phillips or Exeter, were founded; the medical school at Hanover had its beginning in 1798; a Grand Lodge of Free Masons was organized in 1789 with General John Sullivan as Grand Master; the New Hampshire Medical Society had its inception in 1791; Concord became the permanent capital in 1807, and the State's Prison in that city was begun in 1811. . . . In the colony and Province periods the Congregational order had maintained its ascendancy as practically a state church, the town ministers having been elected by the people and supported by public taxation."—G. F. Willey, ed., *State builders*, pp. 24-27.

1784.—Slavery declared illegal. See U.S.A.: 1860: Slavery concentrated in South.

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

1788.—Ratification of Federal constitution. See U.S.A.: 1787-1789.

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

1814.—Hartford Convention. See U.S.A.: 1814 (December): Hartford Convention.

1850.—Revision of constitution.—"No revision of the constitution through the instrumentality of a delegate convention was undertaken after 1791 until 1850. The convention then assembled was an aggregation of men distinguished in various walks of life, and Franklin Pierce was made the presiding officer. The changes accomplished were limited in number, but important, progressive and beneficial at the three points of amendment on which ratification by the people was secured."—G. F. Willey, ed., *State builders*, p. 35.

1860-1865.—Part played in Civil War.—"The opposition to Lincoln and Hamlin in New Hampshire in 1860 was divided into three factions, although one candidate and his associate would have needed all the votes that were available. The state administration when Sumter fell was confronted by a difficult situation. President Lincoln had called for a regiment of New Hampshire men for three months' service. There was no emergency war fund in the New Hampshire treasury, no efficient existing militia system and no legislature in session. The Governor [Ichabod Goodwin], however, procured the means of equipping the regiment upon his own credit and the credit of patriotic banks and individuals, and Congressman Tappan, who was given the colonelcy, had the first New Hampshire regiment in the field before the legislature was assembled. In the intervening war period Ichabod Goodwin, Nathaniel S. Berry and Joseph A. Gilmore were the war governors. Frederic Smyth, sometimes erroneously designated as a war governor, was not inaugurated as Chief Magistrate until June, 1865, when the war had been concluded. Seventeen full regiments of infantry were sent into the service from New Hampshire. Col. Kent's regiment (the seventeenth), which was nearly filled, was not mustered. A large part of the men raised for it by its organizer were assigned to other regiments. The remaining part was consolidated with the veteran second regiment. The state also contributed a battalion of cavalry, afterwards augmented to a regiment, three companies of sharpshooters, a battery of light artillery and a regiment of heavy artillery. Besides these it furnished a liberal number of sailors for the navy."—G. F. Willey, ed., *State builders*, pp. 43-44.

1870-1905.—Railroad development.—"Since the business of railroading was inaugurated in this

state less than seventy years ago, its growth has kept in equal step with the development of commercial requirements. The present mileage, [1905] 1190 30-100 miles of main track and 521 92-100 of sidings is greater in proportion to wealth and population than in the case of any other New England state. The three stages of construction, competition and consolidation have been well illustrated in New Hampshire. From 1870 to 1890 intervened a period of railroad war which divided the people as partisans of one railroad system or the other, and this allegiance resembled in many ways the fealty which men have accorded to political parties. Since industrial peace ensued after the termination of the wars of the rival railroad corporations, and a single system has been developed and perfected, all the other industries of the state have felt the impetus and had the benefits of enlarged and highly organized railroad facilities, the extension of railroad lines, and marked reduction of rates, both in passenger and freight service, and innumerable administrative reforms."—G. F. Willey, ed., *State builders*, p. 57.

1876-1884. — Political affairs. — Constitutional convention.—Referee law passed.—Law against tramps.—State prison.—"In the year 1876 there was a notable movement in favor of total abstinence from the use of intoxicating drinks, furthered by the organization of Reform Clubs, although many persons were drawn into such clubs, who had always been total abstainers. . . . To aid the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia the legislature of 1875 voted to purchase ten thousand dollars' worth of the stock of the Centennial Board of Finance, which had been incorporated by the Congress of the United States. [See also CENTENNIAL OF 1876.] . . . The sixth constitutional convention assembled at the capitol December 6, 1876. . . . Thirteen amendments were submitted to the people, who voted upon them March 13, 1877. Eleven of the amendments proposed were adopted. The basis of representation was changed from ratable polls to population, granting a representative to every town having six hundred inhabitants and two representatives to a town having eighteen hundred inhabitants. Provision was made for biennial sessions of the legislature. The number of senators was increased from twelve to twenty-four. It was provided that registers of probate, solicitors and sheriffs should be elected by popular vote. The religious test was abolished although the word 'Protestant' was not struck out from the bill of rights till the year 1902. The time of holding elections was changed from March to November. The removal of persons from office for political reasons was prohibited. It was voted that no money raised by taxation should be used for the support of the schools and institutions of any religious sect or denomination. The majority of the convention of 1876 were not ready to obliterate all distinctions between Roman Catholics, Protestants, Jews and other religionists. They held that New Hampshire was still a Protestant State. Many wanted to so phrase the constitution as to place all persons, of every shade of religious belief, upon terms of equality before the law, but it took another quarter of a century to educate the people to this thought. . . . In 1878 the Labor-reform and Greenback parties united and in the State elections of that year the fusion party polled a million votes, of which New Hampshire cast 6,507 for Warren G. Brown for governor. The party elected fourteen congressmen. . . . The referee law, enacted about this time, removed a great number of small suits from the courts and greatly decreased the expense of litigation. . . . At this time tramps were invest-

ing the state. Governor Prescott recommended strong action to abate the nuisance and menace to society. A large number of ablebodied men, singly and in bands, were wandering about, refusing to work even for a night's lodging or a meal of victuals, 'filthy, lazy, idle and vicious.' To be compelled to work without compensation was the remedy suggested. Accordingly the legislature of 1878 enacted a law, which sent a tramp to the State Prison for fifteen months or more, where he was subjected to hard labor, and a reward of ten dollars was offered to anyone who would secure the conviction of a tramp. . . . A new State Prison was erected at this time, for which the legislature appropriated \$230,000. . . . Natt Head, as he was generally called, was elected governor in 1879 under the new law of biennial election. It had been the custom for a long time to re-elect a governor if possible, so as to give him two years of office. Henceforth he was elected for two years, and no effort has been made down to the present time to re-elect a governor, although the Constitution does not prohibit it. . . . In 1881 Charles H. Bell of Exeter was elected governor by a vote of 44,432, the largest vote cast up to that time for a governor, about three hundred thousand more than all his competitors received. The Greenback party had shrunk to one-twelfth its size two years before. . . . The State Board of Health was established by the legislature of 1881. Samuel Whitney Hale was elected governor by a small majority in 1883, receiving 38,402 votes."—E. S. Stackpole, *History of New Hampshire*, v. 4, pp. 123-125, 127, 129-131.

1908-1913. — Legislation. — In 1908, a direct primary law was enacted and drastic measures adopted for the control of railroad influence. In 1911, an act was passed to prevent corporations contributing to political campaigns; a public service commission was created; also a tax commission to take the place of the board of equalization. In 1912, three amendments were added to the constitution providing for the disqualification of voters convicted of certain crimes; for the election of officers by plurality votes; and for the changing of the basis of councilor districts from property to population. In 1913, a mother's pension act was passed; an arbitration board for labor disputes created (see ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920); an office of medical inspection in schools established; an act limiting the hours for women and children in industry was passed; and the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Federal Amendments (Income Tax and Direct Election of Senators) were ratified. In 1900, H. B. Quinby became governor and was succeeded in 1911, by Robert P. Bass, who in turn was followed by Samuel D. Felkner in 1913.

1911.—Employers' Liability Act.—The New Hampshire legislature, in 1911, passed a workmen's compensation law, containing an optional compensation clause. The act differs from that of most of the states in that it gives employers the chance to choose between liability under the common law, with the "fellow-servant" and "assumption of risk" rules swept away, and liability under the new compensation law. The workman, too, may choose between the two.

1916-1923. — Legislation. — Part played in World War.—Gubernatorial changes.—In 1910, a budget system was adopted; a department of agriculture created; and an act requiring cold storage concerns to be licensed. In 1917, an act providing for judicial procedure against price inflation was passed; a blue sky law enacted; and the hours for working women reduced. In 1918, a constitutional convention assembled but on ac-

count of the World War, adjourned without taking action. In 1919, the Federal Amendments, Eighteenth (Prohibition) and Nineteenth (Women Suffrage) were ratified January 15, and September 10 respectively. In 1921, the measures passed included the regulation of chiropractic practice; further safeguards against forest fires; protection of maternity and infancy; limitation of the investments of savings banks; and the taxing the transfer, at death, of personal property of non-residents. During the World War, the state furnished 14,374 men or .38 per cent of the entire Expeditionary Forces. The governors for the period covering 1915-1923 were as follows: Walter H. Spaulding, 1915-1917; Henry W. Keyes, 1917-1919; John H. Bartlett, 1919-1921; and Albert A. Brown, 1921-1923.

1922.—Textile strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1922; New England textile strike.

ALSO IN: *Studies in history, economics, and public law (Columbia University, 1908, v. 29)*.—J. N. McClintock, *History of New Hampshire*.—T. Hands, *An emigrant's chances in New Hampshire (Magazine of History, Feb.-Mar., 1914, pp. 111-113)*.—J. C. French, *New Hampshire men at Bunker Hill (Granite State Magazine, Jan.-Mar., 1908, pp. 33-43)*.—*Granite Monthly, Feb., 1921, pp. 80-81, 50-55*.

NEW HAMPSHIRE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS. See NEW HAMPSHIRE: 1693-1910.

NEW HANOVER, one of the islands of the Bismarck archipelago, in the Pacific ocean. See BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO.

NEW HARMONY COMMUNITY, Robert Owen's colony on the Wabash, Indiana. See SOCIALISM: 1805-1827.

NEW HAVEN, city in Connecticut, popularly called the "Elm City," at the head of New Haven bay. It is the county seat of New Haven county and the largest city in the state. It has an area of about twenty-three square miles; and a population, 1920, of 162,519. The city ranks first among the industrial centers of the state. In 1700, New Haven was made joint capital with Hartford and remained as such until 1874.

1638.—Planting of colony and founding of city. See CONNECTICUT: 1638; U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

1639.—Fundamental Agreement. See CONNECTICUT: 1639.

1639-1662.—Blue laws. See CONNECTICUT: 1639-1662.

1640-1655.—Attempts at colonization on the Delaware. See NEW JERSEY: 1640-1655.

1643.—Progress and state of colony.—New England Confederation. See NEW ENGLAND: 1643.

1660-1664.—Protection of Regicides. See CONNECTICUT: 1660-1664.

1662-1664.—Annexation to Connecticut. See CONNECTICUT: 1662-1664.

1666.—Migration to Newark, N. J. See NEW JERSEY: 1664-1667.

1717.—Yale University established. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1701-1717.

1779.—Pillaged by Tryon's marauders. See U.S.A.: 1778-1779; Washington guarding, etc.

1833.—Anti-Slavery Society founded. See CONNECTICUT: 1818-1845.

NEW HEBRIDES, a group of islands in the Pacific ocean (see MELANESIA), lying between the Fiji Islands and the coast of Queensland and comprising an area of 5100 square miles, and a population, in 1920, of about 60,000. Since 1906, Great Britain and France have shared the government of the islands, under a system which is known as the

Condominium, and which has not proven successful. Prior to 1914 the position had become so serious that Great Britain and France had agreed to a meeting to confer on the question. At the outbreak of the World War the question was set aside and nothing was settled. In 1921 it was suggested that the islands should be annexed by Australia, but Australia was already over-burdened with territory and did not desire the annexation. Japanese settlers had been invading the neighboring French islands of New Caledonia and practically owned the famous Michel mines there. On November 4th, 1921, in the Australian House of Representatives the prime minister announced that the French New Hebrides Company had offered to sell out to the government of Australia its entire business and land holdings. The minister did not recommend that the House should agree to the purchase, chiefly on the ground that it was doubtful whether the French Company would be allowed, by the French government to sell, but he stated that behind France stood Japan, and that if Australia did not come to terms the next effort at negotiation by the French Company would be in Tokyo. If the purchaser was Japan, how far the French government would be disposed to allow the French Company to sell its rights and how far the British government would protest is uncertain. As late as 1922 no practical arrangement with regard to the government of the islands had been made.

ALSO IN: *American Journal of International Law, Apr., 1907*.

Mythology. See MYTHOLOGY: Oceania; Melanesian.

1899-1900.—Samoa convention. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914.

NEW HOPE CHURCH, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1864 (May-September: Georgia).

NEW IRELAND, early name for New Macleburg, one of the islands of the Bismarck archipelago, in the Pacific ocean.

1884.—Claimed by Germany. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914.

NEW JERSEY, familiarly known as the "Mosquito," or "Garden State," is one of the Middle Atlantic states of the United States. It is bounded on the north by New York; on the east, by the lower Hudson river, which separates it from New York, and by the Atlantic ocean; on the south and west by the Delaware bay and river with separates New Jersey from Delaware and Pennsylvania. The state has an area of 8,224 square miles, of which 710 square miles are water area; and a population in 1920, of 3,155,900.

Resources.—New Jersey is largely given over to market-gardening, fruit-growing and general agriculture. In 1920 the state had 29,702 farms with a total area of 2,282,585 acres, of which 1,555,607 acres were improved land. The state also has valuable fresh and salt water fisheries; the value of shell fish alone for the year 1919 amounted to \$6,700,000. New Jersey ranks second among the states in the production of zinc ore. The state also produces magnetic iron, manganese, talc, soap stone, graphite, building stone, Portland cement, coke, green sand marl, and clay. See U.S.A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; DELAWARES; IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests, etc.; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America; Eastern Woodlands area.

1606-1620.—Included in King James' grants to London and Plymouth Companies. See AMERICA: Map of King James' grants.

1610-1664.—Dutch in possession. See NEW YORK: 1610-1614; 1621-1646.

1620.—Embraced in patent of Council for New England. See NEW ENGLAND: 1620-1623.

1634.—Embraced in Palatine grant of New Albion. See NEW ALBION.

1635.—Territory assigned to Lord Mulgrave on dissolution of council for New England. See NEW ENGLAND: 1635.

1640-1655.—Attempted colonization from New Haven, on the Delaware.—The London merchants who formed the leading colonists of New Haven, and who were the wealthiest among the pioneer settlers of New England, had schemes of commerce in their minds, as well as desires for religious freedom, when they founded their little republic at Quinnipiac. They began with no delay to establish a trade with Barbadoes and Virginia, as well as along their own coasts; and they were promptly on the watch for advantageous openings at which to plant a strong trading-post or two among the Indians. In the winter of 1638-1639, one George Lambertson of New Haven, while trafficking Virginia-wards, discovered the lively fur trade already made active on Delaware bay by the Dutch and Swedes (see DELAWARE: 1638-1640), and took a hand in it. His enterprising townsmen, when they heard his report, resolved to put themselves at once on some kind of firm footing in the country where this profitable trade could be reached. They formed a "Delaware Company," in which the Governor, the minister, and all the chiefs of the colony were joined, and late in the year 1640 they sent a vessel into Delaware bay, commanded by Capt. Turner, who was one of their number. Capt. Turner "was instructed by the Delaware Company to view and purchase lands at the Delaware Bay, and not to meddle with aught, that rightfully belonged to the Swedes or Dutch. . . . But New Haven's captain paid little heed to boundaries. He bought of the Indians nearly the whole southwestern coast of New Jersey, and also a tract of land at Passayunk, on the present site of Philadelphia, and opposite the Dutch fort Nassau. . . . On the 30th of August, 1641, there was a Town-Meeting at New Haven, which voted to itself authority over the region of the Delaware Bay. The acts of the Delaware Company were approved, and 'Those to whome the affaires of the towne is committed' were ordered to 'Dispose of all the affayres of Delaware Bay.' The first instalment of settlers had previously gone to the Bay. Trumbull says that nearly fifty families removed. As they went by New Amsterdam, Governor Kieft issued an unavailing protest, which was met, however, by fair words. The larger portion of the party settled in a plantation on Varkin's Kill (Ferkenskill. Hog Creek?), near what is now Salem, New Jersey. A fortified trading-house was built or occupied at Passayunk. This was the era of Sir Edmund Plowden's shadowy Palatinate of New Albion, and, if there is any truth in the curious 'Description,' there would seem to be some connection between this fort of the New Haven settlers and Plowden's alleged colony." The Dutch and the Swedes, notwithstanding their mutual jealousies, made common cause against these New England intruders, and succeeded in breaking up their settlements. The exact occurrences are obscurely known, but it is certain that the attempted colonization was a failure, and that, "slowly, through the winter and spring of 1643, the major part of [the settlers] . . . straggled home to New Haven. . . . The poverty and distress were not confined to twosome households who had risked their persons in the enterprise. The ill-starred effort had impoverished the highest personages in the town, and crippled New Haven's best financial strength." Yet the scheme of settle-

ment on the Delaware was not abandoned. While claims against the Dutch for damages and for redress of wrongs were vigorously pressed, the town still looked upon the purchased territory as its own, and was resolute in the intention to occupy it. In 1651 a new expedition of fifty persons set sail for the Delaware, but was stopped at Manhattan by Peter Stuyvesant, and sent back, vainly raging at the insolence of the Dutch. All New England shared the wrath of New Haven, but confederated New England was not willing to move in the matter unless New Haven would pay the consequent costs. New Haven seemed rather more than half disposed to take up arms against New Netherland on her own responsibility; but her small quarrel was soon merged in the greater war which broke out between Holland and England. When this occurred, "concerted action on the part of the New Englanders would have given New Holland to the Allies, and extended New Haven's limits to the Delaware, without any one to gainsay or resist. After the Commissioners [of the United Colonies] declared for war, Massachusetts refused to obey, adopted the rôle of a secessionist, and checked the whole proceeding. New Haven, with whom the proposed war was almost a matter of life and death, was justified in adverting to the conduct of Massachusetts as 'A provoaking sinn against God, and of a scandalous nature before men.' The mutinous schemes of Roger Ludlow and of some New Haven malcontents complicated the problem still more both for Connecticut and New Haven. Finally, just as an army of 800 men was ready [1654] to march upon New Amsterdam, tidings came of a European peace, and New Haven's last chance was gone. But the town did not lose hope. Plans for a new colony were slowly matured through 1654 and 1655, but "the enterprise was completely thwarted by a series of untoward events," the most decisive of which was the conquest of New Sweden by Stuyvesant in October, 1655. "But the dream of Delaware was not forgotten."—C. H. Levermore, *Republic of New Haven*, ch. 3, sect. 5.

ALSO IN: S. Hazard, *Annals of Pennsylvania*, pp. 57-178.

1664-1667.—Dutch settlers along the Delaware.—English occupation and proprietary grant to Berkeley and Carteret.—Naming of province.—Newark immigration from New Haven.—"In 1664, just as the flourishing colony of New Amsterdam was about to take over the Dutch interests in the Delaware river region, came the English conquest of New Netherland in Manhattan, which was immediately followed, on October 11th 1664, by the surrender of the Dutch in this Southern region to the British crown. . . . On the surrender of the colony, they were all secured by the English in their personal possessions and most of them remained in the country, taking part in its ordinary affairs. There is no trace to-day in any part of New Jersey south of the Raritan of the old Netherland speech which still lives on in the mountains of . . . northern New Jersey."—J. D. Prince, *Netherland settlers in New Jersey* (*New Jersey Historical Society Collections*, series o, p. o).—"Before the Duke of York was actually in possession of his easily acquired territory [of New Netherland, or New York (see NEW YORK: 1664)]. on the 23d and 24th of June, 1664, he executed deeds of lease and release to Lord John Berkeley, Baron of Stratton, and Sir George Carteret, of Saltrum in Devon, granting to them, their heirs and assigns, all that portion of his tract 'lying and being to the westward of Long Island and Manhitas Island, and bounded on the east part by the main

sea, and part by Hudson's river, and hath upon the west, Delaware bay or river, and extending southward to the main ocean as far as Cape May, at the mouth of Delaware bay; and to the northward, as far as the northernmost branch of the said bay or river of Delaware, which is $41^{\circ} 40'$ of latitude, and crosseth over thence in a strait line to Hudson's river, in 41° of latitude; which said tract of land is hereafter to be called by the name or names of New Cæsarea, or New Jersey.' The name of 'Cæsarea' was conferred upon the tract in commemoration of the gallant defence of the Island of Jersey, in 1649, by Sir George Carteret, then its governor, against the Parliamentarians; but the people preferred the English name of New Jersey, and the other was consequently soon lost. The grant of the Duke of York from the crown conferred upon him, his heirs and assigns, among other rights appertaining thereto, that most important one of government; the power of hearing and determining appeals being reserved to the king; but, 'relying,' says Chalmers, 'on the greatness of his connection, he seems to have been little solicitous to procure the royal privileges conferred on the proprietors of Maryland and Carolina,' whose charters conferred almost unlimited authority. 'And while as counts-palatine they exercised every act of government in their own names, because they were invested with the ample powers possessed by the prætors of the Roman provinces, he ruled his territory in the name of the king.' In the transfer to Berkeley and Carteret, they, their heirs and assigns, were invested with all the powers conferred upon the duke. . . . Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, now sole proprietors of New Jersey, on the 10th February, 1664, signed a constitution, which they made public under the title of 'The Concessions and agreement of the Lords Proprietors of New Jersey, to and with all and every of the adventurers, and all such as shall settle and plant there.' . . . On the same day that this instrument was signed, Philip Carteret, a brother to Sir George, received a commission as governor of New Jersey. . . . The ship Philip, having on board about 30 people, some of them servants, and laden with suitable commodities, sailed from England in the summer, and arrived in safety at the place now known as Elizabethtown Point, or Elizabeth Port, in August of the same year. What circumstance led to the governor's selection of this spot for his first settlement, is not now known, but it was, probably, the fact of its having been recently examined and approved of by others. He landed, and gave to his embryo town the name of Elizabeth, after the lady of Sir George. . . . Governor Carteret, so soon as he became established at Elizabethtown, sent messengers to New England and elsewhere, to publish the concessions of the proprietors and to invite settlers. In consequence of this invitation and the favorable terms offered, the province soon received large additions to its population."—W. A. Whitehead, *East Jersey under the proprietary governments (New Jersey Historical Society Collections, v. 1, period 2.)*—"In August, 1665, he [Governor Carteret] sent letters to New England offering to settlers every civil and religious privilege. Mr. Treat and some of his friends immediately visited New Jersey. They bent their steps toward the New Haven property on the Delaware Bay, and selected a site for a settlement near what is now Burlington. Returning by way of Elizabeth, they met Carteret, and were by him influenced to locate on the Passaic River. . . . Early in the spring of 1666, the remnant of the old New Haven, the New Haven of 1638, under the leadership of Robert Treat and Mathew Gilbert, sailed

into the Passaic. . . . In June, 1667, the entire force of the little colony was gathered together in their new abode, to which the name 'Newark' was applied, in honor of Mr. Pierson's English home. [Mr. Pierson was the minister at Branford, in the New Haven colony, and his flock migrated with him to Newark almost bodily.] The Fundamental Agreement was revised and enlarged, the most notable expansion being the following article: 'The planters agree to submit to such magistrates as shall be annually chosen by the Friends from among themselves, and to such Laws as we had in the place whence we came.' Sixty-four men wrote their names under this Bill of Rights, of whom 23 were from Branford, and the remaining 41 from New Haven, Milford, and Guilford. Most of them were probably heads of families, and, in all the company, but six were obliged to make their marks. . . . It seems to me that, after 1666, the New Haven of Davenport and Eaton must be looked for upon the banks, not of the Quinipiac, but of the Passaic. The men, the methods, the laws, the officers, that made New Haven Town what it was in 1640, disappeared from the Connecticut Colony, but came to full life again immediately in New Jersey. . . . Newark was not so much the product as the continuation of New Haven.'"—C. H. Levermore, *Republic of New Haven, ch. 4, sect. 6.*

ALSO IN: *Documents relating to the colonial history of New Jersey, v. 1.*—E. P. Tanner, *Province of New Jersey.*

1673.—Dutch reconquest. See NEW YORK: 1673.
1673-1682.—Sale to new proprietors, mostly Quakers, and division of the province into East Jersey and West Jersey.—Free constitution of West Jersey.—In 1673 Lord Berkeley, one of the original proprietors, "sold his one-half interest in the Province for less than \$5,000. John Fenwick and Edward Byllinge, two English Quakers, were the purchasers. A dispute arose between the new proprietors about the division of their property, and William Penn, who afterward became the founder of Pennsylvania, was chosen arbitrator to settle the difficulty, and succeeded to the satisfaction of all parties interested. Fenwick sailed from London, in 1675, in the ship 'Griffith,' with his family and a small company of Quakers. This was the first English vessel that came to New Jersey with immigrants. The party sailed up the Delaware bay, and entering a creek, landed on its banks three miles and a half from the Delaware;—this creek, and the settlement founded on it, Fenwick named Salem. This was the first English settlement permanently established in West Jersey."—J. R. Sypher and E. A. Apgar, *History of New Jersey, ch. 1.*—In July, 1676, the province was divided, Philip Carteret taking East Jersey, and the successors of Berkeley taking West Jersey. "Thereupon, Carteret, by will, devised his plantation of New Jersey to trustees to be sold for certain purposes, by him stated, in 1681-2. . . . He had not a peaceable time. Indeed, anything like constant peace was the lot of very few of New Jersey's early Governors. Governor Andros, of New York, disputed Carteret's authority; nay, failing by peaceable means to gain his point, he sent a party of soldiers by night [1678], who dragged Carteret from his bed, carried him to New York, and there kept him close until a day was set on which he was tried before his opponent himself in the New York Courts, and three times acquitted by the jury, who were sent back with directions to convict, but firmly each time refused. The authority of Carteret was confirmed by the Duke of York, and Andros was recalled. . . . The trustees of Sir George Carteret could not make sale of East Jersey. After

ineffectual attempts at private sale they offered it at public auction, and William Penn and eleven associates, most if not all Quakers, bought it for £3,400. It was too heavy a purchase, apparently, for their management. Each sold half his right to another, and so were constituted the twenty-four Proprietors. They procured a deed of confirmation from the Duke of York March 14th, 1682, and then the twenty-four Lords Proprietors by sealed instrument established a council, gave them power to appoint overseers, and displace all officers necessary to manage their property, to take care of their lands, deed them, appoint dividends, settle the rights of particular Proprietors in such dividends, grant warrants of survey, in fine, to do everything necessary for the profitable disposition of all the territory. . . . The new Proprietors were men of rank. William Penn is known to all the world. With him were James, Earl of Perth, John Drummond, Robert Barclay, famous, like Penn, as a Quaker gentleman, and a controversialist for Quaker belief and David Barclay. . . . Each Proprietor had a twenty-fourth interest in the property, inheritable, divisible, and assignable, as if it were a farm instead of a province. And by these means the estate has come down to those who now own the property. . . . In New Jersey . . . our Legislature has nothing at all to do with our waste or unappropriated land. It all belongs to the Proprietors, to those, namely, who own what are known as Proprietary rights, or rights of Proprietorship, and is subject to the disposition of the Board of Proprietors. . . . What is left in their control is now [1884] of comparatively slight value."—C. Parker, *Address, Bi-centennial celebration of the Board of American Proprietors of East New Jersey*.—The division line between East Jersey and West Jersey, as established by the agreement between the Proprietors, began at Little Egg Harbor and extended northward to a point on the Delaware river in 41 degrees of north latitude. "After this line had been established, John Fenwick's interest in West Jersey was conveyed to John Eldridge and Edmund Warner in fee, and they were admitted into the number of proprietors. In order to establish a government for the Province of West Jersey, provisional authority was given to Richard Hartshore and Richard Guy, residents of East Jersey, and to James Wasse, who was sent especially from England to act on behalf of the proprietors. These persons were commissioned on the 18th of August, 1676, by Byllinge and his trustees, in conjunction with Eldridge and Warner, and full power was given them to conduct the affairs of the government in accordance with instructions from the proprietors. Fenwick, who had founded a settlement at Salem, refused to recognize the transfer of his portion of the Province to Eldridge and Warner, and declared himself to be independent of this new government. It therefore became the first duty of the commissioners to settle this difficulty. All efforts, however, for that purpose failed. The original plan of the government was devised by William Penn and his immediate associates. It was afterward approved by all the proprietors interested in the Province, and was first published on the 3d of March, 1676, as 'The Concessions and Agreements of the proprietors, freeholders and inhabitants of the Province of West Jersey in America.' This constitution declared that no man or number of men on earth had power or authority to rule over men's consciences in religious matters; and that no person or persons within the Province should be in any wise called in question or punished, in person, estate or privilege, on account of opinion, judgment, faith or worship toward God

in matters of religion. . . . That all the inhabitants of the Province should have the right to attend court and be present at all proceedings, 'to the end that justice may not be done in a corner, nor in any covert manner.' . . . The executive authority of the government was lodged in the hands of commissioners, to be appointed at first by the proprietors or a majority of them; but after the further settlement of the Province they were to be chosen by the resident proprietors and inhabitants, on the 25th of March of each year. The first election for commissioners occurred in 1680. . . . One of the most remarkable features in this instrument is the fact that no authority is retained by the proprietary body. 'We put the power in the people,' was the language of the fundamental law."—J. R. Sypher and E. A. Apgar, *History of New Jersey*, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: W. A. Whitehead, *East Jersey under the proprietary governments*, pp. 66-99.—*Documents relating to the colonial history of New Jersey*, v. 1.—A. Scott, *Influence of the proprietors in founding the State of New Jersey*.—J. P. Wall and H. E. Pickersgill, *Raritan valley of New Jersey*.

1674.—Final recovery by the English. See NETHERLANDS: 1674.

1688.—Joined with New England under governorship of Andros. See NEW YORK: 1688; U.S.A.: 1680-1689.

1688-1738.—Extinguishment of proprietary political powers.—Union of the two Jerseys in one royal province.—"In New Jersey, had the proprietary power been vested in the people or reserved to one man, it might have survived, but it was divided among speculators in land, who, as a body, had gain, and not the public welfare, for their end. In April, 1688, 'the proprietors of East New Jersey had surrendered their pretended right of government,' and the surrender had been accepted. In October of the same year, the council of the proprietaries of West New Jersey voted to the secretary-general for the dominion of New England the custody of 'all records relating to government.' Thus the whole province fell, with New York and New England, under the government of Andros. At the revolution, therefore [the English Revolution of 1688-1689], the sovereignty over New Jersey had reverted to the crown; and the legal maxim, soon promulgated by the board of trade, that the domains of the proprietaries might be bought and sold, but not their executive power, weakened their attempts at the recovery of authority, and consigned the colony to a temporary anarchy. A community of husbandmen may be safe for a short season with little government. For twelve years, the province was not in a settled condition. From June, 1689, to August, 1692, East New Jersey had apparently no superintending administration, being, in time of war, destitute of military officers as well as of magistrates with royal or proprietary commissions. They were protected by their neighbors from external attacks; and there is no reason to infer that the several towns failed to exercise regulating powers within their respective limits. . . . The proprietaries, threatened with the ultimate interference of parliament in provinces 'where,' it was said, 'no regular government had ever been established,' resolved to resign their pretensions. In their negotiations with the crown, they wished to insist that there should be a triennial assembly; but King William, though he had against his inclination approved triennial parliaments for England, would never consent to them in the plantations. In 1702, the first year of Queen Anne, the surrender took place before the privy council. The domain, ceasing to be connected with proprietary powers, was, under the rules of private

right, confirmed to its possessors, and the decision has never been disturbed. The surrender of 'the pretended' rights to government being completed, the two Jerseys were united in one province; and the government was conferred on Edward Hyde, Lord Cornbury, who, like Queen Anne, was the grandchild of Clarendon. Retaining its separate legislature, the province had for the next thirty-six years the same governors as New York. It never again obtained a charter: the royal commission of April, 1702, and the royal instructions to Lord Cornbury, constituted the form of its administration. To the governor appointed by the crown belonged the power of legislation, with consent of the royal council and the representatives of the people. . . . The freemen of the colony were soon conscious of the diminution of their liberties."—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, v. 2, pt. 3, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: J. O. Raum, *History of New Jersey*, v. 1, ch. 8.—A. M. Heston, *Absegami*.

1693-1911.—Development of public school system.—Permanent school fund.—"The first school law of the state was enacted by the general assembly of East New Jersey, at Perth Amboy, on the 12th of October, 1693. . . . In 1695 this act was amended. . . . Under the operation of this law, schools were established in all parts of the province. . . . This was a complete recognition of the principle of taxing property for the support of public schools, which at that time was the most advanced legislation on this subject in America."—E. R. Meeker, *New Jersey, a historical, commercial, and industrial review*, p. 42.—"In 1816 the legislature set aside the sum of \$15,000 to be invested in a permanent educational fund. In the following two years, this sum was increased to \$113,238.78. A law in 1824 added a tenth of the State tax to the school fund. Previous to this each township was authorized to raise money by taxation to pay for the education of the children of poor parents. This authority was increased in 1828, so as to include the building and repair of school houses. A year later \$20,000 was apportioned among the different counties, and provision was made for the election of a committee in each township, with the authority to divide it into districts, to examine and license teachers, and to report each year to the governor. . . . In 1846 every township was required to raise the same amount that was contributed by the State, and township superintendents were authorized. . . . The year 1855 brought an epoch in the educational history of the State, when the first State Normal School was opened in Trenton. . . . A great advance was made in 1867, when the entire school system was revised and placed on a sound basis. This admirable law provided for the continual maintenance of the Normal and the Model School; for the examination and licensing of teachers; for raising the State educational fund to the right amount; for uniting State and local contributions; and for defining the functions of district and township trustees, of the city boards of education, of the county superintendents, of the State superintendent, and of the State Board of Education. Free scholarships in the State College of agriculture and the mechanic arts were established by the legislature in 1890, and appropriations for their maintenance by the State were provided for at the same time. . . . In 1881 the legislature passed an act which encouraged the establishment of schools for industrial education and provided for the appropriation each year to any district, which maintained such a school, of a sum of money equal to that raised in the district, not exceeding \$5,000. . . . In 1888 the act which stimulated the introduction

of manual training into the public schools was passed. . . . In 1896 a law was enacted which provides for a Retirement Fund, supported by contributions from the salaries of teachers, by means of which annuities are paid to teachers retired on account of age or disability. In 1905 an act was passed which provides for the payment of pensions by the school districts to teachers retired after a service of thirty-five or more years in the State, and twenty or more years in the district which grants the pension. These annuities and pensions amount in the former case to six tenths and in the latter to one half the average annual salary paid during the last five years of service. The general school act of 1871 first made our public schools free. . . . In 1894 all school districts in the State, except cities and boroughs, were abolished; . . . and text-books were furnished free to the pupils. . . . The year 1903 is most notable in the history of school legislation, because in that year the legislature made a complete revision and codification of the school law. Among many important changes it gave city school districts the power to change the method of selecting boards of education, and made all boards corporations, independent largely of local municipal government. It created 'boards of school estimate' in cities and authorized them to fix the amount of money to be raised for the maintenance of the schools. . . . The steady advance made by New Jersey in providing the means for training teachers was shown in 1906, when the legislature appropriated \$275,000 for the building and equipping of a new State Normal School, which was opened in Upper Montclair in September, 1908. . . . A radical change in the school law went into effect in 1911. The office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction was abolished and the terms of all the members of the State Board of Education closed June 30, 1911. A new board consisting of eight members was appointed by the Governor, to whom was assigned the duty of nominating a Commissioner of Education. His term of five years, with an annual salary of \$10,000, began June 30, 1911."—E. S. Ellis and H. Snyder, *Brief history of New Jersey*, pp. 208-214.

1702-1776.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1621-1776.

1745.—Aid in King George's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1745.

1746.—Founding of Princeton University. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1746-1806.

1754.—Represented at Colonial Congress at Albany. See U.S.A.: 1754.

1760-1767.—Question of taxation by Parliament.—Sugar Act.—Stamp Act and its repeal.—Declaratory Act.—First Continental Congress.—Townshend measures. See U.S.A.: 1760-1775; 1763-1764; 1765: Stamp Act; 1765: Stamp Act Congress; 1765: News of Stamp Act in the colonies; 1766: Repeal of Stamp Act; 1766-1767.

1770.—Repeal of Townshend measures. See U.S.A.: 1770.

1767-1768.—Circular letter of Massachusetts. See U.S.A.: 1767-1768.

1774.—First Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1774 (September); (September-October).

1774-1776.—End of royal government.—Adoption of a state constitution.—In the person of William Franklin, New Jersey was afflicted, at the outbreak of the Revolutionary struggle, with an arbitrary and obstinately royalist governor. Finding the assembly of the colony refractory and independent, he refused to convene it in 1774, when the people desired to send delegates to the Continental Congress. Thereupon a convention was held

at New Brunswick, and this body not only commissioned delegates to the general Congress, but appointed a "general committee of correspondence" for the Province. The committee, in May of the following year, called together, at Trenton, a second Provincial Convention, which took to itself the title of the "Provincial Congress of New Jersey," and assumed the full authority of all the branches of the government, providing for the defense of the Province and taking measures to carry out the plans of the Continental Congress. "Governor Franklin convened the Legislature on the 16th of November, 1775. No important business was transacted, and on the 6th of December the Assembly was prorogued by the governor to meet on the 3d of January, 1776, but it never reassembled, and this was the end of Provincial legislation in New Jersey under royal authority. . . . Though the Provincial Congress of New Jersey had to a great extent assumed the control of public affairs in the Province, it had not renounced the royal authority. . . . On the 24th of June, a committee was appointed to draft a constitution. . . . New Jersey was, however, not yet disposed to abandon all hopes of reconciliation with the Crown, and therefore provided in the last article of this constitution that the instrument should become void whenever the king should grant a full redress of grievances, and agree to administer the government of New Jersey in accordance with the constitution of England and the rights of British subjects. But, on the 18th of July, . . . [1776] the Provincial Congress assumed the title of 'The Convention of the State of New Jersey,' declared the State to be independent of royal authority, and directed that all official papers, acts of Assembly and other public documents should be made in the name and by the authority of the State." Before this occurred, however, Governor Franklin had been placed under arrest, by order of Congress, and sent to Connecticut, where he was released on parole. He sailed immediately for England. "When the State government was organized under the new constitution, the Legislature enacted laws for the arrest and punishment of all persons who opposed its authority."—J. R. Sypher and E. A. Apgar, *History of New Jersey*, ch. 10-11.—"The constitution adopted made no startling innovations in the existing mode of government; indeed it reflected to a large degree the political customs and habits as well as the administrative theories of the colony. . . . In accordance with the declaration of the organic law the government of New Jersey was vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. To 'all inhabitants of this Colony, of full age, who are worth £50 proclamation money,' and who had resided for one year in the country in which they claimed a vote, was given the elective franchise in balloting for members of council and Assembly. . . . The usual privileges of free political action were given both branches of the Legislature, the Council being prohibited from preparing or altering any money bill, 'which shall be the privilege of the Assembly.' The choice of a governor fell not upon the people, but upon the members of the Assembly and Council in joint meeting. The term of office of the chief executive was limited to one year, he acting as president of the Council, chancellor, commander-in-chief of the militia, and surrogate-general, with power to constitute a privy council, composed of three or more members of council. The Council and the governor were designated a court of appeals at law as well as a court of pardons. No further provisions were made concerning the organization of new

tribunals or altering those already in existence. Upon the 2d of October, 1776, the Legislature confirmed all existing courts in New Jersey. The concentration of the appointing power in the joint meeting of the Council and Assembly is a characteristic feature of the constitution. . . . The assurances of religious freedom are made in no uncertain terms. Every person in the colony was granted the right of worshipping God 'agreeable to the dictates of his conscience.' No one could be compelled to attend a place of worship contrary to his faith, or be obliged to pay 'tithes, taxes, or other rates' for the purpose of building or repairing churches or supporting a ministry contrary 'to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately or voluntarily engaged himself to do.' . . . The hope of reconciliation, the possibility of a reunion, and the reestablishment of the crown's power in America led to the insertion of a constitutional proviso that if the colonies should be again taken 'under the protection and government of the crown of Great Britain this charter shall be null and void.' . . . The word 'Colony,' required by the constitution for use on the great seal, in commissions, in writs and indictments, was purely nominal. The first Legislature at Princeton refused to adopt the form and substituted 'State' on the great seal, while on the 20th of September, 1777, the word 'State' was declared by the Legislature as the official term by which New Jersey should be designated in commissions, writs, and indictments. . . . It was not until the passage of the constitution that the people were able to feel the awakening impulses of a larger degree of self-government. More than this, the constitution centralized power in the hands of the governor and the Legislature, where during the Revolution it was most needed."—F. B. Lee, *New Jersey as a colony and as a state*, v. 2, pp. 415-421.

Also in: T. F. Gordon, *History of New Jersey*, ch. 12.

1775.—Beginning of War of American Revolution.—Second Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1775: (April); (May); (May-August); (April-June); (June).

1776-1864.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1776-1787; 1787-1800; 1800-1864.

1776-1778.—Battleground of Washington's campaigns. See U.S.A.: 1776 (June); (August); (September-November); 1776-1779; 1777 (January-December); (July-October); 1778 (June).

1776-1784.—Attitude toward western domain. See MARYLAND: 1776-1784.

1776-1786.—Signing Declaration of Independence.—Becomes one of the thirteen states.—Adoption of state constitution.—Withholding ratification of Articles of Confederation. See U.S.A.: 1776 (June): Resolutions for independence; 1776 (July): Authorship, etc.; 1776-1779; 1777-1781; 1781-1786.

1778.—Washington's march to New York.—Battle of Monmouth. See U.S.A.: 1778 (June).

1779-1781.—War on the Hudson and the Delaware. See U.S.A.: 1779 (September-October); 1780 (February-August); 1781 (May-October).

1783-1784.—Jurisdiction over the Delaware river.—Free cities.—"New Jersey in 1783 entered into an agreement with Pennsylvania concerning their respective jurisdictions over the River Delaware. From the northwest corner of New Jersey to the point where the circular boundary of Delaware touches the river the Delaware was declared to be a 'common highway,' each State regulating the fisheries 'annexed to their respective shores,' that the same be not 'unnecessarily inter-

rupted during the season for catching shad.' In capital and other offenses, trespasses, or damages committed on the river the juridical investigation and determination was vested in the State where the offender was first apprehended, arrested, or prosecuted. A concurrent jurisdiction was further limited. In cases where vessels were at anchor or aground such vessels were considered as being exclusively within the jurisdiction of the nearer State. A distribution of 'all islands, eylots and dry land within the bed and between the shores' of the river from Trenton to the Delaware State boundary was also made. Later a similar arrangement was made concerning the islands between the extreme northwest boundary of New Jersey and the City of Trenton. Having adjusted the jurisdictional rights in the Delaware, Perth Amboy and Burlington were declared to be free cities for twenty-five years after October 1, 1784. . . . All goods immediately imported, except slaves, were declared to be free from all duties and imposts, except as affected by acts passed to raise a revenue for the use of the United States. Merchants in these free cities were exempt from taxes upon their stock or ships, the State retaining the right to pass a prohibitive tariff upon 'any goods, wares or merchandise . . . which may prove injurious to and discourage the manufactories of this State.'"—E. B. Lee, *New Jersey as a colony and as a state*, v. 2, pp. 378-379.

1787.—"New Jersey Plan" of government. See U.S.A.: 1787.

1787.—Ratification of Federal constitution. See U.S.A.: 1787-1789.

1789-1807.—Woman suffrage granted in state constitution.—Revoked by legislature. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: United States: 1647-1848.

1804.—Slavery prohibited. See U.S.A.: 1860: Slavery concentrated in the South.

1812-1850.—General banking law.—In 1812, a general banking law was passed for the protection of depositors and this law remained in force until 1850.

1844.—Constitutional convention.—The constitution of New Jersey was revised in 1844. The governor, who had heretofore been chosen by the legislature, was now to be elected by the people. All property qualifications for voting and holding office were abolished.

1861-1865.—Part played in Civil War.—"The quota which New Jersey was first required to furnish [in the Civil War] was 3,123 men. More than three times that number were eager to volunteer. The funds offered by the banks and individuals exceeded half a million dollars. . . . The New Jersey brigade was mustered into the United States service at Trenton. May 1, 1861. . . . A battery and another regiment were added in July to the three regiments, the whole being known as the first New Jersey brigade. It served throughout the war . . . Of the troops whose service ranged from four years to one hundred days, New Jersey provided 79,348, with 8,057 additional men not credited to her. The total call was 78,248, and the whole number furnished was 88,305."—E. S. Ellis and H. Snyder, *Brief history of New Jersey*, pp. 173-176.

1876.—Non-regulation of town and county affairs by state. See STATE GOVERNMENT: 1890-1921

1884.—Franchise law.—After bitter struggles between rival railways and between railways and the state, a law was passed, in 1884, taxing railway franchises.

1897.—Constitutional amendments.—On September 28th several proposals of constitutional

amendment were voted on in New Jersey. One prohibitory of gambling was adopted by a small majority. Another, that would give the suffrage in school elections to women, was rejected by about 10,000 majority.

ALSO IN: F. B. Lee, *New Jersey as a colony and as a state*, v. 4.

1901.—Legal Aid association founded. See LEGAL AID: United States: Historical retrospect.

1904-1911.—Beginning of movement to break political power of trusts.—In 1904, under the leadership of Everett Colby, a movement (sometimes called the "new idea") was started to break the political power of the great corporations, including the railroads across the state, which had controlled the government for many years. (See TRUSTS: United States: Industrial Combinations.) By 1907, the influence of the reformers was sufficient to defeat John F. Dryden for the United States Senate, and to pledge both candidates for governor to enforce the laws against the corporations. J. Franklin Fort was elected governor; and a new primary law was passed to be effective in 1908. In 1910 an act was passed providing for the physical valuation of the railroads. Such a valuation could be used as a basis both for rate-fixing and for taxation. In the same year the child labor law was amended. By 1911 the reform movement had opened the way for the progressive governorship of Woodrow Wilson, who had been elected in 1910 (see U.S.A.: 1910 [August-November]), during whose incumbency the agitation against the trusts culminated in definite legal restrictions.

1909.—Opening of Hudson tunnels.—"The most enormous impulse given to New Jersey of recent years . . . came in Governor Fort's administration [1908-1911], in the opening of the tunnels under the Hudson River into New York, and the enlarged attendant facilities the Public Service Company provided. . . . Away back in the seventies of last century, New Jersey had been looking for the closer communication with the Metropolis across the stream. . . . She thought the hour of her deliverance had arrived when Col. D. C. Haskins . . . began to sink a shaft at the foot of Fifteenth Street, Jersey City, for an under-river tube into New York at Morton Street. The Colonel had unbounded faith in the success of his enterprise till a break in one of his compressed air caissons let the flood in on his workers and drowned twenty-one of them like rats in a cage. His English backers lost faith in his scheme, . . . and he found himself without further funds when he had tubed sixteen hundred feet from the shore line. Years afterward another body of Anglicans undertook to push the tube further into the river, but abandoned the effort when 1,200 feet more had been completed. The tunnel lay flooded with water for many years thereafter. Then William G. McAdoo came from Tennessee, . . . and . . . fell upon the enterprise on the Jersey shore that two companies had abandoned. . . . An inspection of the drowned tubes, both still intact, convinced him that the completion might be accomplishable. . . . He succeeded in interesting Walter G. Oakman, president of the Hudson Construction Companies, and Pliny Fisk and William M. Barnum, of the powerful banking house under the supervision of Charles M. Jacobs as Chief Engineer and J. Vipond Davies as his deputy. As many as 5,500 men were employed at one time in carrying forward the link between New York and New Jersey that it cost about \$70,000,000 to establish. Steel tubes were laid to Christopher Street in one direction, and to Cortlandt Street in

the other. The Christopher Street line was carried into the heart of the shopping district in New York City, and the subway on the Jersey side was extended all along the river front from the Pennsylvania station on Exchange Place, Jersey City, to the Lackawanna terminal at the foot of Newark Street, Hoboken. The river tunnel from Cortlandt Street was extended underground in New Jersey for a train service that now makes it possible to travel from Newark to Church Street, New York, in twenty minutes; or, by the Christopher Street tube, to Thirty-third Street, New York, in an even half hour. Contemporaneously with this magnificent development, the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, under the auspices of its president, Alexander J. Cassatt, instituted an electric service, for its passenger traffic, across the Meadows to Weehawken Heights, through the base of the mountain there, and then under the river to its imposing terminal at Thirty-second Street and Seventh Avenue, New York."—W. E. Sackett, *Modern battles of Trenton*, v. 2, p. 283.

1911-1913.—Governorship of Woodrow Wilson.—Social and labor legislation.—Geran Elections Act.—Creation of board of public utilities.—"Galveston Plan" of city government.—Anti-trust laws known as the "Seven Sisters."—The governorship of Woodrow Wilson (1911-1913) vitalized and carried forward some of the reform movements to an effective culmination in the state law. "In the face of the determined opposition of the machines of both political parties acts have been passed granting just compensation to working-men for injuries; reforming the election laws so as to enable the people to nominate and to elect candidates without the intervention of the party machines, and providing drastic punishment for corrupt practices at elections; constituting a public utilities commission with adequate powers for the regulation of public-service corporations; permitting cities to adopt the commission form of government; . . . reorganizing the administration of the public schools of the State [and a Practice Act simplifying procedure in court]. These measures . . . [caused] New Jersey to advance from one of the most backward to one of the most progressive States in the Union. . . . The Governor as the 'third house' of the Legislature [was] the most potent factor in bringing about the enactment of [his] enlightened programme of reform. This result constitutes a most notable achievement for one man."—J. M. Mathews, *New stateism* (*North American Review*, June, 1911).—The main provisions of the laws enumerated above are as follows: the employers' liability law "makes provision for the equitable distribution of the money which heretofore has been wasted in litigation. It may be operated under one of two sections. The first provides that the amount of liability for accidents shall be determined by suit in court, if the employer or employee shall so elect. But in case of suit, the old 'fellow-servant' and 'contributory negligence' clauses are eliminated. The second section provides for definite compensation for all injuries sustained by employees in course of their employment. . . . Our former Direct Primary Law only provided for the nomination of municipal officers, assemblymen and senators, by the people. Now it has been extended to every elective office, including the governor, congressmen, members of the county and state committees, and delegates to the national conventions. The State conventions of both parties are held at the same time, one week after the primaries."—H. E. Hosford, *Woodrow Wilson and New Jersey made over*, pp. 84-85.—"The Geran Elections Act . . . passed [1911]

. . . provides that a State convention of each party shall be held annually for the purpose of adopting and promulgating a party platform, which convention shall be composed of the party candidates who have been nominated at the party primaries for the office of member of the Assembly or State Senator, together with hold-over Senators, members of the State Committee, and 'the candidate of the party for Governor nominated at the said primaries in the year in which a Governor is elected, and in each year in which no Governor is elected the Governor of the State shall be a member of the convention of the political party to which he belongs.'"—J. M. Mathews, *New stateism* (*North American Review*, June, 1911).—"By this plan the number of delegates in each of our state conventions is cut down from nearly one thousand to less than eighty. Presidential Preference primaries are provided. . . . Personal registration is required in municipalities containing more than five thousand people. . . . The new Election Law is strongly reinforced by the Corrupt Practices Act. . . . The secrecy of the ballot is strongly safeguarded. . . . The new law makes fraudulent voting and ballot-box stuffing practically impossible. . . . The Public Utilities Board, appointed by the Governor [has], the power to investigate upon its own motion, or upon complaint of anyone in writing, any public utility; grants the Board authority to fix rates, to enter the premises of any public utility, to test appliances, to exact safe, adequate, and proper service, to require a system of accounts and annual reports kept in such form as the Board may prescribe; to determine whether increases of rates are reasonable, and to suspend the same where unjust, with the burden of proof to show that the increases are reasonable to lie wholly upon the public utilities corporation making the same. No public utility can make any unjust discrimination or preferential rate, extend its indebtedness, or issue stocks or bonds payable in more than one year from date, without the consent of the Board; nor can it sell, lease, or mortgage, dispose of or encumber its property, without the approval of the Board; nor transfer its stock to other companies. The Board . . . may refuse to make valid privileges or franchises granted to any public utility by any political subdivision of the State, where such privileges are not in the State's interest. . . . [It] may [also] compel the attendance of witnesses and the production of records, may exact any testimony, even though it incriminate witnesses. . . . Under the law, any person or public utility corporation which shall perform or assist in performing any act prohibited by the law, or any public utilities corporation which shall fail or neglect to perform its duties, as required by the act, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor. If any provision of the law is finally declared unconstitutional, no other provision is to be affected by the Court's decision. . . . Another step forward in progressive legislation was taken by the enactment of a statute which gives cities and municipalities of the State the privilege of adopting the commission form of government, under what was known originally as the 'Galveston Plan,' which provides for the complete abandonment of nomination of candidates for office by political parties, the abolition of ward boundary lines, the merging of the legislative and the executive functions in a commission, the right of the recall of elective officers, and the initiative and referendum. Add to this list of reforms the regulation of cold-storage, the substitution of indeterminate sentences for criminal offences, the rectification of abuses in connection with false weights

and measures, the reorganization of the State's school system, the abolition of contract labor in our penal institutions, the legislation in the interest of the blind, the regulation of the age, employment, safety, health, and work-hours of persons employed in mercantile establishments, an act for the safeguarding of business buildings against fire; a law compelling all railroad corporations to pay their employees twice monthly, and a law extending the civil service to employees of the State, counties, and municipalities, and we have one of the most remarkable records of legislation that has ever distinguished a single legislative session in this country."—H. E. Hosford, *Woodrow Wilson and New Jersey made over*, pp. 81-82, 84, 85-88, 88-89.—The most notable act of Governor Wilson's administration was the enactment of the seven anti-trust laws, sometimes called the "Seven Sisters." During his campaign for the Governorship and later in his Presidential campaign, Dr. Wilson had insisted that corporation guilt should be made personal; and in his annual message to the Legislature of 1913, he had adverted to it again as something the public welfare demanded. By the time the Legislature was ready to meet the abstract proposition, he had had it reduced to the concrete in a series of bills Chancellor Walker had drawn at his instance. . . . The nation was . . . interested in the broader and wider definition they gave to the term Trust. The definition, extracted from one of the acts, declares: A trust is a combination or agreement between corporations, firms or persons, any two or more of them, for the following purposes, and such trust is hereby declared to be illegal and indictable: First.—To create or carry out restrictions in trade or to acquire a monopoly either in intrastate or interstate business or commerce. Second.—To limit or reduce the production or increase the price of merchandise or of any commodity. Third.—To prevent competition in manufacturing, making, transporting, selling and purchasing of merchandise, produce or any commodity. Fourth.—To fix at any standard or figure whereby its price to the public or consumer shall in any manner be controlled any article or commodity of merchandise produce or commerce intended for sale, use or consumption in New Jersey or elsewhere. Fifth.—To make any agreement by which they directly or indirectly preclude a free and unrestricted competition among themselves or any purchasers or consumers in the sale or transportation of any article or commodity either by pooling, withholding from the market or selling at a fixed price or in any other manner by which the price might be affected. Sixth.—To make any secret oral agreement or arrive at any understanding without express agreement by which they directly or indirectly preclude a free and unrestricted competition among themselves or any purchasers or consumers in the sale or transportation of any article or commodity either by pooling, withholding from the market or selling at a fixed price or in any other manner by which the price might be affected. The animating principle of all the bills was that 'guilt is personal.' Not only was the offending corporation to lose its charter, under the act, but the directors, dummy or otherwise, were liable for prosecution for misdemeanor, with threat of an imprisonment and \$1,000 fine as the penalty. Holding companies were forbidden. Overcapitalization was penalized. Interlocking directorates were regulated. The crimes for which offending directors and officers might be pursued were specifically and definitely set out."—W. E. Sackett, *Modern battles of Trenton*, pp. 364-366.—"The seven new

corporation bills . . . [were] designed specifically for the reform of abuses in the existing New Jersey statutes. In their prohibitory clauses, they follow to a large extent the footsteps of the Federal Anti-Trust law as interpreted by the courts. . . . The most interesting aspect of the New Jersey proposals lies in the fact that they are made in New Jersey. . . . Laws were enacted in the early nineties, for the avowed purpose of attracting to New Jersey, for incorporation, mergers and combinations which could not find other States with laws sufficiently lax to suit their purposes. Briefly stated, they authorized the chartering of corporations with power to do pretty much anything. Under the charters granted, not only may the companies engage in such business as they choose, but they may do so merely by purchasing and holding the shares of other companies. Their powers in that regard are virtually unlimited; they may even buy and sell their own outstanding shares in the open market. Under the New Jersey corporation law, virtually all of the huge industrial combinations of the fifteen past years were chartered—including three which the United States Supreme Court has since forced into dissolution. The Standard Oil combination, the American Tobacco, the United States Steel, the International Mercantile Marine, the American Can, the American Woolen, are a few of the companies which obtained New Jersey charters. Counsel for the Northern Securities admitted, in the dissolution suit, that it was hypothetically possible, under the New Jersey charter of that company, for a small group of individuals, with a comparatively small amount of personal capital, to hold control of all the railways in the United States. These extraordinary charters, it is important to observe, were such as Wall Street, prior to the adoption of the New Jersey laws around 1893, had supposed no corporation in the United States could exercise. It would be difficult to say how much of the wild orgy of company promotion and stock speculation, from 1899 to 1901 inclusive, was directly due to mischievous facilities granted by New Jersey."—*Nation*, Jan. 23, 1913, p. 91.—See also TRUSTS: United States: Industrial combinations.

1913-1916.—Amendments ratified.—State-aided vocational schools.—In 1913, the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Federal Amendments (income tax and direct election of senators) were ratified. The vocational school law, passed 1913, provided for the organization of vocational schools in any district and for the union of two or more districts. In 1913, James F. Fielder became acting governor, filling out Woodrow Wilson's unexpired term of office, and was followed, 1914, by Leon R. Taylor, who served also as acting governor until the inauguration of James F. Fielder as the duly elected governor. In 1916 the Republicans were successful in electing Walter E. Edge, governor.

1914-1918.—New Jersey in World War.—War legislation.—Of the Americans engaged in the World War, New Jersey furnished 105,207 soldiers or 2.80 per cent. of the whole national force. The army camps situated in New Jersey were: Camp Dix, a national army camp, at Wrightstown; a Signal Corps Camp at Little Silver; an Ordinance camp at Methuchan; an embarkation camp at Dumont; and a chemical camp at Lakehurst. . . . In 1915 an effort of the legislature to weaken the anti-trust legislature of 1913 was defeated by the action of the governor in exercising his veto power. In 1917 New Jersey passed a brief statute providing that 'hereafter no person shall be nominated as a candidate for public office in this state . . . by a convention . . . except candidates for elec-

tors of president."—P. O. Ray, *Recent primary and election laws* (*American Political Science Review*, May, 1919, p. 265).—In 1918 a Board of charities and corrections was created.

1916-1919.—**Budget law.**—**Reform of financial administration.**—In 1916 the legislature passed an act creating an executive budget, under the control of the governor. In 1919 this budget was made permanent. "Under our plan for the compilation of our Executive Budget, the responsible head of the government determines the policy for extensions and improvements, and in a general way fixes the funds which are to be allotted to the several institutions. The total of the appropriation of the budget as fixed by the governor must be within the funds estimated as available for state purposes for the year. It is, however, within the province of the Appropriation Committee to revise any items which in its discretion should be amended. . . . New Jersey's Executive Budget, has, however, a wider purpose than that of distributing funds or controlling expenditures. It is a vital part of Governor Edge's plan for reorganizing New Jersey's administrative and fiscal affairs upon a business basis. In this particular it serves an important purpose in bringing the governor into vital contact with the needs and activities of the various state institutions."—A. W. Pierson, *New Jersey budget law* (*Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science*, July, 1918, pp. 70-71).

1917-1923. — **Legislation.** — **Administrative changes.**—The governors for the period 1917-1923 were as follows: Walter E. Edge, 1917-1919; William H. Runyon (acting) 1919; Edward I. Edwards, 1920-1922; G. S. Silzer, since 1923. In 1920, the legislature proposed and the people ratified a bond issue of \$28,000,000 for the construction of a bridge over the Delaware river as a part of the highway system, and a tunnel under the Hudson; and another bond issue of \$12,000,000 for a soldier bonus. In 1921, a law creating a state constabulary was passed over the governor's veto despite the opposition of organized labor; representatives of New York and New Jersey signed a port treaty April 30, which was approved by the legislatures of both states; a pension law was passed allowing state employees to retire at sixty years; a building commission was created to prepare a building code; an amendment was ratified in respect to elections doubling membership of political state and county committees, and giving women equal representation; equal rights in the custody of children were bestowed on mothers and fathers; a state real estate commission was created; and provision was made for referendum on state bond issue of \$14,000,000 for construction and equipment of additional buildings for charitable and correctional institutions; an extension to women of equal privileges in the holding of office and employment; and provision was made for the serving of women on juries. In 1921, a commission was created to revise the election laws.

1919.—**Plans with Pennsylvania for Delaware river bridge.** See PENNSYLVANIA: 1919-1922.

1919.—**Prison reform.** See PRISON REFORM: United States: Paid prison labor in New Jersey.

1919-1920.—**Opposition to Eighteenth Amendment.** See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1919-1920.

1919-1921.—**Treaty with New York in regard to port and harbor development.** See NEW YORK CITY: 1919-1923.

1920.—**Use of Merit System.** See CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: United States: 1920.

ALSO IN: E. W. Hawkes and R. Lenton, *Pre-Lenape site in New Jersey* (*University of Pennsyl-*

vania, The Universal Museum Anthropological Publication, v. 6).—E. J. Fisher, *New Jersey as a royal province, 1738-1776* (*Studies in history, economics, and public law*, v. 41, whole no. 167, Columbia University, 1911).—S. G. Fisher, *Quaker colonies* (*New Haven; Yale University Press*, 1919).—F. B. Lee, *New Jersey as a colony and as a state*.

NEW JERSEY VS. NEW YORK: Supreme Court decision. See SUPREME COURT: 1835-1864.

NEW LANARK MILLS, one mile from Lanark and about thirty-two miles southeast of Glasgow, Scotland. They were founded by Robert Owen in 1800 as part of an experiment in cooperation and communism. See COÖPERATION: England; SOCIALISM: 1800-1824.

NEW MADRID, city in southeastern Missouri, on the Mississippi river.

1812-1813.—**Earthquakes.** See MISSOURI: 1812-1813.

1862.—**Capture by Union army.** See U.S.A.: 1862 (March-April: On the Mississippi).

NEW MARKET, or GLENDALE, Battles of (1862, 1864). See U.S.A.: 1862 (June-July: Virginia); 1864 (May-June: Virginia): Campaigning in the Shenandoah.

NEW MERV. See MERV.

NEW MEXICO: Geographical description.—**Resources.**—The three epochs,—New Mexico, sometimes called the "Spanish," or "Sunshine State," is a southwestern state of the United States. It is bounded on the north by Colorado; on the east, by Oklahoma and Texas; on the south by Texas and Mexico; and on the west by Arizona. The state has an area of 122,634 square miles of which 131 square miles are water and a population, 1920, of 360,350. In 1920, New Mexico had 20,844 farms with an area of 24,409,633 acres of which 1,717,224 acres were improved land given over to the production of cereals, fruit, vegetables, and cotton. Owing to aridity the state has not reached its ultimate agricultural possibilities. In 1911, the irrigated area had reached 750,000 acres; and the present Rio Grande project provides for reservoir construction for the irrigation of 180,000 acres in New Mexico and Texas. In 1920 there were 4,473,000 farm animals in the state; and the wool-clip amounted to 15,768 pounds. The national forest area covers 8,381,768 acres, and an additional 4,000,000 acres in private ownership. The state's mineral resources are gold, silver, copper, coal, zinc, and platinum. (See U.S.A.: Economic map.) "New Mexico has been under three different governments, to wit, under the Spanish government from 1530 (date of first entry by Niza) to 1821. From 1821 to 1846 under the Mexican government, and since 1846 under the American government, its history thus naturally dividing into three distinct epochs under the three governments. These three epochs were preceded by the pre-historic one, the coming to this continent of the first inhabitants, the Indians."—B. M. Read, *Popular elementary history of New Mexico*, p. 8.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See APACHE GROUP; KERESAN FAMILY; PUEBLOS; SHOSHONEAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Southwest area.

1536-1581.—**First white man in New Mexico.**—**Early explorations.**—"Alvar Nunez Cabeza de Vaca, Spaniard . . . was the first white man [to visit New Mexico]. . . . In the year 1538 a Franciscan father, named Juan de la Ascension, discovered the Gila River in what today is the State of Arizona, and was before part of New Mexico. . . .

Father Niza was in Mexico when Cabeza de Vaca made his report, in July, 1536, to Mendoza and Cortés. Mendoza . . . finally made up his mind to send Fr. Marcos de Niza at the head of an expedition [to the Seven Cities], with the negro Estevanicoas guide, to colonize the country and christianize the Indians. Father Niza accepted the charge and started in 1539."—B. M. Read, *Popular elementary history of New Mexico*, p. 27.—In his great quest for treasure, Francisco de Coronado explored (1540-1542), parts of New Mexico, finding only Indian pueblos. (See also AMERICA: 1540-1541.) In the year 1581, Agustin Ruiz, or Rodriguez, a Franciscan friar and two of his brothers in the order of St. Francis with an escort of nine soldiers made an effort to penetrate the new country, the friars having been deserted by the soldier escort, succeeded in reaching Galisteo and then concluded to send one of their number back to Mexico in order to bring more brethren into the field. Brother Juan de Santa Maria having been selected proceeded directly south toward El Paso but on his way was killed by Indians. The other two settled in Puará in order to learn the Indian language but were soon separated by the murder of Brother Lopez and a few days later Brother Ruiz was also killed. "No sooner had the Franciscans in Mexico heard from the returning soldiers of the peril in which the three missionaries were left, than they made an urgent appeal that relief might be sent. This reached the ear of Don Antonio de Espejo, a wealthy Spaniard engaged in mining at Santa Barbara, who generously offered himself and his fortune to the work, if an expedition could be regularly authorized. This was soon accomplished by obtaining an official license of authorization from Governor Ontrueros of New Biscay, which also included the right to enlist all the soldiers necessary for the success of the undertaking. . . . From his extended explorations Espejo was well satisfied of the wealth of the country and especially of its mineral riches, but he concluded that a much larger and more powerful expedition than that which he commanded was necessary to insure success in colonization or in conquest."—L. B. Prince, *Concise history of New Mexico*, pp. 81, 85.

1595-1598.—Bonilla expedition.—Colonization.—San Gabriel, first capital.—"About 1595, a party was sent out by the governor of New Biscay to punish certain northern Indians who had been committing depredations, the expedition being commanded by a Portuguese named Francisco Leiva Bonilla. After he had accomplished his mission, the ambitious Bonilla concluded to use his little force in the conquest of New Mexico and, if possible, to reach the ever-alluring Quivira. He marched through a part of New Mexico and then started easterly . . . toward the object of his aspirations. Here a quarrel arose between himself and one of his lieutenants named Juan de Humana, which resulted in the death of the captain and in the assumption of the command by Humana. This man . . . pressed on towards the east and succeeded in reaching a point on the great grassy prairie of Southern Kansas or Northern Oklahoma, which was ever after referred to . . . as the 'Matanza.' The Indians of that region had been patiently waiting for an opportunity to bring about his destruction and at this point they concentrated their forces, set fire to the grass which surrounded his camp, and then, just before daylight, rushed upon the half-awakened Spaniards and destroyed the entire party with the exception of one mulatto girl and a man named Alonzo Sanchez. . . . [Oñate] made application in 1595 to

Viceroy Velasco for authorization to colonize the country. . . . The permission, with accompanying grants of power, was given in due time, on condition that the conquest and colonization should be completed within five years. Armed with this authority, Oñate lost no time in organizing his expedition. . . . The little army was accompanied by a large number of families for colonization, and all the provisions which seemed necessary for success. . . . On the 9th, he reached San Ildefonso, called Bové by the natives; and on the 11th came to the beautiful valley at the junction of the Chama with the Rio Grande, where he found the pueblo of Caypa on the eastern bank of the river. . . . They immediately determined to make this the official centre of the new kingdom. The very next day, July 12, 1598, they commenced the building of the new capital on the west side of the Rio Grande between that river and the Chama, in a place called Yunque, by the natives, and named the infant city, San Gabriel. . . . This date, July 12, 1598, may be considered as the birthday of European settlement. . . . The long line of colonists was now arriving, and the last were in the new city by the 18th."—L. B. Prince, *Concise history of New Mexico*, pp. 90-95.

ALSO IN: H. Inman, *Old Santa Fé trail*.—H. Davis, *Spanish conquest of New Mexico*, ch. 34-35.—G. P. Winship, *Coronado expedition (Fourteenth Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology, 1896)*.

1605-1729.—Removal of capital to Santa Fé.—Spanish governors of this period.—Their policy.—"In 1605 occurred the removal of the capital from San Gabriel to Santa Fé. . . . For fully three centuries the city of Santa Fé has been the capital of New Mexico. . . . Among all the capitals of the United States, Santa Fé stands unique. For antiquity and continuity it is the acknowledged head, counting many more years than Boston, which is its nearest rival. It is not only the oldest capital in the United States, but with one exception the oldest in all America; and it antedates by many years the capitals of the two most powerful empires of continental Europe, Germany and Russia. For three-quarters of a century after this removal of the capital, the records that we have of the history of New Mexico are quite meagre. . . . Two governors are mentioned during this period—Felipe Zotylo and Manuel de Silva—of whom we know little more than the names, except that Governor Silva went to Zuni in August, 1629, and left an inscription there which is his best monument. After them came Luis de Rosas in 1641, a governor Valdez, Alonzo Pacheco de Heredia, Fernando de Arguello in 1645, and Luis de Guzman; which brings us down to 1650. . . . For a number of years after the colonization, the best of feeling existed between the native Pueblos and the newcomers; but, as time went on, the Spaniards began to exact as duties those services which had at first been rendered from kindness. Little by little they assumed greater powers, introduced European laws, and punished the natives for the least infraction of a foreign code of which they had never heard. The favorite penalty was slavery, as that provided the labor of which the colonists stood in need, especially in the mines, where the serfitude was of the most harsh character. At the same time, the early Franciscans, who came as true missionaries, actuated by love, and easily won the hearts of the people, were succeeded by ecclesiastics of a more severe type, who sought to convert the natives by compulsion, and introduced the Inquisition and various forms of punishment, in order to compel the universal

observance of their religion. Under all the circumstances, the Pueblos, who had lived for generations an easy life of freedom and happiness, until the coming of the pale-faced strangers, naturally changed in their feelings from welcome and hospitality to hatred and a determination to expel the invaders whenever opportunity should be presented. The middle of the seventeenth century was filled with a succession of revolts and conflicts arising from this state of affairs. . . . About 1645, forty Indians were hung on religious grounds and many others were flogged and imprisoned, and this brought about a revolt, which however was short lived. Fernando de Ugarte y la Concha became governor in 1650, and shortly afterwards a plot was fortunately discovered by which the Pueblos and Apaches were to kill all of the soldiers on the night of Holy Thursday, when all would be in church. Shortly after this occurrence, there were conspiracies and risings among the Piros. In all of these cases the punishments were very severe. In 1653, Juan de Samaniego was appointed governor, and was succeeded by Enrique de Avila y Pacheco in 1656, and he by Bernardo Lopez de Mendizabal. The last named became involved in warm disputes with the officials of the Inquisition, and finally resigned in 1660. He was succeeded by Diego de Penalosa. Whatever may have been his failings, Penalosa was altogether the most picturesque character among all the New Mexican governors in the century between Onate and De Vargas. The earliest documents in the Archives of New Mexico, and the only one dated before the Pueblo Revolution, is signed by him. How it survived the conflagration of 1680 no one knows; but, brief as it is, it reflects credit on his administration. It orders that the Pueblo Indians be not obliged to work in spinning or weaving without the governor's license; that friendly Indians be well treated, but that wild tribes be not admitted to the town but compelled to lodge outside. . . . But the troubles and collisions with the officials of the Inquisition, which had driven his predecessor out of office, were soon revived with increased virulence. . . . After Penalosa, in 1664, came Fernando de Villanueva as governor, and he was succeeded by Juan de Medrano, Juan de Miranda, and Juan Francisco Trevino. This brings us down to 1670, when Antonio Otermin was appointed. Meanwhile the wild tribes of Indians of the plains, the Apaches of various names, began to make incursions and to fall upon the defenseless settlers and entire villages. The bad feeling between the Spaniards and the Pueblos became intensified by various grievances of which both parties complained, but especially by the severity accorded to the Indians. What they most needed was a leader of acknowledged ability, and in the excitement which followed the severe punishment of 47 Indians for alleged witch-craft in 1675, a man came into general notice who seemed by his fearless intrepidity as well as by his good judgment well fitted for the task. His name was Popé, of the pueblo of San Juan. It was the policy of the Spanish government, after the occupation of the country, to consolidate the Indian population in a comparatively small number of villages or pueblos, for various reasons, both political and religious. By this means they were the more easily watched and controlled, and at the same time, by grouping them around a mission church in each community, the prospect for proselyting was improved. Then came the revolution of 1680, and the extraordinary reduction in the Indian numbers and power during the brief period of their control."

L. B. Prince, *Concise history of New Mexico*, pp. 17-18, 32, 106-109.

1679-1800.—Indian uprising.—"By the end of the year 1679, all the Pueblo Indians, except the Pecos pueblo, had hatched the conspiracy and agreed on a day and hour for a general and simultaneous uprising. The secret was kept so well that the Spaniards never discovered the plan until too late. Juan Popé, an Indian from San Juan, then residing in Taos, was the leader of the insurrection. The 13th day of August, 1680, was the day agreed upon for the massacre of the Spaniards. . . . Juan Yé, governor of Cicuyé (Pecos) declined, with all his people, to join the conspiracy, and was the first to notify both Governor Otermin and Father Velasco, the priest at Cicuyé, of the impending danger. . . . Popé having learned that the Spaniards had discovered his plans, ordered that hostilities be commenced on the 10th instead of the 13th of August. . . . On the day fixed (August 10th) all the priests, soldiers, and colonists who had not heard of the insurrection, were taken by surprise and killed, before they had a chance to escape. From every direction thousands of Indians rushed to Santa Fe and made a sudden assault which was repulsed by 150 soldiers. . . . The great historical revolt was carried into effect all over New Mexico. . . . Popé now laid a siege, surrounding the city on all sides with an immense horde of savages, but remaining inactive until the 15th, when he sent an ultimatum to Otermin. . . . At break of day, August 16th, the soldiers and colonists formed in battle line, with the women and children in the center, and Otermin with his officers at the head, one thousand in all. The Indians met them with a terrific rush and the battle was commenced, lasting all day. At night the Spaniards retreated into the city and all crowded into the Palace building. The loss on the side of the Indians was very large and on the side of the Spaniards some few dead but many wounded. The siege lasted until the 23d day of August when the Indians cut off the water supply of the city, thus forcing the Spaniards to either escape or perish. Otermin, finding himself and his people in the extreme necessity of making a death struggle, resolved to fight or die in the effort. . . . The army formed in battle array, and made an assault upon the Indians with such fierceness that after a few hours' battle, they won the day with 300 Indians killed, the Spaniards losing one soldier only, though many had been wounded, among the latter being Otermin. This happened August 23, 1680. Thus were the Spaniards able to leave Santa Fe, all afoot and carrying on their shoulders the archives and their scant provisions, arriving at El Paso (now Jaurez) December 20, 1680. . . . Thus ended the achievement of the first conquest of New Mexico. . . . The loss of New Mexico to Spain was a thing Otermin thought it his duty to avoid, at least during his incumbency. Acting on that belief he again made an effort to reconquer the country by reëntering it next year, 1681, at the head of 200 mounted soldiers, but did not succeed in accomplishing his object, for on reaching Cochiti he saw that it would require a larger force to subdue the Indians, and went back to El Paso (now Jaurez), where he heard that Domingo Gironza Petriz de Cruzat had been appointed to succeed him as governor of New Mexico. . . . Don Domingo Gironza Petriz de Cruzat, like his predecessors, had a brilliant military record as a great general and he proved it by his frequent expeditions into New Mexico. He had only the title of governor of New Mexico, however, for he never succeeded during his first incumbency in affecting a permanent

conquest. Between 1683 and 1687 he made seventeen journeys into New Mexico, fighting every time all along the road from El Paso to New Mexico and being always victorious. In 1687, Cruzat was succeeded by Pedro Reneros de Posadas, who desolated the pueblo of Santa Ana, killing nearly all of its inhabitants, but before the year closed Cruzat was returned to the governorship, and he again made several expeditions into New Mexico, the last being in 1689, when he reached the pueblo of Zia, and was met by a hostile demonstration, which ended in one of the most severe battles of the conquest. He was opposed by nearly all the Indians from that province. The battle lasted the entire day, with a loss to the Indians of 600 killed and the capture of many prisoners. The battle was fought the first day of August, 1689. This last effort of Cruzat fills the gap between the expulsion of the Spaniards under Otermin, 1680, and the time of the second and permanent conquest by De Vargas [1602]."—B. M. Read, *Popular elementary history of New Mexico*, pp. 63-67.—The history of New Mexico in the eighteenth century was uneventful, being chiefly a story of petty disagreements among pueblos and occasional forays of the more warlike tribes, the Navajos, Apaches and Comanches.

1706.—Founding of Albuquerque. See ALBUQUERQUE.

1811-1848.—Close of Spanish régime.—New Mexico, a province of Mexico.—Trading expeditions.—"Alberto Mainéz succeeded Manrique in 1815, and governed until 1817, when he was succeeded by Pedro Marie Allande (1818), who acted until 1821, when Facundo Melgares succeeded him. During these six years (1815-1821) nothing was accomplished by the governors because the war with Mexico [1811-1821], which was then on against Spain, did not permit it, the country being greatly excited over the war and the frequent Indian depredations in New Mexico, which came to an end in 1821, when Mexico became an independent nation, Melgares' term closing the Spanish regime, which had lasted 223 years in New Mexico."—B. M. Read, *Popular elementary history of New Mexico*, p. 95.—Under the Mexican republic, New Mexico was called a province till 1824 when it was united with Chihuahua and Durango to form the Estado Interno del Norte. Several months later, it was separated from these two provinces and became a territory. It was officially designated as a department in 1836, and remained as such until ceded to the United States, in 1848, by the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. (See MEXICO: 1848.) During the late eighteenth century, trading expeditions began to enter New Mexico. In May of each year, after 1822, Missouri caravans of pack animals, and later wagon trains, set out for Santa Fé. The value of the goods carried in this way increased in value from \$15,000 in 1822 to \$450,000 in 1843.

ALSO IN: R. E. Twitchell, *Leading facts of New Mexican history*, v. 2, pp. 3-7.

1846.—American conquest and occupation by Kearney's expedition.—"While the heaviest fighting [of the Mexican War] was going on in Old Mexico [see MEXICO: 1846-1847], the Government [of the United States] easily took possession of New Mexico and California, by means of expeditions organized on the remote frontiers. New Mexico was wanted for the emigration to the Pacific. If we were to have California we must also have the right of way to it. In the hands of the Spaniards, New Mexico barred access to the Pacific so completely that the oldest travelled route was scarcely known to Americans at all, and but

little used by the Spaniards themselves. If now we consult a map of the United States it is seen that the thirty-fourth parallel crosses the Mississippi at the mouth of the Arkansas, cuts New Mexico in the middle, and reaches the Pacific near Los Angeles. It was long the belief of statesmen that the great tide of emigration must set along this line, because it had the most temperate climate, was shorter, and would be found freer from hardship than the route by way of the South Pass. This view had set on foot the exploration of the Arkansas and Red Rivers. But if we except the little that Pike and Long had gathered, almost nothing was known about it. Yet the prevailing belief gave New Mexico, as related to California, an exceptional importance. These considerations weighed far more than acquisition of territory, though the notion that New Mexico contained very rich silver-mines undoubtedly had force in determining its conquest. . . . With this object General Kearney marched from Fort Leavenworth in June, 1846, for Santa Fé, at the head of a force of which a battalion of Mormons formed part. After subduing New Mexico, Kearney was to go on to California, and with the help of naval forces already sent there, for the purpose, conquer that country also. . . . General Kearney marched by the Upper Arkansas, to Bent's Fort, and from Bent's Fort over the old trail through El Moro and Las Vegas, San Miguel and Old Pecos, without meeting the opposition he expected, or at any time seeing any considerable body of the enemy. On the 18th of August, as the sun was setting, the stars and stripes were unfurled over the palace of Santa Fé, and New Mexico was declared annexed to the United States. Either the home government thought New Mexico quite safe from attack, or, having decided to reserve all its strength for the main conflict, had left this province to its fate. After organizing a civil government, and appointing Charles Bent of Bent's Fort, governor, General Kearney broke up his camp at Santa Fé, Sept. 25. His force was now divided. One part, under Colonel Doniphan, was ordered to join General Wool in Chihuahua. A second detachment was left to garrison Santa Fé, while Kearney went on to California with the rest of his troops. The people everywhere seemed disposed to submit quietly, and as most of the pueblos soon proffered their allegiance to the United States Government, little fear of an outbreak was felt. Before leaving the valley, a courier was met bearing the news that California also had submitted to us without striking a blow. This information decided General Kearney to send back most of his remaining force, while with a few soldiers only he continued his march through what is now Arizona for the Pacific."—S. A. Drake, *Making of the Great West*, pp. 251-255.

ALSO IN: H. O. Ladd, *History of the war with Mexico*, ch. 9-12.—P. St. G. Cooke, *Conquest of New Mexico and California*.—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 12, ch. 17.—H. O. Ladd, *Story of New Mexico*, ch. 16.

1848.—Cession to the United States. See MEXICO: 1848.

1850.—Territorial organization.—Payment of Texas claim. See U.S.A.: 1850 (April-September).

1850-1851.—Framing of state constitution.—Failure to be admitted as a state.—"At a public meeting held in the city of Santa Fé, on the 20th of April, 1850, resolutions were passed, among others declarations requesting the military and civil governor, Colonel John Munroe, to issue a proclamation calling upon the people of the territory to elect delegates to a convention to be held at

Santa Fé on the 15th day of May following. Colonel Munroe issued the proclamation and the convention assembled at Santa Fé on the 15th day of May, 1850 . . . and after sessions lasting ten days framed a constitution for the state of New Mexico. . . . The constitution, as framed, shows that it was modeled after the constitutions of the newer states of the Union, and, among other things, contained a clause prohibiting slavery. . . . The constitution was adopted on the 20th of June, with little if any opposition, and at the same time officers were elected. The legislature assembled on the first of July of the same year at Santa Fé, where they elected two senators in congress. . . . At the state election Henry Connelly was elected governor and Manuel Alvarez lieutenant-governor. . . . Richard H. Weightman, one of the senators-elect went to Washington to present the constitution of New Mexico, ask for her admittance to the Union, and claim his seat. Upon his arrival he found that the compromise bill of September 9, 1850, in which was included the act organizing a territorial government for New Mexico, had just passed congress, which at once took precedence of the state organization. The new territorial government went into operation on March 3, 1851, James S. Calhoun having been appointed and sworn in as governor. The 'state' government of New Mexico 'so soon was done for that it wondered what it was begun for.'—R. E. Twitchell, *Leading facts of New Mexican history*, v. 2, pp. 271-277.

1850-1889.—Struggle for statehood.—The ninth article of the treaty with Mexico reads as follows: "The Mexicans in the aforesaid Territories, who shall not retain the character of citizens of the Mexican Republic, as stipulated in the foregoing article, shall be incorporated in the Union of the United States, and shall be admitted in opportune time (at the discretion of the Congress of the United States) to the enjoyment of all the rights of citizens of the United States, in accordance with the principles of the constitution, and, in the meanwhile, they shall be protected in the enjoyment of their liberty and property, and secured in the free exercise of their religion without any restriction." [From 1850 to 1911, the struggle to obtain the fulfillment of that promise was continuous.] . . . Almost all the Presidents of the United States, from that epoch down, had recommended the fulfillment of that article of the treaty of Mexico. . . . The New Mexico legislature began to petition Congress on the subject ever since 1847. In 1870 the legislature of the Territory decreed that a constitution should be submitted to the vote of the people for their adoption, but nothing was done. In 1872, the legislature again provided that the constitution that had been prepared in 1870, should be re-submitted to the people, but the time or limit which the law fixed for the counting of the votes having expired, the election was of no effect and the movement failed once more by effect of the law.—B. M. Read, *Illustrated history of New Mexico*, pp. 613-614.—A bill to admit New Mexico to the Union as a state was passed by both houses of Congress in 1875, but failed in consequence of an amendment made in the Senate too late for action upon it in the House of Representatives. Attempts to convert the scantily populated territory into a state were then checked for several years. In 1888, another enabling act was introduced by Representative William M. Springer, of Illinois, with the same result as Mr. Elkins' act. . . . In 1880, the New Mexico Legislature authorized the reassembling of another constitutional convention at Santa

Fé; the election for delegates to said convention was held; the delegates assembled in Santa Fé, remaining in session from September 3 to September 21. A constitution prepared by said convention refused to approve it."—*Ibid.*, p. 615.

1853-1867.—Gadsden Purchase Treaty.—Arizona set apart.—Invasion by Confederates during Civil War.—On December 30, 1853, the Gadsden Purchase treaty was signed, by which the United States bought from Mexico a long strip of territory, extending from the Rio Grande to the Gila, for ten million dollars; and by Act of Congress of August 4, 1854, this was added to New Mexico. In 1859 the people of southern New Mexico, including the Mesilla Valley and the settlements in the vicinity of Tucson, applied to Congress to form a new territory out of their section of New Mexico, to be called Arizona. In 1863, Congress established the Territory of Arizona. [See ARIZONA: 1864 (November).] . . . This reduced the area of New Mexico almost one-half, and it was further curtailed a few years later, when, by the Act of Congress of March 2, 1867, all that portion of the territory north of the 37th parallel of latitude was attached to Colorado. This left it as it still exists, with an average width of 335 miles, a length on its eastern boundary of 345 miles, and on the western boundary of 390."—L. B. Prince, *Concise history of New Mexico*, p. 17.—During the Civil War several conflicts took place within the territory. The Federals under Canby were defeated at Valverde by the Texans under Sibley, February, 1862. In March, Santa Fé was occupied by the Union forces but Sibley took possession a week later only to be forced out in April after the defeat of the Confederates in Apache cañon.

Also in: J. F. Rippey, *Boundary of Mexico and the Gadsden treaty* (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, Nov., 1921).

1879-1885.—Railroad development.—"The advent of the railroads in New Mexico was the beginning of an era of permanent prosperity for the people of the territory. The wonderful rapidity with which the great transcontinental transportation lines were constructed was not less marvelous than the astonishing awakening of the people to the fact that at last New Mexico was really in touch with the enlightened progress and modern methods of the people of the eastern states. The first passenger train into New Mexico brought the members of the legislature of the state of Colorado to Otero, on the line of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad, in Colfax county, February 13, 1879. One year later the line had been constructed southward through the counties of Mora, San Miguel, and Santa Fé, over the Glorieta Pass, and southward to the valley of the Rio Grande. In five years more there had been constructed by three great railroad corporations one thousand two hundred and fifty-five miles of railway in New Mexico. These were the New Mexico and Southern Pacific Railroad Company, and the New Mexican Railroad Company, subsidiary corporations of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad Company; the Atlantic and Pacific Railroad Company, the Southern Pacific Railroad Company, and the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad Company. . . . Physical conditions, as developed by a large number of surveys, demonstrated to the officials of the company that a route through the capital city of the territory was not feasible. . . . On March 10, 1881, all-rail connection across the continent, via New Mexico and Arizona, was established by the junction at Deming of the two divisions of the Southern Pacific Railroad. Deming was also the point of junction of this road with the Pacific Coast, the

Gulf and the northern cities of the United States. Almost simultaneously with the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé, the Denver and Rio Grande Railway was built into New Mexico from the north, near Antonito."—R. E. Twitchell, *Leading facts of New Mexican history*, v. 2, pp. 482-488.

ALSO IN: G. B. Anderson (compiler), *History of New Mexico, its resources and people*, v. 2, pp. 896-900.

1881-1917.—Education.—"Episcopalians, Methodists, Presbyterians, and Congregationalists, all established Mission Schools, and the first University of New Mexico was incorporated under the auspices of the last named, in Santa Fé, May 11, 1881. Its first preparatory school was opened September 17, 1881, and the cornerstone of Whiten Hall, its first permanent building, was laid October 21, 1882. . . . In 1888 a State University was established at Albuquerque, a school of Mines at Socorro, and an Agricultural School at Las Cruces, each supported by a special tax on all the assessable property of the territory. But it was not until 1890 that a real advance was made, in a passage of a school law worthy the name. Under the governorship of L. Bradford Prince a bill was framed by L. R. E. Paullin, which included all the features required in a modern school system. The State Superintendent of Public Instruction was to be named by the governor. . . . The work of the three normal schools—the Normal University at Las Vegas, which, while authorized in 1893, did not confine itself to purely normal work until 1903; the Silver city Normal established in 1904; and the Spanish-American Normal at El Rito—are all doing excellent work. . . . It was not until 1915 that a county unit law was passed which gave each county its own school taxes, and two years later another step forward was taken in making each county competent to administer its own school affairs."—G. W. James, *New Mexico*, pp. 418-420.

ALSO IN: L. B. Prince, *Concise history of New Mexico*, pp. 255-258.

1898.—Spanish-American War.—Roosevelt's Rough Riders.—"The principal event of territorial, not to say national, importance occurring during the administration of Governor Otero [1897-1906] was the organization of New Mexico's quota of volunteers for the war with Spain. . . . Governor Otero received word from the secretary of war asking what New Mexico could do in the matter of recruits for a regiment of western cowboys for special service and announcing that Captain Leonard Wood, U.S.A., would be the commander of such troops, with Theodore Roosevelt as lieutenant-colonel. When it was known that such a regiment was to be organized, Governor Otero was deluged from all parts of New Mexico with applications to join. Four troops was New Mexico's quota and these were mustered at Santa Fé within eight days after the presidential proclamation had been issued."—R. E. Twitchell, *Leading facts of New Mexican history*, v. 2, pp. 530-533.

ALSO IN: E. Marshall, *Story of the Rough Riders*.—T. Roosevelt, *Rough Riders*.

1906.—Joint Statehood Act of Union with Arizona rejected by Arizona. See U.S.A.: 1906 (June).

1910-1911.—Constitutional convention.—Senator Owen's amendment.—Nelson resolution.—Statehood achieved.—"President Taft, in compliance with the promise previously made by the Republican party in its national convention, urged, recommended and demanded from Congress the adoption of an enabling act, which was approved June 20, of that year [1910]. . . . In virtue of that law, the governor of New Mexico issued on

the 20th day of June, 1910, his proclamation for an election of 100 delegates to the constitutional convention, in accordance with an apportionment made by the governor, the chief justice and the secretary of the Territory on the 28th of the month of June. . . . The election was held on Tuesday, September 6, 1910. . . . The convention met in Santa Fé on the 3rd day of October, 1910, . . . and adopted a republican constitution, in its form of government. . . . On January 21, 1911, the constitution was submitted to the vote of the people, and was approved by a large majority of votes."—B. M. Read, *Illustrated history of New Mexico*, pp. 615-617.—"The New Mexico constitution would be called progressive, except for the earlier and widely discussed Oklahoma constitution. . . . The convention . . . adopted a provision, in the article on mines and mining, that 'no children under the age of fourteen years shall be employed in mines.' The attempt was made to strike this provision out on the ground that it was legislation, and that the standard of fourteen set in the constitution for the employment of children in mines was two years too low. The convention, however, decided to retain this. The mining interests, which were largely represented in the convention, feared that the Legislature would fix the age limit at sixteen, and the friends of child labor reform feared that subsequent Legislatures would be so dominated by the mining interests that they would not go beyond the present territorial statute, which fixes the age limit at twelve. However, a general provision was inserted, which says that 'the Legislature shall enact suitable laws for the regulation of the employment of children.' The first section of the article on the judiciary department provides that courts inferior to district courts, and 'including juvenile courts,' may be established by law in any county or municipality of the state. Another provision will be of interest to the friends of prison reform: 'The penitentiary is a reformatory and industrial school, and all persons confined therein shall, so far as consistent with discipline and the public-interest, be employed in some beneficial industry; and where a convict has a dependent family, his net earnings shall be paid to said family if necessary for their support.' Leasing of convicts is forbidden. Under the article on education it is provided that 'every child of school age and of sufficient physical and mental ability shall be required to attend a public or other school during such period and for such time as may be prescribed by law.'"—A. J. McKelway, *Social principles of the new state constitution (Survey, Jan. 7, 1911, pp. 610-611)*.—"In the last moments of the regular session of the sixty-first congress, the 4th of March, 1911, the senate took in consideration the approval of the resolution which the day before had been approved by the house, whereby the constitution of New Mexico had been declared approved. Senator Owen, of Oklahoma, presented an amendment to the resolution which included the constitution of Arizona. Following a . . . discussion the vote was taken, with a result of 45 votes against, and 30 votes in favor of approving the amendment. The effect of the disapproval of the amendment was to delay the admission of New Mexico to the Union. The constitution having been approved by the President, remained in force, and it but needed the approval or disapproval by the next Congress. . . . Congress met in special session in April, 1911, and at once the tactics were resumed looking for the success of New Mexico's admission, but on account of the discord among some of the political coxcombs of the Territory, a most bitter fight was inaugurated,

which resulted in the adoption of amendments by the house of representatives with which the senate did not agree. From that month (April, 1911), the fight continued to the month of July (1911), when the house by a very large majority approved a resolution drawn by Congressman Flood, of Virginia, whereby the admission of New Mexico and Arizona was authorized on condition that New Mexico in its election of state officers should submit to the people the proposition that the constitution might be amended with less difficulty than was provided in the original constitution. That resolution was rejected by the senate, and another one offered by Senator Nelson as a substitute. . . . The Nelson resolution authorized the admission of New Mexico unconditionally ratifying the expression of approval by the 18,000 votes majority given in the Territory in favor of the constitution. It also authorized the admission of Arizona, eliminating from its constitution the clause in reference to the recall. The Nelson resolution kindled the political flame, and embittered the dispositions of the legislators to such a pitch that for several days the question was warmly debated, the question reaching its climax on August 10, by the rejection of the Nelson resolution, and the approval of the Flood resolution with slight amendments. The House concurred the next day (August 11) with the action of the senate. The presiding officers of the house and senate then signed the resolution and the same was at once forwarded to President Taft for his approval or disapproval. . . . On August 15th, Taft returned the resolution [unapproved] to congress accompanied by a message in which he gave his reasons for not approving it, namely: That because of the clause in reference to the recall in the constitution of Arizona he refused to approve the resolution; and that, with regard to New Mexico, he considered a constitution approved by a majority of over 18,000 votes as one of the best constitutions of the nation, and that he had already previously approved it with great pleasure, but that, inasmuch as the admission of New Mexico was now included in the Flood resolution, he could not approve it. . . . On the same day (August 15) Senator Smith presented another resolution, more or less identical with the Nelson resolution for the admission of both territories. The result was the appointment of a committee of both bodies (August 16) with the object of expunging from the Flood resolution the matter that was repugnant to the recalcitrants of both parties and to President Taft. . . . On Saturday, August 10th, in a debate, . . . the house unanimously approved the resolution. Without loss of time it was signed by the presiding officers of both bodies and was then forwarded to President Taft for his approval. . . . On Monday, August 21, A. D. 1911, at three o'clock p. m., President Taft affixed his signature to the resolution giving us thereby our complete political autonomy, . . . closing thus the . . . fight which for sixty-three consecutive years our patriotic . . . people had sustained, while the American government also was finally fulfilling the solemn obligation which it had imposed upon itself by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo."—B. M. Read, *Illustrated history of New Mexico*, pp. 618, 620, 622-623.

ALSO IN: R. E. Twitchell, *Leading facts of New Mexican history*, v. 2, pp. 501-503.

1912-1921.—Legislation.—Elephant Butte dam.—Part played in World War.—Later legislation.—Governors.—In 1912, a corrupt practices act was passed; and the Sixteenth Federal Amendment (income tax) was ratified. In 1913, the Seventeenth Federal Amendment (direct election of senators)

was ratified. In 1914, constitutional amendments were adopted eliminating the Board of Tax Equalization, and reducing the term of state and county officers and making them eligible to succeed themselves. In 1917, a workmen's compensation act was passed. In 1918, a state prohibition law was passed. In 1919, a child welfare bureau was created; an establishment of state mounted police inaugurated; compulsory school attendance, and tax laws enacted, i. e., annual franchise tax on corporations, state inheritance and income taxes; a land settlement act was passed, and a tax commission created. In 1921, New Mexico made a general revision of its revenue code but made no change in the form of the tax commission created in 1919. The other enactments of this year were the regulation of employment and hours of labor of children; creation of the office of county flood commissioner; provision for the prevention of fire; regulation and control of fraternal benefit societies; prohibition of gambling; provision for equal rights and duties of both parents of minor children; regulation and limitation of working hours for women; provision of commission government for cities of between 3,000 and 18,000 inhabitants; and the creation of a state department of public welfare. In 1910, the Elephant Butte dam was completed and put into operation. This dam creates a reservoir by crossing the Rio Grande river about 1,200 miles north of El Paso and is considered the largest storage reservoir in the world. During the World War, the state furnished 12,439 men or .33 per cent of the whole Expeditionary Forces. The governors for the period 1911 to 1923 were as follows: William C. McDonald, 1912-1917; Ezequiel de Baca, January 1 to February 18, 1917; W. E. Lindsey, 1917-1919; A. Larrazolo, 1919-1921; M. C. Mechem, 1921—.

ALSO IN: J. H. Vaughan, *History and government of Mexico*.—J. F. Rippey, *Boundary of Mexico and the Gadsden Treaty (Hispanic American Historical Review, Nov., 1921)*.

1916-1917.—Raids by Mexicans.—Villa's attack on Columbus. See MEXICO: 1916-1917; U. S. A.: 1916 (March); Villa.

1920-1922.—Troubles with Indians.—Indians protest against Bursum Bill. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1920; Troubles in New Mexico: 1922.

NEW NETHERLAND, early Dutch name for New York. See NEW YORK: 1610-1614; 1621-1646; 1638-1647; 1664-1674; NEW JERSEY: 1664-1667; AMERICA: Map of early colonial grants.

NEW NETHERLANDS COMPANY. See U. S. A.: 1607-1752.

NEW ORANGE, name given by the Dutch to New York after their recapture of the city from the English in 1673. See NEW YORK: 1673.

NEW ORLEANS, city in Louisiana, on the Mississippi delta, about 107 miles from the Gulf of Mexico. It is one of the chief cotton centers in the South. The city has an official area of 200 square miles, an actual area of about 40 miles and a population, 1920, of 387,210. The city is built on a swampy plain, below the level of high water on the Mississippi, from which it is protected by levees; and is divided into two sections, the new town of modern residences and office buildings, and the picturesque old town, where the famous Mardi Gras is held.

Early inhabitants. See CREOLE.

1718.—Founding of city. See LOUISIANA: 1717-1718.

1763.—Reserved from cession to England in Treaty of Paris, and transferred with western Louisiana to Spain. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties.

1768-1769.—Revolt against Spanish rule.—Short-lived republic and its tragic ending. See LOUISIANA: 1766-1768; 1769.

1785-1803.—Fickle treatment of American traders. See LOUISIANA: 1785-1800; 1798-1803.

1798-1804.—Transferred to France and sold to the United States.—Incorporation as a city. See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803; 1812.

1815.—Jackson's defense of the city and great victory. See U. S. A.: 1815 (January); LOUISIANA: 1813-1815.

1862 (April).—Farragut's capture of the city. See U. S. A.: 1862 (April; On the Mississippi).

1862 (May-December).—Rule of General Butler. See U. S. A.: 1862 (May-December; Louisiana).

1866.—Riot and massacre. See LOUISIANA: 1865-1867.

1891.—Lynching of Italian assassins. See LOUISIANA: 1891.

1912.—Adoption of commission form of government.—In 1912, New Orleans adopted the commission form of government. The old form of government was superseded by a commission government of a mayor and four other commissioners elected on a general ticket. The administration was divided into five departments each of which was headed by a commissioner: (1) Public affairs under the mayor; (2) public finance; (3) public safety; (4) public utilities; (5) public property.

1918-1922.—Construction of canal. See CANALS: American canals; New Orleans.

1919.—Mississippi Valley Association.—In 1919, New Orleans "invited the people of the Mississippi Valley to organize an association for the purpose of capitalizing a valley-wide opportunity, that of the reestablishment of the north and south trade channels of low natural resistance, and the opening up of new foreign markets of great promise in Mexico, Central America, South America, Australia, the Philippines and the Orient. The association was formed . . . and through it the people of the Mississippi Valley now are coöperating for the development of their foreign trade."—W. Parker, *Railroad problems (Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, v. 86, Nov., 1919)*.

1921.—Poor relief. See CHARITIES: United States: 1921.

NEW PINAKOTHEK, Munich, museum noted for its collections of paintings of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, most of which are by Munich masters.

NEW PLYMOUTH, name given to settlement generally called Plymouth, in Massachusetts. It was later used to designate the entire colony. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1621.

NEW SMYRNA, colony in eastern Florida, near Mosquito inlet. In 1767 it was settled by people from the Mediterranean region under the leadership of Dr. Andrew Turnbull, a wealthy Scotchman. See FLORIDA: 1767-1774.

NEW SOUTH WALES, constituent state of the Commonwealth of Australia, in the southeastern part of the continent. It is bounded on the north by Queensland; on the east, by the Pacific ocean; on the south, by Victoria; and on the west, by South Australia. The area, inclusive of Lord Howe Island and the Federal Capital territory, is about 310,372 square miles; and the population, 1921, was 2,099,763. See AUSTRALIA: Location and physical features; also Map.

Also IN: A. W. Josè, *New South Wales*.

1601-1821.—Discovery and early exploration.—"Botany Bay."—Founding of penal colonies.—Beginning of sheep-farming and free immigra-

tion.—Administration of Governor Macquarie. See AUSTRALIA: 1601-1800; 1787-1840.

1802.—Settlement of Tasmania. See TASMANIA.

1810-1830.—Land grant system. See AUSTRALIA: 1810-1837.

1821-1831.—Governors Brisbane and Darling.

—First stage of constitutional self-government.—"The end of Governor Macquarie's term of office marks the conclusion of the colony's infancy. . . .

The next Governorship, that of Sir Thomas Brisbane, marks a definite stage in the history of New South Wales. The discovery of the Bathurst Plains [see AUSTRALIA: 1787-1840] had put an end to all doubts of the ultimate ability of the colony to sustain an increasing population; and now, for the first time, the tide of free immigration began to flow. . . . The great achievement of Governor Brisbane's administration was the introduction of institutions which ultimately served as the basis of self-government in Australia. . . . We are now entering upon a period in which institutions will gradually take the place of men. This period begins definitely in the year 1823, with the passing of the first Constitutional Statute which operated in Australia. . . . By it the former military administration of justice, by a Judge-Advocate and military assessors, was superseded by a Supreme Court on an English model, with a Chief Justice, and the right to a trial by jury in civil cases, if both the parties agreed upon it. But in criminal cases the jury was still to consist of military officers, seven in number, although the prisoner was to be entitled to challenge them on any grounds for which an ordinary juror could be objected to in England. His Majesty in Council was, however, authorized to extend the jury system in any way deemed desirable; and, as a matter of fact, it was not very long before the jury system was introduced into criminal trials in Australia. Moreover, convicts were no longer to be excluded from giving evidence in Courts of Justice. . . . The political innovations made by the statute were also important. They provided for the appointment of a Council with legislative and financial powers, albeit under certain very substantial limitations. . . . This Council at first consisted entirely of Government officials, and was of course subject to no process of popular election. But, as Lord Bathurst explained in his letter which covered the warrant of appointment, it was intended by the Home Government that the new Council should at least to some degree represent the views of non-official colonists; and this pledge was redeemed in the year 1825 by the nomination of three independent members. . . . The other great political object of the statute was the separation of Tasmania (then known as Van Diemen's Land) from the mother colony. . . . The Home Government, at the time of the passing of the Act, apparently hesitated between complete and partial separation, and took powers for both. Lord Bathurst ultimately decided in favour of partial separation only; and Van Diemen's Land had to wait many years before becoming completely independent of the Government at Sydney. . . . The mother colony of Australia now started upon a career of progress and development which, in spite of stormy interludes, its maintained until the crisis of 1843. The marks of freedom and independence manifested themselves one by one. Freedom of the press was formally proclaimed in 1824, and although (as might have been expected) the liberty was at first abused, and caused much trouble during the governorship of Sir Ralph Darling (1825-1831), yet, under the more judicious rule of Sir Richard Bourke (1831-1837), the difficulties were removed. . . . In the year 1827

the colony was rich enough to support its own civil government; . . . and, a few years later, the Government of the colony began even to vote funds to assist the immigration of desirable colonists. . . . By a statute of the Imperial Parliament passed in the year 1828, the maximum number of the Council was raised to fifteen, and its legislative powers considerably increased. This important change virtually placed the official members of the Council in a minority in questions upon which the Government and the settlers as a whole were divided in opinion. . . . In the administration of justice still further steps towards a free model were taken; and the somewhat sweeping clause, which introduced the whole of existing English law en bloc, though it subsequently gave rise to some technical difficulty, was obviously calculated to afford the ordinary colonist substantial protection against the arbitrary action of Government."—E. Jenks, *History of Australasian colonies*, ch. 2-3.

1831-1855.—Convict transportation abolished. —Immigration stimulated.—Self-government secured.—Governor Darling was succeeded by "Major-General Sir Richard Bourke, K. C. B., [who] arrived in Sydney on the 2nd of December, 1831. . . . The six years during which Bourke administered the affairs of the colony were not only free from class warfare, but were distinguished by the rapid growth of industry and commerce, and the steady development of national life under new forms. In fact, the history of the colony as a free State, so to speak, may be said to date from Bourke's time. . . . Trial by jury in the Superior Courts—that is, by civilian instead of by military jurors—was granted in an optional form in 1833; and although representative government was still withheld by the Home authorities, the administration of public affairs was conducted by Bourke on constitutional principles, with very little resort to the arbitrary power which had made his predecessor's rule distasteful to the whole community. . . . The history of the colony during the Administration of Sir George Gipps, a Captain in the Royal Engineers, who arrived in February, 1838, assumes proportions altogether unknown to it under the rule of his predecessors. It is no longer occupied with the melancholy records of the convict class, or the bitter feuds between the Emancipists and the Exclusives. The state of society had changed; free immigration had begun to flow in; capital was introduced by settlers from abroad and invested in sheep and cattle stations; the system of assigned servants ceased in 1838, and transportation itself, which had been yearly growing more unpopular, was abolished by an order in Council two years later, although it was not finally extinguished until 1851. The most remarkable event of this period was the establishment of a new Constitution, under an Act passed by the Imperial Parliament in 1842. Representative institutions were at length conceded to the colony, although responsible government was still withheld. The new Legislative Council was composed of 36 members, of whom 24 were elected and 12 appointed by the Crown. . . . From 1840 to 1846, the colony was plunged in a state of depression which brought the shadow of ruin to every man's door. This was to some extent the result of a re-action from the inflated state of prosperity which had existed a few years before, when prices of land and stock rose to a fictitious value, and speculation in land absorbed all the floating capital in the country. Among the immediate causes of depression were the cessation of Imperial expenditure on transportation, and the withdrawal of Government deposits from the banks; the consequent pressure brought to bear

by those institutions on their customers; the substitution of free labour for that of the assigned servants, necessitating cash payment of wages; the locking up of capital in large purchases of land, which up to that time had been sold at five and subsequently twelve shillings an acre; and indulgence in excessive speculation, by which the ordinary industries of the country were deprived of capital. The result was that every branch of trade and industry fell into a state of utter collapse. . . . Politics at this time gave rise to a bitter struggle. Certain Crown Lands Regulations which Sir George Gipps had framed and issued in 1844, provoked determined opposition on the part of the squatters. . . . His proposal to tax the holders of Crown lands was denounced as tyranny. . . . The ultimate result was that the Council refused to renew the Land Act framed by Gipps, which had been passed for one year only, and the Governor's land policy was at an end. Sir George Gipps closed his career in New South Wales in July, 1846, and died in England the following February. . . . Sir Charles Fitzroy arrived in Sydney at a time when the colony had entered on an era of prosperity hitherto unknown in its history. . . . In the first speech he addressed to the Legislative Council on its meeting in September, 1846, a month after his arrival, he congratulated its members on the general prosperity of the country—a prosperity the more remarkable, inasmuch as the colony was 'only just emerging from those difficulties which were experienced under that monetary depression which affected all classes of the community.' Among the many striking evidences of the new life which had been infused into the colony at this time, mainly as a result of free immigration and the rapid extension of settlement in the interior, the most conspicuous were the movements set on foot for the construction of railways and the establishment of steam communication with England. The gradual increase in the tide of immigration had greatly contributed to promote the prosperity of the people. . . . Flocks and herds were driven further and further inland as each new discovery made the resources of the interior known; but stock-owners and settlers were met with the ever-increasing difficulty of finding a sufficient supply of labour. Convict labour was nominally cheap, but really dear at any price. . . . It gradually became recognized as a principle of State policy, mainly owing to Wakefield's teaching, that the revenue arising from the land should be appropriated to the purpose of promoting immigration. Under that system money was remitted by the Colonial Government every year to be expended by a Board of Emigration Commissioners appointed in London, who selected and despatched the best emigrants they could get. But American competition was keenly felt in the labour market, and the Government had to tempt people to emigrate to Australia by paying half the passage money and offering small loans to mechanics, who could be induced to leave England on no other terms. . . . The conduct of public affairs by the Council, in which [William Charles] Wentworth was the principal figure, had been so distinguished for statesmanlike ability that the capacity of the colonists for self-government could no longer be denied. But a still more potent influence had been at work. The great gold discoveries, which took place in 1840, had, in Wentworth's phrase, precipitated the colony into a nation, and the demand for free institutions came upon the Home Government with a degree of force it was impossible to resist. When, therefore, the popular advocate of self-government obtained a committee in 1852 to

prepare a new Constitution for the colony, in pursuance of the powers conferred on the Council by the Imperial Parliament, it was felt that the time had at last arrived when the life-long struggle of the patriot would be crowned with success. The second reading of the Bill was moved by him in the session of the following year, and was carried by a majority of 34 to 8. It was strongly opposed by a considerable section of the public on the ground that the Members of the Upper House should be elected, instead of being nominated by the Crown. But the nominee principle was considered essential by the framers of the Bill, for the purpose of reproducing the Constitution of the British Parliament as closely as possible; and in deference to those views, the Bill was passed as it stood. . . . The Bill [subsequently enacted by the Imperial Parliament] . . . was received in the colony in October, 1855. The old Legislative Council was finally dissolved on the 19th of December following, and the new Constitution was formally inaugurated by the Governor-General, Sir William Denison, who had succeeded Sir Charles Fitzroy in the beginning of the year. The establishment of responsible government brought about so great a change in the political system of the colony that from that date the current of its history may be said to run in a totally different channel. Other actors come upon the scene. The martial figure of the Governor disappears, his place being occupied by men henceforth known as the responsible Ministers of the Crown."—G. B. Barton, A. Sutherland, and F. J. Broomfield, *Historical review of New South Wales (Australasia Illustrated, v. 1, pp. 84-93)*.

ALSO IN: H. G. Turner, *Our own little rebellion, 1848-1918*.—Development of educational system.—"Prior to 1848 all education was in the hands of one or other of the four Churches which received State aid—Anglican, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, and Wesleyan. The combined efforts of these bodies were only adequate to give instruction to less than half of the children of school age. They had, altogether, 12,000 in these schools; private schools, of unequal merit, taught about 6,000 more, and about 14,000 got no schooling. In 1848 a Board of National Education was incorporated, and State Schools established under its control. 'From that year until 1867, . . . two educational bodies co-existed, created by the same authority, and supplied with funds from the same source, the Public Treasury. The progress of the one was secured at the expense of the other; and, instead of mutual help and co-operation, jealousy of each other's success and division and consequent waste of means were the inevitable results.' [Under the Public Schools Act, 1866] Sir Henry Parkes in 1867 placed both kinds of schools under the authority of an incorporated Council of Education. [See below: 1855-1893.] . . . Instruction was divided into 'secular' and 'religious,' but the word 'secular' was defined to include undogmatic religious teaching as distinguished from polemical theology. In Denominational Schools the religious teaching might be given by the teachers. In the others it must be given in an hour set apart for the purpose each day in school-time by one of the clergy or some other accredited instructor. The Council took over 259 National Schools attended by 19,461 pupils and 310 Denominational Schools attended by 27,986 pupils. Sir Henry Parkes again completely transformed the system in 1880. All aid was withdrawn from Denominational Schools, and the control of the whole educational system of the colony was given to a responsible Minister. The teachers became civil servants and teaching

uniform. Attendance at school was made compulsory for all between the ages of six and fourteen years for seventy days in the year; fees were low and were remitted to the poorer parents; in 1906 they were remitted altogether; instruction was 'secular' in the sense explained above, and the facilities for religious instruction were retained. Only the Church of England avails itself of these facilities to any considerable extent. The Roman Catholics prefer to send their children to Catholic Schools, and other denominations are content with the 'secular' instruction. This measure placed the school system of the colony on a permanent basis which has never since been changed. At the date of the change 101,534 children were receiving instruction, of whom 22,716 were in Denominational Schools. . . . New South Wales has three grades of schools: the ordinary Public Schools; the 'Superior Schools,' where subjects for the Senior and Junior University examination are taught, numbering 1,429 in 1906; and five High Schools, of which two are for boys and three for girls. The number of pupils at these five schools was 723 in 1906. It is intended to reserve these schools as training schools for teachers, and use about twenty of the larger superior schools to take their place. The Hawkesbury Agricultural College also trains ten teachers yearly. . . . In Victoria and South Australia what are called 'Continuation Classes' have been established to give preliminary training to persons who propose to become teachers."—B. R. Wise, *Commonwealth of Australia, pp. 73-75, 81-82*.—"In New South Wales the changes in the scheme of [teacher] training are probably more radical than in other States. . . . All young teachers must pass through the college before entering on the work of teaching. . . . No period of apprentice teaching is now required before admission. . . . Two distinct types of course are provided—longer courses of two or more years, and a short course of six months. The latter course was introduced in 1911 in order to provide some training for the rural teacher in one-teacher schools who previously had received no systematic training. Though an improvement on previously existing conditions, it is far from satisfactory, and the position is still more serious when it is considered that out of every ten teachers appointed from the college seven have had this meagre preparation for the important work of teaching in the rural schools. . . . New South Wales has recently passed a Superannuation Act, which did not, however, come into operation till the conclusion of the war. . . . In each of the [Australian] States provision is made from the public funds for a system of bursaries, tenable at the secondary schools and the University. In 1916 New South Wales devoted over £40,000 to this purpose, an amount representing over 2 per cent. of the expenditure of the Education Department. . . . The Bursary Endowment Act of 1912 required the registration of all those non-State schools in New South Wales which desired to compete for the new State bursaries. The Truancy Act of 1916 requires the registration of all private primary schools."—A. Mackel, *Education in Australia* (M. Atkinson, ed., *Australia, economic and political studies, pp. 255-257, 260-261*).—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Australia.

1850.—Separation of colony of Victoria. See AUSTRALIA: 1839-1855.

1855-1893.—Colonial constitution.—Liberalized land policy.—Public Schools Act of 1866.—"The principles of the Constitution, as originally laid down, have never been altered, but there have been some changes in minor details. In New

South Wales, as in the other Australian colonies, the democratic element was increasing, and before long the Electoral Act was amended and the franchise reduced to practically manhood suffrage. At the same time, the old system of voting was abolished and all elections have since been conducted by means of the ballot-box. Various other amendments of the Electoral Act have taken place from time to time, and the few restrictions of political privilege which remained have been removed. . . . [Within the first five years of responsible government, under the guidance of Sir John Robertson, elaborate regulations were made for the alienation and occupation of Crown lands.] The circumstances of the colony had been greatly altered by the discovery of gold [see AUSTRALIA: 1839-1855; MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1848-1893], and the question of land settlement had to be dealt with in an entirely new spirit to meet the wants of a class of a different type to that contemplated by the framers of former enactments. . . . The Government were beaten by a large majority on the question of 'free selection before survey.' The Governor was urged to dissolve Parliament, but this he declined to do, and before long public sentiment underwent a complete change; the cry of 'free selection before survey' was made the watchword of the democratic party; and the measure on its re-introduction consequently became law. The Act of 1861 was intended to facilitate the settlement of an industrial agricultural population, side by side with the pastoral tenants, by means of free selection in limited areas. . . . The new Parliament did not confine its liberalism to the administration of the Crown lands. Before it had been many years in existence an Act was passed abolishing all grants from the State Treasury in aid of religious denominations, while a further levelling measure found its place on the statute book in an Act providing for the abolition of the law of primogeniture. . . . The whole country was terrorized for many years following 1860 by the exploits of bushrangers, and for a time the executive appeared to be incapable of dealing with these offenders. . . . Eventually the law prevailed, and bushranging and its accompanying evils were completely stamped out. . . . The Public Schools Act of 1866 . . . provided for two distinct classes of schools, though all schools receiving aid from the State were placed by it nominally under a Council of Education. The public schools were entirely under the control of this board, but the denominational schools were still managed to some extent by the various religious bodies to which they had hitherto belonged. . . . In 1880, State aid to denominational education was finally abolished. By the new Act, . . . the entire educational system of the colony was remodelled, the Council of Education was dissolved, and a Minister of Public Instruction created in its place. Public schools to afford primary instruction to all children without sectarian or class distinction were established, as well as superior public schools, in which a more advanced course might be followed."

—G. Tregarthen, *Story of Australasia*, ch. 11-12.

1859.—Separation of Moreton Bay District and its erection into Colony of Queensland. See AUSTRALIA: 1859; QUEENSLAND: 1824-1900.

1866.—Tariff legislation. See TARIFF: 1862-1892.

1885-1892.—Movement for Australian federation. See AUSTRALIA: 1885-1892.

1886-1920.—Organization of Labor party.—Power and program of party. See LABOR PARTIES: 1886-1906; AUSTRALIA: 1900 (May-June); 1910-1915; 1911-1913; 1915; 1919-1920.

1887.—Question of Chinese immigration. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1856-1907.

1890.—General survey.—Comparison with Victoria. See AUSTRALIA: 1890.

1891.—Rise of the Labor party.—"The uprise of the Parliamentary Labour Party of New South Wales was a dramatic anti-climax to the defeat of Australian Trades Unionism in the disastrous maritime strike of 1890. . . . The workers were seemingly crushed in . . . [a] battle with the shipping interests in 1890. In 1891 the same bodies that had gone down in the Sedan of the year before emerged an organized Parliamentary force, holding the balance of power in the legislature of New South Wales. . . . The strike had injured many innocent interests, as it always did and always will. 'Could not a more enlightened remedy be found?' seemed to be one of the rational conclusions arrived at, and the Trades Unions co-operated with the victorious capitalists and their government allies, through the means of a commission, in an effort to find a way of settling trade disputes by the peaceful methods of arbitration. These efforts succeeded and left the Labour organizations free to devote their energies to the carrying out of a programme of Parliamentary action. Labour made up its mind to send men from its own ranks to the Legislature. It resolved to be represented by its own and not by another class. There were no insuperable difficulties in the way, as in Great Britain and Ireland Members were paid. The franchise was available, though not to the extent it soon afterwards became. Constituencies were small, and the mining, shearing, and maritime Labour elements were so comparatively large in the population of the colony that it only needed steady exertions in the constituencies to secure the return of a fair number of Labour members. Issues upon which differences existed in the Labour ranks were wisely subordinated to the one task of electing direct Labour men, and free traders, protectionists, and single taxers united in securing that object. They succeeded to an extent which astounded the whole public of Australia. In fact, a peaceful revolution had been created in the Parliamentary politics of New South Wales. The success at first seemed to be too great, and became, on that account, intoxicating and somewhat embarrassing afterwards. They won no less than 18 seats in Sydney alone, and emerged from the general election of June, 1891, 35 strong, while 5 more members were elected who called themselves Independents; with a government having only 40 supporters, and an opposition numbering 50."—M. Davitt, *Life and progress in Australasia*, ch. 41.

ALSO IN: M. Atkinson, *Australia, economic and political studies*, pp. 160-172.

1891-1903.—Woman's movement.—"In the mother colony (N.S.W.) no public movement to obtain the vote for women was made until 1891. . . . In March, 1891, a few women—eight only—met in a private house and decided to form a Woman Suffrage League and to begin active work. . . . Rich women in New South Wales were roused in 1898 when the Reid Government passed a Land Tax Bill, and, by its action, many women who owned land were at last forced to recognise the injustice of taxation without representation. They protested formally, and the Premier courteously acknowledged that their protest was reasonable. That was all! . . . The Woman Suffrage League, then growing desperate, asked that, as the women of South Australia, by this time enfranchised, would be able to vote in the Federal Referendum, soon to take place, they also might be allowed to

record their opinions on the proposed Federation. The Premier listened to this demand with some sympathy, but pointed out that, as rolls would have to be prepared for such a vote, the time necessary, and the expense, made it impossible for him to grant the request. But, as a consolation, he held out a hope that a Minister of the Crown would soon bring in a Suffrage Bill. This was again an empty promise. No Bill appeared. . . . In 1900, the Labour Party took up the matter, and sent a deputation to the Premier, and on 12th June the Governor's speech asked Parliament to consider it. Mr. Rose then brought forward a motion to submit the matter to a referendum, but this was easily defeated. Upon 9th November, 1900, Mr. Lyne, the first Premier to do so in New South Wales, introduced a Bill to enfranchise women of adult age. This was passed in the Assembly, but lost in the Upper House by three votes. In 1901, the State election took place, and Mr. (afterwards Sir John) See, the new Premier, openly advocated woman suffrage, and during the following year brought in a Bill, which was again carried in the Assembly, but lost in the Council. In 1902, the Premier again introduced a Bill, and the Council, no longer able to oppose a measure approved by the Federal Constitution, allowed it to pass. The Bill was returned to the Assembly in August, 1902. It received the King's assent on 4th July, 1903. The women of New South Wales voted for the first time on 16th December, 1903."—M. Anderson, *Women's movement* (M. Atkinson, ed., *Australia, economic and political studies*, pp. 274-275, 277-278).

1894.—Represented at colonial conference at Ottawa. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1804.

1894-1895.—Free trade policy. See AUSTRALIA: 1804-1895.

1896.—Change in government of Norfolk Island.—Reannexation to New South Wales.—A change in the government of Norfolk Island was proclaimed in November, 1896, by the Governor of New South Wales, who came to the island, acting under directions from the British Colonial Office, and announced that "Her Majesty's Government has decided to appoint a resident magistrate. The object sought is to secure the impartial administration of justice, while leaving the local and municipal affairs of the island to be conducted by a council representing the inhabitants. In consideration of the fact that the Norfolk Island settlement originally formed part of the administrative colony of New South Wales, and that the legal business of the island and the registration of all land titles and transfers have uniformly been conducted by the Government departments at Sydney, Her Majesty's Government has decided to transfer the administration of the island to the Government of New South Wales. The Government of New South Wales has accepted the charge and as soon as the necessary arrangements have been completed Norfolk Island will be administered by the governor of New South Wales in council." "It will thus be seen that the Pitcairn community, which, for more than one hundred years, has governed itself by its own laws, is now abolished and that a new era has begun. The governor's legal right to annul the constitution given by the Queen when the community emigrated from Pitcairn was questioned. A deputation was appointed to wait on the governor, but he refused to discuss the subject further."—*United States Consular Reports*, May, 1897, p. 37.

1898.—Preference granted by Canadian tariff. See TARIFF: 1897-1898.

1900.—Joins federation of Australian colonies.—Ratification of constitution. See AUSTRALIA: 1900: Federation; Constitution.

1900-1901.—Labor legislation.—"The New South Wales Early Closing Act of 1900 . . . laid down a general rule, which no local authority could evade, and it provided for the closing of every shop within the specified classes. Evasion thus became extremely difficult. Shops were compelled to close at six p. m. on four days in the week, at one p. m. on one day, and at ten p. m. on another day. The particular days could be selected by a vote of the trades concerned. No exception was made . . . in favour of the small shopkeeper, although his cause was pleaded very eloquently by the Free Trade opposition. Experience had proved that the drastic inclusion of all shops in the trade without exception is the only effective method of securing early closing. Cases of hardship, which are easy to imagine, have proved few in practice; but even were they more numerous, private interests must give way. To allow even 'the poor widow,' who always figures on these occasions, to keep her small shop open after hours, would be unfair to the other shops in the neighbourhood. . . . The difficulty has been met in New South Wales by the Industrial Arbitration Court, whose awards have greatly improved the industrial status of shop assistants. [See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Australia: 1891-1912.] Besides providing for a minimum wage,—which is the only effective instrument against sweating—the Court has so regulated the practice of apprenticeship as to destroy the great abuse of engaging so-called 'learners,' or 'improvers' who were dismissed in their turn, so soon as they became entitled to receive wages. By these protective provisions, shop assistants have gained a new economic strength, which they are not likely to neglect. Certainly no Act of Parliament of recent years has been productive of greater and more direct advantages than that which has given the shop assistants of New South Wales a weekly half-holiday and their evenings to themselves. . . . The shearers . . . obtained an Act from the Parliament of New South Wales in 1901, requiring squatters to provide them with proper accommodations during the shearing season, but no State has followed the example of England in regulating, generally, the construction of cottages in the country or workmen's dwellings in towns. Again, certain classes of purchasers of small areas of Crown Lands, have their homesteads protected against seizure under any legal process; but no such exemption is conferred upon the property of any other person. Wage-earners are a specially favoured class; they have a right—which is denied to any other class of creditors—to attach monies due to a contractor who employs them, to satisfy a claim for wages, without resort to the expensive process of an action at law. They have also, in some states, a lien for their wages over the material upon which they were working, even although this has ceased to be in their possession and has been sold to a customer. . . . At the same time the wages of workmen are themselves protected against attachment by any process of law. . . . In the two large States of New South Wales and Victoria . . . it has been found impossible to pass a Workmen's Compensation Act, such as has been the law of England since 1897."—B. R. Wise, *Commonwealth of Australia*, pp. 291-292, 295-296.

1900-1906.—Question of location of federal capital. See AUSTRALIA: 1900: Question of federal capital; 1905-1906.

1905.—Miners' strike. See AUSTRALIA: 1905-1906.

1909 (September).—Congress of empire chambers of commerce held. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1909 (September).

1910.—Budget dispute. See AUSTRALIA: 1910.

1912.—Maternity Allowances Act. See AUSTRALIA: 1912.

1912.—Railroad development. See RAILROADS: 1908-1918.

1915.—Irrigation.—Forestry development.—Agreement with Victoria and South Australia in regard to Murray river. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Australia.

1916.—Legislation against I. W. W. See INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD: Recent tendencies.

1917.—Great railway strike.—Legislation against strikes. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Australia: 1917-1918.

NEW SPAIN, name given at first to Yucatan, Mexico, and afterwards extended to the wider territory won by Cortés. See AMERICA: 1517-1518; MEXICO: 1521-1524.

NEW STYLE: In chronology. See CHRONOLOGY: Gregorian reformation

NEW SWEDEN, early name for Swedish colony in Delaware. See DELAWARE: 1638-1640.

NEW YORK: Population and area.—Location and geographical description.—Resources.—New York, the "Empire State," is one of the thirteen original states. It had a population (1920), of 10,385,227. New York receives the majority of the emigrants from Europe, great numbers of whom settle in both New York City and New York state. It ranks as the twenty-sixth state in size; area, 40,170 square miles, of which 1550 are water surface. It is bounded on the north by Lake Ontario, the St. Lawrence river and Canada; on the east by Vermont, Massachusetts and Connecticut; on the south by the Atlantic ocean, New Jersey and Pennsylvania; and on the west by Pennsylvania and Lake Erie. New York contains some of the most famous scenery in the Western Hemisphere: Niagara Falls; the St. Lawrence with its Thousand Islands; the Adirondacks, the Catskills, Lake Champlain, Lake George and Seneca Lake; the Mohawk and Genesee rivers with their picturesque valleys and falls; and the Hudson, "the Rhine of America." The latter forms one boundary of New York City, as Manhattan island lies at its mouth. The East river, forming the other boundary, is not a river, but a strait connecting the Upper bay with Long island sound. The harbor of New York is one of the most famous in the world. Staten Island, off New Jersey, forms the southwestern shore of the Upper bay and the northwestern shore of the Lower bay. The Lower bay (88 square miles) is bounded by Raritan bay, Sandy Hook bay and Gravesend bay, to which channels afford entrance from the Atlantic. The Lower bay is connected to the Upper bay by the Narrows, on which stand Fort Wadsworth and Fort Tompkins. The bar is Sandy Hook, about twenty miles south of Manhattan island. Bedloes island, with the Statue of Liberty, and Ellis island, the landing-place for immigrants, lie in the Upper bay (101 acres). New York is famous for its oyster fisheries, particularly off the coast of Long island. Until 1800 New York ranked first in value of its agricultural products. Its market-gardens on Long island and on both shores of the Hudson are extensive. New York is first of all states in the production of milk; the yearly sale bring about \$40,000,000. But-

ter yields \$10,000,000. The fruit orchards are fine, particularly apples; and the state is second to California in grapes, averaging yearly 253,006,361 pounds and \$3,901,677. Hops and tobacco are also grown in quantity. New York owns 1,814,550 acres in Adirondack and Catskill areas known as forest preserve, under control of a conservation commissioner. New York is first among states in value of manufactured products; the enormous power of Niagara Falls and great electric plants at Schenectady, Mechanicsville, Massena near the St. Lawrence river and other places have greatly increased the output. The manufactures are wide and varied. The total value of products (1910) was \$33,680,000. The chief industries are textiles, silk, fur felt hats, knit-goods, carpets, rugs, woolen goods, millinery, lace, fur garments, butter, cheese, condensed milk, patent medicines, chemicals, automobiles, paint, varnish, musical instruments, leather goods, printing and publishing. See U.S.A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants.—"The streams that have their source in central New York offer an easy means of communication in every direction. These physical features made the Five Nations powerful—invincible—so long as they had only other savages to deal with. These physical conditions made it certain that New York would play a large and important part in the history of our country. Its preëminence in military, industrial and commercial affairs was predestined."—*Proceedings New York State Historical Association*, v. 15, p. 62.—"With a few exceptions the cities and the larger villages of the state, west of the Hudson River, have been located on old Indian trails. Most of the railroads of the state follow old Indian trails pretty closely. From 1700 to 1800, when there was a great movement of population to the west, a score or two of taverns sprang up on the route taken by those early pioneers, all of them on old Indian trails. The Great Central Iroquois Trail, . . . one of the great national highways of the continent . . . led from the Hudson River to Lake Erie. It began at Albany and led directly across the country to Schenectady. From this point to Rome there were two trails, one on each side of the river. That on the south side was most largely used, as the three Mohawk castles or villages were on that side, one at the mouth of the Schoharie Creek, one at Canajoharie, and the third at the town of Danube, Herkimer, nearly opposite the mouth of East Canada Creek. The trail led through these villages as well as through Fort Plain, Utica and Whitesboro. The trail on the north bank left the river at Tribes Hill and led to Johnstown, then back to the river near Fonda, from which point it led west passing through Little Falls, and joining the trail that ran along the south side of the river at Rome. There was only one trail leaning from Rome to the west. It first passed to the southwest through Verona to Oneida Castle, where the principal village of the Oneidas was located. From this place it led to Canastota, crossed the Chittenango Creek near Chittenango, passed near Manlius, crossed the Jamesville Creek at Jamesville, and led to Onondaga Hollow in the heart of the Onondaga country. This valley was the favorite part of the Onondaga country, and the location of the centre of government of the League of the Iroquois."—S. Williams, *Indian trails*, pp. 210-211.—See also ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America; Eastern Woodlands area; HORICONS; HURONS; IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests and wide dominion; STOCKBRIDGE INDIANS.

1524.—Verrazano's voyages along the coast.—

New York bay visited. See AMERICA: 1523-1524; 1524.

17th century.—Education.—Dutch schools.—English parochial schools. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: United States.

1600-1615.—Champlain and the French in the North. See CANADA: 1608-1611; 1615-1616.

1606.—Embraced in grant to Plymouth or North Virginia Company. See VIRGINIA: 1606-1607; AMERICA: Map of King James' grants.

1609.—Exploration of Hudson river by Hendrick Hudson. See AMERICA: 1609.

1609-1755.—Record of slavery in province. See SLAVERY: 1609-1755.

1610-1614.—First Dutch settlement.—Dutch explorers.—Cornelis Mey.—Settlement named New Netherland.—The Dutch had just emerged from their long contest for freedom (see NETHERLANDS: 1562-1566, and after) when Hudson's discovery invited them to establish a footing in America and obtain a share of the profitable trade in furs. The first venture, made by Amsterdam merchants, in 1610, had success enough to stimulate more, and in 1613 a settlement of four houses had been made on the Island of Manhattan; some small forts had been built on the river, and Hendrick Corstiaensen, its superintendent, was busy exploring the region and making acquaintance with the Indian tribes. In the course of the year, Captain Argal, of Virginia, returning from his expedition to Acadia (see CANADA: 1610-1613), ran in to the mouth of the river, called the Dutch to account as intruders on English territory, and forced Corstiaensen to promise tribute to the English crown; but the promise did not hold. "Active steps were taken, early in the next year, to obtain an exclusive right to the trade of those distant countries," and in March, 1614, the States-General passed an ordinance conferring on those who should discover new lands the exclusive privilege of making four voyages thither before others could have admission to the traffic. This ordinance "excited considerable animation and activity among adventurers. A number of merchants belonging to Amsterdam and Hoorn fitted out and dispatched five ships: namely, the Little Fox, the Nightingale, the Tiger, and the Fortune, the two last under the command of Adriaen Bloek and Hendrick Corstiaensen, of Amsterdam. The fifth vessel was called the Fortune also; she belonged to Hoorn, and was commanded by Captain Cornelis Jacobsen Mey. The three last-named and now well-known navigators proceeded immediately on an exploring expedition to the mouth of the Great River of the Mannhattans, but Bloek had the misfortune, soon after his arrival there, of losing his vessel, which was accidentally burnt. . . . He forthwith set about constructing a yacht, 38 feet keel, 44½ feet long, and 11½ feet wide, which, when completed, he called the 'Restless,' significant of his own untiring industry. . . . In this craft, the first specimen of European naval architecture in these waters, Skipper Bloek proceeded to explore the coast east of Manhattan Island. He sailed along the East River, to which he gave the name of 'The Hellegat,' after a branch of the river Scheld, in East Flanders; and leaving Long Island, then called Metoac, or Sewan-hacky, 'the land of shells,' on the south, he discovered the Housatonick, or river of the Red Mountain." Proceeding eastwardly, Bloek found the Connecticut river, which he named Fresh river, and ascended it to an Indian village at 41° 48'. Passing out of the Sound, and ascertaining the insular character of Long island, he gave his own name to one of the two islands off its eastern extremity. After exploring Narra-

gansett bay, he went on to Cape Cod, and there fell in with Hendrick Corstiaensen's ship. "While these navigators were thus engaged at the east, Captain Cornelis Mey was actively employed in exploring the Atlantic coast farther south. . . . He reached the great Delaware Bay, . . . two capes of which still commemorate his visit; one, the most northward, being called after him, Cape Mey [May]; another, Cape Cornelis; while the great south cape was called Hindlopen [Henlopen], after one of the towns in the province of Friesland. . . . Intelligence of the discoveries made by Bloek and his associates having been transmitted to Holland, was received there early in the autumn of this year [1614]. The united company by whom they had been employed lost no time in taking the steps necessary to secure to themselves the exclusive trade of the countries thus explored, which was guaranteed to them by the ordinance of the 27th of March. They sent deputies immediately to the Hague, who laid before the States General a report of their discoveries, as required by law, with a figurative map of the newly explored countries, which now, for the first time, obtained the name of New Netherland. A special grant in favor of the interested parties was forthwith accorded."—E. B. O'Callaghan, *History of New Netherland*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: B. Fernow, *New Netherland (Narrative and critical history of America*, v. 4, ch. 8).

1614-1921.—Fort Nassau.—United New Netherland Company succeeded by Dutch West India Company.—"It was perceived that, to secure the largest return from the peltry trade, a factor should reside permanently on the Mauritius River [North, or Hudson, as it has been successively called], among the Maquas or Mohawks, and the Mahicans [Mohicans], at the head of tide-water. Hendrick Christiaensen, who after his first experiment in company with Adriaen Bloek, is stated to have made 'ten voyages' to Manhattan, accordingly constructed [1614] a trading house on 'Castle Island,' at the west side of the river, a little below the present city of Albany. . . . To compliment the family of the stadholder, the little post was immediately named Fort Nassau. . . . It had been confidently affirmed that the year after the erection of Fort Nassau, at Castle Island, a redoubt was also thrown up and fortified 'on an elevated spot' near the southern point of Manhattan Island. But the assertion does not appear to be confirmed by sufficient authority. . . . The Holland merchants, who had obtained from the States General the exclusive right of trading for three years to New Netherland, though united together in one company [United New Netherlands Company] to secure the grant of their charter, were not strictly a corporation, but rather 'participants' in a specific, limited, and temporary monopoly, which they were to enjoy in common. . . . On the 1st of January, 1618, the exclusive charter of the Directors of New Netherland expired by its own limitation. Year by year the value of the returns from the North River had been increasing; and the hope of larger gains incited the factors of the company to push their explorations further into the interior. . . . No systematic agricultural colonization of the country had yet been undertaken. The scattered agents of the Amsterdam Company still looked merely to peaceful traffic, and the cultivation of those friendly relations which had been covenanted with their savage allies on the banks of the Tawasentha [where they had negotiated a treaty of friendship and alliance with the Five Nations of the Iroquois, in [1617]]. Upon the expiration of their special charter, the merchants who had

formed the United New Netherland Company applied to the government at the Hague for a renewal of their privileges, the value of which they found was daily increasing. But the States General, who were now contemplating the grant of a comprehensive charter for a West India Company avoided a compliance with the petition." In June, 1621, "the long-pending question of a grand commercial organization was finally settled; and an ample charter gave the West India Company almost unlimited powers to colonize, govern, and defend New Netherland."—J. R. Brodhead, *History of the State of New York*, v. 1, ch. 2-3.

1615-1664.—Relations of Dutch and Indians. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests and wide dominion.

1620.—Embraced in English patent of Council for New England. See NEW ENGLAND: 1620-1623.

1621-1646.—Dutch West India Company.—Purchase of Manhattan island.—Patroons and their colonies.—"When it became evident that the war [of the United Provinces] with Spain would be renewed, the way was opened for the charter of a company, so often asked and denied. Just before the expiration of the twelve years' truce, April, 1621, the great West India Company was formed, and incorporated by the States General. It was clothed with extraordinary powers and privileges. It could make alliances and treaties, declare war and make peace. Although its field of operations was limited to Africa, the West India Islands, and the continent of America, it could in case of war fight the Spaniards wherever found on land or sea. And finally, it was permitted to colonize unoccupied or subjugated countries. To it especially were committed the care and the colonization of New Netherland. The West India Company, after completing its organization in 1623, began its work in New Netherland by erecting a fort on Manhattan Island [called Fort Amsterdam], and another on the Delaware, and by reconstructing the one at Albany. It sent over to be distributed in these places 30 families, not strictly as colonists, to settle and cultivate the land, but rather as servants of the Company in charge of their factories, engaged in the purchase and preparation of furs and peltries for shipment. Some of them returned home at the expiration of their term of service, and no other colonists were brought out for several years. The Company found more profitable employment for its capital in fitting out fleets of ships of war, which captured the Spanish treasure-ships, and thus enabled the Company to pay large dividends to its stockholders. In 1626 its agents bought all Manhattan Island of the Indian owners for sixty guilders [twenty-four dollars] in goods on which an enormous profit was made; and about the same time they purchased other tracts of land in the vicinity, including Governor's and Staten Islands, on similar terms. The Company was now possessed of lands enough for the accommodation of a large population. They were fertile, and only needed farmers to develop their richness. But these did not come. . . . Accordingly, in 1620, the managers took up a new line of action. They enacted a statute, termed 'Freedoms and Exemptions,' which authorized the establishment of colonies within their territory by individuals, who were to be known as Patroons, or Patrons. An individual might purchase of the Indian owners a tract of land, on which to plant a colony of fifty souls within four years from the date of purchase. He who established such a colony might associate with himself other persons to assist him in his work, and share the profits,

but he should be considered the Patroon, or chief, in whom were centred all the rights pertaining to the position, such as the administration of justice, the appointment of civil and military officers, the settlement of clergymen, and the like. He was a kind of feudal lord, owing allegiance to the West India Company, and to the States General, but independent of control within the limits of his own territory. The system was a modified relic of feudalism. The colonists were not serfs, but tenants for a specified term of years, rendering service to the Patroon for a consideration. When their term of service expired, they were free to renew the contract, make a new one, or leave the colony altogether. The privileges of a Patroon at first were restricted to the members of the company, but in about ten years were extended to others. The directors of the company were the first to improve the opportunity now offered of becoming 'princes and potentates' in the western hemisphere. . . . In 1630, the agents of Director Killian Van Rensselaer bought a large tract of land on the west side of the Hudson River below Albany, and in July following other tracts on both sides of the river, including the present site of Albany. In July, 1630, Director Michael Pauw bought lands on the west side of the Hudson opposite Manhattan Island, and named his territory Pavonia. A few months later Staten Island was transferred to him, and became a part of his domain. . . . Killian Van Rensselaer also formed a partnership with several of his brother directors, among whom was the historian De Laet, for the purpose of planting a colony on his lands on the upper Hudson, to be known as the colony of Rensselaerwyck. He seems to have had a clearer perception of what was required for such a work than the other Patroons. The colony was organized in accordance with the charter, and on business principles. Before the colonists left Holland they were assigned to specific places and duties. Civil and military officers were appointed, superintendents and overseers of the various departments were selected, and all were instructed in their duties. The number of the first colonists was respectable. They were chiefly farmers and mechanics, with their families. On their arrival, May, 1630, farms situated on either side of the river were allotted to them, utensils and stock distributed, houses built, and arrangements made for their safety in case the natives should become hostile. Order was maintained, and individual rights respected. They were not long in settling down, each to his allotted work. Year by year new colonists arrived, and more lands were bought for the proprietors. In 1646, when Killian Van Rensselaer, the first Patroon, died, over two hundred colonists had been sent from Holland, and a territory forty-eight by twenty-four miles, besides another tract of 62,000 acres, had been acquired. The West India Company had changed its policy under the direction of new men, and no longer favored the Patroons. The Van Rensselaers were much annoyed, and even persecuted, but they held firmly to their rights under the charter. Their colony was prosperous, and their estate in time became enormous. . . . Of all the Patroon colonies Rensselaerwyck alone survived. It owed its existence mainly to its management, but largely to its situation, remote from the seat of government, and convenient for the Indian trade."—G. W. Schuyler, *Colonial New York*, introduction, sect. 1.—See also LIVINGSTON MANOR.

Also in: I. Elting, *Dutch village communities on the Hudson*, pp. 12-16.—J. R. Brodhead, *History of the State of New York*, v. 1, ch. 7.

1629-1631.—Dutch occupancy of the Delaware. See DELAWARE: 1629-1631.

1630.—Introduction of public registry. See COMMON LAW: 1630-1641.

1634.—New Amsterdam.—Soon after the appointment of Wouter Van Twiller, who became governor of New Netherland in 1633, "the little town on Manhattan Island received the name of New Amsterdam . . . and was invested with the prerogative of 'staple right,' by virtue of which all the merchandise passing up and down the river was subject to certain duties. This right gave the post the commercial monopoly of the whole province."—Mrs. M. J. Lamb, *History of the City of New York*, v. 1, p. 73.

1634-1635.—Dutch advance posts on the Connecticut. See CONNECTICUT: 1634-1637.

1635.—Territory granted to Lord Lennox and Lord Mulgrave, on dissolution of Council for New England. See NEW ENGLAND: 1635.

1638.—Protest against Swedish settlement on the Delaware. See DELAWARE: 1638-1640.

1638-1647.—Colony open to free immigration.—Free trade.—Kieft's administration.—Ruinous Indian wars.—"The colony did not thrive. The patroon system kept settlers away, and the paternal government of a trading corporation checked all vigorous and independent growth, while Van Twiller [Wouter Van Twiller, appointed governor in 1633] went steadily from bad to worse. He engaged in childish quarrels with every one, from the minister down. . . . This utter mis-government led at last to Van Twiller's removal. He retired in possession of large tracts of land, which he had succeeded in acquiring, and was replaced [1638] by William Kieft, a bankrupt merchant of bad reputation. Kieft practically abolished the Council, and got all power into his own hands; but he had some sense of order. . . . Despite his improvements, the place remained a mere trading-post, and would not develop into a colony. The patroons were the curse of the scheme, and too powerful to be overthrown; so they proposed, as a remedy for the existing evils, that their powers and privileges should be greatly enlarged. The Company had bought back some of the lands; but they were still helpless, and the State would do nothing for them. In this crisis they had a return of good sense, and solved the problem by destroying their stifling monopoly. They threw the trade to New Netherlands open to all comers, and promised the absolute ownership of land on the payment of a small quit-rent. The gates were open at last, and the tide of emigration swept in. De Vries who had bought land on Staten Island, came out with a company; while ship followed ship filled with colonists, and English came from Virginia, and still more from New England. Men of property and standing began to turn their attention to the New Netherlands; fine well-stocked farms rapidly covered Manhattan, and healthy progress had at last begun. Thus strengthened, the Company [1640] restricted the patroons to a waterfront of one mile and a depth of two, but left them their feudal privileges, benefits which practically accrued to Van Rensselaer, whose colony at Beverwyck had alone, among the manors, thriven and grown at the expense of the Company. The opening of trade proved in one respect a disaster. The cautious policy of the Company was abandoned, and greedy traders who had already begun the business, and were now wholly unrestrained, hastened to make their fortunes by selling arms to the Indians in return for almost unlimited quantities of furs. Thus the Mohawks obtained guns enough to threaten both the Dutch and all the

surrounding tribes, and this perilous condition was made infinitely worse by the mad policy of Kieft. He first tried to exact tribute from the Indians near Manhattan, then offered a price for the head of any of the Raritans who had destroyed the settlement of De Vries; and, when a young man was murdered by a Weckquaesgeek, the Governor planned immediate war." Public opinion among the colonists condemned the measures of Kieft, and forced him to accept a council of twelve select men, chosen at a public meeting; but "the twelve," as they were called, failed to control the governor. Acting on the advice of two or three among them, whose support he had secured, he ordered a cowardly attack upon some fugitive Indians from the River tribes, who had been driven into the settlements by the onslaught of the Mohawks, and whom De Vries and others were trying to protect. "The wretched fugitives, surprised by their supposed protectors, were butchered in the dead of a winter's night [1643], without mercy, and the bloody soldiers returned in the morning to Manhattan, where they were warmly welcomed by Kieft. This massacre lighted up at once the flames of war among all the neighboring tribes of Algonquins. All the outlying farms were laid waste, and their owners murdered, while the smaller settlements were destroyed. Vriesendael alone was spared. A peace, patched up by De Vries, gave a respite until summer, and the war raged more fiercely than before, the Indians burning and destroying in every direction, while trade was broken up and the crews of the vessels slaughtered." Kieft's life was now in danger from the rage of his own people, and eight men, appointed by public meeting, took control of public affairs, as far as it was possible to do so. Under the command of John Underhill, the Connecticut Indian fighter, who had lately migrated to Manhattan, the war was prosecuted with great vigor and success on Long Island and against the Connecticut Indians who had joined in it; but little headway was made against the tribes on the Hudson, who harassed and ruined the colony. Thus matters went badly for a long period, until, in 1647, the Company in Holland sent out Peter Stuyvesant to take the place of Kieft. "In the interval, the Indian tribes, weary at last of war, came in and made peace. Kieft continued his quarrels; but his power was gone, and he was hated as the principal cause of all the misfortunes of the colony. The results of his miserable administration were certainly disastrous enough. Sixteen hundred Indians had perished in the war; but all the outlying Dutch settlements and farms had been destroyed, and the prosperity of the colony had received a check from which it recovered very slowly. In Connecticut, the English had left the Dutch merely a nominal hold, and had really destroyed their power in the East. On the South River [the Delaware] the Swedes had settled, and, disregarding Kieft's blustering proclamations, had founded strong and growing colonies. . . . The interests of Holland were at a low ebb."—H. C. Lodge, *Short history of the English colonies*, ch. 16.—A more favorable view of Kieft and his administration is taken by Mr. Gerard, who says: "Few proconsuls had a more arduous task in the administration of the government of a province than bad Director Kieft. . . . Kieft, in a far distant province, with a handful of soldiers crowded in a dilapidated fort and a few citizens turbulent and unreliable surrounded on all sides by savages ever on the alert for rapine and murder, receiving little support from the home government, and having a large territory to defend

and two civilized races to contend with, passed the eight years of his administration amid turmoil and dissension within, and such hostile attack from without as to keep the province in continuous peril. . . . He has been generally condemned, but without sufficient consideration of the trials which he experienced, the anxiety to which he was subject, and the perplexities incident to a government over discontented, ignorant and mutinous subjects, and to the continued apprehension of outside attack. Left mostly to his own resources, and receiving no sympathy and little aid, his motives the subject of attack from both tavern and pulpit, and twice the object of attempted assassination, his rule as a whole, though disastrous, was not dishonorable."—J. W. Gerard, *Administration of William Kieft (Memorial history of the City of New York, v. 1, ch. 6)*.

ALSO IN: E. B. O'Callaghan, *History of New Netherland, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 7, bk. 3, ch. 1-0*.

1640-1643.—Expulsion of New Haven colonists from the Delaware. See NEW JERSEY: 1640-1655.

1647-1664.—Peter Stuyvesant and his administration.—Peter Stuyvesant, the director or governor who succeeded Kieft, "took possession of the government on the 11th of May, 1647. On his arrival he was greeted with a hearty and cordial reception by the citizens, to which he responded by reciprocal professions of interest and regard. He had for several years been in the Company's service as Director of their colony at Curaçoa, and was distinguished for his energy and bravery. Having lost a leg in an attack on the Portuguese settlement at St. Martin's, he had been obliged to return to Europe for surgical aid, whence, still retaining his former commission, he was sent to the charge of the Province of New Netherlands. Immediately on his accession he organized a representative Council of nine members from a list of eighteen presented to him by the inhabitants of the province, and gave his assent to various important provisions for the regulation of trade and commerce. By a conciliatory and just treatment of the Indians so recently in revolt he speedily gained their affection and goodwill, and by his judicious measures for their mutual protection restored peace and harmony among all classes."—S. S. Randall, *History of the State of New York, period 2, ch. 5*.—"The powers of government—executive, legislative, and judicial—which he [Stuyvesant] assumed, were quite extensive, and often arbitrary. Directly or indirectly, he appointed and commissioned all public officers, framed all laws, and decided all important controversies. . . . He directed churches to be built, installed ministers, and even ordered them when and where to preach. Assuming the sole control of the public lands, he extinguished the Indian title thereto, and allowed no purchase to be made from the natives without his sanction; and granted at pleasure, to individuals and companies, parcels of land, subject to such conditions as he saw fit to impose. In the management of these complicated affairs the Director developed a certain imperiousness of manner and impatience of restraint, due, perhaps, as much to his previous military life as to his personal character. . . . During the whole of his predecessor's unquiet rule a constant struggle had been going on between the personal prerogative of the Executive and the inherent sentiment of popular freedom which prevailed among the commonalty, leading the latter constantly to seek for themselves the franchises and freedoms of the Fatherland, to which, as loyal subjects, they deemed themselves entitled in New

Netherland. The contest was reopened soon after Stuyvesant's installation, and the firmness of both Director and people, in the maintenance of what each jealously considered their rights, gave indication of serious disturbance to the public weal." The governor, at length, in 1647, conceded "a popular representation in the affairs of government. An election was therefore held, at which the inhabitants of Amsterdam, Breuckelen, Amersfoort and Pavonia chose eighteen of 'the most notable, reasonable, honest, and respectable' among them, from whom, according to the custom of the Fatherland, the Director and Council selected 'Nine Men' as an advisory Council; and although their powers and duties were jealously limited and guarded by the Director's Proclamation, yet the appointment of the Nine Men was a considerable gain to the cause of popular rights. . . . The subsequent history of Stuyvesant's government is a record of quarrels with colonial patrons, with the English in New England, the



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Swedes on the South River, and last—not least—with his own people. In fact, the government was by no means well adapted to the people or adequate to protect them. The laws were very imperfect, and the Director and Council either incompetent or indisposed to remedy the serious defects which existed in the administration of civil and criminal justice."—H. R. Stiles, *History of the City of Brooklyn, v. 1, ch. 3*.—"Director Stuyvesant was recalled to Europe soon after the surrender [to the English (see below)], to vindicate his conduct . . . and . . . found himself the object of serious charges and most virulent attacks. He returned to this country in 1668, and died on his *houwerie* in 1672. . . . Throughout his chequered life he exhibited a character of high morality, and in his dealings with the Indians an energetic and dignified deportment, which contributed, no doubt, considerably to the success of his arms and policy. Alike creditable to his talents are his negotiations with the neighboring English colonies. His vindications of the rights of his country, on these occasions, betoken a firmness of manner, a sharpness of perception, a clearness of

argument and a soundness of judgment, combined with an extent of reading, which few of his contemporaries could equal, and none surpass. . . . It would afford pleasure were we justified in pronouncing a like panegyric on other parts of his administration; but none can review [his arbitrary resistance to just popular demands] . . . and his persecution of the Lutherans and other Nonconformists, without reprobating his tyranny, and regretting that a character, so faultless in other respects, should be stained by traits so repulsive as these, and that the powers of a mind so strong should be exerted in opposing rather than promoting civil and religious freedom. The hostility this part of his public conduct evoked redounds most creditably to the character of the settlers, whose struggles for freer institutions cannot fail to win for them our sympathy and regard."—E. B. O'Callaghan, *History of New Netherland*. v. 2, bk. 6, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: G. P. Fisher, *Colonial era*, ch. 6.—B. Fernow, *Peter Stuyvesant (Memorial history of the City of New York)*, v. 1, ch. 7).

1650.—Adjustment of boundaries with Connecticut.—To settle the long pending controversy between Dutch and English respecting the territory claimed by each on Long Island and at the mouth of the Connecticut river, Governor Stuyvesant went in person to Hartford, September, 1650, and opened negotiations. His hands were tied from the beginning by instructions from his company to press no claim to the extremity of a quarrel, because the English were too strong in America to be fought with. He assented, therefore, to the appointment of two arbitrators on each side, and he named Englishmen as his arbitrators. "The four agreed upon a settlement of the boundary matter, ignoring all other points in dispute as having occurred under the administration of Kieft. It was agreed that the Dutch were to retain their lands, in Hartford [the post of 'Good Hope,' established in 1633, and which they had continued to hold, in the midst of the spreading English settlement]; that the boundary line between the two peoples on the mainland was not to come within ten miles of the Hudson River, but was to be left undecided for the present, except the first 20 miles from the Sound, which was to begin on the west side of Greenwich Bay, between Stamford and Manhattan, running thence 20 miles north; and that Long Island should be divided by a corresponding line across it, 'from the westernmost part of Oyster Bay,' to the sea. The English thus got the greater part of Long Island, a recognition of the rightfulness of their presence in the Connecticut territory, and at least the initial 20 miles of a boundary line which must, in the nature of things, be prolonged in much the same direction, and which in fact has pretty closely governed subsequent boundary lines on that side of Connecticut. If these seem hard terms for the Dutch, and indicative of treachery on the part of their two English agents, it must be borne in mind that, by the terms of his instructions from his principals, Stuyvesant had to take the best terms he could get. The treaty of Hartford was dated September 10, 1650."—A. Johnston, *Connecticut (American commonwealths)*, ch. 10).

ALSO IN: E. B. O'Callaghan, *History of New Netherland*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 1-9.—C. W. Bowen, *Boundary disputes of Connecticut*, pt. 1, ch. 1.—*Division of the boundary in America* (T. R. Broadhead, ed., *Documents relative to colonial history of New York*, v. 1, pp. 541-577).

1653.—Grant of municipal government to New Amsterdam.—"An interesting moment arrived. A

new city appeared in the annals of the world. Its birth was announced on the evening of February 2, 1653, at the feast of Candlemas. A proclamation of the governor defined its exceedingly limited powers and named its first officers. It was called New Amsterdam. There was nothing in the significant scene which inspired enthusiasm. It came like a favor grudgingly granted. Its privileges were few, and even those were subsequently hampered by the most illiberal interpretations which could be devised. Stuyvesant made a speech on the occasion, in which he took care to reveal his intention of making all future municipal appointments, instead of submitting the matter to the votes of the citizens, as was the custom in the Fatherland; and he gave the officers distinctly to understand, from the first, that their existence did not in any way diminish his authority, but that he should often preside at their meetings, and at all times counsel them in matters of importance. . . . A pew was set apart in the church for the City Fathers; and on Sunday mornings these worthies left their homes and families early to meet in the City Hall, from which, preceded by the bell-ringer, carrying their cushions of state, they marched in solemn procession to the sanctuary in the fort. On all occasions of ceremony, secular or religious, they were treated with distinguished attention. Their position was eminently respectable, but it had as yet no emoluments. . . . There were two burgomasters, Arent van Hattam and Martin Cregier. . . . There were five schepens,—Paulus Van der Grist, Maximilian Van Gheel, Allard Anthony, Peter Van Couvenhoven, and William Beekman."—Mrs. M. J. Lamb, *History of the City of New York*, v. 1, ch. 10.

ALSO IN: D. T. Valentine, *History of the City of New York*, ch. 5.

1654.—Threatened attack from New England. See NEW JERSEY: 1640-1655.

1655.—Subjugation of Swedes on the Delaware. See DELAWARE: 1640-1656.

1664.—English conquest.—New Amsterdam becomes New York.—The Navigation Act of Cromwell, maintained by the English after the Stuart Restoration, was continually evaded, almost openly, in the British American colonies; and it was with the Dutch at New Amsterdam that the illicit trade of the New Englanders, the Virginians and the Marylanders was principally carried on. "In 1663 the losses to the revenue were so extensive that the farmers of the customs . . . complained of the great abuses which, they claimed, defrauded the revenue of £10,000 a year. The interest of the kingdom was at stake, and the conquest of the New Netherland was resolved upon. . . . The next concern of the Chancellor [Clarendon] was to secure to the Crown the full benefit of the proposed conquest. He was as little satisfied with the self-rule of the New England colonies as with the presence of Dutch sovereignty on American soil; and in the conquest of the foreigner he found the means to bring the English subject into closer dependence on the King. James, Duke of York, Grand Admiral, was the heir to the Crown. . . . A patent to James as presumptive heir to the crown, from the King his brother, would merge in the crown; and a central authority strongly established over the territory covered by it might well, under favorable circumstances, be extended over the colonies on either side which were governed under limitations and with privileges directly secured by charter from the King. . . . The first step taken by Clarendon was the purchase of the title conveyed to the Earl of Stirling in 1635 by the grantees of the New England patent. This covered

the territory of Pemaquid, between the Saint Croix and the Kennebec, in Maine, and the island of Matowack, or Long Island. . . . A title being thus acquired by the adroitness of Clarendon, a patent was, on the 12th of March, 1664, issued by Charles II. to the Duke of York, granting him the Maine territory of Pemaquid, all the islands between Cape Cod and the Narrows, the Hudson River, and all the lands from the west side of the Connecticut to the east side of Delaware Bay, together with the islands of Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket. The inland boundary was 'a line from the head of Connecticut River to the source of Hudson River, thence to the head of the Mohawk branch of Hudson River, and thence to the east side of Delaware Bay.' The patent gave to the Duke of York, his heirs, deputies, and assigns, 'absolute power to govern within this domain according to his own rules and discretions consistent with the statutes of England.' In this patent the charter granted by the King to the younger John Winthrop in 1662 for Connecticut, in which it was stipulated that commissioners should be sent to New England to settle the boundaries of each colony, was entirely disregarded. The idea of commissioners for boundaries now developed with larger scope, and the King established a royal commission, consisting of four persons recommended by the Duke of York, whose private instructions were to reduce the Dutch to submission and to increase the prerogatives of the Crown in the New England colonies, which Clarendon considered to be 'already well-nigh ripened to a commonwealth.' Three of these commissioners were officers in the royal army.—Colonel Richard Nicolls, Sir Robert Carr, Colonel George Cartwright. The fourth was Samuel Maverick. . . . To Colonel Nicolls the Duke of York entrusted the charge of taking possession of and governing the vast territory covered by the King's patent. To one more capable and worthy the delicate trust could not have been confided. . . . His title under the new commission was that of Deputy-Governor; the tenure of his office, the Duke's pleasure. . . . When the news of the gathering of the fleet reached the Hague, and explanation was demanded of Downing [the English ambassador] as to the truth of the reports that it was intended for the reduction of the New Netherland, he boldly insisted on the English right to the territory by first possession. To a claim so flimsy and impudent only one response was possible,—a declaration of war. But the Dutch people at large had little interest in the remote settlement, which was held to be a trading-post rather than a colony, and not a profitable post at best. The West India Company saw the danger of the situation, but its appeals for assistance were disregarded. Its own resources and credit were unequal to the task of defence. Meanwhile the English fleet, composed of one ship of 36, one of 30, a third of 16, and a transport of 10 guns, with three full companies of the King's veterans,—in all 450 men, commanded by Colonels Nicolls, Carr, and Cartwright,—sailed from Portsmouth for Gardiner's Bay on the 15th of May. On the 23d of July Nicolls and Cartwright reached Boston, where they demanded military aid from the Governor and Council of the Colony. Calling upon Winthrop for the assistance of Connecticut, and appointing a rendezvous at the west end of Long Island, Nicolls set sail with his ships and anchored in New Utrecht Bay, just outside of Coney Island, a spot since historical as the landing-place of Lord Howe's troops in 1776. Here Nicolls was joined by militia from New Haven and Long Island. The city of New Amsterdam . . . was

defenceless. The Director, Stuyvesant, heard of the approach of the English at Fort Orange (Albany), whither he had gone to quell disturbances with the Indians. Returning in haste, he summoned his council together. The folly of resistance was apparent to all, and after delays, by which the Director-General sought to save something of his dignity, a commission for a surrender was agreed upon between the Dutch authorities and Colonel Nicolls. The capitulation confirmed the inhabitants in the possession of their property, the exercise of their religion, and their freedom as citizens. The municipal officers were continued in their rule. On the 29th of August, 1664, the articles were ratified . . . and the city passed under English rule. The first act of Nicolls on taking possession of the fort, in which he was welcomed by the civic authorities, was to order that the city of New Amsterdam be thereafter known as New York, and the fort as Fort James, in honor of the title and name of his lord and patron. At the time of the surrender the city gave small promise of its magnificent future. Its entire population, which did not exceed 1,500 souls, was housed within the triangle at the point of the island. . . . Nicolls now established a new government for the province. A force was sent up the Hudson under Captain Cartwright, which took possession of Fort Orange, the name of which was changed to Albany, in honor of a title of the Duke of York."—J. A. Stevens, *English in New York (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 3, ch. 10)*.—See also MASSACHUSETTS: 1660-1665.

ALSO IN: J. R. Brodhead, *History of New York, v. 1, ch. 20*.—J. R. Brodhead, ed., *Documents relative to colonial history of New York, v. 2-3*.

1664.—Separation of New Jersey, by grant to Berkeley and Carteret. See NEW JERSEY: 1664-1667.

1664.—Annexation of Delaware settlements. See DELAWARE: 1664.

1664-1674.—Province as the English received it.—Dutch institutions.—"In the year 1664, when the government passed to the English, New Netherland is said by the Chevalier Lambrechtsen to have consisted of three cities and thirty villages. Its population was then about ten thousand souls, exclusive of the Indians, who were important auxiliaries for trade and peltries. The inhabitants enjoyed a fair measure of freedom and protection. High roads already existed, and there were numerous owners of flourishing farms, or bouweries, and other real property, while urban life was well policed by proper laws. The treatment by the Dutch of the many English and other aliens who already dwelt within the Dutch territory was rather in advance of the age, while the jurisprudence established here by the Dutch, being largely borrowed from the high civilization of Rome, was certainly superior in refinement to the contemporary feudal and folk law introduced by the English in 1664. Theoretically, the administration of justice conformed to a high standard, and both Dutch and aliens were protected by adequate constitutional guaranties. We cannot for an instant presume that the institutions which half a century had reared were swept into oblivion by a single stroke of the English conquerors in 1664. It would be more rational to suppose that the subsidence of the Dutch institutions was as gradual as the facts demonstrate it to have been. Negro slavery was introduced by the Dutch, but it existed here only under its least objectionable conditions. A large measure of religious liberty was tolerated, although the Dutch Reformed Church was the only one publicly sanctioned. . . . New Netherland

was not altogether fortunate in its type of government, experience demonstrating that the selfish spirit of a mercantile monopoly is not the fit repository of governmental powers. Yet, on the whole, it must be conceded that the company's government introduced here much that was good and accomplished little that was pernicious. In 1664 it certainly surrendered to the English one of the finest and most flourishing colonies of America, possessing a hardy, vigorous, and thrifty people, well adapted to all the principles of civil and religious freedom. History shows that this people speedily coalesced with all that was good in the system introduced by the English, and sturdily opposed all that was undesirable. . . . It is certain . . . that after the overthrow of the Dutch political authority the English proceeded gradually to introduce into New York, by express command, their own laws and customs. Yet it requires a very much more extended examination of original sources than has ever been made to determine absolutely just how much of the English laws and institutions was in force at a particular epoch of colonial history. The subject perplexed the colonial courts, and it is still perplexing."—R. L. Fowler, *Constitutional and legal history of New York in the seventeenth century (Memorial history of the City of New York, v. 1, ch. 14)*.—"Although the New Netherland became a permanent English colony under the Treaty of Westminster in 1674 [see below], its population remained largely Dutch until nearly the middle of the next century. The prosperity of New York, growing steadily with the progress of trade and the exportation of grains, attracted emigrants from Holland notwithstanding the change of flag. Many families now living on Manhattan Island are descended from Dutchmen who came out after the English occupation. The old names with which we have become familiar in the early annals of New Amsterdam continue in positions of honour and prominence through the English colonial records. . . . During the last half of the eighteenth century the Dutch names are more and more crowded out by the English. . . . By the beginning of the nineteenth century, the Dutch names occur only occasionally. These Dutchmen not only preserved their leadership in public affairs, but carried on a large proportion of the city's trade. New York was an English colony, but its greatness was largely built on Dutch foundations. It is often said that the city became flourishing only after the English occupation. This is true, with the qualification that the Dutch trader and the Dutch farmer after that event had greater opportunities for successful activity. . . . Dutch continued to be the language of New York until the end of the seventeenth century, after which time English contended for the mastery with steady success. In the outlying towns of Long Island and New Jersey and along the Hudson River, Dutch was generally used for a century later. . . . In New York city the large English immigration, the requirements of commerce, and the frequent intermarriages of Dutch and English families had given to English the predominance by the year 1750."—B. Tuckerman, *Peter Stuyvesant, ch. 4*.—See also AMERICA: Map of early colonial grants.

1665.—Duke's laws.—"At a general meeting held at Hempstead, on Long Island [March 1, 1665], attended by deputies from all the towns, Governor Nichols presently published, on his own and the duke's authority, a body of laws for the government of the new province, alphabetically arranged, collated, and digested, 'out of the several laws now in force in his majesty's American colonies and

plantations,' exhibiting indeed, many traces of Connecticut and Massachusetts legislation. . . . The code [was] known as the 'Duke's Laws,' which Nichols imagined 'could not but be satisfactory even to the most factious Republicans.' A considerable number of immigrants seem to have come in on the strength of it from the neighboring colonies of New England."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States, v. 2, ch. 17*.

Also in: *Duke of York's book of laws* (compiled and edited by S. George, *et al.*).

1665-1666.—French invasions of Iroquois country, under Courcelles and Tracy. See CANADA: 1640-1700.

1673.—Reconquest of city and province by the Dutch.—The seizure of New Netherland by the English in 1664 was one of several acts of hostility which preceded an actual declaration of war between England and Holland. The war became formal, however, in the following year, and ended in 1666, ingloriously for England (see NETHERLANDS: 1665-1666), although she retained her American conquests. Then followed a period of hypocritical alliance on the part of Charles II with the Dutch, which gave him an opportunity to betray them in 1672, when he joined Louis XIV of France in a perfidious attack upon the sturdy republic. (See NETHERLANDS: 1672-1674.) During the second year of this last mentioned war, Cornelis Evertsen, worthy son of a famous Dutch admiral, made an unexpected reconquest of the lost province. Evertsen "had been sent out from Zealand with fifteen ships to harass the enemy in the West Indies, which was effectually done. At Martinico he fell in with four ships dispatched from Amsterdam, under the command of Jacob Binckes. Joining their forces, the two commodores followed Krynssen's track to the Chesapeake, where they took eight and burned five Virginia tobacco ships, in spite of the gallantry of the frigates which were to convoy them to England. As they were going out of the James River, the Dutch commodores met a sloop from New York," and received information from one of its passengers which satisfied them that they might easily take possession of the town. "In a few days [August 7, 1673] the Dutch fleet, which with three ships of war from Amsterdam, and four from Zealand, was now swelled by prizes to 23 vessels, carrying 1,600 men, arrived off Sandy Hook. The next morning they anchored under Staten Island." On the following day the city, which could make no defense, and all the Dutch inhabitants of which were eager to welcome their countrymen, was unconditionally surrendered. "The recovery of New York by the Dutch was an absolute conquest by an open enemy in time of war. . . . 'Not the smallest' article of capitulation except military honors to the garrison, was granted by the victors. . . . Their reconquest annihilated British sovereignty over ancient New Netherland, and extinguished the duke's proprietary government in New York, with that of his grantees in New Jersey. Evertsen and Binckes for the time represented the Dutch Republic, under the dominion of which its recovered American provinces instantly passed, by right of successful war. The effete West India Company was in no way connected with the transaction. . . . The name of 'New Netherland' was of course restored to the reconquered territory, which was held to embrace not only all that the Dutch possessed according to the Hartford agreement of 1650, but also the whole of Long Island east of Oyster Bay, which originally belonged to the province and which the king had granted to the Duke of York. . . . It was,

first of all, necessary to extemporize a provisional government. No orders had been given to Evertsen or Binckes about New Netherland. Its recovery was a lucky accident, wholly due to the enterprise of the two commodores; upon whom fell the responsibility of governing their conquest until directions should come from the Hague." They appointed Captain Anthony Colve to be Governor General of the Province. "Colve's commission described his government as extending from 15 miles south of Cape Henlopen to the east end of Long Island and Shelter Island, thence through the middle of the Sound to Greenwich, and so northerly, according to the boundary made in 1650, including Delaware Bay and all the intermediate territory, as possessed by the English under the Duke of York. . . . The name of the city of New York was . . . changed to 'New Orange,' in compliment to the prince stadtholder. . . . The metropolis being secured, 200 men were sent up the river, in several vessels, to reduce Esopus and Albany. No opposition was shown." Albany was ordered to be called Willemstadt.—J. R. Brodhead, *History of the State of New York*, v. 2, ch. 4-5.

ALSO IN: Mrs. M. J. Lamb, *History of the City of New York*, v. 1, ch. 14-15.—J. R. Brodhead, ed., *Documents relative to colonial history of New York*, v. 2.

1674.—Restored to England by Treaty of Westminster. See NETHERLANDS: 1674.

1674-1675.—Long Island and part of Connecticut annexed. See CONNECTICUT: 1674-1675.

1678-1780. Transition from Dutch to English government. See U. S. A.: 1678-1780.

1684.—Doubtful origin of English claims to sovereignty of Iroquois country.—"Colonel Dongan [governor of New York] was instrumental in procuring a convention of the Five Nations, at Albany, in 1684, to meet Lord Howard of Effingham, Governor of Virginia, at which he (Dongan) was likewise present. This meeting, or council, was attended by the happiest results. . . . Colonel Dongan succeeded in completely gaining the affections of the Indians, who conceived for him the warmest esteem. They even asked that the arms of the Duke of York might be put upon their castles;—a request which it need not be said was most readily complied with, since, should it afterwards become necessary, the governor might find it convenient to construe it into an act of at least partial submission to English authority, although it has been asserted that the Indians themselves looked upon the ducal insignia as a sort of charm, that might protect them against the French."—W. L. Stone, *Life and times of Sir W. Johnson*, v. 1, p. 15.

1684-1687.—French invasions of Iroquois country under De La Barre and De Nonville. See CANADA: 1640-1700.

1686.—Dongan charter.—"The year 1686 was distinguished by the granting of the 'Dongan Charter' to the city of New York. It was drafted by Mayor Nicholas Bayard and Recorder James Graham, and was one of the most liberal ever bestowed upon a colonial city. By it, sources of immediate income became vested in the corporation. Subsequent charters added nothing to the city property, save in the matter of ferry rights, in immediate reference to which the charters of 1708 and 1730 were obtained. . . . The instrument was the basis of a plan of government for a great city."—Mrs. M. J. Lamb, *History of the City of New York*, v. 1, p. 317.

ALSO IN: M. Benjamin, *Thomas Dongan and the granting of the New York charter (Memorial history of the City of New York*, v. 1, ch. 11).

1688.—Governorship of Sir Edmund Andros.—In April, 1688, Sir Edmund Andros, who had been made Governor-general of all New England in 1686, received a new commission from the King which "constituted him Governor of all the English possessions on the mainland of America, except Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia. The 'Territory and Dominion' of New England was now to embrace the country between the 40th degree of latitude and the River St. Croix, thus including New York and the Jerseys. The seat of government was to be at Boston; and a Deputy-Governor, to reside at New York, was to be the immediate head of the administration of that colony and of the Jerseys. The Governor was to be assisted by a Council consisting of 42 members, of whom five were to constitute a quorum. . . . The Governor in Council might impose and collect taxes for the support of the government, and might pass laws, which however were, within three



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months of their enactment, to be sent over to the Privy Council for approval or repeal. . . . The seal of New York was to be broken, and the seal of New England to be used for the whole jurisdiction. Liberty of conscience was to be allowed, agreeably to the Declaration of Indulgence."—J. G. Palfrey, *Compendius history of New England*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 14.—See also NEW JERSEY: 1688-1738; U. S. A.: 1686-1680.

ALSO IN: Mrs. M. J. Lamb, *History of the City of New York*, v. 1, ch. 18.—J. R. Brodhead, ed., *Documents relative to colonial history of New York*, v. 3, pp. 537-554.

1689-1691.—English revolution.—Jacob Leisler.—Governor Slaughter.—News of the revolution in England which drove James II. from the throne, giving it to his daughter, Mary, and her husband, William of Orange, reached New York, from Virginia, in February, 1680, but was concealed as long as possible from the public by Lieutenant-Governor Nicholson. No disturbance of the authority of the latter occurred until after the people of Boston had risen, in April, and seized the Governor-General, Sir Edmund Andros, stripping his

authority from him and casting him into prison. (See MASSACHUSETTS: 1686-1689.) This spirited movement was followed a little later by like action in New York. Two parties had quickly taken form, "one composed of the adherents of James, the other of the friends of William and Mary. The former embraced the aristocratic citizens, including Nicholas Bayard, the commander of the city militia, the members of the council, and the municipal authorities. The friends of the new monarchs formed a large majority of the citizens. They maintained that the entire fabric of the imperial government, including that of the colonies, had been overthrown by the revolution, and that, as no person was invested with authority in the province, it reverted to the legitimate source of all authority—the people—who might delegate their powers to whomsoever they would. Among the principal supporters of this view was Jacob Leisler, a German by birth, a merchant, the senior captain of one of the five train-bands of the city commanded by Colonel Bayard, and one of the oldest and wealthiest inhabitants. . . . He was a zealous opponent of the Roman Catholics, and a man of great energy and determination. . . . Rumors of terrible things contemplated by the adherents of James spread over the town, and produced great excitement. The five companies of militia and a crowd of citizens gathered at the house of Leisler, and induced him to become their leader and guide in this emergency. Colonel Bayard attempted to disperse them, but he was compelled to fly for his life. A distinct line was now drawn between the 'aristocrats,' led by Bayard, Van Cortlandt, Robert Livingston, and others, and the 'democrats'—the majority of the people—who regarded Leisler as their leader and champion. At his suggestion a 'Committee of Safety' was formed, composed of ten members—Dutch, Huguenot, and English. They constituted Leisler 'Captain of the Fort,' and invested him with the powers of commander-in-chief—really chief magistrate—until orders should come from the new monarch. This was the first really republican ruler that ever attained to power in America. He took possession of Fort James and the public funds that were in it, and, in June, 1689, he proclaimed, with the sound of trumpets, William and Mary sovereigns of Great Britain and the colonies. Then he sent a letter to the king, giving him an account of what he had done." Lieutenant-Governor Nicholson made little attempt to assert his authority in the face of these demonstrations, but departed presently for England, "after formally giving authority to his councillors to preserve the peace during his absence, and until their Majesties' pleasure should be made known. . . . Nicholson's desertion of his post gave Leisler and the Republicans great advantages. He ordered the several counties of the province to elect their civil and military officers. Some counties obeyed, and others did not. The counter influence of Nicholson's councillors was continually and persistently felt, and Leisler and his party became greatly incensed against them, especially against Bayard, who was the chief instigator of the opposition to the 'usurper,' as he called the Republican leader. So hot became the indignation of Leisler and his friends that Bayard was compelled to fly for his life to Albany. The other councillors, alarmed, soon followed him. At Albany they acknowledged allegiance to William and Mary. They set up an independent government, and claimed to be the true and only rulers of the province. In this position they were sustained by the civil authorities at Albany." Leisler's son-in-law, Jacob Milborne, was sent with a force to take possession of their

seat of government, but failed to accomplish his mission. "Soon after this event a letter arrived at New York by a special messenger from the British Privy Council, directed to 'Francis Nicholson, Esq., or, in his absence, to such as, for the time being, take care for preserving the peace and administering the laws in His Majesty's province of New York.'" This letter was delivered by the messenger to Leisler. Bayard, who had come to the city in disguise, and attempted to secure the missive, was arrested and imprisoned. "From this time the opposition to Leisler's government assumed an organized shape, and was sleepless and relentless. Leisler justly regarding himself as invested with supreme power by the people and the spirit of the letter from the Privy Council, at once assumed the title of lieutenant-governor; appointed councillors; made a new provincial seal; established courts, and called an assembly to provide means for carrying on war with Canada. . . . Colonel Henry Slaughter was appointed Governor of New York, but did not arrive until the spring of 1691. Richard Ingoldsby, a captain of foot, arrived early in the year, with a company of regular soldiers, to take possession of and hold the government until the arrival of the governor. He was urged by Leisler's enemies to assume supreme power at once, as he was the highest royal officer in the province. He haughtily demanded of Leisler the surrender of the fort, without deigning to show the governor his credentials. Leisler, of course, refused, and ordered the troops to be quartered in the city. Ingoldsby attempted to take the fort by force, but failed. For several weeks the city was fearfully excited by rival factions—'Leislerians' and 'anti-Leislerians.' On the arrival of Governor Slaughter, in March (1691), Leisler at once loyally tendered to him the fort and the province. Under the influence of the enemies of Leisler, the royal governor responded to this meritorious action by ordering the arrest of the lieutenant-governor; also Milborne, and six other 'inferior insurgents,' . . . on a charge of high treason." The accused were tried, convicted and sentenced to be hanged; but all except Leisler and Milborne received pardon. These two appealed to the king; but the governor's councillors succeeded in suppressing the appeal. As Slaughter hesitated to sign the death-warrant, they intoxicated him at a dinner party and obtained his signature to the fatal document while his judgment was overcome. Before the drunken governor recovered his senses Jacob Leisler and Jacob Milborne had been hanged. "When the governor became sober, he was appalled at what he had done. He was so keenly stung by remorse and afflicted by delirium tremens that he died a few weeks afterward. Calm and impartial judgment, enlightened by truth, now assigns to Jacob Leisler the high position in history of a patriot and martyr."—B. J. Lossing, *Empire state*, ch. 8.—"The founder of the Democracy of New York was Jacob Leisler. . . . And Jacob Leisler was truly an honest man, who, though a martyr to the cause of liberty, and sacrificed by injustice, aristocracy, and party malignity, ought to be considered as one in whom New York should take pride—although the ancestors of many of her best men denounced him as a rebel and a traitor."—W. Dunlap, *History of the New Netherlands*, v. 1, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: C. F. Hoffman, *Administration of Jacob Leisler* (*Library of American Biographies*, series 2, v. 3).—*Papers relating to Lieutenant-Governor Leisler's administration* (O'Callaghan's *documentary history of New York*, v. 2).—*Documents relating to Leisler's administration* (*New York Historical Society Collections*, 1868).

1689-1697.—King William's War.—Schenectady massacre.—Abortive expedition against Montreal.—French plans of conquest. See CANADA: 1689-1690; 1692-1697; U.S.A.: 1690.

1690.—First Colonial Congress. See U.S.A.: 1690.

1692.—Bradford's press set up. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1692-1696; PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1685-1693.

1692.—Count Frontenac's invasion of Iroquois country. See CANADA: 1696.

1696-1749.—Suppression of colonial manufactures. See U.S.A.: 1696-1749.

18th century.—Early trade.—Status of education.—Policy toward Indians. See COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 17th-18th centuries: North American colonies; EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: United States; IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Iroquoian family.

1701-1776.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1621-1776.

1709-1711.—Queen Anne's War.—Unsuccessful projects against Montreal.—Capture of Port Royal. See NEW ENGLAND: 1702-1710; CANADA: 1711-1713.

1710.—Colonization of Palatines on the Hudson.—Settlement of Palatine Bridge and German Flats. See PALATINES: 1709-1710.

1720-1734.—Conflicts of royal governors with the people.—Zenger's trial.—Vindication of freedom of the press.—“In September 1720, William Burnet, the son of Bishop Burnet and godson of William III., entered upon the government of New York, burdened by instructions from England to keep alive the assembly which had been chosen several years before. This he did, to the great discontent of the people, until it had lasted more than eleven years. . . . But he was intelligent, and free from avarice. It was he who took possession of Oswego, and he left no stone unturned to defeat the French designs at Niagara.’ Nevertheless, for all his merit, in 1728, he was transferred to Massachusetts to make way for the groom of the chamber of George II. while he was prince of Wales. At the time when the ministry was warned that ‘the American assemblies aimed at nothing less than being independent of Great Britain as fast as they could,’ Newcastle sent as governor to New York and New Jersey the dull and ignorant John Montgomerie. Sluggish, yet humane, the pauper chief magistrate had no object in America but to get money; and he escaped contests with the legislature by giving way to them in all things. . . . He died in office in 1731. His successor, in 1732, was William Cosby, a brother-in-law of the earl of Halifax, and connected with Newcastle. A boisterous and irritable man, broken in his fortunes, having little understanding and no sense of decorum or of virtue, he had been sent over to clutch at gain. Few men did more to hasten colonial emancipation. . . . To gain very great perquisites, he followed the precedent of Andros in Massachusetts in the days of the Stuarts, and insisted on new surveys of lands and new grants, in lieu of the old. To the objection of acting against law, he answered: ‘Do you think I mind that? I have a great interest in England.’ The courts of law were not pliable; and Cosby displaced and appointed judges, without soliciting the consent of the council or waiting for the approbation of the sovereign. Complaint could be heard only through the press. A newspaper was established to defend the popular cause; and, in November, 1734, about a year after its establishment, its printer, John Peter Zenger, a German by birth, who had been an apprentice to the famous printer, William Bradford, and after-

ward his partner, was imprisoned, by an order of the council, on the charge of publishing false and seditious libels. The grand jury would find no bill against him, and the attorney-general filed an information. The counsel of Zenger took exceptions to the commissions of the judges, because they ran during pleasure, and because they had been granted without the consent of council. The angry judge met the objection by disbarring James Alexander who offered it, though he stood at the head of his profession in New York for sagacity, penetration, and application to business. All the central colonies regarded the controversy as their own. At the trial the publishing was confessed; but the aged and venerable Andrew Hamilton, who came from Philadelphia to plead for Zenger, justified the publication by asserting its truth. ‘You cannot be admitted,’ interrupted the chief justice, ‘to give the truth of a libel in evidence.’ ‘Then,’ said Hamilton to the jury, ‘we appeal to you for witnesses of the facts. The jury have a right to determine both the law and the fact, and they ought to do so.’ ‘The question before you,’ he added, ‘is not the cause of a poor printer, nor of New York alone; it is the cause of liberty.’ . . . The jury gave their verdict, ‘Not guilty.’ Hamilton received of the common council of New York the franchises of the city for ‘his learned and generous defence of the rights of mankind and the liberty of the press.’—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, v. 2, pt. 3, ch. 15.

ALSO IN: J. Grahame, *History of the United States (Colonial)*, v. 2, bk. 10, ch. 1.—W. L. Stone, *History of New York City, 2d period*, ch. 2.—E. Lawrence, *William Cosby and the freedom of the press (Memorial history of the City of New York)*, c. 2, ch. 7).

1725.—First newspaper. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1704-1729.

1726.—Iroquois under protection of England.—“Governour Burnet . . . assembled the chiefs of the Iroquois at Albany [1726]; he reminded them of all the benefits they had received from England, and all the injuries that had been inflicted by France. He pointed out the evils that would flow to them from a French fort at Niagara, on their territory. The Indians declared their unwillingness to suffer this intrusion of the French, but said they now had not power to prevent it. They called upon the Governour of New York to write to the King of England for help to regain their country from the French of Canada. Burnet seized this opportunity to gain a surrender of their country to England, to be protected for their use. Such a surrender would be used by Europeans for their own purposes; but (in the sense they viewed and represented it), was altogether incomprehensible by the Indian chiefs; and the deputies had no power from the Iroquois confederacy to make any such surrender. . . . By the treaty of Utrecht . . . France had acknowledged the Iroquois and their territory to be subject to Great Britain.”—W. Dunlap, *History of New York*, v. 1, p. 280.

1741.—Pretended negro plot. See NEW YORK CITY: 1741.

1744.—Treaty with Six Nations at Albany. See VIRGINIA: 1744.

1744-1748.—King George's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1744; 1745; 1745-1748.

1746.—Founding of King's College. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1746-1787; COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

1749-1774.—Struggle for Vermont.—Disputed New Hampshire grants, and Green Mountain Boys who defended them. See VERMONT: 1749-1774.

1754.—Colonial Congress at Albany and Franklin's Plan of Union. See U.S.A.: 1754.

1755-1759.—French and Indian War.—Battle of Lake George.—Expedition against Niagara.—English loss of Fort William Henry.—Their gain of Niagara, Ticonderoga and Crown Point. See CANADA: 1755 (September); 1756-1757; 1759 (July-August); OHIO: 1755.

1763-1764.—Pontiac's War.—Sir William Johnson's treaty with the Indians at Fort Niagara. See PONTIAC'S WAR.

1763-1766.—Question of taxation by Parliament.—Sugar Act.—Stamp Act and its repeal.—Declaratory Act.—Stamp Act Congress. See U.S.A.: 1760-1775; 1763-1764; 1765: News of the Stamp Act, etc.; 1765: Stamp Act; 1765: Stamp Act Congress, etc.; 1766: Repeal of Stamp Act.

1765.—Patriotic self-denials.—Non-importation agreements. See U.S.A.: 1764-1767.

1765-1768.—Indian treaties of German Flats and Fort Stanwix.—Adjustment of boundaries with Six Nations. See U.S.A.: 1765-1768.

1766-1773.—Events leading up to the Revolution. See U.S.A. 1766-1767, to 1772-1773; BOSTON: 1768, to 1773.

1770.—Repeal of Townshend duties. See U.S.A.: 1770.

1773-1774.—Revolutionary spirit.—Vigilance Committee.—Sons of Liberty.—Committee of Fifty-One.—“In 1773 the tax on tea was imposed. On October 25th the Mohawks of New York, a band of the Sons of Liberty, were ordered by their old leaders to be on the watch for the tea ships; and it was merely the chances of time and tide that gave the opportunity of fame first to the Mohawks of Boston. . . . An ‘association’ was now circulated for signatures, engaging to boycott, ‘not deal with, or employ, or have any connection with’ any persons who should aid in landing, or ‘selling, or buying tea, so long as it is subject to a duty by Parliament’; and December 17th a meeting of the subscribers was held and a committee of fifteen chosen as a Committee of Correspondence that was soon known as the Vigilance Committee. Letters also were exchanged between the speakers of many of the houses of assembly in the different provinces; and January 20, 1774, the New York Assembly, which had been out of touch with the people ever since the Stamp Act was passed in the year after its election, appointed their Speaker, with twelve others, a standing Committee of Correspondence and Enquiry, a proof that the interest of all classes was now excited. April 15th, the ‘Nancy’ with a cargo of tea arrived off Sandy Hook, followed shortly by the ‘London.’ The Committee of Vigilance assembled, and, as soon as Captain Lockyer, of the ‘Nancy’ landed in spite of their warning, escorted him to a pilot boat and set him on board again. . . . April 23d, the ‘Nancy’ stood out to sea without landing her cargo, and with her carried Captain Chambers of the ‘London,’ from which the evening before eighteen chests of tea had been emptied into the sea by the Liberty Boys. The bill closing the port of Boston was enacted March 31st, and a copy of the act reached New York by the ship Samson on the 12th. Two days later the Committee of Vigilance wrote to the Boston Committee recommending vigorous measures as the most effectual, and assuring them that their course would be heartily supported by their brethren in New York. So rapid had been the march of events that not till now did the merchants and responsible citizens of New York take alarm. Without their concurrence or even knowledge they were being rapidly compromised by the unauthorized action of an irresponsible committee, composed of men

who for the most part were noted more for enthusiasm than for judgment, and many of whom had been not unconcerned in petty riots and demonstrations condemned by the better part of the community. . . . ‘The men who at that time called themselves the Committee,’ wrote Lieutenant Governor Colden the next month, ‘who dictated and acted in the name of the people, were many of them of the lower ranks, and all the warmest zealots of those called the Sons of Liberty. The more considerable merchants and citizens seldom or never appeared among them. . . . The principal inhabitants, being now afraid that these hot-headed men might run the city into dangerous measures, appeared in a considerable body at the first meeting of the people after the Boston Port Act was published here.’ This meeting, convoked by advertisement, was held May 16th, at the house of Samuel Francis, ‘to consult on the measures proper to be pursued.’ . . . A committee of fifty, Jay among them, instead of one of twenty-five, as at first suggested, was nominated ‘for the approbation of the public,’ ‘to correspond with our sister colonies on all matters of moment.’ Three days later these nominations were confirmed by a public meeting held at the Coffee House, but not until a fifty-first member was added, Francis Lewis, as a representative of the radical party which had been as much as possible ignored. . . . At the Coffee House again, on May 23d, the Committee of Fifty-one met and organized; they repudiated the letter to Boston from the Committee of Vigilance as unofficial, and prepared a response to another communication just received from Boston, by the famous messenger, Paul Revere. In this reply it was “urged that ‘a Congress of Deputies from the Colonies in General is of the utmost moment,’ to form ‘some unanimous resolutions . . . not only respecting your [Boston’s] deplorable circumstances, but for the security of our common rights;’ and that the advisability of a non-importation agreement should be left to the Congress. . . . The importance of this letter can hardly be exaggerated, for it was the first serious authoritative suggestion of a General Congress to consider ‘the common rights’ of the colonies in general. . . . The advice of New York was followed gradually by the other colonies, but even before a Continental Congress was a certainty, the Committee of Fifty-one, with singular confidence, resolved that delegates to it should be chosen, and called a meeting for that purpose for July 19th. . . . Philip Livingston, John Alsop, James Duane, and John Jay were nominated as delegates to be submitted to the public meeting, July 19th. The people met accordingly at the Coffee House, and after a stormy debate elected the committee’s candidate in spite of strong effort to substitute for Jay, McDougall, the hero of the Liberty Boys.” This election, however, was not thought to be an adequate expression of the popular will, and polls were subsequently opened in each ward, on the 28th of July. The result was a unanimous vote for Jay and his colleagues. “Thus, fortunately, at the very inception of the Revolution, before the faintest clatter of arms, the popular movement was placed in charge of the ‘Patricians,’ as they were called, rather than of the ‘Tribunes,’ as respectively represented by Jay and McDougall.”—G. Pellew, *John Jay, ch. 2*.—“The New York Committee of Fifty-one, having accomplished its object, appointed a day for the choice, by the freeholders of the city, of a ‘Committee of Observation,’ numbering sixty, to enforce in New York the Non-Importation Act of the late Congress; and when this new committee was duly elected and organized, with Isaac Low as chairman, the Fifty-One was

dissolved."—Mrs. M. J. Lamb, *History of the City of New York*, v. 1, p. 768.

ALSO IN: I. Q. Leake, *Life and times of General John Lamb*, ch. 6.—J. A. Stevens, *Second non-importation agreement (Memorial history of the City of New York*, v. 2, ch. 11).

1774.—First Continental Congress. See U. S. A.: 1774 (September); (September-October).

1775.—Conflicting interests of governor and patriots.—Action of Liberty Boys.—Committee of Sixty.—First Provincial Convention.—“The republicans of the province of New York, composing by far the greater portion of the inhabitants, labored under severe disabilities. Acting Governor Colden was a Loyalist, and his council held office by the King’s will. The assembly, though chosen by the people, continued in existence only by the King’s prerogative. They might be dissolved by the representative of the crown (the acting governor) at any moment. There was no legally constituted body to form a rallying point for the patriots, as in Massachusetts, where there was an elective council and an annually elected assembly. In all the other colonies there was some nucleus of power around which the people might assemble and claim to be heard with respect. But in New York they were thrown back upon their own resources, and nobly did they preserve their integrity and maintain their cause, in spite of every obstacle. The whole continent was now moving in the direction of rebellion. . . . The excitement in New York was equally intense. Toward the close of the preceding December, the Liberty Boys were called to action by the seizure of arms and ammunition, which some of them had imported, and had consigned to Walter Franklin, a well known merchant. These were seized by order of the collector, because, as he alleged, of the want of cockets, or custom-house warrants, they having been in store several days without them. While they were on their way to the custom-house, some of the Sons of Liberty rallied and seized them, but before they could be concealed they were retaken by government officials and sent on board a man-of-war in the harbor. . . . The republicans failed in their efforts, in the New York Assembly, to procure the appointment of delegates to the second Continental Congress, to be convened at Philadelphia in May. Nothing was left for them to do but to appeal to the people. The General Committee of sixty members, many of them of the loyal majority in the assembly, yielding to the pressure of popular sentiment, called a meeting of the freeholders and freemen of the city at the Exchange, to take into consideration the election of delegates to a convention of representatives from such of the counties of the province as should adopt the measure, the sole object of such convention being the choice of proper persons to represent the colony in the Continental Congress. This movement was opposed by the loyalists. . . . At first there was confusion. This soon subsided, and the meeting proceeded with calmness and dignity to nominate eleven persons to represent the city in a provincial convention to be held in New York on the 20th [April], who were to be instructed to choose delegates to the Continental Congress. On the following day the chairman of the Committee of Sixty gave notice of the proposed convention on the 20th to the chairmen of the committees of correspondence in the different counties, advising them to choose delegates to the same. There was a prompt response. . . . The convention assembled at the Exchange, in New York, on the 20th, and consisted of 42 members [representing seven counties outside of New York city]. Colonel Schuyler was at the head of the delegation from

Albany, and took a leading part in the convention. Philip Livingston was chosen president of the convention, and John M’Kesson, secretary. This was the first provincial convention in New York—the first positive expression of the doctrine of popular sovereignty in that province. They remained in session three days, and chose for delegates to the Continental Congress Philip Livingston, James Duane, John Alsop, John Jay, Simon Boerum, William Floyd, Henry Wisner, Philip Schuyler, George Clinton, Lewis Morris, Francis Lewis, and Robert R. Livingston, to whom were given full power, ‘or any five of them, to meet the delegates from other colonies, and to concert and determine upon such measures as shall be judged most effectual for the preservation and reestablishment of American rights and privileges, and for the restoration of harmony between Great Britain and her colonies.’ While this convention was in session intelligence of the bloodshed at Lexington was on its way, but it did not reach New York until the day after the adjournment.”—B. J. Lossing, *Life and times of Philip Schuyler*, v. 1, ch. 17-18.

1775 (April-September).—Sons of Liberty control of the City of New York.—End of royal government.—Flight of Governor Tryon.—“On Sunday the 24th of April, 1775, the news of the battle of Lexington reached the city. [New York City.] This was the signal for open hostilities. Business was at once suspended; the Sons of Liberty assembled in large numbers, and, taking possession of the City Hall, distributed the arms that were stored in it, together with a quantity which had been deposited in the arsenal for safe keeping, among the citizens, a party of whom formed themselves into a voluntary corps under the command of Samuel Broome, and assumed the temporary government of the city. This done, they demanded and obtained the keys of the custom house, closed the building and laid an embargo upon the vessels in port destined for the eastern colonies. . . . It now became necessary to organize some provisional government for the city, and for this purpose, on the 5th of May, a meeting of the citizens was called at the Coffee-House, at which a Committee of One Hundred was chosen and invested with the charge of municipal affairs, the people pledging themselves to obey its orders until different arrangements should be made by the Continental Congress. This committee was composed in part of men inclined to the royalist cause, yet, such was the popular excitement at the time, that they were carried away by the current and forced to acquiesce in the measures of their more zealous colleagues. . . . The committee at once assumed the command of the city, and, retaining the corps of Broome as their executive power, prohibited the sale of weapons to any persons suspected of being hostile to the patriotic party. . . . The moderate men of the committee succeeded in prevailing on their colleagues to present a placable address to Lieutenant-Governor Colden, explanatory of their appointment, and assuring him that they should use every effort to preserve the public peace; yet ominous precautions were taken to put the arms of the city in a serviceable condition, and to survey the neighboring grounds with a view to erecting fortifications. . . . On the 25th of June, Washington entered New York on his way from Mount Vernon to Cambridge to take command of the army assembled there. The Provincial Congress received him with a cautious address. Despite their patriotism, they still clung to the shadow of loyalty; fearing to go too far, they acted constantly under protest that they desired nothing more than to secure to themselves the rights of

true-born British subjects. The next morning Washington quitted the city, escorted on his way by the provincial militia. Tryon [Governor Tryon, who had been absent in England since the spring of 1774, leaving the government in the hands of Lieutenant-Governor Colden, and who now returned to resume it] had entered it the night before, and thus had been brought almost face to face with the rebel who was destined to work such a transformation in his majesty's colonies of America. The mayor and corporation received the returning governor with expressions of joy, and even the patriot party were glad of the change which relieved them from the government of Colden. . . . Meanwhile, the colony of New York had been ordered by the Continental Congress to contribute her quota of 3,000 men to the general defence, and four regiments were accordingly raised. . . . The city now presented a curious spectacle, as the seat of two governments, each issuing its own edicts, and denouncing those of the other as illegal authority. It was not long before the two powers came into collision." This was brought about by an order from the Provincial Congress, directing the removal of guns from the Battery. Shots were exchanged between the party executing this order and a boat from the ship of war "Asia"; whereupon the "Asia" cannonaded the town, riddling houses and wounding three citizens. "Hitherto, the governor had remained firm at his post; but finding his position daily growing more perilous, despite the pledges of the corporation for his personal safety, he determined to abandon the city, and took refuge on board the 'Asia.'"—M. L. Booth, *History of the City of New York*, ch. 16.

ALSO IN: I. Q. Leake, *Life and times of General John Lamb*, ch. 7.

1775 (May).—Taking of Ticonderoga and Crown Point.—Second Continental Congress. See U. S. A.: 1775 (May); (May-August).

1775-1781.—War of the American Revolution. See U. S. A.: 1775 (April), to 1781-1782.

1776 (January-August).—British repulsed at Charleston.—New York City occupied by Washington.—Battle of Long Island.—Defeat of American army. See U. S. A.: 1776 (June): British repulsed; 1776 (August).

1776 (July).—Authorship, adoption and signing of Declaration of Independence. See U. S. A.: 1776 (July): Authorship, etc.

1776 (September-November).—Struggle for New York City.—Washington's retreat.—British in possession. See U. S. A.: 1776 (September-November).

1776-1777.—British treatment of prisoners.—Jersey prison-ship and the Sugar-house prisons. See U. S. A.: 1776-1777: Prisoners and exchanges.

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

1777.—Adoption of constitution and organization of state government.—Religious freedom established.—"After the Declaration of Independence, the several colonies proceeded to form State governments, by adopting constitutions. In that business New York moved early. On the 1st of August, 1776, a committee of the 'Convention of the Representatives of New York,' as the provisional government was called, sitting at White Plains, in Westchester County, were appointed to draw up and report a constitution. The committee consisted of the following named gentlemen: John Jay, John Sloss Hobart, William Smith, William Duer, Gouverneur Morris, Robert R. Livingston, John Broome, John Morin Scott, Abraham Yates, Jr., Henry Wisner, Sen., Samuel Townsend, Charles De Witt and Robert Yates. John Jay was the

chairman, and to him was assigned the duty of drafting the Constitution. The Convention was made migratory by the stirring events of the war during the ensuing autumn and winter. First they held their sessions at Harlem Heights; then at White Plains; afterward at Fishkill, in Dutchess County, and finally at Kingston, in Ulster County, where they continued from February till May, 1777. There undisturbed the committee on the Constitution pursued their labors, and on the 12th of March, 1777, reported a draft of that instrument. It was under consideration in the Convention for more than a month after that, and was finally adopted on the 20th of April. Under it a State government was established by an ordinance of the Convention, passed in May, and the first session of the Legislature was appointed to meet at Kingston in July." The election of state officers was held in June. Jay and others issued a circular recommending General Schuyler for governor and General George Clinton for lieutenant-governor. But Schuyler "declined the honor, because he considered the situation of affairs in his Department too critical to be neglected by dividing his duties. The elections were held in all the Counties excepting New York, Kings, Queens, and Suffolk, then occupied by the British, and Brigadier General George Clinton was elected Governor, which office he held, by successive elections, for eighteen years, and afterward for three years. Pierre Van Courtlandt, the President of the Senate, became Lieutenant Governor, Robert R. Livingston was appointed Chancellor; John Jay Chief Justice; Robert Yates and John Sloss Hobart judges of the Supreme Court, and Egbert Benson attorney-general. So it was that the great State of New York was organized and put into operation at a time when it was disturbed by formidable invasions on its northern, southern, and western frontiers."—B. J. Lossing, *Life and times of Philip Schuyler*, v. 2, ch. 9.—The framers of this first constitution of the State of New York "proceeded at the outset to do away with the established church, repealing all such parts of the common law and all such statutes of the province 'as may be construed to establish or maintain any particular denomination of Christians or their ministers.' Then followed a section . . . which, it is believed, entitles New York to the honor of being the first organized government of the world to assert by constitutional provision the principle of perfect religious freedom."—D. Campbell, *Puritan in Holland, England and America*, v. 2, pp. 251-252.—See also U. S. A.: 1776-1779.

ALSO IN: W. Jay, *Life of John Jay*, v. 1, ch. 3.—T. Roosevelt, *Gouverneur Morris*, ch. 3.—B. F. Butler, *Outline of constitutional history of New York* (*New York Historical Society Collections*, series 2, v. 2).

1777.—Opposition to recognition of state independence of Vermont. See VERMONT: 1777-1778.

1777-1778.—Struggle for the Hudson.—Burgoyne's invasion from Canada and his surrender.—Articles of Confederation.—Alliance with France. See U. S. A.: 1777 (July-October), to 1778 (February).

1778.—Fortifying West Point. See WEST POINT.

1778 (June).—English peace proposals.—British evacuation of Philadelphia and entrance in New York.—Battle of Monmouth. See U. S. A.: 1778 (June).

1778 (June-November).—War on Indian border.—Activity of Tories and savages.—Massacre at Cherry Valley. See U. S. A.: 1778 (June-November).

1778-1779.—Washington's ceaseless guard upon the Hudson. See U.S.A.: 1778-1779: Washington guarding the Hudson.

1779.—Sullivan's expedition against the Senecas.—State opened for settlement. See U.S.A.: 1779 (August-September).

1780.—Arnold's attempted betrayal of West Point. See U.S.A.: 1780 (August-September).

1781.—Western territorial claims and their cession to United States. See U.S.A.: 1781-1786.

1783.—Flight of the Tories, or Loyalists. See *TORIES OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION; ONTARIO: 1783-1841.*

1783.—Evacuation of New York City by the British. See U.S.A.: 1783 (November-December).

1784.—Founding of Bank of New York. See *MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1780-1784.*

1786.—Rejection of proposed amendments to Articles of Confederation. See U.S.A.: 1783-1787.

1786-1799.—Land-fee of Western New York ceded to Massachusetts.—Phelps and Gorham Purchase.—Holland Purchase.—Founding of Buffalo.—The conflicting territorial claims of New York and Massachusetts, caused by the overlapping grants of the English crown, were not all settled by the cession of western claims to the United States which New York made in 1781 and Massachusetts in 1785 (see U.S.A.: 1781-1786). "Although the nominal amount in controversy, by these acts, was much diminished, it still left some 19,000 square miles of territory in dispute, but this controversy was finally settled by a convention of Commissioners appointed by the parties, held at Hartford, Conn., on the 16th day of December, 1786. According to the stipulations entered into by the convention, Massachusetts ceded to the state of New York all her claim to the government, sovereignty, and jurisdiction of all the territory lying west of the present east line of the state of New York; and New York ceded to Massachusetts the pre-emption right or fee of the land subject to the title of the natives, of all that part of the state of New York lying west of a line beginning at a point in the north line of Pennsylvania, 82 miles west of the north-east corner of said state, and running from thence due north through Seneca lake to lake Ontario; excepting and reserving to the state of New York a strip of land east of and adjoining the eastern bank of Niagara river, one mile wide and extending its whole length. The land, the pre-emption right of which was thus ceded, amounted to about 6,000,000 of acres. In April, 1788, Massachusetts contracted to sell to Nathaniel Gorham of Charlestown, Middlesex county, and Oliver Phelps of Granville, Hampshire county, of said state, their pre-emption right to all the lands in Western New York, amounting to about 6,000,000 acres, for the sum of \$1,000,000, to be paid in three annual instalments, for which a kind of scrip Massachusetts had issued, called consolidated securities, was to be received, which was then in market much below par. In July, 1788, Messrs. Gorham and Phelps purchased of the Indians by treaty, at a convention held at Buffalo, the Indian title to about 2,000,000 acres of the eastern part of their purchase from Massachusetts. This purchase of the Indians being bounded west by a line beginning at a point in the north line of the state of Pennsylvania, due south of the corner or point of land made by the confluence of the Kanahasgaicon (Cannaseraga) creek with the waters of Genesee river; thence north on said meridian line to the corner or point at the confluence of aforesaid; thence northwardly along the

waters of said Genesee river to a point two miles north of Kanawageras (Cannewagus) village; thence running due west 12 miles; thence running northwardly, so as to be 12 miles distant from the westward bounds of said river, to the shore of lake Ontario. On the 21st day of November, 1788, the state of Massachusetts conveyed and forever quit-claimed to N. Gorham and O. Phelps, their heirs and assigns forever, all the right and title of said state to all that tract of country of which Messrs. Phelps and Gorham had extinguished the Indian title. This tract, and this only, has since been designated as the Phelps and Gorham Purchase. . . . So rapid were the sales of the proprietors that before the 18th day of November, 1790, they had disposed of about 50 townships [each six miles square], which were mostly sold by whole townships or large portions of townships, to sundry individuals and companies of farmers and others, formed for that purpose. On the 18th day of November, 1790, they sold the residue of their tract (reserving two townships only), amounting to upwards of a million and a quarter acres of land, to Robert Morris of Philadelphia, who soon sold the same to Sir William Pultney, an English gentleman. . . . This property, or such part of it as was unsold at the time of the decease of Sir William, together with other property which he purchased in his lifetime in its vicinity, is now [1849] called the Pultney Estate. . . . Messrs. Phelps and Gorham, who had paid about one third of the purchase money of the whole tract purchased of Massachusetts, in consequence of the rise of the value of Massachusetts consolidated stock (in which the payments for the land were to be received) from 20 per cent. to par, were unable further to comply with their engagements." After long negotiations they were permitted to relinquish to the state of Massachusetts all that western section of their purchase of which they had not acquired the Indian title, and this was resold in March, 1791, by Massachusetts, to Samuel Ogden, acting for Robert Morris. Morris made several sales from the eastern portion of his purchase, to the state of Connecticut (investing its school fund) and to others, in large blocks known subsequently as the Ogden Tract, the Cragie Tract, the Connecticut Tract, etc. The remainder or most of it, covering the greater part of western New York, was disposed of to certain gentlemen in Holland, and came to be generally known as the Holland Purchase.—O. Turner, *Pioneer history of the Holland Purchase*, pp. 325, 300-424.—"Much has been written and more has been said about the 'Holland Company.' When people wished to be especially precise, they called it the 'Holland Land Company.' . . . Yet there never was any such thing as the Holland Company or the Holland Land Company. Certain merchants and others of the city of Amsterdam placed funds in the hands of friends who were citizens of America to purchase several tracts of land in the United States, which, being aliens, the Hollanders could not hold in their own name at that time. One of these tracts, comprising what was afterwards known as the Holland Purchase, was bought from Robert Morris. . . . In the forepart of 1708 the legislature of New York authorized those aliens to hold land within the State, and in the latter part of that year the American trustees conveyed the Holland Purchase to the real owners. [The great territory covered by the Purchase surrounded several Indian "Reservations," large blocks of land, that is, which the aboriginal Seneca proprietors reserved for their own occupancy when they parted with their title to the rest, which they did at a council held in 1707. One of these Reservations

embraced the site now occupied by the City of Buffalo. Joseph Ellicott, the agent of the Holland proprietors, quickly discerned its prospective importance, and made an arrangement with his Indian neighbors by which he secured possession of the ground at the foot of Lake Erie and the head of Niagara river, in exchange for another piece of land six miles away. Here, in 1799, Ellicott began the founding of a town which he called New Amsterdam, but which subsequently took the name of the small stream, Buffalo Creek, on which it grew up, and which, by deepening and enlargement, became its harbor.]—C. Johnson, *Centennial history of Erie county, New York*, ch. 13.

ALSO IN: O. Turner, *History of the pioneer settlement of Phelps' and Gorham's Purchase*, pt. 2.—*Pioneer history of the Holland Purchase*, pp. 401-424.—H. L. Osgood, *Title of the Phelps and Gorham Purchase (Rochester Historical Society Publications, v. 1)*.

1787-1788.—Formation and adoption of the Federal constitution.—Chief battle ground of the contest. See U.S.A.: 1787; 1787-1789.

1789.—Inauguration of President Washington in New York City. See U.S.A.: 1789-1792.

1789.—Beginnings of Tammany. See TAMMANY SOCIETY.

1790.—Renunciation of claims to Vermont. See VERMONT: 1790-1791.

1792-1866.—Organization and growth of New York stock exchange. See STOCK EXCHANGE: New York.

1799.—Dispute with Connecticut over land grants. See SUPREME COURT: 1835-1864.

1799.—Gradual emancipation of slaves enacted.—During the session of the legislature in April, 1799, "emancipation was at last enacted. It was provided that all children born of slave parents after the ensuing 4th of July should be free, subject to apprenticeship, in the case of males till the age of 28, in the case of females till the age of 25, and the exportation of slaves was forbidden. By this process of gradual emancipation there was avoided that question of compensation which had been the secret of the failure of earlier bills. At that time the number of slaves was only 22,000, small in proportion to the total population of nearly a million. So the change was effected peacefully and without excitement."—G. Pellet, *John Jay*, p. 328.—See also U.S.A.: 1860: Slavery concentrated, etc.

19th century.—Beginnings of the state school system. See EDUCATION: MODERN: 10th century: United States: Evolution of public school system.

19th century.—Treatment of prisoners. See PRISON REFORM: United States: Historical development.

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

1803.—Founding of Buffalo. See BUFFALO: 1781-1832.

1807.—Fulton's first steamboat on the Hudson. See STEAM NAVIGATION: Beginnings.

1812-1815.—War on Canadian frontier. See U.S.A.: 1812 (September-November); 1813 (October-November); (December); 1814 (July-September); (September).

1817-1819.—Clintonians and Bucktails.—During the first term of De Witt Clinton as governor of the State, the feud in the Democratic Republican party, between his supporters and his opponents, which began in 1812 when he audaciously sought to attain the Presidency, against Madison, assumed a fixed and definite form. "Clinton's Republican adversaries were dubbed 'Bucktails,' from the ornaments worn on ceremonial occasions by the Tam-

many men, who had long been Clinton's enemies. The Bucktails and their successors were the 'regular' Republicans, or the Democrats as they were later called; and they kept their regularity until, long afterwards, the younger and greater Bucktail leader [Martin Van Buren], when venerable and laden with honors, became the titular head of the Barnburner defection. The merits of the feud between Bucktails and Clintonians it is now difficult to find. Each accused the other of coquetting with the Federalists; and the accusation of one of them was nearly always true."—E. M. Shepard, *Martin Van Buren*, p. 56.

ALSO IN: J. Schouler, *History of the United States*, v. 3, p. 227.—J. D. Hammond, *History of political parties in the State of New York*, v. 1, p. 450-451.—De A. S. Alexander, *Political history of the State of New York*, v. 1, ch. 23.

1817-1825.—Construction of Erie canal.—"History will assign to Gouverneur Morris the merit of first suggesting a direct and continuous communication from Lake Erie to the Hudson. In 1800, he announced this idea from the shore of the Niagara river to a friend in Europe. . . . The praise awarded to Gouverneur Morris must be qualified by the fact, that the scheme he conceived was that of a canal with a uniform declination, and without locks, from Lake Erie to the Hudson. Morris communicated his project to Simeon De Witt in 1803, by whom it was made known to James Geddes in 1804. It afterward became the subject of conversation between Mr. Geddes and Jesse Hawley, and this communication is supposed to have given rise to the series of essays written by Mr. Hawley, under the signature of 'Hercules,' in the 'Genesee Messenger,' continued from October, 1807, until March, 1808, which first brought the public mind into familiarity with the subject. These essays, written in a jail, were the grateful return, by a patriot, to a country which punished him with imprisonment for being unable to pay debts owed to another citizen, and displayed deep research, with singular vigor and comprehensiveness of thought, and traced with prophetic accuracy a large portion of the outline of the Erie canal. In 1807, Albert Gallatin, then secretary of the treasury, in pursuance of a recommendation made by Thomas Jefferson, president of the United States, reported a plan for appropriating all the surplus revenues of the general government to the construction of canals and turnpike roads; and it embraced in one grand and comprehensive view, nearly without exception, all the works which have since been executed or attempted by the several states in the Union. . . . In 1808, Joshua Forman, a representative in the assembly from Onondaga county, submitted his memorable resolution," referring to the recommendation made by President Jefferson to the Federal Congress, and directing that "a joint committee be appointed to take into consideration the propriety of exploring and causing an accurate survey to be made of the most eligible and direct route for a canal, to open a communication between the tide waters of the Hudson river and Lake Erie, to the end that Congress may be enabled to appropriate such sums as may be necessary to the accomplishment of that great national object." The committee was appointed, its report was favorable, and the survey was directed to be made. "There was then no civil engineer in the state. James Geddes, a land surveyor, who afterward became one of our most distinguished engineers, by force of native genius and application in mature years, levelled and surveyed, under instructions from the surveyor-general," several routes to Lake Ontario and to Lake Erie. "Mr. Geddes' re-

port showed that a canal from Lake Erie to the Hudson was practicable, and could be made without serious difficulty. In 1810, on motion of Jonas Platt, of the senate, who was distinguished throughout a pure and well-spent life by his zealous efforts to promote this great undertaking, Gouverneur Morris, De Witt Clinton, Stephen Van Rensselaer, Simeon De Witt, William North, Thomas Eddy, and Peter B. Porter, were appointed commissioners 'to explore the whole route for inland navigation from the Hudson river to Lake Ontario and to Lake Erie.' Cadwallader D. Colden, a contemporary historian, himself one of the earliest and ablest advocates of the canals, awards to Thomas Eddy the merit of having suggested this motion to Mr. Platt, and to both these gentlemen that of engaging De Witt Clinton's support, he being at that time a member of the senate. . . . The commissioners in March, 1811, submitted their report written by Gouverneur Morris, in which they showed the practicability and advantages of a continuous canal from Lake Erie to the Hudson, and stated their estimate of the cost at \$5,000,000. . . . On the presentation of this report, De Witt Clinton introduced a bill, which became a law on the 8th of April, 1811, under the title of 'An act to provide for the improvement of the internal navigation of this state.' . . . The act added Robert R. Livingston and Robert Fulton to the board of commissioners, and authorized them to consider all matters relating to such inland navigation, with powers to make application in behalf of the state to Congress, or to any state or territory, to co-operate and aid in the undertaking. . . . Two of the commissioners, Mr. Morris and Mr. Clinton, repaired to the federal capital, and submitted the subject to the consideration of the President (Mr. Madison) and of Congress. In 1812, the commissioners reported that, although it was uncertain whether the national government would do anything, it certainly would do nothing which would afford immediate aid to the enterprise. . . . The commissioners then submitted that, having offered the canal to the national government, and that offer having virtually been declined, the state was now at liberty to consult and pursue the maxims of policy, and these seemed to demand imperatively that the canal should be made by herself, and for her own account, as soon as the circumstances would permit. . . . On the 10th of June, 1812, a law was enacted, reappointing the commissioners and authorizing them to borrow money and deposit it in the treasury, and to take cessions of land, but prohibiting any measures to construct the canals. . . . From 1812 to 1815, the country suffered the calamities of war, and projects of internal improvement necessarily gave place to the patriotic efforts required to maintain the national security and honor." But after peace had returned, the advocates of the enterprise prevailed with considerable difficulty over its opponents, and "ground was broken for the construction of the Erie canal on the 4th day of July, 1817, at Rome, with ceremonies marking the public estimation of that great event. De Witt Clinton, having just before been elected to the chief magistracy of the state, and being president of the board of canal commissioners, enjoyed the high satisfaction of attending, with his associates, on the auspicious occasion. . . . On the 26th of October, 1825, the Erie canal was in a navigable condition throughout its entire length, affording an uninterrupted passage from Lake Erie to tidewater in the Hudson. . . . This auspicious consummation was celebrated by a telegraphic discharge of cannon, commencing at Lake Erie [at Buffalo], and continued along the banks of the canal and of the

Hudson, announcing to the city of New York the entrance on the bosom of the canal of the first barge [bearing Governor Clinton and his coadjutors] that was to arrive at the commercial emporium from the American Mediterranean."—W. H. Seward, *Notes on New York* (*Works*, v. 2), pp. 88-117.—See also CANALS: American: Erie canal; BARGE CANAL; also below: 1809-1909.

ALSO IN: D. Hosack, *Memoir of De Witt Clinton*, pp. 82-119, 245-504.—J. Renwick, *Life of De Witt Clinton*, ch. 10-19.—C. D. Colden, *Memoir: Celebration of the completion of the New York canals*.—M. S. Hawley, *Origin of the Erie canal*.

1821.—Revision of constitution.—"The Constitution did not meet the expectations of its framers. The cumbersome machinery by which it was sought to insure the control of the People, through the supremacy of the Assembly, had only resulted in fortifying power practically beyond their reach.



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The Council of Revision was objected to because it had exercised the veto power contrary to the spirit of the Constitution, which was in harmony with the traditions of the Colony from the earliest conflict with the executive power; and because the officers who thus interposed their objections to the will of the Legislature, holding office for good behavior (except the Governor), were beyond the reach of the People. It was seen that this power was a dangerous one, in a Council so constituted; but it was thought that it could be safely intrusted to the Governor alone, as he was directly responsible to the People. The Council of Appointment, although not vested with any judicial authority, and in fact disclaiming it, nevertheless at an early day summoned its appointees before it, for the purpose of hearing accusations against them, and proving their truth or falsity. At a later day, more summary proceedings were resorted to. The office thus became very unpopular. Nearly every civil, military, and judicial officer of the commonwealth was appointed by this Council. In 1821, 8,287 military and 6,663 civil officers held their com-

missions from it, and this vast system of centralized power was naturally very obnoxious. The Legislature, in 1820, passed 'an act recommending a Convention of the People of this State,' which came up for action in the Council of Revision, on November 20th of the same year; present, Governor Clinton, Chancellor Kent, Chief Justice Spencer, and Justices Yates and Woodworth, on which day the Council, by the casting vote of the Governor, adopted two objections to it; first, because it did not provide for taking the sense of the People on the question; and second, because it submitted the new Constitution to the People in toto, instead of by sections. These objections were referred to a select committee, Michael Ulshoeffer, chairman, who submitted their report January 9, 1821, in opposition to the opinion of the Council, which was adopted by the Assembly. The bill, however, failed to pass, not receiving a two-third vote. Immediately thereupon a committee was appointed to draft a new bill. The committee subsequently introduced a bill for submitting the question to the people, which passed both Houses; received the sanction of the Council of Revision on the 13th of March, and was subsequently amended, the amendments receiving the sanction of the Council on the 3rd of April. The popular vote on holding the Convention was had in April [see INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States], and resulted as follows: 'For Convention' 109,346. 'For No Convention' 34,901. The Convention assembled in Albany, August 28, and adjourned November 10, 1821. The Council of Revision was abolished, and its powers transferred to the Governor. The Council of Appointment was abolished without a dissenting voice. The principal department officers were directed to be appointed on an open separate nomination by the two Houses, and subsequent joint ballot. Of the remaining officers not made elective, the power of appointment was conferred upon the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. In 1846, two hundred and eighty-nine offices were thus filled. The elective franchise was extended. The Constitution was adopted at an election held in February, 1822, by the following vote: Constitution—For, 74,732; Against, 41,402. . . . The People took to themselves a large portion of the power they had felt it necessary, in the exercise of a natural conservatism, to intrust to the Assembly. They had learned that an elective Governor and an elective Senate are equally their agents, and interests which they thought ought to be conserved, they intrusted to them, subject to their responsibility to the People. The entire Senate were substituted in the place of the members who chanced to be the favorites with a majority in the Assembly, as a Council to the Governor, and thus the People of all the State were given a voice in appointments. The Supreme Judicial Tribunal remained the same. The direct sovereignty of the People was thus rendered far more effective, and popular government took the place of parliamentary administration."—E. A. Werner, *Civil list and constitutional history of New York, 1887*, pp. 126-128.—De A. S. Alexander, *Political history of the State of New York, v. 1, ch. 27*.—C. Z. Lincoln, *Constitutional history of New York, v. 1, ch. 4*.

1823.—Rise of Albany regency.—"The adoption of the new constitution in 1822 placed the political power of the State in the hands of Mr. Van Buren, the recognized representative leader of the Democratic party. Governor Clinton, as the end of his term of service approached, became as powerless as he was in 1816. . . . William L. Marcy was then State Comptroller, Samuel L. Talcott,

Attorney-General; Benjamin Knower, Treasurer; and Edwin Crosswell, editor of the 'Argus' and state printer. These gentlemen, with Mr. Van Buren as their chief, constituted the nucleus of what became the Albany Regency. After adding Silas Wright, Azariah C. Flagg, John A. Dix, James Porter, Thomas W. Olcott, and Charles E. Dudley to their number, I do not believe that a stronger political combination ever existed at any state capital. . . . Their influence and power for nearly twenty years was almost as potential in national as in state politics."—T. Weed, *Autobiography, v. 1, ch. 11*.—"Even to our own day, the Albany Regency has been a strong and generally a sagacious influence in its party. John A. Dix, Horatio Seymour, Dean Richmond and Samuel J. Tilden long directed its policy, and from the chief seat in its councils the late secretary of the treasury, Daniel Manning, was chosen in 1885."—E. M. Shepard, *Martin Van Buren, p. 96*.

Also in: T. W. Barnes, *Life of Thurlow Weed, v. 2, p. 36*.—De A. S. Alexander, *Political history of the State of New York, v. 1, ch. 26*.

1826-1832.—Anti-Masonic excitement.—**Abduction of Morgan.**—"The society of free-masons included a large number of the foremost citizens in all walks of life, and the belief existed that they used their secret ties to advance their ambitions. . . . This belief was used to create prejudice among those who were not members, and it added fuel to the fires of faction. At this juncture, September 11, 1826, William Morgan, of Batavia, a free-mason, who had announced his intention to print a pamphlet exposing the secrets of masonry, was arrested on a charge of larceny, made by the master of a masonic lodge, but found not guilty, and then arrested for debt, and imprisoned in jail at Canandaigua. He was taken secretly from that jail and conveyed to Fort Niagara, where he was kept until September, when he disappeared. The masons were charged with his abduction, and a body found in the Niagara River was produced as proof that he was drowned to put him out of the way. Thurlow Weed, then an editor in Rochester, was aggressive in charging that Morgan was murdered by the masons, and as late as 1882 he published an affidavit rehearsing a confession made to him by John Whitney, that the drowning was in fact perpetrated by himself and four other persons whom he named, after a conference in a masonic lodge. In 1827, Weed, who was active in identifying the drowned body, was charged with mutilating it, to make it resemble Morgan, and the imputation was often repeated; and the abduction and murder were in turn laid at the door of the anti-masons. The disappearance became the chief topic of partisan discussion. De Witt Clinton was one of the highest officers in the masonic order, and it was alleged that he commanded that Morgan's book should be 'suppressed at all hazards,' thus instigating the murder; but the slander was soon exposed. The state was flooded with volumes portraying masonry as a monstrous conspiracy, and the literature of the period was as harrowing as a series of sensational novels."—E. H. Roberts, *New York, v. 2, ch. 33*.—"A party soon grew up in Western New York pledged to oppose the election of any Free Mason to public office. The Anti-Masonic Party acquired influence in other States, and began to claim rank as a national political party. On most points its principles were those of the National Republicans. But Clay, as well as Jackson, was a Free Mason, and consequently to be opposed by this party. . . . In 1832 it even nominated a Presidential ticket of its own, but, having no national principle of controlling impor-

tance, it soon after declined."—A. Johnston, *History of American politics*, ch. 12, sect. 3, with footnote.—See also MASONIC SOCIETIES: United States: Abduction of William Morgan.

ALSO IN: T. Weed, *Autobiography*, ch. 20-30, 36, and 40.

1827.—Abolition of negro slavery.—"On the 28th of January, 1817, the governor sent a message to the legislature recommending the entire abolition of slavery in the State of New York, to take place on the fourth day of July, 1827. By an act passed some years before, all persons born of parents who were slaves after July, 1790, were to be free; males at twenty-eight and females at twenty-five years of age. The present legislature adopted the recommendation of the governor. This great measure in behalf of human rights, which was to obliterate forever the black and foul stain of slavery from the escutcheon of our own favored state, was produced by the energetic action of Cadwallader D. Colden, Peter A. Jay, William Jay, Daniel D. Tompkins and other distinguished philanthropists, chiefly residing in the city of New York. The Society of Friends, who never slumber when the principles of benevolence and a just regard to equal rights call for their action, were zealously engaged in this great enterprise."—J. D. Hammond, *History of political parties in the State of New York*, v. 1, ch. 22.—See also U.S.A.: 1860: Slavery concentrated, etc.

ALSO IN: E. H. Roberts, *New York*, v. 2, p. 505.

1828.—Civil service.—Need for reform.—Spoils system. See CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: United States: 1828-1885.

1832.—Imprisonment for debt abolished. See DEBT, LAWS CONCERNING: In the United States.

1835-1837.—Loco-Focos.—"The Van Buren party began to be called the Loco-focos, in derision of the fancied extravagance of their financial doctrines. The Loco-foco or Equal Rights party proper was originally a division of the Democrats, strongly anti-monopolist in their opinions, and especially hostile to banks. . . . The hatred which Van Buren after his message of September, 1837, received from the banks commended him to the Loco-focos; and in October, 1837, Tammany Hall witnessed their reconciliation with the regular Democrats upon a moderate declaration for equal rights."—E. M. Shepard, *Martin Van Buren*, pp. 293-295.—See also Loco-focos.

1838.—Passage of Free Banking Act. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1838.

1839-1846.—Anti-rent disturbances. See LIVINGSTON MANOR.

1840-1841.—McLeod case. See CANADA: 1840-1841.

1845-1846.—Schism in Democratic party over slavery extension.—Hunkers and Barnburners. See U.S.A.: 1845-1846.

1846.—Revision of constitution.—During the twenty-five years of the existence of the constitution of 1821, "ten different proposals for amendments were submitted to the electors, who decided against choosing presidential electors by districts, but in favor of extending the franchise, in favor of electing mayors by the people, and in 1846 for no license except in the city of New York. The commonwealth grew not only in population, but in all the elements of progress and prosperity and power, and by the census of 1845 was shown to contain 2,604,495 inhabitants. Legislation had tended to the substitution of rights for privileges granted as favors. The tenure of land, especially under the claims of the patroons, had caused difficulties for which remedies were sought; and the large expenditures for internal improvements, involving heavy indebtedness, prompted demands for safe-guards for

the creditor and the taxpayer. The judiciary system had confessedly become independent, and required radical reformation. When, therefore, in 1845, the electors were called upon to decide whether a convention should be held to amend the State constitution, 213,257 voted in the affirmative, against 33,860 in the negative. The convention met June 1, 1846, but soon adjourned until October 9, when it proceeded with its task. John Tracy of Chenango presided; and among the members were Ira Harris of Albany, George W. Patterson of Chautauqua, Michael Hoffman and Arphaxed Loomis of Herkimer, Samuel J. Tilden of New York, Samuel Nelson of Olsego, and others eminent at home and in State affairs. The convention dealt radically with the principles of government. The new constitution gave to the people the election of many officers before appointed at Albany. It provided for the election of members of both houses of the legislature by separate districts. Instead of the cumbrous court for the correction of errors, it established an independent court of appeals. It abolished the court of chancery and the circuit courts, and merged both into the supreme court, and defined the jurisdiction of county courts. All judges were to be elected by the people. Feudal tenures were abolished, and no leases on agricultural lands for a longer period than twelve years were to be valid, if any rent or service were reserved. The financial articles established sinking funds for both the canal and general fund debt, forbade the loan of the credit of the State, and limited rigidly the power of the legislature to create debts, except to repel invasion or suppress insurrection, and declared the school and literature funds inviolate. Provision was made for general laws for the formation of corporations. The constitution required the submission to the people once every twenty years of the question whether a convention shall be called or not."—E. H. Roberts, *New York*, v. 2, pp. 567-569.

ALSO IN: C. Z. Lincoln, *Constitutional history of New York*, v. 2, pp. 217.—De A. S. Alexander, *Political history of the State of New York*, v. 2, ch. 9.

1847.—First legislation for evening schools. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Evening schools: United States.

1848.—Free soil movement.—Buffalo convention. See U.S.A.: 1848: Free soil convention.

1848.—Legal emancipation of women. See COMMON LAW: 1830-1848; SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: United States: 1848-1851.

1848.—Adoption of code of civil procedure. See CODES: 1848-1883.

1861 (April).—Speeding of Seventh Regiment to defense of Washington. See U.S.A.: 1861 (April-May: Maryland).

1862-1886.—Founding and growth of Cornell university. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1862-1886.

1863-1871.—Tweed Ring.—Between 1863 and 1871 the City of New York, and, to a considerable extent, the state at large, fell under the control and into the power of a combination of corrupt politicians commonly known as the Tweed Ring. Its chief was one William Marcy Tweed, of Scotch parentage, who first appeared in public life as an alderman of the city, in 1850. Working himself upward, in the Democratic party, to which he adhered, he attained in 1863 the powerful dignity of Grand Sachem of the Tammany society and chairman or "Boss" of the general committee of Tammany Hall. "At this time, however, the Tammany 'Ring,' as it afterwards was called, was not completely formed, and Tammany Hall, though by far

the most important political organization in the city, was not absolute even in the Democratic party. It had a bitter enemy in Mozart Hall, a political organization led by Fernando Wood, a former mayor of the city. The claims of Mozart Hall were satisfied in this same year, 1863, by granting to its leader the Democratic nomination to Congress. . . . Soon afterwards Tweed was appointed deputy-commissioner of streets. The 'Ring' was now fast consolidating. The enormous patronage possessed by its members enabled them to control almost all the nominations of the Democratic party to positions in the city. They provided their adherents with places in the city government, and when the supply of places became inadequate, they enlarged the city pay-roll to create new places. By means of the political influence they exerted over the Democratic party in the State, they packed the State legislature with their followers, and placed



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upon the bench judges on whom they could rely. . . . In 1865 the Ring obtained control of the mayoralty. Its candidate, John T. Hoffman, was a man of much higher character than his supporters and associates. He was personally honest, but his ambition blinded him to the acts of his political friends. . . . In 1868 . . . Hoffman was nominated for governor and was elected. His election was secured by the grossest and most extensive frauds ever perpetrated in the city, e. g. illegal naturalization of foreigners, false registration, repeating of votes, and unfair counting. The mayoralty, left vacant by the promotion of Hoffman, was filled by the election of Hall [A. Oakey Hall] who took his seat on the 1st day of January, 1869. As Samuel J. Tilden said, by this election 'the Ring became completely organized and matured.' It controlled the common council of the city and the legislature of the State, and its nominee sat in the gubernatorial chair. Hall was mayor; Sweeny [Peter B. Sweeny, 'the great scheme of the Ring'] was city chamberlain or treasurer of both city and county; Tweed was practically supreme in the street

department; Connolly [Richard B.] was city comptroller, and thus had charge of the city finances; the city judiciary was in sympathy with these men." But great as were the power and the opportunities of the Ring, it obtained still more of both through its well-paid creatures in the state legislature, by amendments of the city charter and by acts which gave Tweed and his partners free swing in debt-making for the city. In 1871, the last year of the existence of the Ring, it had more than \$48,000,000 of money at its disposal. Its methods of fraud were varied and numerous. "But all the other enterprises of the Ring dwindle into insignificance when compared with the colossal frauds that were committed in the building of the new court-house for the county. When this undertaking was begun, it was stipulated that its total cost should not exceed \$250,000; but before the Ring was broken up, upwards of \$8,000,000 had been expended, and the work was not completed. . . . Whenever a bill was brought in by one of the contractors, he was directed to increase largely the total of his charge. . . . A warrant was then drawn for the amount of the bill as raised; the contractor was paid, perhaps the amount of his original bill, perhaps a little more; and the difference between the original and raised bills was divided between the members of the Ring." It is said that about 65 per cent. of the bills actually paid by the county represented fraudulent addition of this sort. The beginning of the end of the reign of the Ring came in July, 1871, when copies of some of the fraudulent accounts, made by a clerk in the auditor's office, came into the possession of the New York Times and were published. "The result of these exposures was a meeting of citizens early in September. . . . It was followed by the formation of a sort of peaceable vigilance committee, under the imposing title of the 'Committee of Seventy.' This committee, together with Samuel J. Tilden (long a leading Democratic politician, and afterwards candidate for the presidency of the United States), went to work at once, and with great energy, to obtain actual proof of the frauds described by the 'Times.' It was owing mainly to the tireless endeavours of Mr. Tilden . . . that his work was successful, and that prosecutions were brought against several members of the Ring." The Tammany leaders attempted to make a scapegoat of Connolly; but the latter came to terms with Mr. Tilden, and virtually turned over his office to Mr. Andrew H. Green, of the Committee of Seventy, appointing him deputy-comptroller, with full powers. "This move was a tremendous step forward for the prosecution. The possession of the comptroller's office gave access to papers which furnished almost all of the evidence afterwards used in the crusade against the Ring." At the autumn election of 1871 there was a splendid rally of the better citizens, in the city and throughout the state, and the political power of the Ring was broken. "None of the leading actors in the disgraceful drama failed to pay in some measure the penalty of his deeds. Tweed, after a chequered experience in eluding the grasp of justice, died in jail. Connolly passed the remainder of his life in exile. Sweeny left the country and long remained abroad. . . . Hall was tried and obtained a favourable verdict, but he has chosen to live out of America. Of the judges whose corrupt decisions so greatly aided the Ring, Barnard and McCunn were impeached and removed from the bench, while Cardozo resigned his position to avoid impeachment. The following figures will give an approximate idea of the amount the

Ring cost the city of New York. In 1860, before Tweed came into power, the debt of the city was reported as amounting only to \$20,000,000 while the tax rate was about 1.60 per cent. on the assessed valuation of the property in the city liable to taxation. In the middle of the year 1871, the total debt of the city and county—which were coterminous, and for all practical purposes the same—amounted to \$100,955,333.33, and the tax rate had risen to over 2 per cent. During the last two years and a half of the government of the Ring the debt increased at the rate of \$28,652,000 a year.”—F. J. Goodnow, *Tweed Ring in New York City* (Bryce's *American Commonwealth*, v. 2, ch. 88).

ALSO IN: S. J. Tilden, *New York City "Ring": Its origin, maturity and fall*.—C. F. Wingate, *Episode in municipal government* (*North American Review*, Oct., 1874, Jan. and July, 1875, Oct., 1876).

1864.—Censorship of newspapers on slavery question. See CENSORSHIP: United States.

1867-1882.—Amendments to constitution.—The constitution of 1846 having provided for its own revision at the end of twenty years, if so willed by the people, the calling of a constitutional convention was approved by popular vote in 1866, and the convention of elected delegates assembled June 4, in the following year. Its final adjournment was not reached until February 28, 1868. The constitution proposed by the convention was submitted to the people in 1869, and rejected, with the exception of the judiciary article, which reorganized the court of appeals, and provided for a temporary commission of appeals, to determine the cases pending in the court, where business in arrears had accumulated to a serious extent. The rejection of the constitution framed in 1867 led, in 1872, to the creation by the governor and legislature of a commission for the revision of the constitution, which met at Albany, December 4, 1872, and adjourned March 15, 1873. Several amendments proposed by the commission were submitted to popular vote in 1874 and 1876, and were adopted. By the more important of these amendments, colored citizens were admitted to the franchise without property qualifications; a strong, specific enactment for the prevention and punishment of bribery and corruption at elections was embodied in the constitution itself; some changes were made in the provisions for districting the state, after each census, and the pay of members of the legislature was increased to \$1,500 per annum; the power of the legislature to pass private bills were limited; the term of the governor was extended from two years to three; the governor was empowered to veto specific items in bills which appropriate money, approving the remainder; the governor was allowed thirty days for the consideration of bills left in his hands at the adjournment of the legislature, which bills become law only upon his approval within that time; a superintendent of public works was created to take the place of the canal commissioners previously existing, and a superintendent of state prisons to take the place of the three inspectors of state prisons; a selection of judges from the bench of the Supreme court of the state to act as Associate Judges of the court of appeals was authorized; the loaning or granting of the credit or money of the state, or that of any county, city, town, or village to any association, corporation, or private undertaking was forbidden; corrupt conduct in office was declared to be felony. By an amendment of the constitution submitted by the legis-

lature to the people in 1882, the canals of the state were made entirely free of tolls.

1869.—Black Friday. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1869.

1872-1908.—Charitable institutions.—Charity organization society.—Legal aid organizations.—See CHARITIES: United States: 1872-1908; 1877-1908; LEGAL AID: United States: Legal aid societies.

1875-1881.—Stalwarts and Halfbreeds. See STALWARTS AND HALFBREEDS.

1881.—Adoption of code of criminal procedure. See CODES: 1848-1883.

1881-1883.—Appropriation for capitol at Albany.—Brooklyn Bridge.—Newburg celebration.—Niagara bridge.—An appropriation of \$1,000,000 was made in 1881 towards completing the capitol at Albany and \$1,250,000 for the completion of the Brooklyn Bridge. On Oct. 18, 1883, the 100th anniversary of the disbanding of the American Army of the Revolution was celebrated at Newburg. On Dec. 20, 1883, a new railroad cantilever bridge was opened across Niagara river.

1884-1885.—Roosevelt and Gibbs direct legislation.—Appropriation for Niagara Falls Reservation and Adirondack forest.—Frederick S. Gibbs and Theodore Roosevelt were largely instrumental in directing the legislation on the municipal affairs of New York City. An appropriation for Niagara Falls Reservation was made and the formal transfer of the property to the State took place July 16th with appropriate ceremonies. A bill was passed providing for a forestry commission for the Adirondack region.

1884-1886.—Boundary question settled with Connecticut. See CONNECTICUT: 1821-1896.

1886.—Industrial arbitration board created. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920.

1886-1890.—Important legislation.—Election of 1888.—Floods of 1889.—Codification of labor, prison and insurance laws.—“During 1886 an amendment to the civil service laws was passed, intended to give honorably discharged soldiers and sailors a preference over others in appointments. This law has been practically inoperative since its passage. An act for the protection for our song-birds also became a law. This was followed in 1900 by a much more sweeping and stringent legal protection. . . . [A law was enacted to admit women to practice law on the same terms as men; and the other important bills provided for incorporation of political clubs; protection of natural oyster beds, regulation of the practice of veterinary medicine and surgery; authorization of the formation of gas companies; the prevention of the spread of contagious and infectious diseases; creation of a prison reform labor commission; better preservation of the health of children in institutions; assessment of telegraph, telephone and electric light lines; growth of free public libraries; and taxation of fire and marine insurance companies.] The legislature of 1887 enacted laws for the purchase and care of the old historic ‘State house’ at Kingston; for the collection and preservation of battle-flags; for the incorporation of ‘Young Men’s Christian associations’; . . . for the formation of building and loan associations; . . . to provide for adjustment of grievances between employers and employés and to create a state board of mediation and arbitration; to increase the lockage capacity of canals; to cooperate with the United States Government in suppressing pleuropneumonia; to establish a fish-hatchery in the Adirondacks; to prevent the spread of disease in peach-trees; to authorize a husband to convey directly to his wife and a wife to her husband;

to provide for organization of trust companies; to define and regulate the manufacture and sale of wines. The Republican convention (of 1887) met in Buffalo, May 16, and chose ex-Senator Warner for governor and S. V. R. Cruger for lieutenant-governor. The Democratic convention met at Buffalo, September 12, and re-nominated Hill and Jones by acclamation. Hill was elected with 650,464 votes, Miller receiving 631,203. John Clinton Gray was elected judge of the court of appeals over William Rumsey. Hornellsville, Ithaca and Middletown were incorporated as cities. Bills were passed, in the session of 1888, appropriating \$570,000 to continue the work of lengthening the locks and improving canals, \$143,260 to finish the State Library and Law Library, and \$287,000 for repairs to the assembly chamber. A bill was passed to substitute electricity for hanging, in the execution of death sentences. Laws were enacted for the incorporation of societies for providing play-grounds for children; police matrons in places of detention; schools for nurses; and to make provision for supplying water to Albany, Syracuse, Schenectady, Watkins and Little Falls. In 1883 various labor organizations of the State [had] sent to the legislature their protest against the 'contract system' then in operation in . . . the State prisons [which was in competition with free labor]. . . . A bill to abolish certain classes of contract labor was brought in, but failed of passage. The whole question was submitted to the people at the next election, and they voted to abolish the system entirely as soon as existing contracts expired. By 1888 many of the prisoners were idle, and Governor Hill called a special session of the legislature to consider the matter. An act was then passed forbidding the use of motive power in the prisons. . . . The year 1889 is memorable for the disastrous floods which occurred. New York suffered less than Pennsylvania, but the loss of life and property in the southern portions of the State was very great. . . . The State contributed \$500,000 to the Johnstown sufferers. . . . [Labor laws, prison laws and insurance laws were codified; a state board of lunacy was created; canals were voted \$6,000,000 to continue work of lengthening the locks; several new railroad laws were passed; several new militia laws were enacted; and the New York Dairymen's Association was voted \$4,000 to extend dairy knowledge throughout the State. In 1890 an appropriation of \$365,000 was made for repairs to the assembly chamber and work on the new capitol. Printing laws were amended. Corning and Gloversville were given city charters.] A difference between Governor Hill and legislature left at the close of the session nearly 200 bills in his hands unsigned, but many important measures became laws. Among them were the following: 1. A law requiring weekly payments to factory hands. 2. The 'corrupt practice law,' requiring candidates to render an itemized account of all election expenses. 3. The 'Saxton ballot reform law,' providing a secret ballot, and preventing all electioneering at the polls. 4. The 'personal registration law.' All these have done much to cleanse the State elections by preventing fraud and intimidation at the polls."—W. R. Prentice, *History of New York State*, pp. 462-465.

1891-1893.—State elections.—University extension.—Railway strike at Buffalo.—Bills for constitutional convention.—The Republican state convention met in Rochester, September 9, and nominated J. Sloat Fassett for governor and John W. Vrooman for lieutenant-governor. The Democratic state convention convened at Saratoga on

September 16 and nominated Roswell P. Flower and William F. Stechan for governor and lieutenant-governor. Flower was elected with a majority of 47,037. The legislature had a short session (January 6 to April 30) and passed 380 new laws. Many of these laws dealt with life insurance, fire insurance, real estate, canal bridges, repair and improvement of highways, voting, trusts, mortgages and employment bureaus. An appropriation of \$10,000 was made for university extension under the care of the regents; new charters were given to Buffalo and Albany; the charters of Syracuse, Kingston and Rochester were amended; Utica was allowed to extend its northern boundary, and Albany authorized to issue \$253,000 in bonds for the erection of public buildings. An important event in 1892 was the strike at Buffalo of the railroad switchmen, beginning August 13. The principal railroads affected were the Lehigh Valley, the Erie and the Buffalo Creek. To suppress acts of violence the governor called out the state militia to the number of 7,196 men. The troops were withdrawn August 25-27. Under authority conferred by the World's Fair Act, Governor Flower appointed three general managers for the New York exhibit at the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago, for which an appropriation of \$300,000 was made. Laws were passed relative to state census, boundaries, Indians, election, legislation, salt-springs, municipal corporations, banks, insurance companies, penal codes, taxable transfers of property, adulteration of maple sugar, dentistry, labor, freedom of worship, preservation of human life, safety of workmen and public health. New bridges were provided for New York and Brooklyn and a charter was granted to the Manhattan and Long Island Bridge Company. "A bill passed by the legislature of 1892, calling a convention to revise the constitution of the state, provided for the election of 128 delegates by assembly districts, and thirty-two at large, but added nine more of whom the governor should appoint three to represent labor interests, three woman-suffrage claims, and three the advocates of prohibition. By the legislature of 1893 this act was set aside and a new enactment adopted, making the total number of delegates to the Constitutional Convention 165, all elective, and apportioning five to each senatorial district."—J. N. Larned.—Niagara Falls and Mount Vernon became cities. The areas of Rochester and Syracuse were enlarged. In 1893, the legislature passed 726 new laws. These dealt with banking, excise, coal, wills, marriages, agriculture and militia. Olean was given a city charter and Syracuse was authorized to have electrical subways. Laws were passed for the protection of the water supply of Brooklyn and New York. A second \$300,000 was appropriated for New York's exhibit at the World's Fair.

1894.—Amendment of constitution.—"By carrying the legislature in 1893, the democrats were able to place Edward Murphy, Jr., in the seat in the United States senate to which Frank Hisecock had been chosen six years before. The most important result, however, was the election of delegates to . . . [the] constitutional convention in which the Republicans secured a majority. The body met in Albany, May 8, 1894, and sat eighteen weeks, with Joseph H. Choate as its president."—E. H. Roberts, *New York*, v. 2, p. 720.—"The following are the most important of the changes made [in the sixth revision of the constitution]: 1. State and municipal elections were separated, by making the former come in the even-numbered years; the latter in the odd-numbered years. (Note: This ap-

plied only to Greater New York, Buffalo, Syracuse, Albany and Troy.) 2. Cities were classified. In the first-class were placed cities having a population of 250,000, or more; in the second-class those less than 250,000, but not less than 50,000; in the third class all others. 3. The judiciary of the State was re-organized. 4. The appropriation of State moneys to any institution of learning, wholly or in part under the control of any religious denominations was prohibited. 5. The use of voting machines was allowed. 6. The term of office of the governor, lieutenant-governor and the five elective State officers was again made two years. 7. The legislature was directed to meet on the first Wednesday in January. 8. The senate was made to consist of 50 and the assembly of 150 members. 9. The University of the State of New York and its regents were incorporated in the constitution."—W. R. Prentice, *History of New York State*, pp. 463-460.—The important features of the revision were set forth in an address by the convention to the people, as follows: "We seek to separate, in the larger cities, municipal elections from State and national elections to the end that the business affairs of our great municipal corporations may be managed upon their own merits, uncontrolled by national and State politics. . . . We have provided further safeguards against abuses in legislative procedure, by requiring that all bills shall be printed in their final form at least three days before their passage, prohibiting riders on appropriation bills, providing for notice to municipal authorities before special acts relating to the larger cities can take effect, prohibiting the issue of passes by railroad, telegraph and telephone companies to public officers, enlarging the express constitutional powers of the President of the Senate. . . . We have extended the prohibition against lotteries so as to include all pool-selling, book-making and other forms of gambling. . . . We have sought to throw greater safeguards around the elective franchise by prescribing a period of ninety instead of ten days of citizenship before that right can be exercised, so that naturalization may be taken out of the hands of campaign committees and removed from the period immediately before election. . . . We have modified the language relating to election so that if any mechanical device for recording and counting votes is so perfected as to be superior to the present system, the Legislature may make trial of it. We have established in the Constitution the well-tried and satisfactory system of registration of votes, forbidding, however, any requirement of personal attendance on the first day of registration in the thinly-settled regions outside of the cities and large villages, where voters would have long distances to travel to the place of registration, and we have provided for securing an honest and fair election by requiring that on all election boards election officers shall equally represent the two principal political parties of the State. We have provided for a new appointment of Senate and Assembly districts. . . . Attack has been made upon two rules laid down in the proposed measure for the guidance of the Legislature in future apportionments. One of these is the rule that no county shall have more than three Senators unless it shall have a full ratio for each Senator, although smaller counties may receive a Senator or an additional Senator on a major fraction of a ratio. . . . The other rule attacked is that no one county shall have more than one-third of all the Senators, and that New York and Kings county together shall not have more than one-half of all the Senators. . . . We

have declared in the Constitution the principle of civil service reform, that appointments and promotions are to be based upon merit and ascertained so far as practicable by competitive examination. We have sought by this to secure not merely the advantage derived from declaring the principle, but the practical benefit of its extension to the State prisons, canals and other public works of the State, to which, under the existing Constitution, the court of last resort has decided that civil service rules cannot be applied. . . . We have prohibited the contract system of convict labor [from and after January 1, 1897]. . . . We have authorized the Legislature to provide for the improvement of the canals, without, however, borrowing money for that purpose unless the people expressly authorize it. . . . We have required the Legislature to provide for free public schools, in which all the children of the State may be educated, and we have prohibited absolutely the use of public money in aid of sectarian schools. . . . We have so amended the present Constitution as to provide for a naval as well as a land force of militia. . . . In order to allow every voter to exercise a choice in voting on some of the important proposed amendments, we have provided that the Revised Constitution shall be submitted to the people in three parts, viz.: 1. That making an apportionment of Senators and members of the Assembly. 2. That pertaining to the improvements of the canals. 3. All the remainder of the proposed amendments as a whole."—*Journal of the Constitutional Convention, State of New York, 1894*, pp. 839-846.

ALSO IN: C. F. Horne, *History of the State of New York*, pp. 401-402.—W. C. Morey, *Government of New York*, pp. 51-53.

1894-1897.—Lexow investigation.—Public School Act.—Election of 1894.—Use of flag on school buildings.—Appropriation for Erie canal.—Reform of ballot.—"So many complaints had been made against the police department of New York by the 'society for the prevention of crime,' of which Rev. C. H. Parkhurst was president, that an investigation was ordered. This was conducted in 1894 by a legislative committee of which Mr. Clarence Lexow was chairman. The result was the indictment of many persons connected with the police department. . . . [A non-partisan board of police bill was passed in consequence. The Committee on elections revealed fraud at Coney island which resulted in depriving John McCarty of his seat in the Senate. In the session of 1894, about 700 bills were passed and 350 laws enacted. Many related to taxation, educational and charitable institutions, convicts, hazing in colleges, property held by foreign corporations, banks, elections and canals.] In 1886 a charter had been granted to a company allowing the use of the Falls [Niagara Falls] for the generation of electricity. Work was begun in 1803. In 1894 an appeal was made to the constitutional committee of the State to restrict the further use of this power. It was refused on the ground that such a restriction would constitute a monopoly of that power to those companies already chartered. . . . Previous laws intended to compel the attendance of certain pupils on the public schools had failed to be effective for lack of sufficient penalties; a more stringent law was therefore passed by the legislature of 1894. It placed private and parochial schools under the supervision of public school authorities in matters of attendance, and provided special attendance officers and ample penalties. In the fall election of 1894 the people ratified the new constitution by a

majority of 156,108, and elected as governor the republican candidate, Levi P. Morton, a former minister to France and vice-president of the United States. The legislative enactments of 1895 included a requirement that the United States flag be displayed on all school buildings, when schools are in session; made the study of the effects of stimulants and narcotics compulsory in all schools; provided for the use of the blanket ballot, and for the submission to the people of a proposition to appropriate 9 millions to enlarge the Erie canal. (Footnote: This act was approved by the people in November, 1895, by a majority of 343,770 votes.) . . . [It afterwards gave rise] to much controversy."—W. R. Prentice, *History of New York State*, pp. 475-476.—"In 1894, Levi P. Morton, who had earned distinction as minister to France and as vice-president with President Harrison, received a plurality for governor of 156,108, over David B. Hill, a faction of democrats casting their votes for Everett P. Wheeler. The republicans of New York in State convention in 1896 presented the name of Governor Morton as their candidate for president. The democrats divided on the issue of sound money, and at the polls a majority of 268,325 pronounced for presidential electors in favor of William McKinley, and Frank S. Black, republican, was chosen governor by a plurality of 213,052. The legislature in 1897 consummated the project pending for several years for the creation of Greater New York, by enacting its new charter." E. H. Roberts, *New York*, v. 2, p. 721.—"Henry George began the American agitation for the Australian ballot in 1886 in New York. In 1887 a bill for the reform was defeated in the legislature; and three years later, when public opinion compelled the old parties to grant the measure, they managed for a while to deceive the people with a sham. The New York ballot of 1890 did secure secrecy; but it encouraged straight party voting by arranging that one mark at the head of a ticket should stand for all the candidates of the party selected. Five years later, however, New York secured the true reform ballot."—A. M. West, *American democracy*, p. 665.

1896.—Greater New York City incorporated. See NEW YORK CITY: 1895-1897.

1896-1898.—Passage of Raines liquor law.—"The legislature was now strongly republican, and in full accord with the governor, who did not veto a single bill. One important measure before it was the 'Raines bill' [so called from its author, Senator John Raines], intended both to regulate the traffic in intoxicating liquors and to provide for local option. The passage of this bill met with vigorous opposition, but it finally became a law."—W. R. Prentice, *History of New York State*, pp. 476-477.—The Raines law heavily increased the tax on the selling of liquor, raising it to \$800 on common "saloons" in the city of New York; to \$650 in Brooklyn; to \$500 in other cities having more than 50,000 and not more than 500,000 inhabitants; and to rates in lesser cities and towns which ranged from \$100 to \$350. It forbade the licensing of any liquor shop within 200 feet of a schoolhouse or a church, and also forbade the opening of any new shop of that character in a residence district without consent of two-thirds of the property owners. It prohibited the sale of liquor on Sundays, except in hotels and clubs; but this provision furnished a means of evasion which was speedily brought into use. "Raines hotels" and "Raines Clubs," as they were called, sprang into existence everywhere, sufficiently answering the requirements of the law to escape its penalties. These and other defects were

considerably remedied by amendments of the act in April, 1897. It survived a powerful attack in the legislature at that time, the whole strength of the leading cities in the state being brought against the law. The country districts were generally united in supporting it, partly on principle, and partly because of the extent to which it lightened the burdens of taxation. By apportioning two-thirds of the enormous revenue raised under the act to the towns, counties and cities in which it is collected, and one-third to the state treasury, the Raines law fortified itself strongly in more than the moral sentiment of the people. Under the Raines law all local excise boards are abolished, and the whole licensing and regulating of the liquor traffic is placed under the supervision of a state commissioner.

1898.—Primary election law.—Other legislation.—Spanish American War.—An act which aims to make the political party caucus for nominating candidates, and for choosing delegates to nominating conventions, a "primary election," conducted under strict regulations of law and guarded by registration, was passed by the New York State legislature and signed by the governor March 23, 1898. "The legislature which met in January [1898] passed a large number of local bills, transacted the usual and necessary State business and adjourned early. Even while in session the members were evidently influenced by the feeling, then pervading the whole country, that war with Spain was among the possibilities. They passed many bills relating to armories and the State militia, and appropriated large sums of money for military purposes; while they also provided generously for schools and State charities. Governor Black called the legislature together in extra session, July 11, to provide for manner, time and places for receiving the votes of such citizens of the State as should be in the field during the November election. The county of Nassau was, in April, set off from Queens county. It is comprised within the limits of the towns of Hempstead, North Hempstead and Oyster Bay. . . . [New York] may justly share in the honors of the Spanish-American War.] . . . In response to the president's first call, New York sent two troops of cavalry, mounted, uniformed and fully equipped, and 12 regiments of infantry ready for the field. On receipt of the second call New York at once sent forward 3,772 men, who were placed in the regiments already formed. In June, the State was asked to furnish an additional force of three batteries and three regiments—in all 4,186 men. In addition to this land force the State furnished 851 men for the navy from her 'naval militia.' . . . [The total cost of the war to the state was \$789,625.]"—W. R. Prentice, *History of New York State*, pp. 479-480.

1899 (May).—Taxation of public franchises.—A measure of great importance, introducing a new and eminently just principle in taxation, was carried through the Legislature of New York in May, by the energetic influence of Governor Roosevelt. Recommended by the Governor in a special message on the 27th of March and passed in an unsatisfactory form, a bill to provide for the taxing of public franchises which did not promise successful working was being left on his hands when the Legislature adjourned. He promptly called a special session and renewed to it his urgent recommendations. Within a few days, the desired bill was passed by both Houses of the legislature, signed by the governor and became a law. The public franchises to which it relates are defined in its first section, as follows:

"The terms 'land,' 'real estate,' and 'real property,' as used in this chapter, include the land itself

above and under water, all buildings and other articles and structures, substructures, and superstructures, erected upon, under or above, or affixed to the same; all wharves and piers, including the value of the right to collect wharfage, cramage, or dockage thereon; all bridges, all telegraph lines, wires, poles, and appurtenances; all supports and inclosures for electrical conductors and other appurtenances upon, above, and underground; all surface, underground, or elevated railroads, including the value of all franchises, rights, or permission to construct, maintain, or operate the same in, under, above, on, or through streets, highways, or public places; all railroad structures, substructures, and superstructures, tracks, and the iron thereon, branches, switches, and other fixtures permitted or authorized to be made, laid, or placed on, upon, above, or under any public or private road, street, or grounds; all mains, pipes, and tanks laid or placed in, upon, above, or under any public or private street or place for conducting steam, heat, water, oil, electricity, or any property, substance or product capable of transportation or conveyance therein, or that is protected thereby, including the value of all franchises, rights, authority, or permission to construct, maintain, or operate in, under, above, upon, or through any streets, highways, or public places, any mains, pipes, tanks, conduits, or wires, with their appurtenances, for conducting water, steam, heat, light, power, gas, oil, or other substance, or electricity for telegraphic, telephonic, or other purposes; all trees and underwood growing upon land, and all mines, minerals, quarries, and fossils in and under the same, except mines belonging to the state. A franchise, right, authority, or permission, specified in this subdivision, shall, for the purpose of taxation, be known as a special franchise. A special franchise shall be deemed to include the value of the tangible property of a person, co-partnership, association, or corporation, situated in, upon, under, or above any street, highway, public place, or public waters in connection with the special franchise. The tangible property so included shall be taxed as a part of the special franchise."

1899-1901.—Tax legislation.—Ford Bill.—Conservation law.—Palisade interstate park.—Indian Education Bill.—Negroes in public schools.—"In the political field there have been few quieter years in the history of the State than 1899. The governor and legislature were in accord, and nearly every measure which passed the legislature received the governor's signature. Laws were enacted which were intended still further to protect the food supply of our great cities. Enlarged powers were conferred upon the governor for the protection of the elective franchise and for the punishment of crimes against the election laws. The high license law was amended and made more stringent in its penalties. The most important legislative measure of the year was with reference to taxation. When it is considered that besides the enormous sums raised by taxation for State purposes the people must meet other and often larger levies for county, municipal, and school purposes, the question how these taxes shall be levied becomes one of the most important with which the legislature has to deal. A large part of the property of the State, both real and personal, has always been beyond the reach of the tax-gatherer. Vast sums in the possession of churches and other ecclesiastical associations have never been taxed. Other and still larger sums are in the possession of individuals who manage to secrete their wealth. Many millions are in the keeping of savings banks and other depositories into which the assessor never enters. Besides

these there are many valuable franchises held by different corporations which have escaped taxation under decisions of the court of appeals given in 1891 and 1897, by which it was held that only the tangible real and personal property of such corporations could be taxed. A new franchise law known as the 'Ford bill' passed both houses of the legislature near the close of the regular session, intended to remedy this defect. Some of its provisions were unsatisfactory to the governor. He therefore withheld his signature and called a special session to meet on May 22. At this extraordinary session the bill as amended, again was passed by both houses and signed by the governor. This law made it the duty of the State assessors to assess every franchise in the State according to its value, even though it does not own a foot of real estate. (Footnote: It was estimated that this law would yield about 17 million in taxes, of which nearly 10 millions would be collected in New York city alone.) The legislature of 1900 was republican in both branches. It met January 3 and adjourned April 6, yet it passed 776 laws, 400 of which were purely local, having no application to the State at large. This growth of legislation is viewed with concern by many thoughtful men. . . . A comprehensive law for the preservation of our remaining forests, and fish and game was passed at this session. The act repeals most of the previous laws on these subjects, and is a serious effort to save from destruction those forest of the State which still border our rivers and clothe our mountains. Just complaint had long been made against the constant encroachment upon the Palisades of the Hudson. The legislature of 1900 passed a law . . . to create a commission having power to locate a 'Palisades interstate park,' and gives to this commission authority to purchase or condemn the necessary lands for the purpose of such park. . . . It was reserved for the legislature of 1900 to pass a stringent compulsory education law for the children of [the Indians on the Allegheny and Cattaraugus reservations]. It requires that every Indian child between the ages of six and sixteen shall be a regular attendant upon the school during a considerable portion of the year. . . . In 1894 a law was passed which permitted the school authorities of any incorporated city or village to establish separate schools for colored children. This act was repealed in 1900 and the following enacted in its place: 'No person shall be refused admission into or be excluded from any public school in the State of New York on account of race or color.'"—W. R. Prentice, *History of State of New York*, pp. 483-486.

1899-1909.—Barge canal.—On March 8, 1899, Theodore Roosevelt, then governor of New York, appointed a committee of private citizens, for service without pay, in studying and reporting on the policy to be adopted by the State of New York in dealing with its canals. . . . The appointed chairman of the committee was General Francis Vinton Greene. "We devoted the greater part of the year 1899 to a study of the subject, and made our report to the Governor under date of January 15, 1900. . . . As to our conclusions and recommendations, the first question to be decided was whether or not the canals should be entirely abandoned. It was claimed by many that canal transportation was antiquated and altogether out of date. . . . From a consideration of all [the] facts we reached our first conclusion—which, like all the other portions of our report, was unanimously adopted—to wit, 'That the canals connecting the Hudson river with Lakes Erie, Ontario and Champlain should not be abandoned, but should be maintained and enlarged. . . . With such data as we had available and with such

surveys as were possible during the year 1899, we estimated the cost of the project we recommended at \$58,804,668 for the Erie Canal and \$2,642,120 for the Oswego and Champlain canals, making a total of \$61,536,788. This contemplated a canal with 12 feet depth and suitable locks for carrying a barge of approximately 1,000 tons capacity from Buffalo to the Hudson river, but as to the Oswego and Champlain canals, it recommended only the completion of the work already undertaken to provide for boats of six feet draft. . . . It was ultimately determined to enlarge the Champlain and Oswego canals to the same size as the main canal between Buffalo and the Hudson river, and also to include the dredging of a 12 foot channel in the Hudson river, which we had anticipated would be done by the Federal Government. This enlargement of the project very materially increased the cost, and in the interval between the time of our report and the completion of the detailed report of the State Engineer, the prices of labor and materials had very largely advanced. In order to cover all possible contingencies, the State Engineer carried his estimate to \$101,000,000, and this was the amount appropriated by the Legislature and ratified by the people at the election of 1903."—F. V. Greene, *Inception of the barge canal project (Buffalo Historical Society Publications, v. 13)*.

1901-1904.—Odell administration.—Under Benjamin B. Odell, Jr., the Palisades park was created in conjunction with the New Jersey legislature, Stony Point park was bought and dedicated; a part of the New York charter revised; the new Terminal House Act passed; and drastic provision made for the suppression of anarchy.

1902.—Care of deaf and blind children. See CHARITIES: United States: 1874-1902.

1905-1906.—Legislative investigation of life insurance companies.—Startling disclosures.—Remedial legislation. See INSURANCE: Life: Development in the United States.

1906-1909.—Reforestation. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1907-1910.

1906-1910.—Governor Hughes.—As counsel to the legislative committee which investigated the scandals of life insurance management in 1905-1906 (see INSURANCE: Life: Development in the United States), the conduct of the investigation by Charles Evans Hughes resulted in his being chosen in 1906 candidate for governor. The Independence League which William R. Hearst had organized, and which had served him the previous year in his candidacy for mayor of New York (see NEW YORK CITY: 1905), had been recruited so successfully that it adopted Hearst as its gubernatorial nominee. Hughes alone on the state ticket of the Republicans was elected; Hearst alone on the ticket of the Democratic-Independence-League combination was defeated. Governor Hughes was thus placed, on the 1st of January, 1907, at the head of an administration in which every other elective office was filled by his political opponents. The most signal showing of the attitude of the public toward antagonists of Governor Hughes in the legislature occurred in connection with a bill, recommended by the governor in 1907, for the amendment of a disgraceful existing law relative to race-track gambling. The state constitution, as revised in 1804, prohibits all forms of gambling, and declares that "the Legislature shall pass appropriate laws to prevent offenses against any of the provisions of this section." In 1805 an act (known as the Percy-Gray law) was got through the legislature, professedly in obedience to this mandate of the constitution, which verbally prohibited betting on races, but penalized it only by providing that the loser of

a race-track bet might sue the winner and recover twice the amount of his bet, while betting and gambling in other places were punished heavily by imprisonment and fine. This scandalous favor to the race-track interests carried a bribe at the same time to the farmer of the state in the form of a cunning provision of the act, which appropriated five per cent. of the gross receipts of racing associations to the benefit of agricultural societies. Repeated attempts to correct so contemptuous a violation of the constitution had failed; but Governor Hughes renewed the attack. When the amending Bill that he recommended was put in suspense by a tie vote in the Senate, the governor called a special session of the legislature, and brought the question before the people in speeches which made a great stir. The racing interests in the state were so powerful that they almost defied defeat, and all their influence came into play. Meantime a special election to fill a vacancy in the Senate was pending in Western New York, and the issue on the race-track gambling bill was fought there, with the governor in the field, contending for an honest enforcement of the constitutional law of the State. The result of the election gave support to that contention, and when, at the special session, the bill in question was again called up in the Senate, as it could be, it was passed by a majority of one. The greater number of Republican senators who voted against it were retired to private life by their constituents at the senatorial elections of the ensuing fall. Almost everything of importance in New York legislation during the administration of Governor Hughes had its origin in his recommendations, and was carried by the weight of public backing. This was notably the fact in the case of the Public Service Commissions Act of 1907 which established an effective supervision and regulation of corporations engaged in public services, by placing over them two commissions, appointed by the Governor, one with jurisdiction in New York City, the other in the remainder of the State, both armed with large powers.

ALSO IN: J. A. Holden, *History of the State of New York, ch. 32*.—C. E. Hughes, *Addresses, 1906-1916, pp. 55-82, 133-216, and introductions*.

1907.—Gift of Letchworth park.—A gift to the state of a public park was made in January, 1907, by the Hon. William Pryor Letchworth. His great estate which embraces the finest and most famous scenery of the Upper Genesee river, lying on both sides of the cañon down which the river plunges in three successive falls. Improved with careful taste by half a century of Mr. Letchworth's care, it has been conveyed in trust to the state, under the future custody of The American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society.

1909.—Blackhand outrages. See BLACK HAND.

1909.—Historical commemorations.—Champlain and Hudson-Fulton.—Three notable events of the far past were commemorated in New York during the summer and autumn of 1909. The tercentenary year of Champlain's discovery, in July, 1609, of the lake which bears his name, was signaled by a week of historical pageants, fêtes, and gatherings for speech and ceremony, on and around the lake, beginning on the 4th of July. France, England, Canada, and the United States were represented in the addresses and exercises of the occasion, by the British and French ambassadors, the postmaster-general of the Dominion, President Taft and ex-Secretary Root, Governor Hughes of New York and Governor Prouty of Vermont. A large number of Indians took part in the pageants, occupying a floating island constructed for the occasion on the lake, and representing scenes of In-

dian life and warfare, the story of Hiawatha, and other reminders of the time when men of their race were the lords of the region of Lake Champlain. Greater interest was given to the double commemoration, in September, of Henry Hudson's exploration of Hudson river and of Robert Fulton's first practically successful steamboating on that river. The celebration of the event first named was timed appropriately on its third centennial anniversary. That of the second was belated by two years.

Holland joined in the Hudson commemoration, building and send over to New York an exact replica of Hudson's little ship, the *Halve Maen*, or *Half Moon*, in which his voyage was made. Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*, was also reproduced and the two quaint vessels, strikingly in contrast with the monster battle ships and ocean liners that surrounded them, gave a singular interest to the affair. Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Mexico, Cuba, and the Argentine Republic took part in the naval parades which formed a feature of the celebration, and an imposing assembly of great ships of war was shown. Eight days, from Saturday, September 25, were devoted to church services, school exercises, historical exhibitions and processions, military and naval parades, aquatic sports, aeroplane flights, banquets to foreign guests, etc., in New York City, after which the *Half Moon* and the *Clermont* proceeded up the river and the celebration was continued in various towns.

1909.—Opening of Hudson tunnel. See NEW JERSEY: 1909.

1909-1910.—Gifts of land on the Hudson for parks.—In his annual message to the legislature, January 5, 1910, Governor Hughes announced the details of a munificent project of gifts proffered to the State for the purpose of creating a state park near the Hudson river. Mrs. Mary W. Harriman, widow of the late E. H. Harriman, offered to convey to the state a tract of about ten thousand acres of land in Orange and Rockland counties, to be held in perpetuity as a state park; offering further to give the State \$1,000,000 in trust, to be used for the purchase of land lying between the tract mentioned and the Hudson river, so that the park may have the advantage of a river frontage. Other gifts for similar purposes amounting to \$1,625,000 were announced as a result of the activity of the Palisades Park Commission, from residents of New York, New Jersey, and Philadelphia. John D. Rockefeller and J. Pierpont Morgan each subscribed \$500,000; Margaret Olivia Sage, William K. Vanderbilt, George F. Baker, James Stillman, John D. Archbold, Frank A. Munsey, Henry Phipps, E. T. Stotesbury, E. H. Gary, and George W. Perkins gave \$50,000 each; Helen M. Gould and V. Everit Macy contributed \$25,000 each, and Ellen F. James and Arthur C. James jointly gave a similar amount. These subscriptions were secured upon conditions stipulating, among other things, that New York State shall appropriate \$2,500,000 for the acquiring of land and the building of roads and general park purposes; that the State of New Jersey shall contribute a fair share, and that the State discontinue work on the new State prison at Great Bear Mountain in Rockland county, where preliminary work on the site for a new \$2,000,000 structure had been under way for several months.

1910.—Criminal branch of legal aid started. See LEGAL AID: United States: Legal aid societies in New York state.

1910 (August-September).—Convention at Saratoga.—Division in Republican party. See U. S. A.: 1910 (August-September).

1910-1912.—Laws passed.—Under John A. Dix the following became law: a compromise election bill providing for direct primaries in all but state offices; commissions to investigate manufacturing conditions in cities of the first and second class and to investigate the production, distribution and consumption of food products in the state; high-way improvement, pure food products, rapid transit subways; labor laws to prevent the working in factories of children under 16 at night, and for more than eight hours a day or six days in the week; males under eighteen for more than 54 hours or six days a week or between midnight and four in the morning and females under 21 before six in the morning or after nine in the evening or more than six days or 54 hours a week.

1913.—Impeachment of Governor Sulzer.—Labor legislation.—William Sulzer, elected governor of New York in 1912 with the support of Tammany Hall, began to advocate a state wide primary law and to assert his independence of Murphy, "Tammany boss." "After his break with Charles F. Murphy, Governor Sulzer took every opportunity to prove to the people of the state that he was no longer consulting the wishes of the boss. He had already sent to the legislature, three days before the last meeting with Mr. Murphy, the vigorous message disapproving the Blauvelt primary bill. When he finally resolved to burn all his bridges and resist Murphy at every point he concluded to make the fight for a genuine primary law the main issue between him and his enemies in the democratic party. He called into conference all the democratic county chairmen, all the members of the democratic state committee and representatives of all political parties and organizations in favor of a state-wide primary law. These meetings, held in the executive chamber and addressed by Governor Sulzer, stirred the state from end to end. Committees were appointed to prepare a primary bill and to promote its enactment by the legislature. Every time Governor Sulzer spoke for direct primaries he spoke with a feeling and earnestness that impressed those who listened to him with the idea that he had recently undergone a radical change in his opinions. He no longer veiled these opinions with equivocal language, but made plain in lucid and forceful English that he was for an honest, thoroughgoing direct primary law, because it was the only instrument by which the people could drive the bosses from power and restore popular government at Albany. Those who listened to his fervent plea for a direct primary law and denunciations of bosses were not aware at the time of his secret conferences with Charles F. Murphy and his many tribulations resulting from the arrogance of the boss. . . . May 20th, Charles F. Murphy and his aides held a council of war at Delmonico's, the private political headquarters of the boss. It was then and there resolved to 'get something' on Sulzer and endeavor to have him impeached and removed from office, if in the meantime he did not cease his attacks on the organization and stop his investigations into the high-way, prisons and other state departments. The Frawley committee, made up of senators and assemblymen, had been appointed before the legislature adjourned to pry into various matters. . . . On April 30th, the primary bill was defeated in the senate by a vote of 42 to 8. Opponents of the bill attacked Governor Sulzer rather than the measure itself. Tammany senators ridiculed and denounced the governor. Leader Wagner declaring that he was insincere in professing to be for direct primaries at all. Senator John F. Healy of Westchester county was sure that only a few people in

the state wanted the right to nominate their candidates and he was indignant that he should be asked to waste time in considering a proposition so absurd. The following day, May 1st, the assembly, after a stormy session, in which the Tammany leaders excoriated Governor Sulzer, defeated the bill by a vote of 93 to 47. The week previous Governor Sulzer had sent to the senate the nominations of John Mitchell for state commissioner of labor; John H. Delaney for commissioner of efficiency and economy; John N. Carlisle for commissioner of highways and John B. Riley for superintendent of prisons. By agreement, the nominations of Carlisle and Delaney were confirmed by the senate. Governor Sulzer had refused to nominate Mr. Delaney unless the Tammany leaders first agreed to confirm Mr. Carlisle's nomination for the state highway department. The senate refused, however, to confirm the appointment of Mitchell or Riley. The ostensible reason for the rejection of Mitchell was that he was not a democrat. The real reason, however, was that Mitchell was too independent and would insist upon being head of the labor department. No reason was given for the rejection of Judge Riley's nomination. Privately, the Tammany leaders admitted it was because he came from Clinton county and belonged to the democratic organization there, which had always asserted its independence of Tammany. Governor Sulzer sent in Mitchell's name twice to the senate and it was rejected each time. He appointed both men as recess appointees after the legislature adjourned. Attorney General Carmody held that Mitchell's appointment was illegal but that Riley could hold his office until his successor was appointed and confirmed by the senate. Carmody's decision was afterwards upheld by the courts. . . . At the extraordinary session of the legislature called by the governor to meet June 16th [for the purpose of passing a new primary law], the opportunity came. In addition to recommending enactment of a direct primary law, Governor Sulzer in his message recommended legislation amending the corrupt practices act. This was immediately seized on by the Tammany man as sufficient authority to amend the resolution adopted at the regular session creating the Frawley committee and to extend its powers. Senator George F. Thompson, republican member from Niagara and Orleans counties, was used as the agent of Tammany to accomplish this. He introduced a resolution June 25th in the senate by which it was resolved that the 'whole subject of any wrongful or unlawful influence aforesaid, and of receipts and expenditures of candidates for the elective office to be filled by the votes of the electors of the whole state, be referred to a certain joint legislative committee of the senate and assembly to examine into the methods of financial administration.' This Thompson resolution, amending that of Frawley adopted at the regular session, was held to arm the committee to go into the governor's campaign receipts and expenditures. [The Frawley committee held hearings and reported to the legislature.] . . . In concluding its report to the senate and assembly the Frawley committee drew the following inferences from the testimony it had taken: 'Governor Sulzer made a false public statement, when on July 30, 1913, he said that he was away campaigning and that he did not know of the campaign contributions omitted from his sworn statement. . . . We submit to the legislature that it was false when William Sulzer swore that he had received only \$5,460 of campaign contributions and that he did so with full knowledge that he had received an amount

many times that sum and had converted the same to his private uses; that he used contributions given to aid in his election for the purchase of stocks in Wall street which he or his agents still hold; that he has been engaged in stock market speculations at the time that he, as governor, was earnestly pressing legislation against the New York Stock Exchange which would affect the business and prices of the Exchange; and that there was evidence before this committee to sustain a finding that as governor he has punished legislators who opposed him by vetoing legislation enacted for the public welfare, and has traded executive approval of bills for support of his direct primary and other measures.' . . . [The legislature considered this report, debated it, and then voted on the question of whether the committee's findings justified impeachment of the Governor.] At 5:13 a.m., August 13th, the vote of 79 to 45 was announced by Speaker Smith and Governor Sulzer had been impeached. . . . [His trial was conducted by the senate together with the justices of the Court of Appeals. He was found guilty of three out of the eight charges against him.] The votes in the open session on the eight articles were: 1. Filing a false statement of campaign contributions. Guilty, 39; not guilty, 18. 2. Perjury, swearing this statement was true. Guilty, 39; not guilty, 18. 3. Felony, trying to bribe witnesses to withhold testimony from Frawley legislative committee. Not guilty, unanimous. 4. Misdemeanor, in attempting to suppress testimony by deceit, fraud and threats. Guilty, 43; not guilty, 14. 5. Misdemeanor, in wilfully preventing a witness from appearing before the Frawley legislative committee. Not guilty, unanimous. 6. Larceny, in converting campaign contributions to his private use. Not guilty, unanimous. 7. Corrupt use of office in attempting to influence the vote and actions of public officers. Not guilty, unanimous. 8. Using his authority or influence as governor in affecting the price of securities on the stock exchange. Not guilty, unanimous. Shall the Governor be removed from office? Yes, 43; no, 12. Shall William Sulzer be disqualified from again holding office? No, unanimous."—J. W. Forrest and J. Malcolm, *Tammany's treason: Impeachment of Governor William Sulzer*, pp. 57-58, 74-77, 103, 108, 120, 138, 173-174.—Governor Sulzer was then declared removed from office and Lieutenant Governor Glynn became governor. Mr. Sulzer, however, refused to leave the executive mansion and for some time the two men remained in Albany, each claiming to be the governor and each exercising executive functions.—In 1913 an eight-hour day was provided for women and children employed on public works. The labor department was reorganized.

1913.—**Bureau of social hygiene.**—The bureau of social hygiene was incorporated June 10, 1913, having been organized in 1911 for the study, amelioration, and prevention of those social conditions, crimes, and diseases which adversely affect the well-being of society, with special reference to prostitution and the evils associated therewith. It was a result of the work of the special grand jury appointed to investigate the white slave traffic in New York City, during the first half of 1910. It immediately established at Bedford Hills, a laboratory of social hygiene, under the direction of Dr. Katherine B. Davis, adjacent to the reformatory for women. In this laboratory the physical, mental, social, and moral side of each person committed to the reformatory is studied.

1914.—**Charters.**—Under Martin H. Glynn a law was passed to permit second and third class cities to adopt optional forms of charters.

1915.—Laws passed.—Constitutional convention.—Industrial commission.—Under Charles Whitman laws were passed to provide pensions for widowed mothers and child welfare; a military training commission was created; laws for improving state guard and naval militia. A constitutional convention was held, of which Elihu Root was president. The chief effort of the convention was directed toward the consolidation of the 152 departments and commissions of state under a few chief officers, responsible to the people. On advocating this plan Mr. Root said: "I am going to discuss a subject now that goes back to the beginning of the political life of the oldest man in this Convention, and one to which we cannot close our eyes, if we keep the obligations of our oath. We brag about the government of the Constitution. We have spent many days in discussing the posers of this and that and the other officer. . . . From the days of Fenton, and Conkling, and Arthur, and Cornell, and Platt, from the days of David B. Hill, down to the present time the government of the State has presented two different lines of activity, one of the constitutional and statutory officers of the State, and the other of the party leaders,—they call them bosses. They call the system,—I don't coin the phrase, I adopt it because it carries its own meaning,—the system they call 'invisible government' . . . Mr. Chairman, we all know that the halls of this capitol swarm with men during the session of the Legislature on pay day. A great number, seldom here, rendering no service, are put on the payrolls as a matter of patronage, not of service, but of party patronage. Both parties are alike. The system extends through all. Ah, Mr. Chairman, that system finds its opportunity in the division of powers, in a six-headed executive, in which, by the natural workings of human nature there shall be opposition and discord and the playing of one force against the other, and so, when we refuse to make one Governor elected by the people the real chief executive, we make inevitable the setting up of a chief executive not selected by the people, not acting for the people's interest, but for the selfish interest of the few who control the party, whichever party it may be. Think for a moment of what this patronage system means. . . . Mr. Chairman, this Convention is a great event in the life of every man in this room. A body which sits but once in twenty years to deal with the fundamental law of the State deals not only for the present but for the future, not only by its results but by its example. Opportunity knocks at the door of every man in this assemblage, an opportunity which will never come again to most of us. While millions of men are fighting and dying for their countries across the ocean, while government is become serious, sober, almost alarming in its effect upon the happiness of the lives of all that are dearest to us, it is our inestimable privilege to do something here in moving our beloved State along the pathway towards better and purer government, a more persuasive morality and a more effective exercise of the powers of government which preserve the liberty of the people."—E. Root, *Invisible Government* (*American Review of Reviews*, Oct., 1915).—Martin H. Glynn, succeeded as governor. Laws were passed relative to abolishing State conventions in party nominations; a workman's compensation law, measures restricting the hours of labor; the construction of certain types of tenement-houses; vocational and industrial education in public schools and medical inspection; vital statistics placed under the state department of health; and sale and securities by

brokers restricted by the anti-bucket shop law. A commission was appointed to examine the subject of pensions for widowed mothers and a department of economy and efficiency was created in public service. "Following the excellent work of the New York Factory Investigating Commission from 1912 to 1914 and the large amount of legislation which incorporated its recommendations into what was practically a rewriting of the labor law of the state, no more important or widely discussed labor legislation has been adopted in the state than the act of 1915 which created the New York Industrial Commission. It was a radical step taken by a conservative legislature. It placed in the hands of five men grave responsibilities, and gave them great powers—administrative, quasi-judicial, and quasi-legislative—for the adaptation, specific application, and rigid enforcement of the protection which the statute law of the Empire State had thrown around its millions of wage earners. It combined in one authority the functions of the largest labor department in any state of the union and the duties of the greatest workmen's compensation commission in the country. It touched intimately and at many points the welfare and the rights of at least 2,000,000 wage-earners and indirectly 1,000,000 more. These included hundreds of thousands of various nationalities, speaking many languages, some of them recent immigrants only partially adjusted to American life, but all living under the stress and strain of our most complex and severely competitive industrial conditions. . . . An unsalaried industrial council, with advisory powers only, was to be appointed by the governor, five members to represent employers and five to represent employees. Its purpose was not only advisory to the commission in matters of general policy, but also to the state civil service commission in certifying lists for appointments in the department, as well as to bring representative employers and labor men together for conferences on questions arising in the administration of the laws. As under the old law, temporary joint committees might be appointed to assist in the formulation of rules for different trades."—*Labor law administration in New York* (*American Labor Legislation Review*, June, 1917, pp. 227-252).

1916.—Prison exhibit. See PRISON REFORM: United States: National Prison Congress.

1917.—Agitation for short ballot reform. See SHORT BALLOT: 1908-1921.

1917.—Suffrage granted to women by legislature. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: United States: 1851-1920.

1917-1918.—Part in World War.—New York furnished 367,864 soldiers, which was 0.70 per cent of the whole American Expeditionary Force. Most of the laws passed during this period dealt with the new conditions produced by the World War. New York City was the scene of many imposing parades and ceremonies. Two military cantonments were established: the National Guard troops were stationed at Camp Mills, Mineola, and the National Army at Camp Upton, Yaphank. The former included troops of many States, as well as the 60th Regiment of New York, and the body trained here was called the Rainbow Division. Camp Upton sheltered selected men of the National Army from New York City. At Spartanburg, S. C., a camp for the former regiments of the New York National Guard was formed. On April 20, the 27th Division of the New York National Guard marched in review down Fifth Avenue; and on September 4, the first of the state's quota for the new national army paraded

on Fifth avenue. On September 11, the Seventh Regiment left for Camp Wadsworth, Spartanburg, S. C., followed on the 14th by the former 12th Regiment.

1918.—Troops in action in France. See *WORLD WAR: 1918: 11. Western front: p, 2.*

1918.—Strike of Amalgamated Clothing Workers. See *ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1918-1919.*

1918 (November).—First election at which women voted. See *U.S.A.: 1618 (November).*

1918-1921.—Aerial laws. See *AVIATION: development of airplanes and air service: 1918-1921: Aerial law.*

1919.—Bills.—Income tax.—In 1919, 4,000 bills were introduced in the legislature, but few became law. Among them were provisions for increase of salary for school teachers in rural districts and cities; a measure for cooperating with New Jersey in constructing a vehicular tunnel through the Hudson river between New York and New Jersey; reorganizing public service commission in New York City; establishing scholarships for soldiers, sailors and marines in the World War; the ratification of Federal Prohibition Amendment; for providing a bridge over the Mohawk river at Schenectady known as the Great Western Gateway. Bills were passed compelling boys between 16 and 19 to undergo military training. A military census of the state was taken, the National Guard was increased and there were legal provisions for registering aliens, creating a council of farms and markets, commissions on food, production and supply, council for state defense and the prohibition in public schools of text books containing seditious matter or material disloyal to the United States. An income tax law was passed by the legislature in 1919. This law provides for a graduated system of taxation. Incomes up to \$10,000 will pay 1 per cent; incomes from \$10,000 to \$50,000 will pay 2 per cent; and all incomes over \$50,000, 3 per cent per year. An exemption of \$1,000 is made in the case of unmarried men and \$2,000 in case of married men. A provision of the law also taxes business corporations $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. "For many years the state and local revenue system of New York, like that of all other American commonwealths, consisted of the general property tax. Under the economic conditions of the period and especially where the burden of taxation was comparatively slight this constituted a relatively satisfactory method. It was not until after the Civil War that complaints began to multiply. As in every advanced industrial and commercial community, it became increasingly difficult to reach personal property; and as the expenditures of government gradually rose, this inequality of burden became more and more patent. In New York, as the foremost industrial state of the Union, the incipient discontent took the form of the appointment of an investigating commission. Mr. David A. Wells, who approached the subject, flushed with the success of his efforts in reforming the federal internal revenue system, went so far in his reports of 1871 and 1872 as to recommend the abolition of the personal property tax. This suggestion, however, was so radical and premature that nothing came of it. Toward the beginning of the second decade of the present century a new situation developed. An unlooked-for tendency in the direction of vastly increased outlays on the part of both state and locality now appeared; the final fruits of a democracy which was determined to utilize government to achieve definite social ends disclosed itself. In the state government the ex-

penditures went up by leaps and bounds, not only because of the assumption by government of such functions as the care of the hospitals and the administrative supervision of many forms of industry and transportation but more especially because of the program of improved roads and of an enlarged Erie Canal. The result was that the augmented current expenses together with the provision for the rapid amortization of the large debt before long took up the entire slack of the so-called indirect taxes and rendered necessary in 1912 the reimposition of a state direct tax, first in a hesitant and then in a more determined way. It was thus made clear that the system of separation of source, which had done good service in the interval, could not be regarded as a final solution of the problem and that while it had indeed served to postpone the crisis and undeniably possessed certain elements of lasting worth, the next stage of reform must be sought elsewhere. In the meantime the local situation had become aggravated. Just as New York state in its fiscal reforms and in its adoption of the principle of separation of source paved the way for many other commonwealths, so what was happening in New York City repeated itself before long in the other industrial centers of the state. In New York, as elsewhere, personal property had almost entirely disappeared from the assessment lists, so that the local tax had become virtually a tax on real estate. As the local expenses increased by leaps and bounds and as the base of taxation was gradually narrowed instead of broadened, the tax rate began to climb to alarming figures. The real-estate interests now clamored for relief; and the public at large, which realized that the tax on buildings at least was shifted to them in the shape of increased rent, seconded the efforts of the real-estate owners. . . . By the end of 1918, however, the crisis in the state, as well as in some other cities besides New York, had become so acute that a special legislative committee, headed by Senator Davenport, was hurriedly constituted. As a result of its recommendations, and of the energy and sagacity of its chairman, the law of 1919 was enacted. Thus for the first time in American history a leading industrial state discarded the general property tax and substituted a general income tax on both individuals and corporations. . . . Summing up, then, the entire discussion, it will be realized that the New York law is of more than passing significance. It strikes out a new path in at least five points; in its close adherence to the language of the federal law, in its principle of local apportionment, in its treatment of residents and nonresidents, in its virtual elimination of personal property taxation and in its commanding importance as the paramount factor in the fiscal system. It is thus the first comprehensive attempt made in the United States by a leading commonwealth to substitute for an outworn and makeshift policy a well-rounded system of state and local taxation. From this point of view, it is of far more than local importance; for if, as is confidently to be expected, the law should prove to be a success from both the fiscal and the economic points of view, there is but little doubt that it will serve as a model to be followed by other states as they approach the stage of economic development attained in New York. The public at large, which is always more ready to criticize than to appreciate and which naturally looks askance at any method of extracting increased funds from the pockets of the unwilling taxpayer, can perhaps not be expected to recognize the far-reaching implications of the pres-

ent reform. But to the discerning student it is clear that what has been accomplished in New York is a real fiscal revolution, the beneficent results of which will gradually be realized by the community at large. In this sense the New York income-tax law of 1919 constitutes an important milestone in the economic and political development of the United States."—E. R. A. Seligman, *New York income tax* (*Political Science Quarterly*, Dec., 1919).

1919.—Children's code commission.—Extension of medical inspection. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1919.

1919.—Civil Practise Act. See COMMON LAW: 1919-1920.

1919-1921.—Agreement with New Jersey concerning port and harbor development. See NEW YORK CITY: 1919-1923.

1919-1923.—Cases against the Rand School. See RAND SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCE: 1906-1920.

1920.—Expulsion of Socialists from New York state legislature.—Protest of Hughes.—Bills.—"The drama began in the Assembly on January 7. Speaker Sweet called upon the Sergeant-at-Arms to produce the five Socialists before the bar. . . . Mr. Adler, Republican floor leader . . . [read] a resolution denying seats in the Assembly to the five Socialists, 'pending the determination of their qualification and eligibility to their respective seats,' by a Judiciary Committee, yet to be appointed. This resolution recited that: (1) The five Assemblymen were members of the Socialist Party of America; (2) The party had declared 'its adherence to and solidarity with the revolutionary forces of Soviet Russia,' and was pledged to the furtherance of the international socialist revolution; (3) It had thereby endorsed the principles of the Communist Internationale, which was pledged to the violent overthrow of all organized governments; (4) The Assemblymen had agreed on joining to be guided by the constitution and platform of the Socialist party; (5) If they did not carry out the instructions of the dues-paying members of the party, they were subject to suspension from the party; (6) The Executive Committee, which might give them such instructions, might be made up of aliens or alien enemies; (7) The party had declared that only the class struggle could justify taking up arms; (8) The party had urged its members to refrain from taking any part in the war; (9) The party had been 'convicted of a violation of the Espionage act of the United States.' The charges, obviously, were charges against the Socialist party, not against the individual Assemblymen who were members thereof; and it was chiefly on that ground that the New York City Bar Association protested against the proceedings and sent a committee, headed by Charles E. Hughes, to Albany 'to safeguard and protect the principles of representative government which are involved in the proceedings.'"—L. S. Gannett, *Socialists' trial at Albany: A summary* (*Nation*, Mar. 20, 1920).—"The trial which was to determine whether representative Government should survive in the United States was opened in the Assembly Chamber at Albany on January 20, 1920. . . . The Judiciary Committee, acting with the 'reasonable speed' promised by Chairman Martin in his opening statement, took three weeks to frame its report. It was handed in on March 30, a little less than three months after the act of suspension. The report was by no means unanimous. With all the pressure that the Speaker brought to bear, the prosecution was able to muster a majority of only one, the vote of the Committee being seven

to six. . . . Upon motion it was decided that action upon these reports be taken March 31. An unusually large crowd gathered and packed the Assembly chamber on this day as early as 11 o'clock in the morning. At the very beginning a struggle opened between the Republicans and Democrats, the latter trying to have consideration of the reports postponed for 24 hours. The purpose of this was to relieve Governor Smith . . . of the duty of calling special elections, inasmuch as under the Constitution, a vacancy occurring after March 31, cannot be filled for the regular legislative term. A compromise was arrived at under which 'unlimited debate' was agreed upon, so that the proceedings might be dragged out until the day following. This would prevent the five Assemblymen from being immediately reelected in case their constituencies so voted. . . . Each accused Assemblyman was balloted upon separately. The first vote was upon Waldman. The result was 115 to 28, for expulsion. The Speaker then triumphantly announced: 'The resolution having been duly passed, I declare the seat of Louis Waldman vacant.' The same process was repeated at the end of the balloting on each Socialist member. Solomon and Claessens were declared expelled by a vote of 116 to 28. DeWitt and Orr, last to be voted upon, were permanently unseated by a vote of 104 to 40. Of the Republicans 98—taking the highest vote—voted for expulsion, 18 Democrats joining them, against 11 Republicans and 17 Democrats. A majority in both parties thus voted for expulsion."—L. Waldman, *Albany: The crisis in government*, pp. 50-51, 220-221, 229.—"Aside from their membership in the Socialist party there were no charges presented against these men as individuals. There is no question that they were legally elected. Briefly stated, the charges are that the Socialist party last August officially adhered to the revolutionary forces of Soviet Russia, and pledged its members to the International Socialists Union; that it has indorsed the principles of the Communist Internationale, which is pledged to the forcible overthrow of all organized governments, and requires its members in their political action to be guided by the constitutional platform of their party, those of its members who hold public office to follow the party's instructions under penalty of expulsion; that such instructions may be given by an executive committee made up in party by aliens; that the Socialist party has declared that the only justifiable use of arms is for the class struggle and has pronounced against the false doctrine of national patriotism; that it urged its members not to take part in the war against Germany; and that it is to the principles of this party, which has been convicted of violation of the Espionage Act of the United States, that these men have subscribed. Against this action of the Assembly there has been raised a great protest. Most notable among the expressions of this protest is that from Charles Evans Hughes, formerly Governor of New York, Justice of the United States Supreme Court, and Republican candidate for President. In his letter to the Speaker of the Assembly he says that 'the high prerogative of the Assembly to pass upon the qualifications of its own members should be exercised in accordance with the spirit of our institutions,' and that it is contrary, not only to that spirit, but to the fundamental principles of our Government 'for a majority to undertake to deny representation to a minority through its representatives elected by ballots lawfully cast.' In his judgment it is not American government to attempt to indict a political party. If men are plotting against the

Government, let them be ferreted out and punished according to our laws. But he regards it as a serious mistake to proceed against masses of our citizens combined for political action."—*Case of New York Socialists (Outlook, Jan. 21, 1920.)*

1920.—Bills.—Reforms.—The principal bills passed were for increase in salaries of public school teachers carrying an appropriation of \$20,500,000; regulation of boxing matches; bonus to military and naval veterans of the World War, bond issue not to exceed \$45,000,000; and rent laws occasioned by the housing situation. (See also NEW YORK CITY: 1920; HOUSING: United States: New York state legislation.) "In his annual message to the Legislature, just published, this Executive [Governor Smith] solemnly proposes the following ultra-radical laws: (1) a minimum wage; (2) the eight-hour day for all women workers; (3) maternity insurance for expectant mothers; (4) the extension of workmen's compensation to cover occupational illnesses and accidents; (5) the appointment of State physicians and nurses in rural communities now destitute of medical aid, in co-operation with those communities; (6) the ownership, development, and operation of all water-powers by the State; (7) State owned and operated grain elevators in three cities after the manner of the Nonpartisan League experiments in North Dakota; (8) the recognition of the production and distribution of milk as a public utility, subject to the control of the State in all details; and (9) the municipal operation of public utilities. . . . These recommendations for the extension of State control over such private industries as grain storage and the production and marketing of milk emanate from Governor Smith of New York. Yet, curiously enough, they do not seem to have aroused the chorus of disapproval in the daily press which would have arisen had a Western Governor urged, for instance, the socialization of the milk supply. The latter interferes with personal liberty and private business with a vengeance, yet Governor Smith sees no other way to assure a cheap and safe supply of milk for the masses."—*Nation, Jan. 17, 1920, p. 63.*—"Orthodox American traditions favoring diffusion of governmental powers still find an anchorage in the entanglement of our legislative bodies. So it seems, at least, after watching the brief legislative career of the New York reconstruction program. A non-partisan commission appointed by Governor Smith had recommended constitutional changes providing for the short ballot, centralizing in a few great departments the widely scattered administrative functions, lengthening of the governor's term and establishment of the executive budget. Prominent Republicans had helped to produce the plan, which in fact had its root back in the New York constitutional convention of 1915. It was endorsed by most of the strong chambers of commerce and civic bodies throughout the state. . . . [The program of reform recommended by the reconstruction commission were the following:] Secretary of state, state treasurer and state engineer and surveyor (now elective) made appointive by the governor. State comptroller's large administrative powers which made him almost a rival of the governor in his control of patronage, transferred to departments under the governor, leaving the comptroller simply as an elective auditor with a small office. Various important but much neglected boards made up of minor elective officers, ex officio, abolished. The present 187 boards, commissions and bureaus consolidated into twenty-one logical departments whose heads for the most part are to be appointed

by the governor with the consent of the senate and subject to removal by the governor 'in a manner to be prescribed by law,' which is likely to mean the requirement of senatorial consent in certain cases. No additional departments may be created hereafter. The legislature varied from the reconstruction commission's bill by dividing the department of taxation and finance and adding the superfluous department of architecture."—R. V. Ingersoll, *Short-ballot victory in New York (National Municipal Review, June, 1920).*—"The constitutional amendments advocated by the State Reconstruction Commission for an executive budget, for lengthening the governor's term to 4 years and for reorganizing the large number of widely-scattered administrative boards and commissions into 19 departments, all failed to pass. However, three alternative amendments to the same general effect as the amendment proposing to reorganize the administrative departments were adopted and will come before the next legislature for second approval. Another amendment adopted provides for a legislative instead of an executive budget. Three sedition bills, introduced by the Lusk Committee, providing for a bureau of secret police in the office of the attorney general, for the licensing of all schools and school courses, and for loyalty tests for teachers, were all vetoed by the governor, as were also the bills making members of the Socialist party ineligible for political action and making ineligible for office any member of a party which the courts might regard as endangering the government by its principles. [Similar school bills were passed the following year and signed by Governor Miller.] One of the bills for relieving the housing conditions provides that an increase of rent that is over 25 per cent more than the rent one year before is presumptively unjust and unreasonable. On the last day of the session a bill making substantial increases in the salaries of teachers in the public schools of the state was enacted. The bill appropriates \$20,500,000 for the purpose. Bills providing for bringing all industrial illness under the Workmen's Compensation Law [see also SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: United States: 1920]; for a minimum-wage commission; for extending the 8-hour day to all women and minors in mercantile and industrial establishment; and several other welfare measures, failed to pass. The Walker-Gillett Bill, defining intoxicating liquors as those 'containing more than 2.75 per cent of alcohol by weight,' was passed and signed by the governor."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, (*Political Science Quarterly, 1920, Supplement, pp. 74-75.*)—See also LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1919-1920.

ALSO IN: *Sixteenth Annual Report of the Committee on Legislation of the Citizens Union, 1920, pp. 9-10, 23-24.*—R. Moses, *Reconstruction commission (Survey, Apr. 10, 1920).*—*Official Report of Governor Smith's Reconstruction Commission.*

1920.—Public health legislation. See PUBLIC HEALTH: United States: National Health Council.

1920-1921.—Repeal of primary law. See PRIMARIES IN THE UNITED STATES: Repeal of New York primary law.

1921.—Poor relief. See CHARITIES: United States: 1921.

1921.—Bonus Act.—Traction.—Prohibition.—On August 31, the New York Court of Appeals ruled that the Bonus Act was unconstitutional, and provided for a bond issue of \$45,000,000 for the payment of the soldiers bonus. Laws were passed recognizing the state public service commission and creating for New York City a transit com-

mission of three members with power over local transportation. Governor Miller's special message setting forth his views as to how the City's traction problem should be solved was sent to the Legislature on January 24th. . . . Transportation, the Governor maintains, is a public function within the regulation of the police powers of the State. . . . He recommended to the Legislature that legislation be framed amending the public service law and placing all public utilities under the jurisdiction of a single State commission with provision for the creation of a commission of three with powers to investigate, unify and reorganize New York City's traction systems. These commissions, he urged, should be given complete power to work out the problem regardless of local franchise or contract provisions and power to readjust rates, despite the fact that rates might be already prescribed. The message fell like a bomb-shell in New York City. It met with strong approval in some quarters and with a storm of opposition in others. The loudest opposition came naturally from those connected with the Hylan Administration, but many New York Republicans, including the two Republican members of the Board of Estimate were frankly critical or hostile. . . . The Governor's bill was introduced on February 16 in the Senate by Senator John Knight of Wyoming County, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Public Service, and in the Assembly by Assemblyman Simon L. Adler of Monroe County, Majority Leader. As introduced the bill contained many provisions that had not been indicated in the Governor's message or in his statements to the newspapers, or in a letter which he wrote to General Oliver B. Bridgman, in which he outlined what he thought the procedure would be under the bill if it became law. . . . A public hearing was held on the bill at Albany on March 2nd, at which many cities of the State, in addition to New York City, were represented in opposition. The principal advocacy of the bill came from representatives of a New York City committee formed to further the measure. Prior to this hearing several amendments had been announced. After the hearing the bill was amended in a hundred or more places."—*Searchlight (Citizens Union, New York, Mar., 1921, pp. 1-3)*.—"The Knight-Adler bill, reorganizing the Public Service Commissions and creating a transit commission in New York City, was reported out of the Senate Committee on Public Service and the Assembly Committee on Judiciary to-day in a revised and more drastic form. . . . More power than was ever intimated by Governor Miller, who presided over the drafting of the measure, is given the transit commission by the bill as reported out. The commission is given power under a new amendment to increase fares in New York City the moment it is appointed by the Governor. Opponents of the bill declare this will mean an 8-cent fare. The most criticized feature of the bill, which permits the transit commission to force the city to take over any lines it sees fit, even though the city should unanimously vote against such a proposition, is retained. The power to increase rates of gas companies, electric light, telephone and other public utilities also is retained. With respect to gas and electric light companies, the bill is made even more drastic, so far as the consumer is considered, for it permits the fixing of a sliding scale of rates determinable upon the amount of gas or electricity used and the time at which it is used."—*New York Tribune, Mar., 9, 1921*.—"The Knight-Adler Bill passed the assembly on March 22 and was signed by the governor.

(See NEW YORK CITY: 1921: State transit commission.)—Other laws dealt with a charter commission to revise the New York City charter; repeal of presidential primaries; placing administration of the Income Tax law under the authority of the state tax commissioner; reorganizing the departments of labor and provisions regarding the employment of women and children; providing for the establishment of country libraries; abolishing the military training commission; provision for the protection of foreigners sending money abroad; commission on motion pictures and regulation of film exhibition. New York state's prohibition enforcement law, known as the Mullan-Gage Act, was declared constitutional by Judge John F. McIntyre in the court of general sessions, April 29, 1921. In making the ruling, Judge McIntyre said that the "State law is substantially the same as the Volstead Act which has been upheld by the Supreme Court of the United States," and that he "would hold the law unqualifiedly constitutional." "By this act intoxicating liquor is defined to be alcohol, brandy, beer, ale, wine, etc., and any spirituous liquids and compounds whether medicated, proprietary, patented or not, containing one-half of 1 per cent or more of alcohol by volume. . . . [It was] passed and approved by the Governor (Miller), April 4, 1921."—*State Introductory Number Record, New York Legislative Record and Index (Albany, Jan. 5-May 16, 1921)*.

1922.—Tolbert-Ullman Amendment.—New York-New Jersey vehicular tunnel.—Welfare laws.—"The New York legislature adjourned on March 18 after having passed a large number of highly important measures. Probably the most important constitutional amendment approved by the 1922 legislature was the Tolbert-Ullman amendment providing for a certain amount of municipal home rule. If the 1923 legislature also approves, it will then go to the voters for approval. For many years the cities of the state have been agitating for greater control over their local affairs. The annual appropriation bill carried almost \$103,000,000. But in addition to this there were many other appropriations made for specific purposes. These included \$5,500,000 for the New York-New Jersey vehicular tunnel, \$1,300,000 for canal improvement, \$2,500,000 for forest preserves, and \$1,000,000 for veterans' relief. The legislature approved the Port Authority plan for developing the port of New York in preference to the plan advocated by the New York City administration. Nine of the eighteen bills presented to the legislature by the Lockwood Housing Commission were passed by the two houses. These measures permit life-insurance companies to invest ten per cent of their assets in the erection of buildings for dwelling purposes; extend the emergency rent laws for New York until February 15, 1924; extend the tax-exemption building law until April 1, 1923; grant to mutual insurance companies the same rights to do business in the state as stock companies, subject to the supervision of the Superintendent of Insurance; prevent mutual companies from becoming stock insurance companies; and fix assessments as the basis for determining the reasonableness of rents. One measure which the committee considered of the greatest importance, that for the establishment of a trade commission for suppressing combinations in restraint of trade, was killed by the assembly rules committee. The legislature also passed a law simplifying election procedure. One section of the law provides that election officers may accept, in lieu of an examination of literacy at the registra-

tion place, a certificate of literacy issued by school officials, public or otherwise, under rules issued by the board of regents. It was also provided that women should have representation on country party committees. The state workmen's compensation law was revised and simplified in the interest of workmen. Several welfare laws were enacted during the session. Two measures outline the functions of the children's courts and boards of child welfare under the constitutional amendment adopted last November, and in accordance with the governor's recommendation further provision was made for the care of the blind, deaf and dumb by the state. Largely on account of Governor Miller's opposition, the provisions of the federal Sheppard-Towner maternity law were not accepted. Instead, the state legislature by enacting the Davenport Bill entered upon a maternity and infancy program to be carried out as an exclusively state function. There was appropriated for this purpose \$130,000. No action was taken on health insurance, the eight-hour day, and the minimum wage proposals."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1922, *Supplement*, pp. 45-46.

1922.—Agreement of Building Trades Union with Lockwood housing committee. See HOUSING: United States: New York state legislation.

1923.—Walker-Donohue resolution.—Repeal of Mullan-Gage Act.—The Walker-Donohue concurrent resolution urging Congress to modify the Volstead law so as to permit the manufacture and sale of light wines and beer, was adopted by the Assembly February 20, by a vote of 78 to 64. Fourteen Republicans joined with the Democratic majority in supporting the resolution.

The Mullan-Gage Prohibition Enforcement Act was repealed by the Cuvillier Bill, signed by Governor Smith, June 1, 1923. This repeal was the subject of wide-spread discussion throughout the nation. In a letter to Wesley Wait of Newburgh, N. Y., President Harding said, "It will be obvious that many complex and extremely difficult situations must arise if any of the States shall decline to assume their part of the responsibility of maintaining the Constitution and the laws enacted in pursuance to it. The States are equipped with police organizations and judicial establishments adequate to deal with such problems. The Federal Government is not thus equipped." In a 4,500 word memorandum Governor Smith stated his reasons for signing the bill. He denied that the repeal of the Mullan-Gage Act would involve a nullification of the Eighteenth Amendment so far as the State of New York was concerned. "The mere omission to maintain a State statute in no way abrogates a Federal statute. . . . I am entirely unwilling to admit the contention that there was put upon the State, either by the Eighteenth Amendment, the Volstead Act, or the United States Supreme Court decision, any obligation to pass any law adopting into the State law the provisions of the Volstead Act. . . . The Eighteenth Amendment gives Congress and to each of the forty-eight states the concurrent right to enforce the amendment. It does not create a duty." "Repeal of the law, he said, would not make legal a single act which was illegal while it remained on the statute books. It would not make possible the traffic in light wines and beer. It would not interfere with rigid enforcement by the State authorities of the Volstead law. Repeal would transfer prosecution of prohibition cases to the Federal courts. It would do away with 'double jeopardy' of State and Federal prosecution for the violation of laws enforcing the Eighteenth Amend-

ment."—The United States (*New York Times Current History*, July, 1923, p. 683).

See also LIBRARIES: Modern: United States early history; Libraries for the blind.

ALSO IN: De A. S. Alexander, *Political history of the State of New York*.—J. H. Dougherty, *Constitutional history of the State of New York*.—T. A. Janvier, *Dutch founding of New York*.—F. Phisterer, *New York in the War of the Rebellion*.—H. L. Satterlee, *Political history of the Province of New York*.—D. C. Sowers, *Financial history of New York State from 1789-1912*.—*Publications of the New York State Historical Society*.—J. Sullivan, *Government of the State of New York*.—G. F. Cram, *Descriptive review of commercial, industrial, agricultural, and historical development of the State of New York*.—R. S. Tarr, *Physical geography of New York State*.

NEW YORK CITY.—New York is the largest city of the United States, and after London the largest in the world. It is situated in New York state, at the mouth of the Hudson river, which enters the Atlantic ocean through New York bay. New York harbor is one of the finest in the world, and has made the city the commercial metropolis of the western hemisphere. The territory comprised within the city is divided into five boroughs: Manhattan, Brooklyn, Bronx, Queens, and Richmond. The following details from the 1920 census of New York show that the native whites in 1920 numbered 1,164,834, an increase of 243,516 since 1910, and the foreign-born whites numbered 4,294,629, having increased by 546,758 since 1910. The foreign elements in the order of their numbers are: Russians, 994,356, Italians, 802,803, Irish, 637,744, Austro-Hungarians, 603,167, and Germans, 593,199. The greatest percentage of increase between 1910 and 1920 was that of the Italians.—Based on *Population of New York City (Independent, May 13, 1922)*.—The total population of New York City in 1920 numbered 5,620,048, and in 1922 was estimated at 5,839,738.

See also MANHATTAN ISLAND.

1524.—Discovery of New York bay by Verazano. See AMERICA: 1523-1524.

1609.—Henry Hudson's exploration of the river named after him. See AMERICA: 1609.

1610-1614.—Beginning of Dutch fur trade with Indians. See NEW YORK: 1610-1614.

1614-1677.—Earliest water supply of New Amsterdam.—Public wells.—"The Dutch, who first settled in New York, calling it New Amsterdam, made use of springs and ponds from 1614 up to late in the eighteenth century. They also dug wells, either one family for its own use, or several families combining to save expense. The first public well was dug in 1658 when Peter Stuyvesant was Director-General. Ten years later Governor Nicolls, under English rule, had a well dug in Fort Amsterdam and another outside at Bowling Green."—J. L. Stockton, *City's water supply (Outlook, Oct. 1, 1919)*.

1623.—First permanent settlement on Manhattan island.—"Bound by a provision of their charter to 'advance the peopling of unsettled lands,' the West India Company in 1623, sent to the 'wild coast' of New Netherland, thirty families of Walloons, a Protestant people of French extraction. The greater number of these industrious persons were destined for the settlement at Fort Nassau, but eight men were landed on Manhattan Island (foot-note—disposition of Catelyn Trico, taken in 1688 [New York Col. Mss.] . . .) and Captain Cornelis Jacobson Mey was made the first director over all the territory included within the jurisdiction of the Company."—J. M. Colton, *Annals of old*

Manhattan, pp. 23-24.—See also MANHATTAN ISLAND.

ALSO IN: J. K. Paulding, *Affairs and men of New Amsterdam in the time of governor Peter Stuyvesant* (compiled from Dutch manuscripts).

1623-1644.—New Netherland a province of the Dutch West India Company. See NEW YORK: 1621-1646; 1647-1664.

1626.—Purchase of Manhattan island by Peter Minuit.—“In 1626 Peter Minuit came out as director general of New Netherland, and the government of the province became more formal and definite. A council of five assisted the director. . . . Minuit’s administration was distinguished by the purchase from the Indians of the entire island of Manhattan for sixty guilders or about twenty-four dollars. The transaction to the honest Dutch traders was so simple and proper that no glamour was

ment was an enclosed clearing for the protection of the cattle of the burghers. . . . Thus the site of the present Bowery was the first extensive clearing, outside the settlement, made on the Island of Manhattan.”—E. R. and M. A. Hewitt, *The Bowery (Historic New York, pp. 360-362)*.

1638.—European companies allowed to trade with province of the West India Company. See NEW YORK: 1638-1647.

1643.—Cosmopolitan nature of province.—A report of 1643 shows that not less than eighteen languages were spoken by the 400 or 500 inhabitants of New Amsterdam.

1653.—New Amsterdam becomes a city. See NEW YORK: 1653.

1657.—Burgher rights.—Only those inhabitants who possessed either the “great burgher right” or the “small burgher right,” or were employees of



NEW AMSTERDAM ABOUT 1667
 (From an old print)

thrown about it.”—E. H. Roberts, *New York, v. 1, p. 37*.

1633.—Grant of “staple right.”—In 1633 a grant of “staple right” gave to New Amsterdam the privilege of compelling all vessels passing her port either to sell their cargo or pay a duty.

1637-1647.—The Bowery.—“The town was a trading-post; but very early in its settlement it became evident to the ruminating minds of the Dutch West India Company that the fur trade was good, but that farmers they must have. . . . The West India Company accordingly offered each farmer free transportation over sea . . . and on his arrival the grant of a ‘bouwerie,’ or farm of partly cleared land partly ready for the plow. . . . Early in Governor Kieft’s reign, 1637-1647, the island between Wall Street and Fourteenth (approximately) was divided into six bouweries. . . . Mr. Valentine recounts the next attempt in the settlement of a little elevation at about the junction of Chatham Street and the Bowery. . . . Here a giant negro, known as Emanuel de Groot, was allowed to form a settlement. . . . In the midst of the settle-

the West India Company, were allowed to engage in commerce or work at any trade or profession. Only the “great burghers” could hold important offices.

1657.—Purchase of fire apparatus.—Late in 1657 “a more efficient fire protection was undertaken. Unpaid fire warders had long existed, whose duty it was to inspect fireplaces and chimneys. It was now determined to purchase fire ladders, hooks, and buckets. For defraying the original cost of these a tax of one beaver or eight florins was levied.”—E. D. Durand, *City chest of New Amsterdam (Historic New York, pp. 170-177)*.

1658.—First pavement of streets by the city.—Brewer Street, later called Stone Street, was the first thoroughfare in New York to be paved in the modern manner. It affords, also, one of the earliest instances of local assessment for public improvements. “The matter of this much-needed work had been debated by the burgomasters and schepens early in 1658, the alternative lying between the plan of requiring each lot-owner himself to perform the work, . . . and that of making the cost a gen-

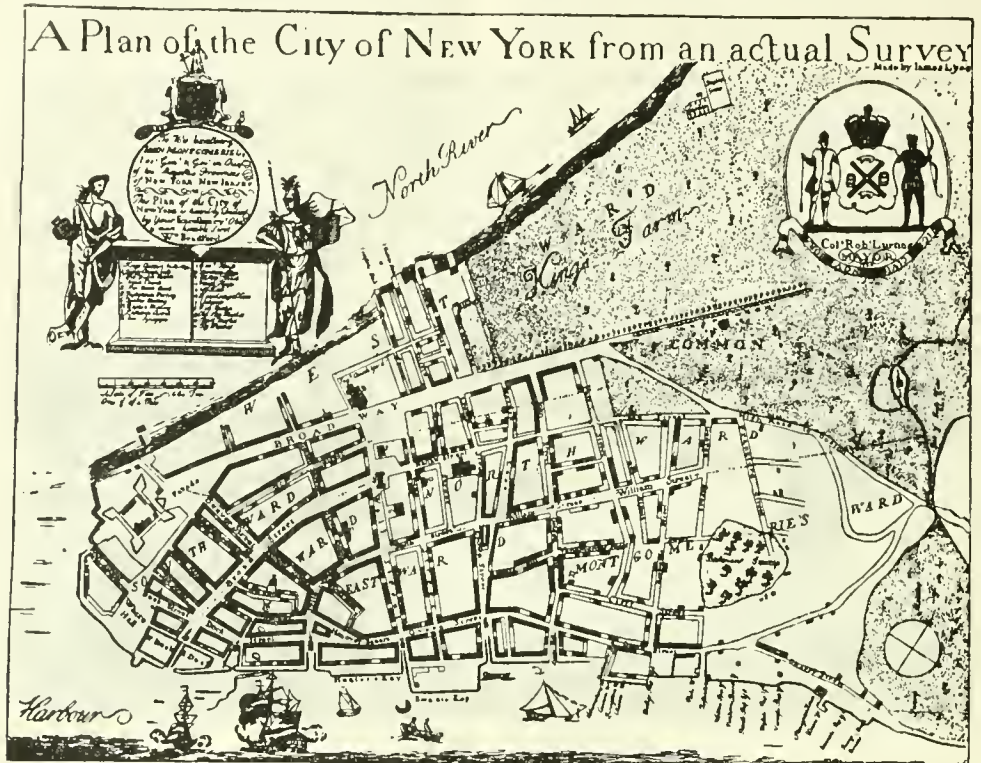
eral city burden. It was a petition of the citizens themselves along the street which proposed the intermediate and far preferable course of having the work done by the city and the cost assessed on the abutting property; such assessments they declared themselves willing to pay. This plan was adopted by the city council, January 21, 1658. Two burghers were appointed to manage the work."—E. D. Durand, *City chest of New Amsterdam (Historic New York, pp. 177-178)*.

ALSO IN: *Records of New Amsterdam* (printed translation), v. 3, pp. 5, 34, 113.

1664.—English conquest. See NEW YORK: 1664.

1665.—Reorganization of government.—In 1665 the government was reorganized. The Mayor and

tending to low water mark. In 1708, Governor Cornbury granted the municipality the lands between high and low water marks on the Brooklyn shore, extending from Wallabout to Red Hook, and the right to control the establishment of all ferries from New York to the adjacent shores. In 1730, Governor Montgomery granted to the City the land under water of the North River to a line 400 feet offshore from low water mark, between a point about at the foot of King Street to Battery Place, and on the East Side between Whitehall Street and Corlears Hook. The Montgomery Charter also extended the City's jurisdiction to the low-water mark on the Brooklyn and Jersey shores. In 1833, however, an agreement was made with the



MAP OF NEW YORK CITY TWO HUNDRED YEARS AGO
Original drawn by James Lyne and printed by William Bradford, 1728

aldermen were to be appointed by the governor of the province.

1666.—New Harlem.—New Harlem was made a town within the city of New York.

1673.—Post road.—A post road was constructed from New York to Boston.

1673.—Recapture by the Dutch. See NEW YORK: 1673.

1683.—First New York assembly.—After a quarrel between the duke of York and the merchants of the city, the latter insisted that they would pay duty only if imposed by an assembly in which they were represented. The duke found it necessary to consent, and the first New York assembly met in October, 1683.

1686.—Dongan charter. See NEW YORK: 1686.

1686-1844.—Early water front development.—“In 1686, the Colonial Governor, Thomas Dongan, granted to the City of New York the waste, vacant and unappropriated lands on Manhattan Island ex-

New Jersey authorities by which the boundary line between the two States was fixed at the middle of the North River, New York, however, maintaining certain jurisdiction to the Jersey shore; that is, the State of New York retained exclusive jurisdiction over the waters of the Hudson River to low water mark on the Jersey shore, over ships and vessels, for quarantine and health purposes, to secure the interests of commerce and to preserve the public peace, etc. The Montgomery Charter gave the City the right to build wharves and piers and to make all necessary ordinances for regulating same. It also confirmed the City's power, granted by the Cornbury charter, to establish ferries from Manhattan Island to the opposite shores and to let or otherwise dispose of them. It was thus the City obtained exclusive rights of ferries to Brooklyn, Staten Island and New Jersey. . . . From the earliest time . . . the wisdom of increasing the City's dominion and control of the waterfront was fully

recognized; but, for a long time, the City was in no financial position to undertake any systematic improvement of the waterfront, and most of the wharves, piers and slips were built, during the early period of its history, by private capital on water grants fronting on privately owned upland. These grants of land under water prior to 1844 were nearly all made by the Common Council, thereafter by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund; and, subsequent to 1770, contained reservations for public streets and avenues."—*Greater New York (Bulletin of the Merchants' Association, Feb. 5, 1917, pp. 12-13)*.

1701-1764.—Middle colonial period.—French and Indian War.—Royal governors.—Lord Cornbury.—Robert Hunter.—"The period between 1701 and 1764 is barren of events of great importance. . . . During this period the French and Indian wars troubled the peace of the city, and more than once she was called upon to furnish men and money for the protection of her northern frontiers."—C. B. Todd, *Story of the City of New York, p. 100*.—"In 1702, when Queen Anne had just ascended the throne, her nephew, Lord Cornbury, came out as governor. . . . [He] did the democracy a good turn by forthwith drowning the memory of its shortcomings in the torrent of his own follies and misdeeds. . . . He hated the popular party, and in all ways that he could he curtailed the political rights of the people."—T. Roosevelt, *New York, pp. 85-86*.—"Lord Lovelace succeeded Lord Cornbury as governor, and, on the former's death, in 1709, Colonel Robert Hunter was appointed Governor."—C. B. Todd, *Story of the City of New York, p. 100*.—"Robert Hunter . . . was a wise and upright man, who did justice to all, though, if anything, favoring the popular party. But the personality of the governor was rapidly becoming of less and less consequence to New York as the city and province grew in size. The condition of the colony and the policy of the British king and Parliament were the really important factors of the problem."—T. Roosevelt, *New York, p. 87*.

1712.—Negro uprising.—"During Governor Hunter's reign, a serious uprising of the negro slaves occurred. These were mostly Africans, as barbarous as when in their native wilds; and in 1712, a few of them, who had been badly treated by their masters, formed a plot to massacre the people indiscriminately. They met at midnight in an orchard not far from the present Maiden Lane, armed with guns, swords, butcher's knives, and other weapons, and, setting fire to an out-house, struck down the citizens who came running to put it out. Nine men were thus murdered and six severely wounded before any could escape and give the alarm; but at length the news reached the fort, and the Governor sent a detachment of soldiers to the scene, at the sight of whom the conspirators fled to the forests on the northern part of the island. Sentries were stationed at the ferries that night, and next day the militia was called out, and by beating the wood, succeeded in capturing all but six of the criminals, who committed suicide rather than suffer the vengeance of the whites. Those taken, twenty-one in number, were condemned and executed."—C. B. Todd, *Story of the City of New York, pp. 192-193*.

1725.—First newspaper. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1704-1720.

1730.—Montgomery charter.—A new city charter was granted, which increased the privileges formerly given. It received its name from the fact that it was granted during Governor Montgomery's term of office.

1734.—Zenger's trial for libel. See NEW YORK: 1720-1734.

1740-1862.—Early pipe-line projects.—Public water works.—"Pumps became fashionable in the first half of the eighteenth century, and the old well-sweeps disappeared. A department of Overseers of Wells and Pumps was provided and taxes were levied to maintain it. In 1789, at the time of the formation of the United States, the Common Council of the City of New York approved bills for the repair of wells and pumps, amounting to over \$2,000. The most famous was known as the Tea Water Pump and was located at what is now Park Row, near Baxter Street. The water was fresh and pure. People came from all distances to use it. Later the water from the Tea Pump was taken around the town and sold from wagons somewhat resembling the sprinkling-carts of the present day. By the eighteenth century the city had increased in size. The people found it inconvenient to go to a well or a pump, or to buy their water. They desired to have the water brought to them. Private companies were anxious to do this for gain. In 1774 Christopher Colles proposed to erect a reservoir (a place for collecting and storing water) and distribute water by means of pipes made by boring holes through small tree-trunks. The water was to be pumped from wells into the reservoirs and distributed by the gravity system. The work was started, but was stopped because of the Revolutionary War. Nothing further was done until 1799, when Aaron Burr and several others organized the Manhattan Water Works Company. They had about twenty-five miles of mains and supplied two thousand families with seven hundred thousand gallons of water daily. This amounts to three hundred and fifty gallons a day per person. This company operated until 1842. The first public water-works system, Croton Aqueduct, was begun in 1837. A large dam was built. The reservoir that was formed was five miles long and covered four hundred acres. A step in advance was made over the older method of carrying water through tree-trunks. An aqueduct of masonry, a monumental structure thirty-three miles long, was built from Croton down to New York City over High Bridge. For four miles the aqueduct ran along Tenth Avenue to the Yorkville Reservoir in Central Park. This occupied thirty-seven acres. Iron pipes were used from here to the Murray Hill Reservoir, on the west side of Fifth Avenue, between Fortieth and Forty-second Streets. This occupied four acres. In 1800 the reservoir was removed to make way for the New York Public Library. Due to the necessity of increasing the water supply, the Croton Aqueduct Board was forced in 1852 to recommend a new reservoir, known as Manhatta Lake. This was completed in 1862. It is located in Central Park, between Eighty-sixth and Ninety-sixth Streets, covering ninety-six acres, and has a capacity of one billion and thirty million gallons."—J. L. Stockton, *City's water supply (Community civics pamphlet)*.

Also see: E. Wegmann, *Water supply of the City of New York*.—G. E. Hill and G. E. Waring, Jr., *Old wells and watercourses of the Island of Manhattan (Historic New York, pp. 213-214, 223-224)*.

1741.—Panic over alleged negro plots.—In 1741, "the city of New York became the scene of a cruel and bloody delusion, less notorious, but not less lamentable than the Salem witchcraft. That city now contained some 7,000 or 8,000 inhabitants, of whom 1,200 or 1,500 were slaves. Nine fires in rapid succession, most of them, however, merely the burning of chimneys, produced a perfect insanity of terror. An indented servant

woman purchased her liberty and secured a reward of £100 by pretending to give information of a plot formed by a low tavern-keeper, her master, and three negroes, to burn the city and murder the whites. This story was confirmed and amplified by an Irish prostitute, convicted of a robbery, who, to recommend herself to mercy, reluctantly turned informer. Numerous arrests had been already made among the slaves and free blacks. Many others followed. The eight lawyers who then composed the bar of New York all assisted by turns on behalf of the prosecution. The prisoners, who had no counsel, were tried and convicted upon most insufficient evidence. The lawyers vied with each other in heaping all sorts of abuse on their heads, and Chief-justice Delancey, in passing sentence, vied with the lawyers. Many confessed to save their lives, and then accused others. Thirteen unhappy convicts were burned at the stake, eighteen were hanged, and seventy-one transported. The war and the religious excitement then prevailing tended to inflame the yet hot prejudices against Catholics. A non-juring schoolmaster, accused of being a Catholic priest in disguise, and of stimulating the negroes to burn the city by promises of absolution, was condemned and executed."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States*, v. 2, ch. 25.

ALSO IN: Mrs. Lamb, *History of the City of New York*, v. 1, ch. 26.—G. W. Williams, *History of the negro race in America*, v. 1, ch. 13.

1752-1827.—**Royal Exchange.**—"The event of the year 1752 was the building, by subscription, at the foot of Broad Street, of the Royal Exchange, for merchants. The building was supported on arches, the lower story being open—much as markets in southern cities now are. One room in the upper story was set apart as a meeting place for the merchants; a coffee-room, which later became a famous resort, was opened in one end. The Exchange stood until 1827, when it was succeeded by a finer building on Wall Street. It was the home of the first organization of merchants in the port."—C. B. Todd, *Story of the City of New York*, pp. 197-198.

1753.—**Opening of King's College.**—"For several years money had been raised, by lotteries, donations, etc., for the establishment of a college in New York city. Ten trustees had been appointed to take charge of the money, and "the vestry of Trinity Church offered to donate from the estate granted them by Queen Anne a site and the necessary grounds for a campus. This offer was accepted by the trustees, and in 1753 they invited the Rev. Samuel Johnson . . . to be first president. . . . The vestry gave to the college the use of their large room in the church building, and here in the autumn of 1753 the college was opened with an entering class of ten. . . . The first Commencement was held in June, 1758. . . . During the Revolution the college was dismissed. . . . On its reorganization in 1787, it was given the name Columbia."—C. B. Todd, *Story of the City of New York*, pp. 198-199.—See also UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1746-1787.

1754.—**First public library.** See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: First library in New York.

1765.—**Meeting of Stamp Act Congress.** See U. S. A.: 1765: Stamp Act Congress.

1775-1783.—**War of Independence.** See U. S. A.: 1775 (April), to 1783 (November-December); NEW YORK: 1773-1774; 1775, to 1783.

1777-1821.—**Mayor chosen by state council.**—From 1777 to 1821 the mayor of New York City was appointed by the governor and four senators, together constituting a "council of appointment."

1783.—**Tammany Society organized.** See TAMMANY SOCIETY.

1789-1792.—**Washington takes oath of office as first president.** See U. S. A.: 1780-1792.

1790-1844.—**Growth of city.—Poor sanitary conditions.—Increased commerce.**—"Some idea of the growth of the trade of the Union may be derived from a statement of the rapidity with which the chief sea-ports developed. New York is a striking example of this. In the year 1790 the population of that city was only some thirty-three thousand. Ten years later the population was nearly doubled, being then sixty thousand; ten years later, and it had again doubled itself, being in the year 1820 quite one hundred and twenty thousand. In 1830, the number was over two hundred thousand (213,000 exactly), and in 1840 it had risen to 312,000. It is curious to notice, however, that the city was considered, at least by Europeans, as very insanitary, and as late as 1844 the compiler of McCulloch's *Dictionary of Commerce* speaks thus: 'The pools which were formerly abundant in the city and its vicinity have been completely filled up: a measure that has done much to improve the health of the population. In respect of cleanliness, however, New York is not to be compared with an English town. There is hardly such a thing as a sink or common sewer in the whole city; the night soil is collected in pits, of which there is one in every house, and being conveyed to the nearest quay is thrown into the water; but as these quays are made of timber with many projections, a great deal of filth is retained about them, producing in hot weather an abominable stench. The yellow fever, by which New York is sometimes visited, uniformly breaks out in the lower and dirtiest part of the town, and seldom indeed extends to the new and more elevated streets. It is now (1843) much less prevalent than formerly, and the general opinion seems to be that if stones were substituted for timber in the quays, sewers constructed, and proper regulations enforced as to cleanliness, the scourge would entirely disappear.' The commerce, however, of New York rapidly became most extensive, and about the year 1840 the value of the merchandise annually loaded and unloaded in the port was estimated at from one hundred to one hundred and twenty million dollars, and nearly two-thirds of the total imports of the States passed through it; though only between one-third and one-quarter of the exports went through it. A list of the exports and imports will show the chief items of commerce, though we are already familiar with its general outlines. The exports included wheat, flour, corn, rice and cotton; beef, pork and dried fish; furs, tobacco, timber, and coarse manufactured goods. The imports were mainly cotton, woollen and linen manufactured goods, hardware and cutlery, and other metal manufactures, all the preceding coming mainly from England, while silk goods and wines came from France and Spain; sugar and coffee from Brazil and the West Indies; and tea, spices, dye-woods and other similar products came from various parts of the globe. Even before the half-century was complete, the tonnage of the shipping using the port of New York was greater than that of any other city in the world except London."—H. deB. Gibbins, *Economic and industrial progress of the century*, pp. 132-134.

1795-1842.—**Education.—Public school society. Organization of Board of Education.**—"In 1795 Governor Clinton urged the creation of the New England type of common schools, and through the legislature a fund was created for the successful

carrying out of the scheme. In 1797 free schools were established in the State. The progress of the free school movement was slow, however, and old ideas of teaching only children whose parents were affiliated with the different religious bodies caused the education of many of them to be neglected. Public-spirited citizens desirous of providing means for the education of neglected children called a meeting in 1805 to consider the question, and shortly after petitioned the legislature for permission to incorporate a society having for its object 'the establishment of a free school for the education of poor children who do not belong to or are not provided for by any religious society.' On April 9, 1805, the petition was granted by the legislature and the society duly incorporated. . . . It was not until May 19, 1806, that the society saw the fulfilment of its benevolent scheme when apartments were rented in a house on what is now Madison street, and the school begun. . . . In 1842, Gov-

island in a regular and uniform way. This change was the result of the City Plan."—C. Hemstreet, *Story of Manhattan*, pp. 212-213.—The gridiron type was the one selected, the city from Fourteenth Street northward being laid out in rectangles, with Broadway and the Bowery running diagonally across them. Two thousand city blocks were provided for, each 200 feet wide. Public squares were also planned.—See also CITY PLANNING: United States; Lack of, etc.; Development.

1812.—End of "old New York."—"With the close of the war of 1812, the beginning of immigration from Europe on a vast scale, and the adoption of a more radically democratic State constitution, the history of old New York may be said to have come to an end and that of the modern city, with its totally different conditions, to have begun. The town has never, before or since, had a population so nearly homogeneous as just after this second war with Great Britain; the English blood



BROADWAY LOOKING SOUTH FROM ST. PAUL'S IN 1835

ernor Seward recommended to the legislature in his message that a law be passed extending the common school system of the state to the city, resulting in the forming of the Board of Education."—H. Macatamney, *Cradle days of New York*, pp. 98-100. 100.

ALSO IN: E. A. Hobson, *Educational legislation and administration in the state of New York from 1777 to 1850*, pp. 25 ff.—A. E. Palmer, *New York public school*.

1807.—City plan.—"The city was growing more rapidly than ever and the streets and byways met one another at every sort of angle, forming a tangled maze. To remedy this, a commission was formed of several of the prominent citizens to determine just what course the streets should take. Now this commission decided not to interfere with those that existed, but to map out the island above the city and plan for those that were to be. They worked for four years and then submitted, in the year 1811, what they called the City Plan. If you will look at a map, you will see at the lower part of the Island of Manhattan that the streets cross and recross each other in the most bewildering manner. And you will also see that above this jumble the streets and avenues extend through the

has never been so nearly dominant as at that time, nor the English speech so nearly the sole speech in common use."—T. Roosevelt, *New York*, p. 173.

1821-1834.—Mayor elected by common council.—In 1821, a state constitutional convention was held in New York. Among other things this convention abolished the Council of Appointment which had chosen the mayor of New York City. For the next thirteen years the mayor was elected by the common council.

1826.—Organization of National Academy of Design. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern: United States.

1829-1830.—Early labor party.—Power of Brown and Evans. See LABOR PARTIES: 1827-1872.

1830.—Tweed charter. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Evolution of types.

1834.—Trade unions organized. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1825-1875.

1834.—First election of mayor by the people.—In 1834 the position of mayor was made elective, and thereafter he was chosen directly by the people. This reform was accomplished by amendment of the state constitution of 1821.

1835.—Politics.—Loco-Focos party struggle. See Loco-Focos.

1850.—Use of boycott. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1809-1850.

1851-1920.—Development of city parks.—Central Park.—Smaller public parks.—“According to the United States Census, New York City has the largest acreage of parks of any city in the United States and spends more money than any other city on them; but even with his record we have three times as many people per acre of parks as Boston. Only one-ninth of Manhattan with its intensely congested population is devoted to parks; Brooklyn and Queens have one-fiftieth and Richmond less than one-five-hundredth so set aside. There are six extensive parks in the city which provide recreation for all ages. The varied attractions of Central Park range from the wonderful collections of art in the Metropolitan Museum to the outdoor features of lakes, picturesque walks and drives, and playgrounds.”—E. E. Smith, *Public provision for recreation (Community civics monograph)*.—The site of Central Park was chosen in 1851. In 1853, an act of the legislature allowed the city to condemn the necessary land. Washington Irving and George Bancroft were among the famous men who helped to plan the park. An open competition in submitting plans led to the choice of Olmstead and Vaux as the landscape architects. By 1859 they had completed their work. The Department of Public Parks was created “in 1872, when . . . twenty-five other small parks and Central Park [were] . . . placed in the care of the Park Commissioners. . . . Carl Schurz Park lies on the eastern shore of Manhattan Island, opposite the northern end of Blackwell’s Island. . . . The property was acquired by the city pursuant to the provisions of chapter 320 of the laws of 1887, known as the Small Parks Law. It embraces 12½ acres and cost \$522,118. It was first called East River Park, but in the Annual Report of the Park Department for 1911 the name was changed to Carl Schurz Park. . . . An important parkway which may be considered as forming a part of the New York City park system, and yet independent of it, is the Bronx Parkway, which lies along, the Bronx River partly within the city limits and partly in Westchester county. . . . It was 1913 before the territory was surveyed and the plans for the parkway were sufficiently matured to enable the [Bronx Parkway] Commission to begin the acquisition of land. . . . Not much work was done in 1918 owing to war conditions [but after the war, work was resumed].”—*Annual Report of the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society*, 1920, pp. 137, 152, 162-164.—See also below: 1921-1922.

Also in: H. Macatamney, *Cradle days of New York*, ch. 44.—*Annual report of the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society*, 1903, pp. 105-125; 1904, pp. 55-64; 1910, pp. 383-424; 1911, pp. 370-490; 1916, pp. 537-598; 1918, pp. 166-173; 1919, pp. 98-110.—J. B. Pine, *Gramercy Park (Valentine’s Manual, 1920)*.

1853.—Establishment of board of councilmen.—In 1853 a board of sixty councilmen was organized.

1853-1857.—Police system changed. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Police defined.

1857.—Art education. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern: United States.

1857.—State police.—Clash with the city force.—When a state police was established in 1857, during the mayoralty of Wood, a clash occurred with the city police. This was only one of many riots that had disturbed the city’s peace since the beginning of the century.

1861.—Proposal for a separate state.—Outbreak of Civil War.—“At the outset of the Civil

War there was . . . an effort made to force the city into active rebellion. The small Democratic leaders, . . . ruffians who led the mob and controlled the politics of the lower wards, openly and defiantly threatened to make common cause with the South, and to forbid the passage of Union troops through the city. The mayor, Fernando Wood, in January, 1861, proclaimed disunion to be ‘a fixed fact’ in a message to the Common Council, and proposed that New York herself should secede and become a free city. . . . The independent commonwealth was to be named ‘Tri-Insula,’ as being composed of three islands, Long, Staten, and Manhattan. The Common Council . . . received the message enthusiastically, and had it printed and circulated. But when Sumter was fired on the whole current changed like magic. . . . The bulk of the Democrats joined with the Republicans to show . . . their fervent and patriotic devotion to the Union. . . . The Seventh Regiment of the New York National Guards . . . was the first in the whole country to go to the front and reach Washington.”—T. Roosevelt, *New York*, pp. 202-203.

Also in: *Letter from John Jay to S. P. Chase (American Historical Association, Annual report, 1902, v. 2, p. 493)*.—J. F. Rhodes, *History of the United States*, v. 3, p. 369.

1863.—Draft riots.—“A new levy of 300,000 men was called for in April, 1863, with the alternative of a draft, if the quotas were not filled by volunteering. The quota of the city of New York was not filled, and a draft was begun there on Saturday, the 11th of July. There had been premonitions of trouble when it was attempted to take the names and addresses of those subject to call, and in the tenement-house districts some of the marshals had narrowly escaped with their lives. On the morning when the draft was to begin, several of the most widely read Democratic journals contained editorials that appeared to be written for the very purpose of inciting a riot. They asserted that any draft at all was unconstitutional and despotic, and that in this case the quota demanded from the city was excessive, and denounced the war as a ‘mere abolition crusade.’ It is doubtful if there was any well-formed conspiracy, including any large number of persons, to get up a riot; but the excited state of the public mind, especially among the laboring population, inflammatory handbills displayed in the grog-shops, the presence of the dangerous classes, whose best opportunity for plunder was in time of riot, and the absence of the militia that had been called away to meet the invasion of Pennsylvania, all favored an outbreak. It was unfortunate that the draft was begun on Saturday, and the Sunday papers published long lists of the names that were drawn—an instance of the occasional mischievous results of journalistic enterprise. . . . When the draft was resumed on Monday, the serious work began. One provost-marshal’s office was at the corner of Third Avenue and Forty-Sixth street. It was guarded by sixty policemen, and the wheel was set in motion at ten o’clock. The building was surrounded by a dense, angry crowd, who were freely cursing the draft, the police, the National Government, and ‘the nigger.’ The drawing had been in progress but a few minutes when there was a shout of ‘stop the cars!’ and at once the cars were stopped, the horses released, the conductors and passengers driven out, and a tumult created. Then a great human wave was set in motion, which bore down everything before it and rolled into the marshal’s office, driving out at the back windows the officials and the policemen, whose clubs, though plied rapidly and knocking

down a rioter at every blow, could not dispose of them as fast as they came on. The mob destroyed everything in the office, and then set the building on fire. The firemen came promptly, but were not permitted to throw any water upon the flames. At this moment Superintendent John A. Kennedy, of the police, approaching incautiously and unarmed, was recognized and set upon by the crowd, who gave him half a hundred blows with clubs and stones, and finally threw him face downward into a mud-puddle, with the intention of drowning him. When rescued, he was bruised beyond recognition, and was lifted into a wagon and carried to the police headquarters. The command of the force now devolved upon Commissioner Thomas C. Acton and Inspector Daniel Carpenter, whose management during three fearful days was worthy of the highest praise. Another marshal's office, where the draft was in progress, was at Broadway and Twenty-Ninth street, and here the mob burned the whole block of stores on Broadway between Twenty-Eighth and Twenty-Ninth streets. . . . In the afternoon a small police force held possession of a gun-factory in Second Avenue for four hours, and was then compelled to retire before the persistent attacks of the rioters, who hurled stones through the windows and beat in the doors. Toward evening a riotous procession passed down Broadway, with drums, banners, muskets, pistols, pitchforks, clubs, and boards inscribed 'No Draft!' Inspector Carpenter, at the head of two hundred policemen, marched up to meet it. His orders were, 'Take no prisoners, but strike quick and hard.' The mob was met at the corner of Amity (or West Third) street. The police charged at once in a compact body, Carpenter knocking down the foremost rioter with a blow that cracked his skull, and in a few moments the mob scattered and fled, leaving Broadway strewn with their wounded and dying. From this time, the police were victorious in every encounter. During the next two days there was almost constant rioting, mobs appearing at various points, both up-town and down-town. The rioters set upon every negro that appeared—whether man, woman, or child—and succeeded in murdering eleven of them. . . . This phase of the outbreak found its worst expression in the sacking and burning of the Colored Orphan Asylum, at Fifth Avenue and Forty-Fourth street. The two hundred helpless children were with great difficulty taken away by the rear doors while the mob were battering at the front. . . . One of the saddest incidents of the riot was the murder of Colonel Henry J. O'Brien of the 11th N. Y. Volunteers. . . . Three days of . . . vigorous work by the police and the soldiers brought the disturbance to an end. About fifty policemen had been injured, three of whom died; and the whole number of lives destroyed by the rioters was eighteen. The exact number of rioters killed is unknown, but it was more than 1,200. The mobs burned about 50 buildings, destroying altogether between \$2,000,000 and \$3,000,000 worth of property. Governor Seymour incurred odium by a speech to the rioters, in which he addressed them as his friends, and promised to have the draft stopped; and by his communications to the President, in which he complained of the draft, and asked to have it suspended till the question of its constitutionality could be tested in the courts."—R. Johnson, *Short history of the War of Secession*, ch. 18.—See also U. S. A.: 1863 (July): New York.

Also in: J. G. Nicolay and J. Hay. *Abraham Lincoln*, v. 7, ch. 1.—H. Greeley, *American con-*

flict, v. 2, ch. 21.—D. M. Barnes, *Draft riots in New York*.—E. H. Roberts, *New York*, v. 2, pp. 661-667.—J. F. Rhodes, *History of the United States*, v. 4, pp. 320-332.—J. B. Fry, *New York and the conscription of 1863*.

1863-1871.—Operations of Tweed Ring and Tammany Hall. See NEW YORK: 1863-1871.

1864-1921.—Board of Estimate and Apportionment.—Origin and history.—"The present broad powers of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment are not adequately indicated by its name. The *estimating* of the requirements of the various branches of the city government and the *apportioning* of funds in accordance therewith constitute but a small part of the many functions which it now performs. The board of estimate is, in fact, the board of directors of the municipal corporation of New York, and as such determines the policies of the city with reference to all financial matters, assessable public improvements, franchises, privileges and permits. Its control over these matters is almost absolute. A brief examination of the origin and history of the board shows, however, that until within comparatively recent years its function was simply to prepare estimates of the cost of government and not to exercise any administrative or legislative functions. Probably the first board with this name was a 'Board of Estimate and Apportionment' consisting of the Commissioners of the Metropolitan Police and the comptrollers of the cities of New York and Brooklyn. This board was established in 1864 to estimate the expense of conducting 'The Metropolitan Police District of the State of New York,' which embraced most of the territory later included in Greater New York, and to apportion the expense to the various units within this district; its authority was limited to the expenditure for police service. Under the Tweed regime a board of apportionment was created, in 1871, consisting of the mayor, the comptroller, the commissioner of public works (Tweed) and the president of the department of public parks. Up to this time it had been the practice of the Legislature to appropriate specific amounts for each department of the city government. The act of 1871 provided an assessment not to exceed two per cent on property valuations. The board of apportionment was to apportion the revenue from this tax among the various departments of the city and county governments. Under the reform charter of 1873 the mayor, the comptroller, the president of the board of aldermen and the president of the department of taxes and assessments constituted a board of estimate and apportionment to estimate the expense of conducting the city and county of New York. The tax rate was then based upon this estimate. This was apparently the first board of the name with authority to estimate the requirements and apportion the revenues to all departments. In 1893 the Corporation Counsel was added. The revised charter of 1901 made the board consist wholly of elective officials, . . . and increased its importance as an administrative body. In 1902 the powers of the Board of Public Improvements were transferred to the board of estimate. Three years later the franchise-granting power of the Board of Aldermen was transferred to the board of estimate, so that the present board not only performs the duties originally imposed upon it but also has control over many matters not originally contemplated."—*Municipal Year Book*, 1916, pp. 20-21.—"The present Board of Estimate consists (in accordance with the provisions of the Revised Charter of 1901) of eight members, all of whom are officials elected for four-year terms.

The mayor, who is chairman, the comptroller and the president of the Board of Aldermen have three votes each, the presidents of the Boroughs of Manhattan and of Brooklyn have two votes each, and the presidents of the Boroughs of the Bronx, Queens and Richmond have one vote each—a total of sixteen votes. The Board is subdivided into three standing committees, assisted by an investigating and engineering staff and corporation of experts attached to the official of the secretary of the Board. . . . The Board determines the policies of the city with reference to all financial matters, assessable public improvements, franchises, privileges and permits. Its control over those matters is almost absolute."—J. Caccavajo, *Board of Estimate and Apportionment (Guide to the Municipal Government, City of New York [pamphlet], p. 17)*.—See also MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: City finance.

1865-1878.—**Fraud and corruption.**—"For several years after the war there was a perfect witches' Sabbath of political corruption in New York City, which culminated during the mayoralty of Oakey Hall, who was elected in 1869. The democratic party had absolute control of the municipal government; and . . . the city was at the mercy of the ring [Tweed ring] of utterly unscrupulous and brutal politicians who then controlled that party, and who in time of need had friends among some of their so-called Republican opponents on whom they could always rely. Repeating, ballot-box stuffing, fraudulent voting and counting of votes, and every kind of violence and intimidation at the polls turned the elections into criminal farces. The majorities by which the city was carried for the Democratic presidential candidate Seymour in 1868, represented the worst electoral frauds which the country ever witnessed. . . . This was also an era of gigantic stock swindling. The enormously rich stock-speculators of Wall Street in their wars with one another and against the general public, found ready tools and allies to be hired for money in the state and city politicians, and in judges who were acceptable alike to speculators, politicians, and mob. There were continual contests for the control of railway systems, and 'operations' in stocks which barely missed being criminal, and which branded those who took part in them as infamous in the sight of all honest men; and the courts and legislative bodies became parties to the iniquity of men composing that most dangerous of all classes, the wealthy criminal class."—T. Roosevelt, *New York*, pp. 206-208.—See also NEW YORK: 1863-1871.

1866.—**International committee of Young Men's Christian Association established by Albany convention.** See YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1865-1870.

1867-1915.—**Bridges.**—Brooklyn Bridge, which spans the East river, "is a monument to the genius of the great engineer, John O. Roebling, who conceived it, and to his son, Washington A. Roebling, who, on his father's death, before his plans could be carried out, took charge of the work, and carried it to a successful completion. A charter for a Bridge Company to build this great work was granted by the New York legislature in 1867. The Company was organized in May, of that year, and in January, 1870, began the construction of the bridge. The towers, each 272 feet above tide water, were first built. Then, May 29, 1877, the first little wire, to serve as a nucleus for the pioneer cable, was run out from the towers. When 5,269 of these galvanized steel, oil-coated wires had been laid side by side—not twisted—and bound, the first of the four great cables—3,455 feet long, and capa-

ble of sustaining a weight of 12,200 tons—was complete. All were at last completed, and then came the suspending from them of the roadway and the building of the massive approaches of masonry on either side. On May 24, 1883, after thirteen years of labor, the structure was opened to the public. Impressive ceremonies attended the event."—C. B. Todd, *Story of the City of New York*, pp. 459-460.—The Williamsburg Bridge, begun in 1896 and opened in 1903, extends from Delancey Street, Manhattan, to Broadway, Brooklyn. The Queensboro Bridge, extending from 59th Street, Manhattan, to Long Island City by way of Blackwell's Island, is a continuous cantilever 7,449 feet long. It was opened to traffic in 1909. Manhattan Bridge, from Canal Street, Manhattan, to Nassau Street, Brooklyn, was begun in 1901, but not entirely completed until 1911. Ward's Island Bridge, spanning Hell Gate, carries railroad tracks from the mainland into Queensborough. It was begun in 1912 and opened in 1917. There are a number of important bridges across the Harlem river, among them Washington Bridge and High Bridge, the latter one of the finest stone bridges in America, and carrier of the old Croton aqueduct.

Also in: G. W. Edwards, *Mighty bridges of Manhattan.—Thrilling thoroughfares (Mentor, July, 1922)*.

1868-1871.—**Voting practices of Tweed Ring.** See CORRUPT AND ILLEGAL PRACTICES AT ELECTIONS: United States: Forms.

1869.—**American Museum of Natural History founded.** See NATURAL HISTORY, AMERICAN MUSEUM OF.

1869-1920.—**Transportation.**—Growth of rapid transit.—Elevated and subway lines.—Dual system.—"Shortly after the Civil War [1869] New York launched its first experiment in rapid transit—an elevated steam railroad. A few pessimists predicted horrible consequences from building an elevated road with all the accompanying ills of noise and smoke, but no sooner was the road in operation than the people themselves showed their appreciation of the road by moving uptown in large numbers; moreover they must have enjoyed the trips because they began to travel more frequently until the elevated road was overtaxed. When Father Knickerbocker began to investigate the causes of this congestion, he started at the business end of the island where he found the big six-story office buildings were being dwarfed by the new steel structures. These huge buildings were climbing higher each year and their spacious offices provided attractive quarters for new business. As the elevated service improved Father Knickerbocker saw his families move farther away from the business section. He watched anxiously as the crowds flowed into the narrow end of the island as if they were poured into the small end of a funnel too fast and were jammed. No one wished more elevated lines for the noise from the trains was too unpleasant and the obstruction of the street by the elevated structure itself was an additional cause of congestion. Therefore the only solution of the transit problem seemed to lie in the development of subways. The story of the growth of rapid transit lines is a very human mixture of political jugglery, mad speculation and petty bickerings between the companies. But added to this is a chapter of magnificent vision and splendid engineering."—M. B. Morse, *Transportation and communications (Community civics monograph, pp. 5-6)*.—The first elevated line, extending from the Battery to Fifty-ninth Street on Ninth Avenue, was built in 1870; the second, the Sixth Avenue line, opened in 1878, extended from the Bat-

tery to the Harlem river. Similar lines were built on Third and Second Avenues. On all these until 1902, trains were run by steam. In 1886 the first cable line was established on 125th Street; and in 1898 the underground electric trolley system was introduced all over Manhattan. In 1902 electricity supplanted steam on the elevated lines. The first subway line was opened for use in 1904, and extended from one end of Manhattan to the other, with a branch running from 104th Street to the Bronx. Not long after the first subway extension to Brooklyn was completed. Mar. 19, 1913, the city contracted with the Interborough Rapid Transit Company and the New York Municipal Railway Corporation for the construction and operation of new lines known as the Dual System. The New York Municipal Railway Corporation was formed in the interest of the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company for the operation of the various lines to be constructed. The construction and equipment of the new system amounted to \$337,000,000 and provision was made in contracts for the amount to be borne jointly by the city and the two transit corporations. After a period of forty-nine years, dating from January 1, 1917, all agreements will end and the city will have complete control over the construction included in the dual plan. The contracts also stated that in the territory allotted to each company the rate for a continuous ride should be five cents. There were 618 miles of track. The system anticipated to carry more than 3,000,000 passengers per annum. During the year ending June 30, 1920, 2,364,775,067 were carried.—See also MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Franchises in the United States.

ALSO IN: *Dual system of rapid transit, New subways for New York, June, 1913 (pamphlet).*

1870.—Tweed's alteration of charter. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Evolution of types.

1870-1921.—Metropolitan Museum of Art.—The Metropolitan Museum of Art is one of the public institutions supported in part by an annual City appropriation, in part by private interest and generosity. It occupies a building at Fifth Avenue and Eighty-second Street under a lease from the city. The charter was granted April 13, 1870. "Soon after [the granting of the charter], negotiations were entered into which consummated in the purchase of a collection of pictures, consisting chiefly of specimens of the Dutch and Flemish Schools, but containing also important works of Italian, French, Spanish and English masters. It became necessary to make immediate preparation for the custody and exhibition of these paintings. The Trustees took accordingly a lease for two years from May, 1871, of the building known as No. 681 Fifth Avenue, which, although too small for their purpose, was the most available habitation they could find. In 1872, The Metropolitan Museum of Art was removed from its temporary quarters . . . to 128 West Fourteenth Street. This large, double house, known as the Cruger Mansion, was leased for a number of years by the Trustees. The greenhouses and conservatories were fitted up for the exhibition of sculptures, and in one of its courtyards the Trustees built a picture-gallery. This gallery, lighted from the roof, had five times as much wall space as the old quarters on Fifth Avenue, and enabled the Trustees to extend the interest of the Museum by loan exhibitions of paintings, and the display of the Cesnola Collection of antiquities from Cyprus, a portion of which had already arrived in this country. The Museum remained in this building until the last days of 1879, and was daily open to the public from 10 o'clock A. M. until 6 o'clock P. M. On the 5th

of April, 1871, the State Legislature, at the request of the Municipal Authorities of this City, passed an act appropriating the sum of \$500,000, with which to erect a building in . . . Central Park, 'for the purpose of establishing and maintaining therein a Museum and Gallery of Art.' On April 22d, 1876, the Legislature authorized and directed the Department of Public Parks to make and enter into a contract with The Metropolitan Museum of Art, for the occupation by it of the building which was then being erected, and such other additions as may be made to it from time to time. On the 24th day of December, 1878, the Park Department executed a written agreement with The Metropolitan Museum of Art, by virtue of which the Trustees took possession of the building in Central Park, which was then finished; and during the year 1879 all the collections of the Museum were removed from the building on Fourteenth Street and transferred to their new home in Central Park."—G. H. Story, *Paintings in the Metropolitan Museum of Art*, pp. v-vi.—The second great accretion of pictures, and the most important event in the history of the Department of Paintings, occurred in 1888 when Henry G. Marquand gave 53 pictures which placed the collection immediately in a position of considerable prominence. The Van Dycks, the three Hals, the Rembrandts, the Vermeer, the strange and beautiful work ascribed to Lucas van Leyden, the double portrait of the early Florentine school, the variant of Van Eyck's Madonna of the Fountain, Saltash by Turner, these and the others of the donation fix the Marquand gift among the most notable benefactions ever made to public collections. The effect of the gift on the growth of the Museum and on the development of culture in America has been incalculable. . . . Mr. Morgan, besides his gifts of Columbus by Sebastiano del Piombo, The Assumption of the Virgin by Benvenuto di Giovanni, The Argonauts by Pesellino, and many more, has helped continually by lending works from his collection. With but few exceptions the pictures that he acquired since 1906 have been shown in the Museum and many have never left its walls since their purchase by him. The regular buying of paintings began in 1905, after the receipt of the Rogers Fund, the first of the great bequests and gifts of money by which the Museum has been enriched. The Nativity by El Greco was the first painting bought out of this fund, which for four or five years was the single great source available for purchases without restrictions as regards schools. With the Hewitt Fund, 1908, and the Kennedy Fund, 1910, the possibilities were largely increased, the latter in particular being utilized conspicuously for the benefit of the painting collection. Many of the important purchases of the last three years—Wolf and Fox Hunt by Rubens, Mars and Venus by Veronese, Three Miracles of Saint Zenobius by Botticelli, Meditation on the Passion by Carpaccio, Four Saints by Correggio, and others—are due to the Kennedy Fund. The purchases out of the Leland gift, 1912, are the Mouth of the Scheldt by Van de Cappelle and the Miracle of the Loaves and Fishes by Tintoretto."—B. Burroughs, *Catalogue of paintings in the Metropolitan Museum of Art*, 1914, *Introduction*, pp. ix, xi.—The Altmann collection, bequeathed to the museum in 1913 by Benjamin Altmann, include some of the works of Rembrandt, Corot, Franz Hals and Velasquez, works of the Flemish, Italian, Early Dutch, Spanish and German schools, also tapestries, rugs and statuary. There was installed (1921) in the "Gold Room" a series of twenty-two ceiling panels (in fresco transferred to canvas) by Pinturicchio that

were acquired in Paris, 1914.—See also METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART.

ALSO IN: *Bulletins of Metropolitan Museum of Art of New York.*

1871.—Irish riots.—Collision between Orangemen and Catholics.—“An incident occurred July 12, 1871, illustrating the extent of foreign feeling, as well as foreign population, in New York. The Irish Orangemen proposed to celebrate on that day the Battle of the Boyne, and the Irish Catholics took offence at the parade which was announced. Threats of violence induced the police to forbid the parade, but at Governor Hoffman's request it was permitted. The National Guard as well as the police was invoked to protect the procession, but an assault was made, which was repulsed at the cost of several lives lost and several persons wounded.”—E. H. Roberts, *New York*, v. 2, p. 688.

1874-1892.—Restored Tammany government.—By the exposure and overthrow of Tweed and his “ring” in 1871, the Tammany organization was greatly discredited and crippled, but after a few years under the chieftainship of John Kelly and Richard Croker it recovered its control of the city government. “On election day, November 3rd, 1874, during a street row growing out of a political quarrel between Croker and James O'Brien, James McKenna was shot dead. Bystanders maintained that Mr. Croker fired the shot, and the Grand Jury indicted him for the crime. The trial jury, after being out for 17 hours, failed to agree. Public opinion at the time was divided, but it is the preponderance of opinion among those who are in a position to know that Croker did not fire the fatal shot. ‘Mr. Croker was born near Cork, Ireland, November 24th, 1843. His father was a blacksmith who emigrated to America in 1846, and settled in a squatter's shanty in what is now the upper portion of Central Park. From his thirteenth to his nineteenth year young Croker worked as a machinist. At a very early age he distinguished himself in the semi-social fist fights which were a part of the life of the ‘gang’ to which he belonged. He became, tradition has it, the leader of the ‘Fourth Avenue Tunnel Gang,’ and fought a number of formal prize fights, in which he came out victor. ‘At the beginning of the Tweed regime, according to his testimony before the Fassett committee (1890), he was attendant under Judge Barnard and other judges in the Supreme Court. Upon leaving that place, for some reason not known, he served as an engineer on a fire department steamer. In 1868 and 1869 he was elected an alderman. With a majority of his fellow members he sided with the ‘Young Democracy’ against Tweed, and was accordingly, with the rest of the board, legislated out of office. But he must have made his peace with the great ‘Boss’ soon after, for Comptroller Connolly appointed him superintendent of market fees and rents. In 1873 he was elected coroner. . . . In 1876 he was re-elected coroner. In 1883 he ran for alderman, with the understanding that if elected, thus establishing the fact of his constituents’ approval, Mayor Edson would appoint him a fire commissioner. During the canvass, a police captain, one of Croker's proteges, was responsible for a brutal clubbing, the feeling over which had the effect of reducing Mr. Croker's plurality to about 200. Mayor Edson, however, gave him the appointment, and he was reappointed by Mayor Hewitt. . . . In 1885 he caused the nomination of [Hugh J. Grant] . . . for sheriff. Mr. Grant, while in that office, according to Mr. McCann's testimony, gave \$25,000, in five presents of \$5,000 each, to Mr. Croker's two-year old daughter, Flos-

sie. Neither Mr. Croker nor Mr. Grant denied this transaction, though both declared that the sum was \$10,000 and not \$25,000. Mr. Grant furthermore declared that he gave it in consideration of Flossie being his godchild. In the meantime Richard Croker spent most of his time in England. From being a comparatively poor man, as testified in 1890, he became suddenly rich. From April, 1889 to February, 1890, he was city chamberlain at a salary of \$25,000 a year, but for sometime after that he held no public office, nor had he any regular business.”—G. Myers, *History of Tammany Hall*, pp. 267-268.—In 1892, the Tammany organization was described as follows: “In New York, the governing group discusses nothing openly. The Board of Aldermen is an obscure body of twenty-five members, with limited power except for mischief, its members being almost to a man high Tammany politicians who are either engaged directly in the liquor business or are in one way or another connected with that interest. So far as there is any meeting in which the rulers of New York discuss the public affairs of the community, such meetings are held in the Tammany wigwam in Fourteenth Street. But Tammany is not an organization which really concerns itself with any aspects of public questions, either local or general, excepting the ‘spoils’ aspect. It is organized upon what is a military rather than a political basis, and its machinery extends through all the assembly districts and voting precincts of New York, controlling enough votes to hold and wield the balance of power, and thus to keep Tammany in the possession of the offices. Its local hold is maintained by the dispensing of a vast amount of patronage. The laborers on public works, the members of the police force and the fire brigades, the employees of the Sanitary Department, of the Excise Department, of the Street Cleaning and Repair Department and of the Water and Dock and Park Departments, the teachers in the public schools and the nurses in the public hospitals, all are made to feel that their livelihood depends on the favor of the Tammany bosses; and they must not only be faithful to Tammany themselves, but all their friends and relatives to the remotest collateral degree must also be kept subservient to the Tammany dominations.”—A. Shaw, *Municipal problems of New York and London (Review of Reviews, Apr., 1892)*.

ALSO IN: G. Myers, *History of Tammany Hall*.—C. A. Beard, *American government and politics*, pp. 661-672.

1880.—Central Park obelisk purchased. See EGYPT: About B. C. 1700-1400.

1890-1897.—Consolidation of New York, Brooklyn, and neighboring towns, in Greater New York.—“The project of uniting the cities of New York, Brooklyn, and the cities, towns and villages contiguous to the same, into one great municipality, although long mooted before 1890, first took definite form in that year, by the passage on May 8th, by the Legislature, of Laws 1890, Chap. 11, entitled ‘An Act to create a commission to inquire into the expediency of consolidating the various municipalities in the State of New York, occupying the several islands in the harbor of New York.’ . . . Pursuant to the provisions of this act, a commission consisting of the following members was appointed, viz.: Andrew H. Green, Frederick W. Devoe, John L. Hamilton, J. Seaver Page of New York; J. S. T. Stranahan, Edward F. Linton, William D. Veeder of Brooklyn; John H. Brinkerhoff of Queen's county; George G. Greenfield of Richmond county; Charles P. McClel-

land of Westchester county; and Campbell W. Adams, State Engineer and Surveyor, ex officio, and Albert E. Henschel acting as secretary. In 1893, the commission presented to the Legislature a bill providing for the submission of the question of consolidation to a vote of the residents of the various municipalities proposed to be united into one city. The following year the Legislature provided for the referendum suggested by the commission. . . . The following vote was cast upon the question of consolidation in the ensuing election on November 6, 1894: New York, for consolidation, 96,938; against, 59,959; Kings, for, 64,744; against, 64,467; Queens, for, 7,712; against, 4,741; Richmond, for, 5,531; against, 1,505; Mount Vernon, for, 873; against, 1,603; Eastchester, for, 374; against, 260; Westchester, for, 620; against, 621; Pelham, for, 261; against, 153. At the opening of the Legislature in 1895, the Commission of Municipal Consolidation Inquiry presented a report with a proposed bill declaring the entire district before mentioned (with the exception of the city of Mount Vernon) consolidated with the city of New York. The bill, however, failed of passage because of the addition of an amendment of referendum in the last hours of the session of 1895, too late for further action. The Legislature, as a result no doubt of this vote on consolidation, did annex to New York city the towns of Westchester, Eastchester, Pelham and other parts of Westchester county. Early in January, 1896, the Legislature appointed a joint sub-committee of the Cities Committees of both Houses to inquire into the subject of the proposed consolidation and report March 1, 1896. The committee made a report and submitted a bill favoring consolidation. The bill as reported was passed by the Legislature and was submitted to the Mayors of the cities of New York and Brooklyn, and to the Mayor and Common Council of Long Island City pursuant to the provisions of the Constitution. The bill was returned to the Legislature without the acceptance of the cities of New York and Brooklyn. The Legislature repassed the bill over the vetoes of the Mayors of New York and Brooklyn, and it became a law May 11, 1896, with the approval of the Governor. This act (L. 1896, ch. 488) is entitled, 'An Act consolidating the local governments of the territory within the city and county of New York, the counties of Kings and Richmond and Long Island City and the towns of Newton, Flushing and Jamaica and part of the town of Hempstead, in the county of Queens, and providing for the preparation of bills for enactment into laws for the government thereof.' . . . Pursuant to the act of consolidation, the Governor (Levi P. Morton) appointed on June 9, 1896, the following members of the commission to draft the proposed charter, viz.: Seth Low, Benjamin F. Tracy, John F. Dillon, Ashbel P. Fitch, Stewart L. Woodford, Silas B. Duteher, Wm. C. De Witt, George M. Pinney, Jr., Harrison S. Moore. Mr. Fitch having resigned from the commission, the Governor appointed Thomas F. Gilroy in his place. By virtue of the act, the following gentlemen were members of the commission: Andrew H. Green, president of the commission appointed by L. 1890, ch. 311; Campbell W. Adams, State Engineer; Theodore E. Hancock, Attorney-General; William L. Strong, Mayor of New York; Frederick W. Wurster, Mayor of Brooklyn; and Patrick Jerome Gleason, Mayor of Long Island City. The commission organized on June 25, 1896, appointed Benjamin F. Tracy as president and George M. Pinney, Jr., as secretary, and named William C. De Witt, John F. Dillon, Thomas F. Gilroy, Seth

Low, Andrew H. Green, Benjamin F. Tracy, and George M. Pinney, Jr., as a committee on draft of proposed charter."—M. Ash, *Greater New York charter, introduction*.—The committee submitted a draft charter to the commission on the 24th of December, with a report in which a fundamental feature of its plan is thus set forth: "It is clear that the work of administering all of the Departments over so large a space of territory, situated on three islands and partly on the main land, must be subdivided in order to be successfully done. The draft, therefore, proposes to divide the city into the five Boroughs which nature and history have already formed; that is to say: (1.) Manhattan, which consists of the island of Manhattan and the outlying islands naturally related to it. (2.) The Bronx; that is to say, all that part of the present City of New York lying north of the Harlem, a territory which comprises two-thirds of the area of the present City of New York. (3.) Brooklyn. (4.) Queens, consisting of that portion of Queens County to be incorporated into the Greater New York. (5.) Richmond, that is, Staten Island. Power is given to the Municipal Assembly to subdivide these Boroughs still further, in case of need. The Greater New York will start with these five Boroughs for administrative purposes. Your Committee have reconstructed the Borough system, as submitted in the tentative draft, upon lines which we are of one accord in believing to be a better and more appropriate development of the plan for the Greater New York." These lines give to each Borough various boards through which the prosecution of local improvements may be facilitated within the limits of small districts, but reserve to the Municipal Assembly the right to incur indebtedness and to authorize the making of contracts. The draft thus prepared was subjected to criticism in the commission and in public hearings, and, after amendment and revision, was reported to the Legislature in February, 1897, as the charter recommended by the Commission for the consolidated city called "The Greater New York." It received some amendment and was passed. On submission, as required by the State constitution, to the mayors of New York and Brooklyn and the mayor and Common Council of Long Island City, it was approved in Brooklyn and Long Island City, but returned without approval by the mayor of New York. The Legislature then re-enacted the bill, and it was made law by the governor's signature, on the 4th of May, 1897.

1893-1898.—Unification of districts.—City plan. See CITY PLANNING: United States: Survey of New York.

1894-1895.—Lexow investigation of Tammany government.—Election of Mayor Strong.—On the second Sunday in February 1892 the minister of a wealthy Presbyterian church, Dr. Charles Parkhurst, startled his congregation by preaching an outspoken political sermon, in which he attacked the Tammany administration in most unmeasured language. This sermon was the starting point of the new anti-Tammany movement. In 1894 the legislature sent a "committee, headed by Clarence Lexow, to investigate. Croker did not wait for the revelations, but took his departure for England, where he remained until the work of the committee had been completed. The chief interest of the Lexow committee was centered in the police department, and there it uncovered a scandalous condition. The department had become almost completely an adjunct of the Tammany organization. It was shown that appointments to the force and promotions there were made under

the direction of the Wigwam district leaders. To obtain appointments on the police force men were compelled to pay an average of about \$300, depending upon the district leader through whom they secured appointments. To secure a captaincy required the payment of from \$10,000 to \$15,000. This, of course, meant that the members of the police force were allowed absolute freedom in the matter of recouping themselves. A sort of private licensing system was worked out, granting immunity from the law. Disreputable houses were assessed \$25 and \$35 per month for each inmate. Women were allowed to solicit on the streets on a similar basis. Pool rooms paid \$3,600 a year, and gambling houses, policy shops, of which there were many hundreds in the city, added their quota to the stream of gold. Saloons paid \$20 a month as they had been doing for a long time. The evidence before the committee showed also that honest business had to pay for protection from the lawless element in the city. Thieves and other offenders against the law were allowed to ply their trade, as a result of their willingness to divide the spoils. This sort of blackmail and extortion on the part of the police department was made to yield a total of \$7,000,000 annually, according to the estimate of the grand jury. Public indignation was again aroused at the disclosures, and a new Committee of Seventy was formed to inaugurate another reform movement. William L. Strong, a dry goods merchant, was nominated for mayor by the Committee. He received the indorsement of the Republicans, and was elected. Theodore Roosevelt was made commissioner of police, and a vast improvement was immediately realized in the workings of this department. Jacob Riis, as Tribune reporter, and the Rev. Charles H. Parkhurst had long been students of the terrible conditions, and Roosevelt took them into active coöperation. The reform administration was a genuine success in many other ways. Graft was practically unheard of. There was efficiency in the various departments. Many public improvements were made, and the cause of education saw a new era of progress."—C. M. Stebbins, *Tammany Hall, its history, organization and methods*, pp. 63-65.

1895.—Consolidation of Astor, Lenox and Tilden foundations to form the New York Public Library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: New York Public Library.

1897.—Election of first mayor of Greater New York.—Power of Croker as leader of Tammany Hall.—The first municipal election in Greater New York excited a passion of interest that was natural in the city itself, but extraordinary in the degree and the extent to which it spread, not only throughout the United States, but widely in the foreign world. The election was looked upon as the test of a vastly important experiment in the democratic government of an enormous city. The charter of the great consolidated municipality had lodged tremendous, unprecedented power and responsibility in the office of its mayor. The people were given an opportunity to determine by a single act of suffrage—by their choice of a single man—the character of their government. Democracy in municipal affairs, at least, had never been put on trial so sharply before. To a great number of the citizens of New York the duty of the hour was plain, and they promptly set their hands to it. Many months before the election they began the organization of a Citizens' Union, in which men of all political parties, sinking every other difference, should join for the defeat of Tammany and "Boss" Croker, and for the election to the

mayor's office of the best mayor to be found. With remarkable unanimity, their thought of the man turned to Seth Low, president of Columbia University, but one time mayor of Brooklyn, where his vigor, his firmness and his independence had been conspicuously proved. An extensive canvass of the city showed so widely spread a feeling in favor of Low that he was named at the beginning of September as the candidate of the non-partisan Citizens' Union. It was hoped that the whole opposition to Tammany Hall could be united in support of Low, representing as he did no partisan hostility to any organization in national or state politics. It was especially hoped and believed that the Republican party organization would endorse the choice of the Citizens' Union and make Low (himself a strong Republican) its own candidate. By nothing less than a general combination could the compact forces of Tammany Hall be overcome, and that fact was well understood. It was a fact so plain, indeed, that when the head of the Republican organization in New York persisted in setting a party candidate in the field, to divide the opposing voters of the city, there seemed to be small doubt of the intention with which it was done. The master politicians of the party were evidently more willing that the vast powers of the mayoralty, in the organization of the government of Greater New York, should be wielded by their prototypes of Tammany than that they should be given to independent hands. The party was obedient to them, and General Benjamin F. Tracy was put forward, by a Republican convention held September 28, in opposition to Low. The night previous, another candidate had appeared, in the person of Henry George, author of the economic doctrine of the "single tax," supported ardently by a large following, especially in the Democratic party. A section of that party, organized under the name of the United Democracy, had nominated George, and his nomination was endorsed a week later by a great assembly which claimed to represent the Jeffersonian Democracy of New York. On the 30th of September the nomination of the Tammany Democracy was given to Robert A. Van Wyck. Between these four principal candidates, the result of the election was only put in doubt by some question as to the strength of the Democratic vote which George would draw away from Van Wyck. It was a question extinguished sadly, three days before the election, by the sudden death of George. He had not been in good health, and the strain of the exciting canvass broke him down. His followers made a hasty nomination of his son, Henry George, Jr., in his place; but the personal prestige which might have carried a large vote with them was lost. Of the triumph of Tammany there was no longer any doubt, and no surprise was felt (though abundant grief and anger found expression) when the returns of the voting on November 2d were announced. Judge Van Wyck was elected by the ballots of 233,997 citizens, against 151,540 cast for Low, 102,873 for General Tracy, 21,693 for the younger George. Tammany would have been beaten if the Republican vote had gone to Low. Besides the four principal candidates here named, there were four other nominees who received small numbers of votes. Lucien Sanial, put forward by the Social Democrats, received 14,467; William T. Wardwell, named by the Prohibitionists, received 1,350; Patrick J. Gleason and Alfred B. Cruikshank, running with little more than some personal support, received a few hundreds of votes each. "In the latter part of 1897, after the success of Tammany . . . Mr. Croker spent some time

at the Lakewood Hotel, in Lakewood, N. J. It was commonly understood, and the newspapers all accepted the theory, that he there and then determined personally the Tammany men who should be appointed by Mayor Van Wyck to the many important and lucrative positions to be filled by the mayor under the Greater New York charter."—*Some things Richard Croker has said and done* (pamphlet), p. 9.

1899 (April-December).—Mazet investigation.—An investigation of charges against the city government, by a committee of the Legislature, Robert Mazet, chairman, was opened in April, 1899, the examination of witnesses being conducted by Frank Moss. The investigation followed lines much the same as those pursued by the Lexow committee, in 1894, and revealed much the same foul state of things, especially in the department of police. But there was evidently less earnestness in the committee; the probing of iniquities was far less thorough, and the whole proceeding was stopped with suspicious suddenness as soon as it drew near to prominent members of the party by which it was controlled. It called fresh attention to the rottenness in municipal politics, and it led to the creation of a new commission for the revision of the Greater New York charter; but otherwise it was most unsatisfactory.

1899-1900.—Ramapo water contract.—In August, 1899, Bird S. Coler, controller of the city, exposed a gigantic scheme of plunder involved in a contract with the Ramapo Water Company, which Tammany officials, assisted, it was said, by some interested Republicans, were attempting to crowd through the board of public improvements. The contract would have bound the city for forty years to pay to the Ramapo Company \$70 per million gallons for 200,000,000 gallons of water daily. Action on the subject was taken by the legislature, which, in March, repealed the Act of 1895, thus stripping the Ramapo Company of its extraordinary powers.

1900 (June).—Great fire at Hoboken piers. See HOBOKEN.

1900-1901.—Revision of charter.—Carefully as the Greater New York charter had been drawn, it proved unsatisfactory in the working, in various respects, and a commission to revise it was appointed in 1900. The report of the commission was submitted to the governor on the 1st of December, and transmitted, with his approval, to the Legislature in the following month. In the hands of the Legislature, the bill embodying the revised charter underwent considerable amendment. It was passed by the Senate on the 3rd of April and by the Assembly on the 4th, and went to the mayor of New York for the submission to his judgment which the state constitution of New York requires. Some of the more important changes in the charter made by the revision, as passed, are, an increase of the administrative powers of the presidents of boroughs; abolition of the municipal council and creation of a board of aldermen of 73 members; reorganization of various departments of the municipal administration.

1900-1903.—Beginning of tenement house reform.—"It was not until Governor Roosevelt's appointment of the De Forest Tenement House Commission in 1900 that the necessary remedial legislation took practical shape. This act itself was the result of many years' struggle against corrupt politicians.—Tammany Hall, the self-appointed guardian of the poorer classes, has been a bitter enemy of tenement reform,—and against vested interests. Its long delay had greatly exaggerated the problem; for meanwhile the conditions described

had accumulated in appalling volume. The commission, however, was of high civic character, and was composed of men, several of whom had made an exhaustive study of the tenement problem. The law which was passed as a result of their investigation was the first sweeping and effective tenement measure since the enactment in 1867 of the first tenement house act. The newly elected Low administration found the enforcement of this statute one of its most important responsibilities. The law created a new branch of municipal service,—the tenement house department; and gave the tenement commission, in the shape of an elaborate code of housing laws, important supervision over the building of new tenements and the maintenance of old."—B. J. Hendrick, *Great municipal reform* (*Atlantic Monthly*, Nov., 1903).

1901-1903.—Municipal elections.—Tammany's loss and recovery of the government.—Tammany Hall suffered defeat in the municipal election of 1901, the Hon. Seth Low being carried into the Mayor's office by a roused movement of reform which fused the elements of opposition to the corrupting Tammany power. Unfortunately the Mayor's term of office had been shortened to two years by the charter amendment of the previous year, and the term was too brief for much depth and thoroughness of reform; but the city was greatly cleansed during those two years. "With conditions favorable to its return to power, Tammany Hall took measures to make its ticket in the municipal campaign of 1903 headed by a candidate whose name stood for prestige and respectability. Tammany's candidate for Mayor was George B. McClellan, whose father of the same name, after serving as Commanding General in the Union Army during part of the Civil War, had been the Democratic candidate for President of the United States in 1864. A political protégé of Charles F. Murphy, George B. McClellan had seen service in Congress and had been selected by Mr. Murphy as Tammany's candidate for Mayor a considerable time before the campaign opened. Jealousy antagonistic to Tammany's domination and assertion of supreme power, the Brooklyn Democratic organization, then under control of "Boss" Hugh McLaughlin, opposed McClellan's nomination, but Mr. Murphy carried his point. To the amazement and chagrin of the Republicans and Fusionists, Tammany Hall then consummated a bold and astute political stroke by appropriating two of the three principal nominees of its opponents' ticket, and nominating them as Tammany candidates. These two men were Edward M. Grout and Charles V. Fornes, respectively occupying the offices of Controller and President of the Board of Aldermen under Mayor Low's administration. With Mayor Low they had been renominated. Thus did Tammany shrewdly weaken the other side and present itself as having two chief candidates of the same identity and capacity as those of the reformers. Mayor Low and his supporters did not accept this unhumorous situation complacently; they indignantly forced Grout and Fornes off their ticket. But the effect sought by Tammany had been produced. Mr. McClellan was elected Mayor by a plurality of 62,606. The vote resulted: McClellan, 314,782; Low, 252,086. Furman, candidate for Mayor of the Social Democratic party, received 16,506 votes; Hunter, the Socialist Labor party's candidate for Mayor, 5,205 votes. For the Prohibition ticket 869 votes were cast. In this election Tammany also elected its candidates, including Grout and Fornes, to all of the other important city offices, except the Presidency of the Borough of Rich-

mond. The results of the election practically gave Tammany Hall full control of the city."—G. Myers, *History of Tammany Hall*, pp. 305-306.

1901-1923.—Attempts to revise the charter.—"Since 1901, two attempts have been made to further revise the charter. On July 17th, 1907, the legislature passed an act authorizing the appointment of a commission of nine persons consisting of the mayor and comptroller of the city, a member of the board of aldermen, to be appointed by the governor and six other persons to be appointed by the governor, to examine into the local government of the city of New York and the counties contained therein, and the effect and working of the charter and to suggest such legislation as it might deem advisable relating thereto. The commission as required by the act made its final report to the governor on December 1st, 1907, indicating the confused condition of the statutory law affecting the city, and recommended various amendments but no legislation followed. On April 13th, 1908, the legislature passed an act to authorize the appointment of a commission to be known as the New York Charter Commission, to inquire into the local government of the city of New York, with power to investigate the manner of conducting and transacting business in the several departments, offices and boards thereof, to suggest legislation with respect thereto and in its discretion to draw a new charter and administrative code for the city. The governor on April 21st, 1908, appointed the commission, eight of the appointees having been members of the Charter Revision Commission of 1907. This commission made its report to the legislature on March 8th, 1909, accompanied by the draft of two bills comprising the charter proper and administrative code. In April, 1910, a new charter, differing from the one reported by the commission of 1908, was introduced in the legislature, but the bill failed of passage."—M. Ash, *Greater New York charter*, p. lxxii.—"The New York Charter Commission, appointed by the governor pursuant to the provisions of chapter 343, of the laws of 1921, submitted a report in 1923, together with a draft of an act designed to constitute a new charter of the city of New York."—*Report of the New York Charter Commission for the City of New York, 1923* (pamphlet).

1904.—Burning of steamer *Slocum*.—A catastrophe of such horror as to be historical attended the burning of the excursion steamer *General Slocum*, at New York, on the 15th of June, 1904. The boat left a New York dock in the morning with a Sunday-school picnic party aboard numbering about eleven hundred,—nearly all women and children. While passing through that part of the East river known as Hell Gate, within the New York City limits, fire was discovered in the forward part of the vessel. It was then flood tide, and the eddies and currents in those waters are very strong. The captain decided that it would be folly to attempt to land on either shore, or to beach his boat. He therefore headed the *Slocum* for an island two miles up stream. As the boat went forward at full steam, the fore-and-aft draught thus created fanned the flames and hastened her destruction. On the discovery of the fire by the passengers, the wildest panic ensued. It was found that the life-preservers with which the *Slocum* was equipped were worthless. No attempt was made to lower boats or life-rafts. The crew were engaged in trying to cope with the fire, but their efforts were futile. Within twenty minutes, the boat went to her doom, and of the women and helpless children who had embarked

so gaily an hour before, more than nine hundred were drowned or burned to death. Hundreds were saved by the heroic efforts of policemen, river men, and the nurses on North Brother Island, the seat of New York's hospital for contagious diseases, where the *Slocum* was finally beached. Most of those who met this awful death had come from a single densely populated district of New York's great "East Side." In some cases, whole families were wiped out.

1905.—Municipal election.—"The municipal election in 1905 was a triangular contest. Tammany Hall did not fear the Republican ticket headed by William M. Ivins for Mayor. But it did have intense uneasiness over the possibility of Mr. Hearst triumphing; his movement was too plainly making inroads among large numbers of voters that ordinarily would have voted the Tammany ticket. Tammany was particularly bent upon winning inasmuch as by the provisions of the revised charter the term of the incoming Mayor and other officials had been changed to a four-year incumbency. . . . [Hearst's personal following took the character for a time of a formidable political organization, incorporated under the name of the Independence League; and the wealth which Hearst had inherited, and which his prosperous newspapers replenished was spent in supporting the organization. He was nominated by the Independence League and Tammany renominated Mayor McClellan.] So effective were Hearst's onslaughts on 'Boss' Murphy and the elements represented by him that during the campaign Mayor McClellan repeatedly made promises that he would thereafter pursue an independent course, should he be reelected. Mr. Hearst's vote returns came in so heavily after the polls were closed that it looked as though he were certainly elected. That very night there was a strange interruption, lasting about an hour, in the public giving-out of the returns. Then as the returns were resumed, it appeared that although the vote between McClellan and Hearst was extremely close, McClellan had a little the better of it. The next day it was announced that Mayor McClellan was reelected by a close margin. Mr. Hearst and his followers declared that manifest fraud had been committed, and took steps to have a recount. Meantime while the process was dragging along, Mayor McClellan was widely criticized for his action in immediately claiming his reelection, opposing a recount, and not showing faith in the legitimacy of his claims by waiting with dignity until there had been a careful official recount. The final official recount gave this result: McClellan, 228,407 votes; Hearst, 224,929 votes; Ivins, 137,184 votes. It may be added here that in the very next year—in 1906—Hearst accepted a Tammany indorsement when he ran for Governor. . . . With the reelection of Mr. McClellan, Tammany Hall confidently looked forward to four more years of unquestioned control of the immense budget and enormous opportunities embodied in the rule of New York City."—G. Myers, *History of Tammany Hall*, pp. 322-323.

1905-1919.—Water supply from Catskill mountains.—In 1905 the City of New York procured authority from the legislature to construct the works necessary for an adequate supply of water, additional to that which had been drawn for many years from the Croton river for old New York and from the Ridgewood system for Brooklyn. The source determined on was in the Catskill mountains, including several streams, called creeks—namely Esopus, Rondout, Schoharie, and Catskill—having a total water-shed of 885 square

miles, and estimated to furnish about 770 millions of gallons daily, even in dry years. The plan of the project in its entirety contemplated the construction of eight great reservoirs for storing and controlling the waters derived from these streams. "By 1917, after an expenditure of one hundred and seventy-seven million dollars, water from the Catskill Mountains, traveling a distance of one hundred and twenty miles, was supplied to all the boroughs of the city. . . . Many engineering difficulties confronted the builders. A great dam had to be built across the Ashokan Valley. Lands in the valley had to be purchased, houses torn down, graveyards moved, and railways shifted. All this took time, men, and money. The Catskill system comprises various reservoirs, which store water, and aqueducts, which convey the water from the reservoirs to the city. [See also *AQUEDUCTS: American: Catskill.*] The Ashokan Reservoir comes first. It is twelve miles long and three miles wide, and covers about ten thousand acres with water from fifty to one hundred and ninety feet deep. The capacity of the reservoir is estimated at one hundred and thirty-two billion gallons. Aqueducts consisting of masonry and iron pipes carry the water underground through tunnels dug under mountains and even under the Hudson River to the Kensico Reservoir, located about three miles north of White Plains. This, the second reservoir, is four miles long and three wide. Fifty days of water supply for the city is stored there. From here the aqueduct runs sixteen miles south to the Hill View Reservoir, in the city of Yonkers. In some places the pipes that carry the water are more than seven hundred feet under ground—where they cross the Narrows to the Silver Lake Reservoir, in Staten Island. The Catskill water system is not wholly completed. [See below; 1923.] It is intended to furnish five hundred million gallons of water daily. Only about one-half that amount is supplied at present. The Schoharie Watershed when completed will supply the rest. Pumping-stations will be dispensed with in the present system as the water comes to the city by gravity. This means a saving of millions of dollars. At present the city is receiving six hundred million gallons of water daily. Forty millions are supplied by private companies, two hundred and fifty millions by the Catskill system, three hundred and ten by Croton. Each inhabitant of Greater New York is credited with using nearly two hundred gallons of water daily at a cost of two cents for that amount for each inhabitant. Supplying the people of the city with water is not all that must be done. The water must be pure. There must be a continuous flow. In case of drought water must be plentiful. The city must protect not only the water but the supply. There must be protection against accidents, bursting of mains, breaking of dams, and overflow of reservoirs. Refuse and sewage must not be permitted to reach the water. How is this work to be done? Who is to do it? Outside of the city there is a squad of mounted police that patrol the reservoirs and aqueducts. Repair companies are ready for any emergency. For the Croton system there are uniformed inspectors that guard the water and report breaks and leaks to the Water Department. The city maintains repair companies. These are ready night and day in case of accidents. New York has had some trouble keeping the people who live near the reservoirs from dumping sewage and garbage near them. Some progress is being made. Efforts have been made to raise sanitary standards of communities along the watershed. Rules under which the de-

partment has endeavored to protect the water supply from pollution were framed in consultation with the State officials, and suitable penalties for violations have been fixed. Water before it can be used must be purified. Four ways are used to remove impurities and germs. First, at the Ashokan Reservoir the water is aerated. This is done by two small reservoirs 250 x 500 feet, in the bottom of which are laid water-pipes four and five feet apart. At intervals of five and six feet in each pipe are nozzles through which the water under pressure rises forty to sixty feet and falls back into the reservoir as spray. All the water goes through this process. This mixture of air with the water causes oxidation of the vegetable organisms, and removes odors and undesirable gases. Second is coagulation. This removes the turbidity, small clay particles, from the water, which sometimes give it its brownish appearance. About two miles north of Kensico Reservoir a coagulation plant has been installed. This is so situated that it can mix with the water flowing into the aqueduct small quantities of harmless coagulant—alum—which will cause the particles of clay to settle to the bottom during the storage period in the Kensico Reservoir. Third is chlorination. Chlorine is introduced into the water flowing downstream from Kensico. This sterilizes the water before it reaches the city. Harmful bacteria are thus removed. Fourth is filtration. Provision has been made for a filtration plant about two miles below Kensico. Rapid sand-filters will be used. These will remove all other impurities from the water."—J. L. Stockton, *City's water supply (Community civics pamphlet)*.

ALSO IN: E. Wegmann, *Water supply of the city of New York*.—W. B. Munro, *Principles and methods of municipal administration*, p. 130.—*New York Times Current History*, July, 1920, p. 659.

1908-1909.—Jewish population.—Problem of organization.—Kehillah. See JEWS: United States: 1908-1918.

1909.—Corruption in Custom House. See U.S.A.: 1909 (October-November).

1909.—Renewed struggle against Tammany.—Although Tammany elected its candidate for mayor in the municipal election of 1909, its domination was practically overthrown by the defeat of its nominees for all other offices of importance in the city government. A coalition of the Republicans with anti-Tammany Democrats and other organizations had presented a fusion ticket headed by a prominent and much-trusted business man, Otto T. Bannard. William R. Hearst entered the field again, as an independent nominee, and Tammany named William J. Gaynor, who had been one of its opponents, as a Democrat, in the past. Gaynor was elected by a plurality of 73,010, the vote cast for mayor being: Gaynor 250,678; Bannard 177,602; Hearst 153,843. The city comptroller, four of the five borough presidents, and the president of the board of aldermen, were elected by the Fusionists. By the election of George McAneny to be president of the Borough of Manhattan, a political reformer of great force, was brought into the city government. By controlling twelve of the sixteen votes in the important board of estimate, the opponents of Tammany stripped that organization of all power over public "jobs." As expressed in one of the journals of New York on the day after election, "after January 1 Charles F. Murphy and his associates no longer will say who shall have public franchises; they, too, will no longer fix the budget, sell the city's bonds, and pay political debts with salary

increases. In other words, the Tiger has lost his grip on the city's purse-strings, and this fact, perhaps, more than any other, has turned his den into a cavern of gloom."

1909 (June).—Wall Street investigation, so-called.—Report on Stock Exchange and other exchanges. See STOCK EXCHANGE: 1909.

1909-1919.—"Pay-as-you-go" policy.—"By 1909 there was complete confusion concerning what was the city's 'constitutional debt,' and therefore what was its 'margin' for further borrowing. The confusion in 1909 was due partly to the real complexity of the subject, . . . partly to a poor accounting system in the city departments, and partly to deliberate efforts by some of the previous administrations to camouflage the current expenses for the purpose of making the taxpayer's burden seem light, on the principle that 'the lighter the taxpayer's burden, the more votes for the administration.' This camouflage could be effected only by long-time borrowing, which would not show in the budget as then made out, putting thereby a treble burden upon the next generation. . . . The whole question was thrown into the courts, since honest and reputable people differed in their opinions of the margin, their estimates ranging from \$3,000,000 to \$300,000,000. Nevertheless we were still facing financial difficulties when the war broke out in 1914, and demands were made upon us which brought about the formulation of the pay-as-you-go policy. This was put into legal form by an act of the Legislature which laid down the principle that revenue-producing improvements—for water, docks, subways, etc.—might be paid for out of long-time bonds, fifty-year corporate stock, but that non-revenue-producing improvements must be paid for out of the tax levy. This was to take four years to go into full effect, each year a larger proportion being raised by taxation, till by 1918 all non-producing improvements (schoolhouses, paving, sewers, etc.) would be paid out of the current taxes."—L. Hall, *Paying the city's bills (Community civics pamphlet)*.—"New York city is a very large business corporation, with an income and expenditure of over \$200,000,000, about one-fifth of the federal government pre-war budget. Quite a little of this money goes into the purchase of materials and supplies, and with an increase in Dun's index price of about 100% since the beginning of the European War, the city had the choice of stopping practically all expenditures, of deferring payment for some of them, or of raising the tax rate to a degree that would have been alarming. There were objections to all three courses, but such an increase in the city's budget as would cause a reduction in the values of real estate through a too sudden increase in the tax rate, involved the immediate risk of eliminating the city's margin for new borrowing for construction purposes and creating a situation which the "Pay-as-you-go" policy had been intended to prevent. Rather than risk the development of an unhealthy situation in real estate conditions, Controller Craig suggested that at least for the period of the war the provision requiring the city to pay its non-revenue-producing expenditures out of current income should be modified in favor of a policy which would permit the city to fund such expenditures over a period not longer than the life of the improvements created. This policy, while less conservative than the 'Pay-as-you-go' policy adopted in 1914, is a great improvement on the plan which had been followed for years. The legislation which has been passed permitting this change will permit the city for the period of the war and one year afterward to issue corporate

stock and serial bonds up to \$15,000,000 annually for non-revenue-producing improvements, provided they mature and are redeemed within the estimated life of the improvement as certified in the resolution authorizing it. Its estimated useful life varies from fifty years for property believed to be permanent, such as water supply, rapid transit or sewers, down to fifteen years for expenditures for machinery and ten years for purposes not otherwise specified."—A. M. Anderson, *History of the pay-as-you-go policy (Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science, July, 1918, p. 110)*.

1910.—Cloak makers' union.—Protocol of peace. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1910-1916; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1877-1911.

1910-1913.—Gaynor's administration.—"While graft in the police department may not have been fully eradicated during his administration, still it cannot be denied that he left that department in an infinitely better condition than he found it. . . . Without Mayor Gaynor, our extended subway system would probably not now be under construction, for his was the powerful personality in the Board of Estimate that continually counselled action and not talk."—Address by Henry Clews at Cooper Institute, New York, Sept. 23, 1913 (*pamphlet*), pp. 4-5.

1910-1920.—Growth of the Bronx.—In the decade from 1910 to 1920 the Borough of the Bronx grew astonishingly in population and importance. From a population in 1910 of only 431,000, it had increased in 1915 to 650,000, and in 1920 to 732,000—an increase of 69.8 per cent. The assessed value of real estate during the same period increased from \$494,000,000 to \$753,500,000. In size the Bronx now ranks with Baltimore, having only 1,810 fewer inhabitants in the last census.

ALSO IN: S. Jenkins, *Story of the Bronx*.

1912.—Conference of Legal aid societies. See LEGAL AID: United States: Conferences and conventions; Legal aid societies in New York state.

1913-1917.—Mitchel's election and administration.—"In 1913 a Fusion committee of Republicans and independent Democrats nominated and secured the election of the recent New York City administration. Mr. Mitchel, the mayor, was elected by a large majority."—E. Dawson, *New York City election (American Political Science Review, Feb., 1918, pp. 110-120)*.—"Mr. Mitchel and his associates have now had nearly two years of opportunity and power. In this time his administration has demonstrated its character and quality, and given assurance of the permanent contribution it will make to the city's welfare. It has given the city a government of a non-partisan character. It has emphasized the professional character of municipal administration by seeking qualified experts for executive positions. It has brought to the forefront the social welfare aspects of government activity, and given emphatic and continuing emphasis to economy and efficiency. . . . It has kept itself in the position of recognizing from week to week and month to month the obligation it assumed on entering office to conduct the affairs of the city government with efficiency and to devote the resources of the city exclusively to public welfare."—H. Brùère, *Mayor Mitchel's administration of the City of New York (National Municipal Review, Jan., 1916)*.

1914-1921.—Social centers.—Neighborhood clubs. See RECREATION: 1914-1921: Rapid development of municipal recreation.

1915-1921.—Worker's education.—Unity centers. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Worker's education: United States.

1916.—Zoning acts. See CITY PLANNING: United States: Survey of New York.

1917.—Hylan's election.—"On November 6 last [1917], the city voted to substitute for this Fusion administration one made up wholly of Democrats, and almost wholly of the nominees of Tammany Hall. Hylan, the democratic candidate, received 297,000 votes; Mitchel 149,000. . . . The election was a sad exhibition of unorganized government. . . . The administration had made many mistakes; but opposition was as sharp against its most conspicuous services as its most serious errors. . . . The administration rendered no more important service than its adoption of the pay-as-you-go policy in handling the city's debts."—E. Dawson, *New York City election (American Political Science Review, Feb., 1918, pp. 110-120)*.

1918.—Influenza epidemic.—"The influenza epidemic that swept New York City in the fall of 1918 came at the time of all times when we were least armed to cope with it. Over-exertion in war work, a general sense of strain, a dearth of doctors and nurses, who had gone across the seas, all contributed to break down our defenses against it."—W. W. Rogers, *Guarding the health of the people (Community civics pamphlet)*.

1918.—Cost of port.—Operation of shipping. See RAILROADS: 1916-1920.

1918-1919.—Harbor strikes. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1918-1919: New York harbor strikes.

1918-1921.—Elections.—Five cent fare issue.—Transit commission.—Meyer committee of investigation.—"John F. Hylan became mayor of New York City, January 1, 1918, having overwhelmingly defeated J. P. Mitchel, candidate for reelection on the fusion ticket. . . . After Mayor Mitchel's honest and efficient administration the people of the country in general shook their heads dubiously when the voters of our largest city decisively rejected Mitchel in favor of Hylan, protégé of Hearst and candidate of Tammany Hall. Naturally, Mr. Hylan's administration was closely watched by many voters of the city who expected to find not only inefficiency but also gross corruption. The newspapers remained generally hostile to the mayor. When he was not ridiculed and pictured as a bungler he was accused of sinister purposes. His appointments were often condemned. It was said that he appointed Tammany politicians and personal friends to office. Of course in doing so he was merely following a well-established American custom. New York, like many other cities, has had considerable difficulty in its dealings with public utility corporations. When the war came prices rose enormously. Transportation companies, formerly paying large dividends, now confronted with rising costs, made demands for increased fares. The mayor and his colleagues rejected all such proposals. They were blamed for failure to work out definite plans for the solution of the transportation problem and were frequently called obstructionists. The fact remains, however, that while in many cities car fares were increased and in some doubled, in New York the fare is still five cents. The great majority of the people believe that the mayor's stand is responsible for this. . . . The 1921 legislature, overwhelmingly Republican and extraordinarily submissive to Governor Miller's leadership, made the re-election of Mayor Hylan a practical certainty. Two measures especially strengthened the position of the mayor. The public service commissions were reorganized and a state-appointed transit commission with complete authority over the subject of transit in New York City was

established. Secondly, provision was made for a legislative committee to investigate the conduct of the Hylan administration. The transit law was attacked by the city administration and by local Republican leaders because it practically deprived the city of all control over its transportation system and because it was believed to pave the way for an increase in fare. The transit commission at once began a thorough investigation of its problem and on September 30 issued a preliminary report recommending a plan for municipal ownership of all railway lines in the city, payment for the property to be made on the basis of an honest valuation irrespective of the present capitalization and book values. Fares were to be based on the actual cost of operation, and there was to be no increase unless operation under the new conditions should demonstrate its necessity. Upon the full establishment of the plan, the transit commission was to be abolished. These proposals of the commission were at once attacked by the city administration though they were quite generally approved by the press. The comptroller saw in the plan only one good provision—that for the abolition of the transit commission, which he thought, however, should be put into effect at once. The mayor's commissioner of accounts detected a scheme for unloading on the city worthless liues and for an eventual eight or ten cent fare. It was also claimed that the issuance of the report a few weeks before the election was designed to fool the people into the belief that the commission was in favor of the five-cent fare and thus to weaken the mayor's chief campaign issue. The legislative investigating committee, headed by Senator Meyer, did not succeed in convincing the public that the Hylan administration was very corrupt and inefficient. On the contrary it did convince the people that its chief purpose was to produce campaign material and to 'get Hylan' at any cost. Although the committee's examination of city officials brought to light some things which did not tend to increase public confidence in the management of certain city departments, yet its methods were so apparently partisan that the investigation proved a boomerang and undoubtedly strengthened the mayor with the voters. . . . From the very beginning of the campaign it was clear that the odds were in favor of Hylan. . . . The election resulted in an overwhelming victory for the mayor and the Democratic ticket generally. Every single member of the newly elected board of estimate and apportionment, the city's actual governing authority, is a Democrat. Hylan's plurality was almost 418,000. The vote for mayor stood as follows: Curran, Republican-Coalition, 336,888; Hylan, Democrat, 745,874; Panken, Socialist, 83,200. Comptroller Craig's plurality was 240,252. Hulburt was elected president of the board of aldermen by a plurality of 268,728. The Democrats gained also fourteen seats in the board of aldermen, which will have fifty Democratic and fifteen Republican members. There is little doubt that the five cent fare issue was the greatest single factor in determining the result of the election. The voters were unalterably opposed to an increase in fare. Moreover they believed that the mayor's firm stand against such increase was the reason for the present five cent fare. Whether the mayor's stand was based on a conviction that the five cent fare was sufficient or that it was the best way to secure votes did not seriously concern them. Whatever his motives were, he had done what they wanted done. After the election was over even traction officials stated that they considered the vote a decided rejection of their arguments

for more than the present fare. Rightly or wrongly, the masses of the voters bailed the reelection of Hylan as their victory over the 'upper classes.'—E. D. Graper, *New York City Election (American Political Science Review, Feb., 1922)*.

ALSO IN: F. Hedley, *Annual Report of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company for the Year ended June 30, 1921*.—*Report of the Joint Legislative Committee to Investigate the Affairs of the City of New York on the Finances of the City, Mar., 1922*.—*Reports of the New York State Joint Legislative Committee to Investigate the Affairs of the City of New York, 1921*.

1919.—Municipal election.—Defeat of Tammany.—“A number of important municipal elections were held in November. In New York City Tammany suffered a severe defeat. Fiorella H. LaGuardia, Republican, was elected as president of the Board of Aldermen over Robert L. Moran, holder of the office, by a plurality of about 1400 out of nearly 1,000,000 votes cast. Henry H. Curran, Republican, was elected as president of the Borough of Manhattan over Edward F. Boyle, Democrat, by a plurality of 1800. With these two officers the Republican secured a voting strength of five on the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, the actual governing authority of the city. The Tammany judicial ticket was also defeated. The Board of Aldermen remained Democratic by a slight plurality.”—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly, 1920, Supplement, p. 76*.

1919.—Organization of American Labor party of Greater New York. See LABOR PARTIES: 1918-1920.

1919-1923.—Port and harbor development.—New Jersey tunnel plans.—Port of New York Authority.—Staten island piers.—“The commission known as the Port of New York Authority consists of three Commissioners appointed by the Governor of the State of New York and three Commissioners appointed by the Governor of New Jersey. Two of the New York Commissioners must be resident voters of New York City and two of the New Jersey Commissioners must be residents of the New Jersey district affected. The original six Commissioners were named in the acts which created the commission with the designated three, five and seven year terms. Subsequent appointments are for terms of five years. Vacancies are filled by the Governor for the unexpired term of the retiring member. On April 30, 1921, the Port Treaty was signed by the representatives of the States of New York and New Jersey as provided in Chapter 154, Laws of 1921. A Port of New York District was established by this treaty and the Port of New York Authority was placed in jurisdiction. The compact entered into between the two States was approved by President Harding on August 23, 1921. The Port of New York Authority is directed by law to make studies, conduct investigations, hold hearings and conferences, and submit a comprehensive plan for the development of the Port to the Legislatures. The Port of New York District, included within the jurisdiction of the commission, extends roughly from the City Hall in Manhattan 25 miles to the north, 16 miles to the east, 23 miles to the south and 20 miles to the west, including the principal communities within what is called the Metropolitan District. It included within its radius 105 municipalities, upward of 8,000,000 residents and embraces 12 trunk line railroads, handling over seventy-five million tons of freight yearly, as well as the tremendous shipping of the largest seaport in the world, the foreign trade

alone involving the handling of over forty-five million tons per annum. . . . Chapter 260, Laws of 1906, created the New York Interstate Bridge Commission, which in conjunction with a similar commission in New Jersey was appointed to study the practicability of constructing a bridge over the Hudson River. In 1907 the Commissioner of Bridges of the City of New York was added to the commission through appointment by the Mayor. In 1913 the name of the commission was changed to New York State Bridge and Tunnel Commission and it was given authority to consider tunnel communication. Chapter 178, Laws of 1919, authorized the commission to proceed with the construction of a tunnel or tunnels between a point in New York City, near Canal Street, Manhattan, and a point in Jersey City, for the use of pedestrians and for vehicles not operated by public service corporations. The sum of a million dollars was appropriated by the State for the purposes of commission. The New Jersey Interstate Bridge and Tunnel Commission was given authority by that State to join New York in the undertaking and the same amount of money was appropriated. A contract was signed between the two States on December 30, 1919, the cost of construction, operation, repair and maintenance to be shared equally. Ground was broken for the tunnel October 12, 1920. The entire cost is estimated at 28 million dollars and the tunnel is expected to be open for traffic in 1924. It is to be a twin-tube cast iron tunnel, 29 feet exterior diameter, to accommodate four lines of traffic and two sidewalks for pedestrians, extending from the opening at the foot of Canal Street, Manhattan, to Twelfth and Provost Streets, Jersey City. . . . Chapter 700, Laws of 1921, provides for a freight and passenger tunnel under the Narrows between the Boroughs of Brooklyn and Richmond. The Board of Estimate and Apportionment is given authority to select the sites, to decide upon construction and to fix tolls, etc., in accordance with the provisions of the Charter for local improvements. The law requires that the construction of this tunnel shall begin within two years from the date of the passage of the law and the City is empowered to lease it to transportation companies when it is completed.”—J. Caccavajo, *Guide to the municipal government, City of New York (pamphlet), pp. 115-117*.—“The greatest single addition ever made to the pier capacity of the port of New York (or of any other port . . . is the long stretch of piers, none of them less than a thousand feet in length, which extends along the shore-line of Staten Island to the south of St. George's Ferry, between Tompkinsville and Clifton. This is an entirely new development, all of the piers having been constructed simultaneously, and well within a stretch of two years' time [1920-1921]. In width they vary from 125 to 200 feet, and in length from 1025 up to 1180 feet. The two widest piers, each 209 feet in width, and 1020 feet in length, carry double-deck sheds; the others are single deck.”—*New York City's Staten island docks (Scientific American, May, 1922)*.

ALSO IN: *Sixteenth Annual Report of the Citizens' Union Committee on Legislation, 1920, p. 19*.—C. M. Holland, *Linking New York and New Jersey (American City, Mar., 1921)*.—*Annual of port of New York, 1920*.—J. H. Cohen, *Greatest port in the world (Independent, Mar. 20, 1919)*.—T. E. Rush, *Port of New York*.—*New York Port and Harbor Development Commission, Report, 1920, p. 329*.—*Planning the greatest seaport development in the world (Current Opinion, Apr., 1922)*.

1920.—Housing shortage.—New rent laws.—“Recently a committee was appointed by Governor Smith of New York, composed of members of the Legislature, to investigate the shortage of houses and dwellings. It is known as the ‘Lockwood’ committee. [See HOUSING: United States: New York state legislature.] It appears that there has been for some little time an association of contractors whose practice was to pass their proposals through a so-called clearing-house. This clearing-house determined the cost on each piece of work and allotted the job to one contractor, who should pay a portion of the price into a fund to be distributed among those who did not bid for it. In this way prices were kept at a satisfactory level. The most extraordinary situation developed in the case of labour. Under the guidance of a leader a council was formed consisting of delegates from a large number of labour unions closely associated with the building trades. This council virtually held the entire industry in its hands. To prevent strikes, tribute had to be paid to certain officers. To force outside unions into membership, work on buildings was stopped until the contractor employing members of such unions had either discharged his men or paid a heavy penalty. When these men did apply for membership they were charged \$50.00 each and \$10.00 a week out of their salaries for the privilege of working. Of course, the President of the Council has been indicted and convicted.”—*Landmark*, Jan., 1921, p. 36.—“Perhaps the most constructive legislation enacted at the recent session was that designed to meet the emergency in the rent situation, chiefly in New York City. A series of twelve bills framed by the Joint Housing Commission and designed to check or prevent rent profiteering was passed and placed on the statute books before adjournment by the Governor’s approval. These bills were as follows:

“Amending the Real Property Law by providing that duration of monthly tenancies unless otherwise specified shall continue until October 1st, next following occupation (Chap. 130).

“Amending the Penal Law by providing for the punishment of landlords who refuse to live up to agreements to furnish light, heat and other service (Chap. 131).

“Amending the Code of Civil Procedure by providing that in dispossession proceedings where the landlord deems the tenant objectionable he must prove to the Court that the tenant is objectionable (Chap. 133).

“Amending the Code of Civil Procedure by providing that in eviction proceedings for non-payment of rent the tenant may obtain a temporary stay by depositing the amount of rent due with the Court clerk (Chap. 134).

“Amending the Code of Civil Procedure by adding a new section in relation to actions to recover real property, by providing that tenants may set up in the Supreme Court the same defense as in the Municipal Court, namely, that the rent is unreasonable, unjust or oppressive (Chap. 135).

“A special act limited in time to November 1st, 1922, providing that in New York City, Erie, Monroe and Westchester counties tenants who are defendants may set up the defense that an increase of rent of more than twenty-five per cent. is oppressive and unreasonable, thus shifting the burden of proof on the landlord (Chap. 136).

“A special act applying to the counties above mentioned, providing that where a final order has been issued in a hold-over proceeding the Court may grant a stay not to exceed six months in cases where the tenant cannot secure suitable prem-

ises elsewhere. As a condition of such stay the tenant must deposit with the Court clerk such amount as the Court may determine to be a fair rental for the premises (Chap. 137).

“Repealing a section of the Real Property Law relating to the liability of tenants holding over after receiving notice to quit (Chap. 138).

“Amending the Code of Civil Procedure in respect to New York City, Westchester, Erie and Monroe counties by adding a new sub-division providing that in cases of leases of one year or less the landlord cannot avail himself of summary proceedings unless the rent involved is not greater than the amount paid by the tenant for the month preceding default or has not been increased more than twenty-five per cent. in a year (Chap. 139).”—*Sixteenth Annual Report of the Citizens’ Union Committee on Legislation, 1920, pp. 25-26.*—“The New York rent laws were never intended to encourage building; they were passed to protect tenants from exploitation in the face of a serious shortage of homes. It cannot be said, however, that these laws have restricted building because this had already ceased before they were passed, and has not been resumed in other States where no such legislation exists. The New York Legislature of 1920 had two duties: one, to protect the public from exploitation in a crisis; the other, to relieve that crisis. The first task was accomplished.”—*Rent laws (Nation, Mar., 23, 1921).*

1921.—City budget.—“The budget for 1921 . . . reached the staggering amount of \$345,571,300.77, and to quote the ‘Evening Post,’ ‘The budget for 1921 is short an item of \$28,000,000, without which the city schools will have to close sometime before next summer. The Board of Estimate has calmly disregarded this matter, leaving it to the Legislature to take action to maintain the city’s educational system. Last year’s budget called for \$273,686,485.13, and that itself was significant as compared with the first budget after consolidation, that of 1899, which was \$03,520,082.03. This year, the tax rate will, according to Comptroller Craig, reach 2.85. There will likewise be an increase of the indebtedness of the city through its various forms of borrowing, including special revenue bonds, corporate stock notes, etc. The city budget must include appropriations for interest on these, on the Funded Debts, installments into the Sinking Fund, redemption of long-term notes, etc. The total amount of appropriation for Debt Service in the budget of 1910 was \$77,931,038.10. The total amount for the Debt Service in the budget of 1921 is \$105,528,527.30. In each \$100 of city revenue, the debt of the city absorbs about one-third, leaving not more than \$60 for all purposes of city and county government. The cost of government for the individual citizen will be \$62 in 1920, an increase of \$21 from the Mitchell administration.”—*Women and the city’s work, Jan. 11, 1921.*

1921.—State transit commission for the city.—The state legislature passed the Knight-Adler Public Utilities Bill late in March. This bill established a transit commission for New York City in addition to the state-wide public service commission. See NEW YORK: 1921.

1921 (February).—Building taxation ordinance.—“In February, 1921, the board of aldermen of New York City availed itself of a power conferred by one of the New York laws of 1920, by passing an ordinance exempting from local taxation for a period of ten years new buildings constructed exclusively for dwelling purposes. The ordinance grants exemption to the extent of \$1,000 for each living room, the total exemption not to exceed

\$5,000 for each single house or separate apartment. The enactment of this ordinance was followed by a notable increase in the number of building permits for dwellings."—*Miscellaneous items (American Political Science Review, Feb., 1922)*.

1921-1922.—City Hall park.—Park board control.—"The most satisfactory incident connected with the parks of the City of New York during the past year has been the encouraging prospect of the reclamation of the southern end of City Hall Park occupied by the old Post Office building. The history of the alienation of this property by the city and the erection of the Post Office will be found in our Annual Report for 1910 at pages 399-403, and references to the movement for the removal of the Post Office in the following reports: 1912, pp. 111-112; 1913, 116-120; and almost every subsequent Report in connection with the development of the Civic Center plan. . . . 'One of the greatest needs in this crowded and strenuous city is for more attractive open spaces. The removal of the old Mullett Post Office would extend City Hall park in a most attractive way, opening it to view from far down Broadway. The People of New York City contribute not only to postal receipts but to all other forms of Government revenue. There are few single achievements which they will more deeply appreciate than provisions for more adequate, mail service, which will include taking this ugly and obsolete building off one of the most precious pieces of park lands."—*Annual Report of the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society, 1921-1922, pp. 76, 77-78*.—"The Park Board controls 8,500 acres of park land, maintains 120 miles of parkways, and operates 108 playgrounds and 9 recreation piers, in addition to public baths, gymnasias and bathing beaches. [Public golf links, tennis courts, baseball diamonds are maintained by the park department, also camping and playgrounds, and children's gardens. Band and orchestral concerts and motion picture exhibitions are given in summer.]"—J. Caccavajo, *Guide to the municipal government, City of New York (pamphlet)*, pp. 61-62.

1922 (May).—Trinity church celebration.—On May 7, Trinity church of New York City celebrated the 225th anniversary of the granting of its charter by William III of England. The Trinity Corporation is the richest church corporation in the world.

1922 (October).—Budget.—"On October 31, 1922, the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of the City of New York adopted what is unquestionably the largest municipal budget in the history of the world. From the detailed figures published in the City Record for November 14, . . . [a] table has been compiled, showing the

Net Total City Budget.....	\$330,172,517
Total County Budgets for Counties within the City.....	10,582,835
<hr/>	
New York County.....	\$5,403,032
Bronx County.....	1,238,077
Kings County.....	2,787,873
Queens County.....	884,707
Richmond County.....	268,246
New York's Share of State Tax.....	12,595,624

Total Budget for 1923..... \$353,350,976

amount appropriated to run each of the municipal departments of New York City for the year 1923. . . . [In the complete budget] 'salaries' covers all items designated . . . under the heading of personal

services, including salaries, wages, fees, and other similar expenditures. 'Other Expenses' includes equipment, supplies, repairs, maintenance of buildings, postage, telephone charges, printing, rent, interest charges, and all other items except personal services. . . . [according to the figures given].

—*World's largest municipal budget (American City Magazine, Dec., 1922, pp. 491-492)*.

1922 (December).—Traffic regulation.—The system of regulating traffic by flashlight on Fifth Avenue and other important thoroughfares has proved a great success, so that the system will be extended to other parts of the city as soon as appropriations for additional equipment are obtained. The five traffic towers in use during 1921-1922 were installed along Fifth Avenue by Dr. John A. Harris, special deputy police commissioner, at his own expense, and were originally in the nature of an experiment. The new signal towers installed in December, 1922, are constructed almost entirely of bronze, with a granite base 4 feet square and 3 feet high. They are 23 feet in height. The base has granite 'striking blocks' at each corner to fend off traffic and to protect the tower itself. The lower part of the structure is open so as to allow an unobstructed view up and down the avenue. The space at the top which houses the traffic policeman is enclosed in glass windows, so operated as to allow the policeman in the tower to open or close all of them at one time with a single swing of a lever. The towers are heated by means of an electric stove.—Based on, *New York City's traffic towers (American City Magazine, Jan., 1922)*.

1923.—Schoharie division of Catskill aqueduct.—Doubling water supply.—"The complete Catskill water supply project, as originally determined upon in 1905, called for the impounding of the waters of two streams in the Catskills,—the Esopus creek, and the Schoharie. The Schoharie reservoir, which is now under construction, will store 20,000,000,000 gallons of water. The aqueduct is of sufficient size to carry a maximum daily supply of 500,000,000 gallons into New York City, which is the maximum dependable amount of water that can be drawn from Ashokan and Schoharie during a period of dry years. . . . In building the aqueduct it became necessary to cross various valleys and depressions, and instead of attempting to carry the aqueduct across these places at grade and therefore at high level, recourse was had to invert syphons in the form of large steel pipes. To carry the maximum supply, three pipes of a diameter from 9, to over 11 feet, are necessary, but the Board of Water Supply engineers decided to construct, at first, one pipe sufficient for daily supply of 250,000,000 gallons, leaving the construction of the other two pipes to such time as the completion of the Schoharie and the growing needs of the city should call for a daily supply of 500,000,000 gallons. That time is within sight, and consequently the board has let contracts for the completion of the steel syphons throughout the whole length of the aqueduct. When completed cost will have reached \$6,253,000. It will be known that those huge pipes are among the longest, if not the largest ever built, for the inside diameter is 11 feet 3 inches. To protect the steel it is coated inside with two inches of cement mortar, outside with 6 inches of concrete." *Doubling New York's water supply (Scientific American, Feb., 1923)*.—"It is difficult to give an appreciative grasp of the magnitude of the Schoharie development in its entirety, but the following figures, furnished by the Board of Water Supply, may be of some help in this respect. The

construction of the dam includes about 396,000 cubic yards of earth excavation, 92,500 cubic yards of rock excavation, 617,000 cubic yards of repelling and embanking, 430,000 cubic yards of masonry, and the use of 480,000 barrels of Portland cement; and the building of the tunnel will involve about 600,000 cubic yards of rock excavation, 100,000 cubic yards of earth, 200,000 cubic yards of concrete masonry, and the employment of 445,000 barrels of Portland cement. The primary energy is electricity, and to furnish current for the tunnel work, a high-tension transmissive line was built from Saw Kill, near Kingston, where connection is made with the wires of a public service distributing system. This line is 48 miles long and was later extended six miles to supply current for the activities at Gilboa Dam. The undertaking is being carried along so rapidly now that there is every reason to believe that the Schoharie section of the Catskill water supply will be available for service before the close of 1924."—S. G. Roberts, *After Ashokan—What? Doubling the world's biggest water-supply system to take care of the future* (*Scientific American*, Aug., 1922).

See also CLUBS: 19th-20th centuries: New York; MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Fire fighting and prevention.

ALSO IN: E. H. Hall, *Catskill aqueduct and earlier water supplies of the City of New York—Blasting a channel through a river's rocky bottom* (*Scientific American*, Dec., 1922).—T. E. Rush, *Port of New York*.—H. W. Johnson, *New York City's problem* (*Forum*, Sept., 1921).

NEW YORK AND BERMUDEZ COMPANY. See VENEZUELA: 1905-1906.

NEW YORK CENTRAL RAILROAD: Chartered 1826. See RAILROADS: 1826-1850.

Construction.—Use of real estate over railroad in New York City. See CITY PLANNING: United States: Development.

Growth and consolidations. See RAILROADS: 1850-1860.

Mileage. See RAILROADS: 1870-1910.

Cases concerning compensation. See SUPREME COURT: 1917.

Plan for consolidation. See RAILROADS: 1921: Twenty rail systems, etc.

NEW YORK CODE. See CODES: 1848-1883.

NEW YORK HERALD. See HERALD, THE NEW YORK.

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY. See INSURANCE: Life: United States: Development, etc.

NEW YORK MUNICIPAL RAILWAY CORPORATION. See NEW YORK CITY: 1869-1920.

NEW YORK, NEW HAVEN AND HARTFORD RAILWAY CASE. See TRUSTS: United States: 1901-1906.

NEW YORK POINT, system of writing for the blind. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Blind.

NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: University libraries; New York Public Library; First library in New York.

NEW YORK STATE LIBRARY. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: State libraries.

NEW YORK STATE UNIVERSITY. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1748-1813.

NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE. See STOCK EXCHANGE: New York Stock Exchange; 1900.

NEW YORK VS. CONNECTICUT. See SUPREME COURT: 1853-1864.

NEW ZEALAND: Land.—Area.—Population.—Resources.—"The parallels of 34° and 48° S. enclose the main islands of New Zealand, but the extent of the land east and west is relatively small, for the islands lie between the meridians of 166° and 179° E. . . . The main islands are three—North Island (44,468 square miles), South Island (58,525 square miles), and Stewart Island (665 square miles). Thus though the land extends over fourteen degrees of latitude the area is only 147,000 square miles, for everywhere it is narrow. One hundred and eighty miles is the extreme breadth of the South Island, and 280 that of the North Island, which widens considerably in its middle portion. Originally the area of New Zealand, which was proclaimed in 1840, included these main islands only. In 1863 the boundaries were extended to include the Chatham, Bounty, Antipodes, Campbell, and Auckland groups of outlying islands, south and east of the main islands. In 1887 the Kermadec Islands lying to the north-east were added, and in 1901 the Cook and other islands extending as far north as 8° S. were proclaimed as part of the colony of New Zealand. The islands are the emergent part of a large submarine plateau, which, lying less than 500 fathoms beneath the ocean surface, extends beyond the Chatham, Campbell, and Macquarie Islands in the south and east, and also somewhat to the west in the latitude of Cook Strait."—A. J. Herbertson and O. J. R. Howarth, *Australasia* (*Oxford survey of the British empire*, pp. 375-376).—See also AUSTRALIA: Map.—"At the census taken . . . 17th April, 1921, the population, excluding Maoris, of the Dominion proper was 1,218,913. The census of the Maori population taken for the first week in April showed the number of the Native race to be 52,751, including 3,116 half-castes living as Maoris. The population of the Cook and other annexed islands at the same date was 13,209."—*Results of a census of the Dominion of New Zealand*, Apr. 17, 1921, pt. 1, *Population*, pp. 1-2.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.—In contrast to Australia, the urban population of New Zealand is not very large. In 1921 the three largest cities—Auckland (157,757), Wellington, the capital (107,488), and Christchurch (105,670)—had alone passed the 100,000 mark. "Geologically this is one of the oldest bits of land now forming any part of the earth's surface. It has been repeatedly submerged and upheaved, and contains excellent deposits of coal, iron, gold, silver, copper, chrome, graphite, lead, mercury, mineral oils, sulphur and zinc, besides limestone, granite, marble and other building stones."—F. Parsons, *Story of New Zealand*, p. 3.—"Yielding abundant crops, and possessed of luxuriant pastures, New Zealand is in many respects an ideal land for the farmer and grazier and at a comparatively early period of its history, as a British settlement, it began to export wool, butter and frozen meats to the parent country. Now its shipment of these productions attains to proportions that make the Dominion one of the leading sources of supply of the British markets."—R. P. Thomson, *National history of Australia. New Zealand and the adjacent islands*, pp. 222-223.—Rabbits, which were introduced in 1800, grew to be a pest, but of late years their pelts have been made a considerable article of commerce. Since the difficulty of cleansing the fibre of New Zealand flax (*Phormium tenax*) has been overcome, the export of this commodity has also become considerable. "Another product of the soil, but often classed as a mineral, is the kauri gum, the resin of the well-known kauri pine—*Dammara*

australis, . . . a valuable resin, and . . . used for making varnishes. Many thousand tons are exported, and the average value of the yearly export is about half a million sterling. The gum is found at varying distances below the surface [and is supposed to be a residue from long-vanished forests]. . . . Coal is found throughout New Zealand. Bituminous coal is principally obtained on the west coast of the South Island; its quality is excellent. There are brown coals of varying quality found in many parts of New Zealand. . . . In addition to the coal deposits as store-houses of energy New Zealand has unrivalled water-power."—A. J. Herbertson and O. J. R. Howarth, *Australasia* (*Oxford survey of the British empire*, pp. 414-416, 419-421).

1375-1642.—Coming of Maoris.—Maori government and customs.—"The traditions of . . .

for rejecting these traditions, which accord with actual physical facts, just as the tradition of a migration from 'Hawaiki,' a Polynesian island, accords with linguistic facts."—Hellwald-Wallace, *Australasia* (*Stanford's compendium of geography*), v. 1, ch. 14, sect. 9.—"The Maoris of New Zealand . . . lived in strong tribes or clans, cultivated the soil, built canoes of remarkable size and strength, and were skilled in carving and in other arts. Physically they were a far stronger and more heavily built race than the Australian aborigines. In disposition they were bold and aggressive, and their greatest delight was in fighting. A battle was for meat and drink to them—the former literally, for they were inveterate cannibals. What their numbers were can only roughly be guessed at. They occupied the coastal regions of the North Island in considerable strength, though



TATTOOED MAORI

[the Maoris] lead to the conclusion that they first came to New Zealand about 600 years ago, from some of the islands between Samoa and Tahiti; but some ethnologists put the migration as far back as 3,000 years. [See PACIFIC OCEAN: B.C. 2500-A. D. 1500.] Their language is a dialect of the Polynesian, most resembling that of Rarotonga, but their physical characters vary greatly. Some are fair, with straight hair, and with the best type of Polynesian features; others are dusky brown, with curly or almost frizzly hair, and with the long and broad arched nose of the Papuan; while others have the coarse thick features of the lower Melanesian races. Now these variations of type cannot be explained unless we suppose the Maoris to have found in the islands an indigenous Melanesian people, of whom they exterminated the men, but took the better-looking of the women for wives; and as their traditions decidedly state that they did find such a race when they first arrived at New Zealand, there seems no reason whatever

the inland districts were more thinly peopled. The South Island, with the exception of the southern shores of Cook Strait, was almost empty. The Maoris were immigrants from warmer climes, and they did not thrive in the southern island, which extends southward to 48° of south latitude."—T. Dunbabin, *Making of Australasia*, pp. 156-157.—"The clothing of the natives consisted of flaxen mats, which they wrapped about their shoulders; tho frequently they wore nothing but a breech cloth. . . . The chieftainship was hereditary but not absolute. A chief could not sell land or make war or peace without the authority of the council, or assembly of the people. The women spoke and voted in the councils; chiefs and free men had as many wives as they chose. . . . There was no marriage ceremony, except the giving of the girl by the father or chief. Divorce consisted in turning your wife out of doors. Morality was not much esteemed till after marriage; then it became compulsory on pain of death. . . . Even before their

conversion, in spite of their cannibalism and incessant tribal wars, the Maoris were one of the finest bodies of savages that have been found. They held their land in common as the property of the tribe, and agriculture, fishing and fowling were the work of the community for the benefit of all.—F. Parsons, *Story of New Zealand*, pp. 14-18.

ALSO IN: E. Shortland, *Traditions and superstitions of the New Zealanders*.—J. S. Polack, *Manners and customs of the New Zealanders*.—Lady Martin, *Our Maoris*.—W. D. Hay, *Brighter Britain*, v. 2, ch. 3-5.

1642-1814.—Discovery and exploration by Europeans.—Tasman.—Captain Cook.—“In 1642, Tasman, a Dutch sea captain, sighted the islands, anchoring in what is now called Golden Bay, near the northwest point of the middle island. He tried to land to get water, but gave up the attempt on account of the hostile demonstrations of the natives. He did not land, but he was the first white man to see these islands, so far as we know. He reported his discovery when he returned to Holland, and the Dutch authorities named the new country New Zealand (new sea-land). Nothing further seems to have been known about this country until a century and a quarter later, when in 1769, Capt. Cook came in *The Endeavor* and landed on the northern island at Poverty Bay, where the town of Gisborne is now situated. He was the first white man to set foot on the soil of this new country. He shot a few of the natives who opposed him, and they returned the compliment by killing and eating the entire crew of a boat belonging to his companion ship *The Adventure*. For the most part, however, his relations with the natives were pleasant. He gave them some seed potatoes and the seed of cabbages and turnips, and turned pigs and fowls loose to furnish them with meat. From these pigs are supposed to have come the wild pigs that are still shot in the forests. He sailed entirely around the group, and passed between the northern and middle islands through what is now called Cook's Strait. He again visited the islands in 1773, 1774 and 1777. He wrote an interesting account of his observations which attracted much attention. After that, whalers and traders began to visit the new country, and in course of time a few settlers came and started the building of a colony.”—F. Parsons, *Story of New Zealand*, p. 4.—See also PACIFIC OCEAN: 1513-1764.—“The next English visitor was Vancouver, who in 1791, called at Dusky Bay on his way to the north-west coast of America. In 1792 the *Daedalus*, a store-ship which had met Vancouver at Nootka Sound, touched at New Zealand. Her commander, Lieutenant Hanson, kidnapped two Maori chiefs, who were sent to Norfolk Island that they might instruct the settlers there in the manufacture of the New Zealand flax. . . . The chiefs had little knowledge of the dressing of flax, a task left to the women and slaves, and in 1793 King took them home again, and presented them with seed potatoes and other vegetables. The first attempt to exploit the resources of New Zealand was made in 1792, when William Raven, master of the *Britannia*, left a gang of eleven men at Dusky Bay under William Leith, his second mate. . . . In 1803 the 31-ton schooner *Endeavour*, commanded by Joseph Oliphant, went to Dusky Bay after landing a sealing gang on the Sisters, near Flinders Island. . . . From that time on the Sydney sealers turned their attention more and more to the South Island of New Zealand and the off-lying islands, which furnished some phenomenally rich sealing grounds. . . . Some Governors

of New South Wales, King and Macquarie, for instance, claimed jurisdiction over New Zealand, and Macquarie appointed a missionary at the Bay of Islands to act as magistrate. But for most practical purposes New Zealand was a No Man's Land, and the happy hunting ground of runaway convicts, deserters from vessels, sealers, and bay whalers. As early as 1813 three Sydney merchant firms, Lord and Williams, Alexander Riley, and Thomas Kent, had put before Macquarie proposals for establishing a trade in New Zealand flax. They desired a monopoly for fourteen years; but though Macquarie reported in favour of this, the authorities in England would not grant the concession, and the proposal fell through, though later a lively trade in flax was developed.”—T. Dunbabin, *Making of Australasia*, pp. 158-161.

1815-1840.—Work of Christian missionaries.—Samuel Marsden.—Missionary contributions to agriculture.—Linguistic labors.—Maori response to missionary efforts.—“Whalers, sealers, runaways, and beachcombers were not the only emissaries of civilization to visit New Zealand. As early as 1814 Samuel Marsden, Senior Chaplain in New South Wales, established a mission station at the Bay of Islands. On his return voyage from London in 1809 [with two missionary laymen, William Hall and John King], Marsden had become acquainted with a Bay of Islands chief named Ruatara, who had worked his passage to London as a sailor. Marsden befriended the Maori and cared for him in illness.”—T. Dunbabin, *Making of Australasia*, p. 162.—Marsden kept Ruatara with him in Sydney for six months, then sent him back to New Zealand with some knowledge of agriculture, and a supply of wheat seed for distribution. “Without the chief's help Marsden might never have been able to establish himself in New Zealand. On reaching Australia, it was not thought safe, owing to local disturbances, to proceed to New Zealand immediately, and it was not till 1814 that Hall and Thomas Kendal, a new arrival from England, were sent by Marsden to open negotiations with Ruatara. The chief returned with them to Sydney, and on the 10th November, 1814, Marsden, accompanied by Kendal, Hall and King, sailed from Sydney Cove, and after an uneventful voyage reached the Bay of Islands on the 22nd December, 1814.”—R. and J. L. Stout, *New Zealand*, pp. 30-31.—“Samuel Marsden . . . [the] apostle to the Maoris was a plain, unassuming, kindly man, who made no claim to scholarship, brilliancy, wealth or rank; but had a practical working knowledge of human nature and an earnest zeal for the Christianization of the world. . . . It was Marsden's idea that the arts of civilization should prepare the way for Christianization. So the missionaries gave the Maoris better methods of agriculture, and various simple arts and handicrafts; and opened schools for their instruction. The news of these helpful novelties went like lightning through the land, and many chiefs visited the mission station at the Bay of Islands, and invited the missionaries to come and do similar work among their tribes. A little later the missionaries, with the aid of philologists in England, reduced the Maori tongue to a written language, which the natives had not before possessed; and translated the Scriptures and other works into Maori. [In 1834 they set up the first New Zealand printing press at the Bay of Islands.] Thus through the influence of Ruatara and the value of their gifts and instruction along industrial and civilizing lines, the missionaries were cordially received. . . . The missionaries carried civilization and the Gospel, and by their labors did much to prepare the way for

white colonization. The Maoris appreciated the kindly spirit of the missionaries, and the arts and implements they brought. They gave the missionaries land and food and a cordial hearing, but baptisms were very few up to 1830. Between 1830 and 1840 about one-fourth of the Maoris were converted to Christianity, and the converts rang so true that they earnestly opposed cannibalism, slavery and war, altho these institutions were all deeply imbedded in the habits and traditions of their race. The progress of the missionary work from 1830 was constant and rapid until the Christianization of the race was practically complete. From the first the missionaries were welcomed, and it may be said to the credit of both sides that for 50 years no missionary lost his life by the hand of a Maori, and during that time the race was changed from cannibalistic savages to Christians. They attested their sincerity by voluntarily liberating their slaves without compensation or reward."—F. Parsons, *Story of New Zealand*, pp. 8, 10, 16, 19. —A Wesleyan mission was established in 1822. Owing to native troubles it was not a success, but was re-established and afterwards flourished. The first Roman Catholic mission was not sent out until 1838.—See also MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Islands of the Pacific.

ALSO IN: A. Saunders, *History of New Zealand*, pp. 48-59.—M. Hertz, *New Zealand*, pp. 60-62.

1818-1838.—Native wars.—Hongi and Te Rauparaha.—Increase in white population.—"The missionaries had little sympathy with . . . the bay whalers, who occupied many points of the coast, mainly on the shores of Cook's Strait and in the South Island. Yet, reckless as these men were, they were in their way a civilising agency. Most of them had Maori wives and entered into friendly relations with the neighbouring tribes. Sometimes they took part in Maori quarrels and acquitted themselves in such a way as to earn the respect of the hard-fighting savages. . . . But the men who really paved the way for white occupation of New Zealand were the dealers in muskets and ammunition. The use of firearms in Maori warfare gave an immense advantage to those tribes who possessed the new weapons. The result was twenty years of bloodshed and slaughter which swept away many thousands of Maoris and led to migrations on a scale before unknown. The Ngapuhi tribe, settled round the Bay of Islands in the far north, which was frequented by whalers and traders, was the first to get hold of firearms, and they used them with terrible effect. As early as 1818 a Ngapuhi chief had armed his men with thirty-five muskets. But the man who really made effective use of the new arm was Hongi Ika, the 'Napoleon of New Zealand'. . . . Between 1821 and 1827 he carried slaughter and devastation far and wide. Whole districts were left without inhabitants. Hongi protected and favoured the missionaries, but he remained a heathen to the last. The members of his tribe were too scanty to enable him to make lasting conquests, and soon muskets ceased to be a monopoly. To obtain muskets the tribes traded away their most precious possessions, and unscrupulous white traders, mostly from Sydney, did a roaring business. Hongi was finally shot in the lung in a fight for which he had neglected to put on his armour, and after lingering for fifteen months he died. Only second to Hongi in fame was Te Rauparaha, known to the whalers as 'Satan' or the 'Old Sarpint.' A native of Taranaki, he, like Hongi, saw that nothing could stand against the white men's muskets. He had made a raid to Cook's Strait and noted the strategic value of Kapiti or Entry Island. He persuaded his tribe to

migrate and settle on this island, where they were safe from attack by land, and established on a fertile and easily defended island. He traded with the white men for muskets and other necessities of life and also protected a settlement of whalers on this island. For a score of years Te Rauparaha carried devastation far and wide along both shores of Cook's Strait and over the South Island."—T. Dunbabin, *Making of Australasia*, pp. 163-165.—"All this fighting of the Maori tribes made them more dependent on the trade they had with white men. They could neither make guns nor powder for themselves, and the tribe that could purchase none of the white man's weapons was sure to be slaughtered and eaten by other tribes. Hence white men were more eagerly welcomed, and in course of time nearly two hundred of them were living Maori fashion with the tribes. But it was at the Bay of Islands that the chief trading was carried on. For it was there that the kauri timber grew; it was there that the pigs were most plentiful and the cargoes of flax most easily obtained; and when a man named Turner set up a grog-shop on the shores of the bay all the whaling ships made this their usual place for resting and refitting. . . . In the year 1838 there were about 500 persons resident in the little town, which was now called Kororarika, but at times there were nearly double that number of people resident in it for months together. A wild and reckless place it was, for sailors reckoned themselves there to be beyond the reach of English law."—A. and G. Sutherland, *History of Australia and New Zealand*, p. 207.

1825-1840.—Early settlement.—Opposition by missionaries to annexation.—Attempt to federate Maori tribes.—French attempts at colonizing.—Land sharks.—The "period of ten years of terror and destruction, during which over 10,000 Maoris fell . . . [in the native wars] was followed by a time of peace of equal duration. Nearly 2,000 whites now lived in the country, mostly in the north, in the Bay of Islands. . . . The increasing immigration, the growing trade, the uncertainty of the law compelled England at last to take a definite step. In the mind of the Colonial Office the annexation was not a consummation devoutly to be wished. The Department would not formally annex the country. England was 'satiated' and had enough colonies. . . . It has to be added that the first New Zealand Company [formed by Colonel Wakefield of Australian fame], which in 1825 had sent an expedition of settlers, ended in a fiasco."—M. Herz, *New Zealand, the country and the people*, pp. 63-64.—"The Colonial Office essayed first to carry out its obligations by recognising the native 'sovereignty,' and to restrain its own subjects from acts of aggression and fraud against the natives by means of a resident. James Busby arrived in 1833 to take up this position. In informing the chiefs of the step it was proposed to take, Goderich wrote (14th June, 1832) that Busby would investigate all complaints they might make to him, and would endeavour to prevent the arrival amongst them of men who had been guilty of crimes in their own country—a reference, of course, to the escape of convicts from New South Wales and Tasmania. In consideration of the anxious desire which would be shown by the resident for the protection of the natives, they for their part were expected to show him a proper obedience and support, so that they might reap the full benefit of the friendship, and alliance with Great Britain. . . . Busby was given no more real power than . . . [British] consuls of the same period in Fiji and Samoa—so little, indeed, that he was often referred to as a man-of-war without guns. He was not even able to control

British subjects—the avowed object of his appointment. Here, as elsewhere, the missionaries were openly hostile to the introduction of British sovereignty, for the very human reason that it would tend to detract from the position of influence, almost of power, which they themselves held with the natives. . . . When Busby had been there as resident for two years he was much alarmed at receiving from 'a person who styles himself Charles, Baron de Thierry, Sovereign Chief of New Zealand and King of Nukuhiva, a formal declaration of his intention to establish in his own person an independent sovereignty in this country, which intention, he states, he has declared to their Majesties the Kings of Great Britain and France, and to the President of the United States.' Busby appealed to his compatriots to use all their influence with the Maori 'to inspire both chiefs and people with a spirit of most determined resistance to the landing of a person on their shores who comes with the avowed object of usurping a sovereignty over them.' For his own part he convened a meeting of the chiefs at Waitangi, 'to advise them of what was due to themselves and their country,' and the upshot was the Declaration of Independence of the United Tribes of New Zealand, which was signed on 28th October, 1835. William IV. had already presented the Maori with a flag, and in this declaration they entreated 'that he will continue to be the parent of their infant state, and that he will become its Protector from all attempts upon its independence.' New Zealand was then within the extended boundaries of the Colony of New South Wales, and Glenelg instructed Sir Richard Bourke, governor of that colony, that 'it would be proper that the chiefs should be assured, in His Majesty's name, that he will not fail to avail himself of every opportunity of showing his goodwill, and of affording to those chiefs such support and protection as may be consistent with a due regard to the just rights of others, and to the interests of His Majesty's subjects.' There were no other assemblies of the chiefs, and the proposed parliament never essayed to legislate for the infant state. But when at length in 1839 the Colonial Office was forced to approach the question of establishing British sovereignty in New Zealand, it proceeded on the assumption that the sovereignty recognised by William IV. was a real one, and instructed its envoy Hobson to negotiate as consul before developing into a lieutenant-governor.—G. H. Scholefield, *Pacific: Its past and future*, pp. 205-206.—'Influences were at work, however, leading the Government to look more and more favorably on annexation. Gibbon Wakefield and others interested in colonizing the new country, organized the New Zealand Company in England, and brought pressure to bear in high quarters, and events in the islands gradually transformed the missionaries into advocates of annexation. . . . [De Thierry] tried to enlist the sympathy of the French Government. Another Frenchman, Langlois, professed to have bought 300,000 acres in the middle island. A French Company was formed to colonize Langlois' land. [See also FRANCE: Colonial empire.] In this company, Louis Phillippe was a shareholder. In 1837 French Catholic missionaries, under Pompallier, were sent to labor among the Maoris. . . . Another thing that helped to convert the missionaries to annexation was the appearance of the 'land sharks'—shrewd adventurers who believed the colonization of New Zealand near at hand and bought large tracts of land for speculation. Many of the purchases were imperfect or fictitious. Boundaries were inserted by purchasers after the deeds had been signed in blank by the

sellers. The same land was sold three or four times. Some purchases were airily defined by a latitude and longitude. Almost the whole area of good land in the middle island was the subject of one professed sale. An Australian politician, [named] Wentworth, . . . 'bought' the island at a single stroke from nine wandering Maoris, picked up on the streets of Sydney, who had no right to sell any part of the alleged 'purchase.' The 'Wentworth Syndicate' paid them a little over \$1,000, or at the rate of about 1 cent for each 200 acres of the area claimed. By 1840 it was estimated that outside this middle island claim and the claim of the New Zealand Company, . . . 20,000,000 acres, or more than a third of New Zealand, had been gobbled up piecemeal by the land sharks, a good deal of it having been bought several times over from the Maoris by different purchasers. Including the Wentworth and New Zealand Company claims, as well as the piecemeal purchasers, the total was 82,000,000 acres, or 16,000,000 more than there were in [the whole of] New Zealand. . . . Before his death, in 1838, Marsden had come to see that the only hope for the country and the natives lay in annexation, and his ablest lieutenant, Henry Williams, felt the same way. The missionaries were recognized as the best element in the community, and their opinions had much weight in England. . . . The settlers, and traders and land sharks, the menace of French interference, the change of heart among the missionaries, and the pressure of the New Zealand Company, at last induced the Colonial Office to annex the islands. In 1839 a royal proclamation was issued, extending the political boundaries of New South Wales to include any territory that might be acquired by Her Majesty in New Zealand, and Captain Hobson arrived at the Bay of Islands, January 29, 1840, with a commission as Lieutenant-Governor, under the Governor of New South Wales. The history of New Zealand as part of the British Empire, dates from that day."—F. Parsons, *Story of New Zealand*, pp. 22-25.—"New Zealand was raised to the dignity of a separate colony by letters patent under the great seal of the 10th November, 1840. . . . The Charter authorised the Governor or the Lieutenant-Governor of the Colony, and at least six other persons chosen from such public officers within the Colony or such other persons as might from time to time be appointed by the Crown for that purpose, to constitute the Legislative Council, all the members of which were to hold their places at the pleasure of the Crown. . . . The Governor was also authorised to summon an Executive Council, composed of persons to be named in his Instructions. . . . On the 24th November, Captain Hobson, the Lieutenant-Governor of the Dependency, was, by commission, appointed Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of New Zealand."—J. Hight and H. D. Bamford, *Constitutional history and law of New Zealand*, pp. 148-150.

1837-1851.—Colonizing efforts of the New Zealand Association.—Difficulties of incorporation.—Association becomes New Zealand Company.—"In 1837 the New Zealand Association was formed, consisting of two classes of members, intending settlers, and those who were willing to found and govern the colony. . . . The Association proposed that an Act of Parliament should be passed, granting them powers of sovereignty for a limited period over a portion of New Zealand, and allowing them to purchase land from the natives and re-sell it to settlers. The proceeds of the land-sales were to be used, partly in further purchases from the natives, and partly in emigration. The government of the colony was, for a definite period,

to rest in the Association. On their approach to the Colonial Office asking for sanction to* this scheme, they met at once with the strong opposition of the missionary bodies. . . . The New Zealand Association had been established as a voluntary body with no pecuniary interest in colonization; and they stoutly protested against the condition that they should become a joint-stock company. The Government equally firmly insisted on the condition; and, after further correspondence and negotiation, the Association, in 1838, decided to introduce into Parliament a Bill to give effect to their [own] scheme. . . . The Bill was rejected on its second reading by 92 votes to 32. Further negotiations ensued, and the Association dissolved, to reappear as a joint-stock company, called the New Zealand Colonization Company. Now they found the Government unwilling to proceed on the ground that the promise of a charter had been made to a differently composed body. Finally, in 1839, the New Zealand Land Company, an amalgamation of the company of 1825, the New Zealand Association, and the Colonization Company, decided to commence the colonization of New Zealand without waiting for the sanction of the Government. The ship *Tory* was sent with a preliminary expeditionary party to purchase land from the natives, and a further body of emigrants was prepared to set sail soon afterwards."—R. C. Mills, *Colonization in New Zealand*, pp. 286, 288-289.—"The 'Tory' made an exceptionally fast passage and dropped anchor in Ship Cove on the 17th August. She remained in Queen Charlotte Sound until the third week in September, and then left for Port Nicholson, arriving there on the 20th September, 1839. Colonel Wakefield made large purchases of land, in and around Port Nicholson, from the natives and made what preparations he could for the expected colonists. On the 22nd January, 1840, the 'Aurora' arrived with the first immigrants sent out by the Company, and the settlement of Wellington was established on the shores of Port Nicholson. The Company continued active operations for many years, and up to the year 1843 it had sent out over 9000 immigrants and founded Wellington (1840), Wanganui (1840) and Nelson (1841), and had lent active support in the colonization of Taranki (1841), Otago (1848) and Canterbury (1850), most of the land purchases for these settlements being arranged by its officers."—R. and J. L. Stout, *New Zealand*, p. 35.

ALSO IN: A. Saunders, *Story of New Zealand*, pp. 112-153.

1837-1852.—Ideals of New Zealand Company.—Treaty of Waitangi.—Proclamation of annexation.—Friction between government and company.—"The New Zealand Company in its genesis [in 1837] was almost a philanthropic organisation. It originated in the high aspiration of Wakefield (to whose mind commercialism was abhorrent) to supplant the haphazard and lawless exploitation of New Zealand by a properly ordered system of colonisation, in which an off-shoot of the British race should be transplanted, with its social classes, its traditions, and its institutions of civilisation complete. The directors had no desire to make a profit out of the undertaking. They were chiefly men who, perceiving the destiny of England as a colonising Power, were anxious to bring the Government of England to the same view. The history of the first years of the Company and the difficulties in which it was soon enmeshed, must not be taken in derogation of the high principles by which the directors were animated. They were to a great extent due to the hostility of the Government both in England and

on the spot and to the blunders of some of its own officials."—G. H. Scholefield, *New Zealand in evolution*, p. 26.—"Captain Hobson's . . . instructions were to obtain recognition of British sovereignty from the native chiefs, and to induce them to agree that no lands should in the future 'be ceded either gratuitously or otherwise except to the Crown of Great Britain.' . . . No convict settlements were to be established in New Zealand, and no convict labour was to be used in the colony's development. . . . Immediately afterwards, Governor Hobson issued a proclamation which put an end to the acquiring of vast areas of land by private individuals or companies direct from the natives. The proclamation notified that in future the Crown would only recognise as valid titles to land derived from or confirmed by Her Majesty. This led later to a good deal of friction between the New Zealand Company and the officers of the Crown. Governor Hobson's chief duty was still to be performed, and that was to gain the acquiescence of the native chiefs to British Sovereignty. On the 5th February, 1840, he assembled a great number of chiefs and their peoples near Waitangi in the Bay of Islands. Through the mediumship of Mr. H. Williams, of the Church Missionary Society, who acted as interpreter, he announced his mission to the assembled natives. A good deal of discussion followed, and Hobson adjourned the meeting to allow of the matter being further considered. On the following day, the 6th February, 1840, the memorable Treaty of Waitangi [prepared by Busby] was signed by 46 head chiefs, in the presence of at least 500 of inferior degree. The Treaty was ultimately adopted and signed by 512 principal chiefs from all over the colony. The provisions of the treaty were embodied in three articles. Under the first the chiefs ceded the sovereignty of their dominions to Her Majesty. The second confirmed to the natives the full possession of their land, and gave Her Majesty the exclusive right of pre-emption over such lands as they might desire to alienate, and the third article extended to the natives the protection and privileges of British subjects. The Treaty has been well kept on both sides and has done much to foster the loyalty of the native race. On the 21st May, 1840, the Queen's sovereignty was proclaimed over the North Island by virtue of the Treaty of Waitangi, and over the South and Stewart Islands by virtue of the right of discovery. A secondary proclamation, at Port Underwood, of 17th June, 1840, claimed the sovereignty of the South Island also by virtue of the Treaty. In August, 1840, it was thought advisable formally to hoist the British flag at Akaroa, in order to avoid complications with the French who had sent out the corvette 'L'Aube' to establish a French colony at that place. The British ship sent post haste by the Governor on the arrival of the French at the Bay of Islands arrived at Akaroa some three days before the French vessel, whose captain on arrival recognised the validity of the British claims. Some French immigrants remained and their descendants are still to be found at Akaroa."—R. and J. L. Stout, *New Zealand*, pp. 35-38.—"The Treaty of Waitangi has been scrupulously honoured by the whites to the present day, often at great sacrifice of their own interests. This outstanding observance of justice and national obligations has not only had a most important effect on the national life of the New Zealand people, but it has contributed largely to giving the natives of New Zealand equal rights of citizenship with the whites, and enabling them to survive the advent of a preponderating white population. . . . It does not appear to have been in contemplation that the whole of New Zealand

should be proclaimed British territory. But before he had secured all the signatures of North Island chiefs to the Treaty of Waitangi, Hobson received intelligence which determined him to complete the sovereignty over the whole group. At the southern end of the North Island the expedition sent out by the New Zealand Company had established itself on the site of the present capital city of Wellington, and had elected a form of council for local government which Hobson conceived to be republican, and therefore tantamount to an act of defiance of the authority of the Queen."—R. and J. L. Stout, *New Zealand*, pp. 207-208.—Although working on parallel lines, and to the same end, Hobson and the New Zealand Company came at once into conflict. "There were, of course, faults on both sides. The Company's chief agent in New Zealand (Colonel Wakefield) and the Governor became of necessity as bitter partisans in the Antipodes as the Company itself and the Colonial Office were in England. The rivalry of the two authorities was disastrous for all parties. Harassed and opposed at every turn, the Company was first of all compelled to retrench and delegate some of its powers to affiliated companies (which organised separate colonies), and finally, when its funds were reduced and its credit was destroyed, it had sorrowfully to surrender its charter (1850). Hobson himself, worn out with the worries and anxieties of his position, unpopular both in Wellington and in Auckland, disliked by land-grabbers and genuine settlers, had died in harness in September, 1842. It was a sad prospect for New Zealand, but out of the ashes of the Company's hopes there survived seven sturdy colonies. All that Wakefield fought for was achieved. The British flag floated over New Zealand, and the foundations of the future Dominion had been laid, broad and strong, upon a basis of free, intelligent, and regulated colonisation. A charter granting representative government had actually been issued, though subsequently withdrawn for amendment. In 1852 the Constitution Act was finally passed by the British Parliament, and Wakefield himself went to New Zealand and sat in the General Assembly."—G. H. Scholefield, *New Zealand in evolution*, p. 28.

1843-1859.—First Maori War and resultant peace.—"When the Maories found that their rights to their lands which were to them an almost sacred property were being disregarded they began to consider how they could best resist. The first serious trouble about land began in the year 1843, when after the Maories had positively refused to sell certain ground near Cloudy Bay to Colonel Wakefield [of the New Zealand Company], he sent a party of surveyors to measure the land there. Thereupon the Maories pulled up the surveyors' pegs and threw down their huts. When the news of this action arrived in Nelson, Colonel Wakefield's brother procured a warrant for the arrest of the natives who had interfered with the surveying. . . . [But] when the Wakefields' people came across the natives they were defied by them. In the midst of the dispute one of the Europeans fired a shot which killed the wife of a Maori chief and thereupon the whole of the natives poured a volley in amongst the Europeans and continued to fire till the Englishmen fled, leaving most of their number dead upon the field. Because the Government saw that in this matter the Europeans were clearly in the wrong they took no steps to punish the Maories; but from the day of the encounter over the Cloudy Bay lands, a bad feeling grew up between the whites and the natives and in less than two years this feeling ended in a fierce attack on a settlement of the whites on the shores of the

Bay of Islands. Though this place contained a body of soldiers and sailors and was partly fortified, it was captured by the Moaries. By this action a war was commenced, which lasted nine months. As it proceeded there was much loss of life, both on the side of the natives and on that of the whites; but it finally ended in the complete submission of the tribes in arms. Scarcely had the troubles near the Bay of Islands been appeased when the mutual aversions of the whites and Maories broke out in the south of the North Island into hostilities which continued for nearly a year. After that there was peace between the two races till the year 1850."—R. P. Thomson, *National history of Australia, New Zealand, and the adjacent islands*, pp. 210-220.

1850-1855.—Establishment of representative government.—Types of provincial communities.—Provincial governments.—By 1850, the white population of New Zealand had increased considerably in spite of drawbacks occasioned by distance from the home countries; the disagreements between the New Zealand Company and the government, and the Maori War. There were at this time a number of settlements, and the South Island was commencing to fill up. But, as in the case of the colonization of the Atlantic Coast of America, the settlements were stretched out along the coast, at long distances from each other. They were in fact small, self-centered colonies, with no inter-communication except by sea, or rough land tracks of the most primitive kind. Moreover, they were divided not only by distance, but in a measure also by nationality. Of the original settlements the population of Wellington and Nelson, Whanganui, Taranaki, Hawke's Bay and Canterbury was for the most part English, Otago was Scotch, while Auckland was partly settled from Australia, and was preponderately of Irish descent. Otago was designed as a refuge for members of the Free Church of Scotland, and for a time only members of the Church of England were admitted to the province of Canterbury. Southland was still more Scotch than its parent colony Otago, and Marlborough quite as English as Nelson from which it branched off. "In 1846 a Constitution had been given to the colony, and representative institutions conferred upon its people by the Imperial Government. . . . But the young colony was as yet hardly ready for the boon. It was still involved in the turmoil of the first Maori war, its white population was small and scattered, and with few interests in common; and hardly any settler outside the inconveniently situated capital had the time or inclination to leave his store or farm for several weeks in every year, in order to obtain the empty honour of representing his country in a parliament at Auckland. In these circumstances representative government was little better than a farce; and on the advice of Governor Sir George Grey, the Constitution was first suspended, and finally withdrawn in 1848. Four years later [1852], . . . a new Constitution for New Zealand was approved by the Imperial Parliament, under which a Legislative Assembly for the whole country was to be held at Auckland; and the colony was now divided into six provinces, each of which was to have its separate District Council, whose large powers of control over local affairs could be checked by the veto of the governor of the colony. The six provinces were identical with the six original settlements; [three] other provinces were subsequently added as colonisation advanced, and the following twenty years marks the zenith of provincialism in New Zealand. The District Councils were exactly suited to this

stage in the growth of the colony, when Wellington was still jealous of Auckland, Dunedin of Canterbury, and all were isolated from, and independent of, each other."—A. W. Tilby, *Australasia*, v. 5, pp. 387-388.—Under the constitution of 1852 the Parliament was to be made up of two chambers: a chamber of representatives and a legislative council. The suffrage, if not universal, was at least very widely extended. The chamber was elected for five years and the legislative council nominated by the Government. . . . [The governor, Sir George Grey] would have wished this second chamber to be chosen by the provincial councils, more or less in the same way as the American Senate, but he could not carry his point in London. As for the cabinet—and this was the great flaw in the constitution—it was to be responsible only to the governor—a provision which led straightway to conflicts and deadlocks. Nor did the complexity of the system cease there. Understanding, in the light of experience, that decentralisation was, in great measure, established in New Zealand, the authors of the constitution had wished to give each province a separate representative assembly under the name of a provincial council. The idea was sound enough, but it had been needlessly complicated by the erection alongside of each council of an elected superintendent, chosen from the ministers to act as a sort of mock-governor. The thing might have suited a very populous century; it was simply absurd in a half-empty land, where political life was scarcely in existence. This new constitution was accepted in June, 1852, by the Imperial Parliament, and in January, 1853, was promulgated in New Zealand. Sir George Grey, . . . contented himself with inaugurating the provincial assemblies, and left to his successor the task of constituting the Central Parliament. . . . The temporary successor of Sir George Grey, Colonel Wynyard, summoned the first Parliament to meet at Auckland in May, 1854. The first elective assembly of the Colony was not ill-constituted; it included men of talent and men of sense [among them Edward Gibbon Wakefield]; but in the nature of things it was destined to slip into confusion and idle agitation. The first cabinet was composed half of officials, half of members of Parliament. Since the responsibility of ministers was not clearly defined, the almost immediate result was the formation of rival cliques, the fall of ministries and perpetual crises; in a word, so such disorder that everyone recognised that the responsibility of ministers to Parliament had become inevitable. In 1856 the first responsible ministry was formed under the leadership of Mr. Sewell. A few months earlier, in September, 1855, Grey's official successor, Colonel [Sir Thomas] Gore-Brown, had arrived. He loyally accepted the character of a constitutional governor which was imposed on him by the responsibility, henceforth complete, of the cabinet to Parliament. He retained no direct authority, except in relations with the Maoris, in accordance with the instructions of the Colonial Office. It was the last vestige of personal power which remained in New Zealand. All other questions came before the two Houses, who began their work by a series of petty squabbles which greatly affected the white man's prestige."—A. Siegfried, *Democracy in New Zealand*, pp. 35-37.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Characteristics of self governing colonies.

ALSO IN: J. Hight and H. D. Bamford, *Constitutional history and law of New Zealand*, pp. 270-284.

1853-1870.—Maori "King" movement.—Second Maori War.—"Hau Haus."—Confiscation

of land.—Maori settlement.—"When New Zealand attained self-government in 1852 the decentralising influence of the piecemeal method in which the country had been settled was shown by the fact that something like a Federal system was established. There were six provinces—Auckland, Wellington, and New Plymouth in the North Island, and Nelson, Canterbury, and Otago in the South. These were later increased to nine by the addition of Hawke's Bay, Marlborough and Westland; while Southland was for a while separated from Otago, though afterwards reunited to it. . . . The provinces enjoyed a large amount of autonomy. Each had a superintendent and a council with power to deal with local matters. Such subjects as the post office, the Customs, defence, and others affecting the country as a whole, were reserved for the Central Government. The financial arrangements were simple, but not satisfactory to everyone. The Central Government spent what it thought necessary and allocated what was left amongst the provinces. A fruitful source of friction was the dissatisfaction of the southern provinces with the heavy expenditure entailed by the Maori wars in the North Island. For peace did not last long in the North. In 1853 Grey, who had settled the first Maori war, was transferred to South Africa and his successors were soon in trouble with the Maoris, mainly over land matters. . . . [A land system] by which the Maoris could sell land to white settlers only through the Secretary for Native Affairs was in force; but settlers eager for land were continually trying to deal direct with the natives, some of whom claimed to be able to sell land to which they had no real title. In 1856 a number of Maori chiefs bound themselves to sell no more land to anyone. At the same time was set on foot the 'King' movement for uniting the Maoris under one chief, who could represent them in dealings with the Governor and the authorities. [In 1857, kingite meetings were held.] Several tribes united in choosing as their 'King' one Potatau; but he was an old man and not inclined to risk trouble, so that for some years the 'King' movement was no menace. But in 1860 war broke out over a block of land in the Waitara district of Taranaki. Curiously enough the Maori chief involved was that Wiremu Kingi te Rangitake . . . one of the chiefs who had refused to have anything to do with the King movement. The white settlers at Taranaki required more land and in 1850 the authorities arranged to buy a block, in spite of the opposition of Kingi, who occupied part of the land and also claimed that, as chief, he had the power of vetoing the sale of any land belonging to his tribe. The would-be sellers disputed this claim and the Government sided with them. . . . Browne [Colonel Gore-Browne], the Governor, proclaimed martial law in the Taranaki province, and Kingi and his followers threw in their lot with the King movement and called in the aid of the powerful Waikato tribes. The British regulars fought bravely, but they were out-manoeuvred by the Maoris in bush-fighting. The Maoris joyfully welcomed the excitement and there was a good deal of skirmishing. Then Browne was replaced, in 1861, by Grey, whose second term as Governor of New Zealand lasted from 1861 to 1868. Grey tried to conciliate the Maoris, and worked out a scheme for making the chiefs magistrates and police officers, with power to nominate representatives for the councils of their districts. But, in spite of his efforts, the Waikato Maoris would not give up the King idea, and the new King, Tawhio, was by no means so friendly as his predecessor

Potatau. As to the disputed Waitara block, Grey decided, after investigation, that it should be given back to Kingi. But unluckily, before it was returned, the authorities had taken possession of another area in Taranaki which belonged to white settlers but had been seized by the Maoris during the fighting. This seemed unfair to the Maoris and they began the war anew. Ten settlers were massacred for a start, all Europeans were driven out of the Waikato region, and the 'King Maoris' were eager for a trial of strength with the white men. But Grey had been having a road made into the Waikato country, and now he used it to send strong forces of British regulars and militia troops under General Cameron into the enemy's stronghold. A strongly fortified pah [native camp] at Rangiriri was taken after a gallant resistance and Cameron rendered useless the Maori's strong line of defence at Paterangi by carrying out a turning movement which cut the Maori's line of supply. A body of 300 Maoris hastily erected a stockade at Oraktau and successfully resisted a force more than four times their number. Then a gun was brought up and its fire reached the stockade, but when the Maoris, with whom were a number of women and children, were called on to surrender, they replied that they would fight on 'for ever and ever.' Singing the ancient war songs of their race, they marched against the superior English forces. Over half of them were killed and the rest dispersed. The war in Waikato was over. Elsewhere, however, the fighting dragged on. At the Gate Pah the warriors of the Tauranga tribe, hidden in rifle-pits, shot down at their leisure the officers of the attacking forces, under General Cameron, and they were forced to fall back with heavy loss. The Maoris abandoned the pah that night and six weeks later they were defeated in turn. Yet even then the war was not over. In 1864 a native 'prophet' began to preach in Taranaki a new religion, a strange compound of the ancestral beliefs of the Maoris and distorted ideas of Christianity. The fanatics who adopted this doctrine revived the long disused practice of cannibalism, mutilating and eating the bodies of their slain enemies. They were called the 'Hau-haus,' because their leader had assured them that if they shouted 'Hau-hau,' in honour of their god, the Angel Gabriel, as they charged they would be unharmed by the bullets of their opponents. The prophet seems to have fallen a victim to a bullet early in the proceedings, but the Hau-haus were not finally suppressed till 1870. Luckily most even of the King natives held aloof from the Hau-haus. Nevertheless, though the fanatics soon lost their hold in Taranaki, they held out for some time in the Wanganui district and their emissaries gained proselytes at Poverty Bay and about the Bay of Plenty. But here the friendly Maoris and in particular two chiefs, Te Kepa (Major Kemp) and Ropata, did most of the work of suppressing the movement. On the Wanganui Grey himself took over the command from General Cameron; and on July 21, 1865, with a mixed force of Maoris and colonists, he took the pah at Waeroa and put an end to the war in that region. For some years, however, the Hau-haus caused spasmodic outbreaks from time to time. Some 3,000,000 acres in Taranaki and elsewhere were taken over by the Government as forfeited. About a tenth of this was granted to Maoris who had stood by the authorities, and much the same area was restored to the Maori owners who submitted. Most of the rest was made available for sale to white settlers, while 400,000 acres between the Waikato and the Waipa were reserved for a series

of military settlements to be formed from members of the militia, who were to act as a barrier against the 'King' natives. The King Maoris in their turn proclaimed what they called 'Te Aikati,' the boundary line. Within this was the King country, which no white man and no Maori who sided with the whites might enter. For many years the 'King' Maoris remained in sullen isolation within this area. While the hostile Maoris thus cut themselves off from communication with the outside world, Grey provided for full recognition of the rights and privileges of the friendly tribes. The Maoris were allowed four members in the New Zealand Parliament, Maori schools were endowed, and their land customs were given the force of law. Grey's governorship, however, came to an end in 1868, mainly as a result of friction with the British army officers, Cameron and his successor General Chute. He left office regretted both by the white settlers and by the friendly Maoris. Hardly had Sir George Bowen succeeded him when there was a strange revival of the Hau-hau outrages. In 1865 a Maori named Te Kooti had been arrested as a spy, an accusation which he always denied, and sent with other prisoners to Chatham Island. On July 4, 1868, Te Kooti led a rising of the prisoners. They overpowered the guards, seized a schooner, and sailed back to . . . [Poverty bay]. Te Kooti and his followers broke through the attacking parties and massacred all the settlers they could find at Poverty Bay, without respect to age or sex. About the same time there was an outbreak in the west under a Hau-hau chief who revived cannibalism. . . . However, the 'King' Maoris held aloof from the Haus-haus and the friendly tribes rendered yeoman service in co-operation with the colonial forces under Colonel Whitmore. Te Kepa aided in the suppression of the western outbreak and Ropata joined in the storming of Te Kooti for months, until he took refuge in the King country, where he was allowed to remain and sank into obscurity. From 1870 onwards there was no more real trouble with the Maoris, though there has been occasional friction over the land question. The Maoris have settled down as a peaceful if not very progressive community, generally on very good terms with their white neighbours. New Zealand shared, though later and to a lesser extent, in the 'digging days' of Australia. In 1861 rich gold deposits were discovered at Gabriel's Gully and elsewhere in the bleak uplands of Central Otago. Swarms of diggers from Australia, as well as from other parts of New Zealand, poured into Otago and the population was soon increased fourfold. A little later came rich discoveries on the mountainous, storm-beaten, and heavily forested west coast of the South Island, where the influx of diggers gave rise to the province of Westland. Later, the best steam coal in Australasia was discovered on this coast. Gold was also found in the Thames Valley, in the North Island; but this had less effect on the movement of population."—T. Dunbabin, *Making of Australasia*, pp. 243-248.

Also in: A. Siegfried, *Democracy in New Zealand*, pp. 178-179.—R. P. Thomson, *National history of Australia, New Zealand and the adjacent islands*, pp. 220-221.—J. H. Kerry-Nicholls, *King country, introduction*.—G. W. Rusden, *History of New Zealand*.—M. Hertz, *New Zealand*, pp. 75-82.

1855-1873.—Provincial system at work.—Desire for centralization.—Government moved to Wellington.—"The provincial system was a wise measure of temporary policy, but it was certain

to become an anachronism and a burden when the Colony grew, and local isolation was broken down. As the years went by its defects became accentuated, its utility decreased, and it increasingly prejudiced the unification of the Colony and a comprehensive national policy. The foundations of the system were thus gradually weakened, and when finally its maintenance was found to be a barrier against the policy of the general government, the downfall of the provinces was speedily assured. Opposition was in some degree fostered by the ostentation of the provincial assemblies; one Superintendent was scrupulously referred to as 'His Excellency'; the Councils were mimic Parliaments, which copied from the Mother of Parliaments her state, her forms, her order of procedure; and the existence of these petty Houses within the bounds of a Colony with the population of a small city, was soon felt by many persons to be unnecessary and absurd. Further than this, the system produced inequalities, and encouraged local jealousies. Chief among the functions of the provincial councils was that of administering the waste, or unoccupied, lands in the respective provinces. Some could always find endowments for education and other public purposes, or moneys for roads and bridges; others were cramped by insufficient revenues, and hampered by circumstances which prevented settlement and thus rendered their lands of little real value. The provinces, although all subordinate to the central government, were in many ways like separate states, unequal, jealous, selfish and grasping. The South was rich: the North was poor. The South had broad acres, ready and apt for immediate settlement. Much of the North was owned by Maoris, settlement was confronted there with greater difficulties, and the native wars from 1860 both hampered occupation and aroused the antagonism of the South. It was, therefore, only natural that as the central government grew in stability, and means of transit and intercourse improved, many should turn against the provincial system and aim at the centralisation of all the important functions of state. Down to 1873 there were, in all, twelve ministries. The attention of Parliament was largely occupied by financial matters and administration, and later by the problem of the Maori wars, and it was round such topics as these that party warfare raged. But the provincial question was always present, and in no small degree effected a party cleavage. The final stage of the struggle may be dated from 1870."—J. Hight and H. D. Bamford, *Constitutional history and law of New Zealand*, pp. 280-291.—"For years the Southern members . . . inveighed against the inconvenience of having the seat of Government at Auckland, but Auckland provincialists were, naturally enough, bitterly opposed to such a change. . . . In 1863, however, an Act was passed appointing a Commission to report upon the subject; and the Commissioners, selected from the Australian Colonies, recommended Wellington as the capital. . . . On October 3, 1864, Wellington was made the capital of the Colony, and the session of 1865 was held there."—R. F. Irvine and O. T. J. Alpers, *Progress of New Zealand in the century*, p. 257.

1865.—Governor authorized to establish telegraphs as state monopoly. See TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES: 1865.

1870-1876.—Continuous ministry.—Peace and progress.—End of provincial governments.—Public works policy.—"For a period of twenty years, from 1870 to 1890, New Zealand was governed, except for two short intervals, by a com-

bination, or a succession of combinations of rulers who constituted what will be known in its history as the 'Continuous Ministry.' The exceptions were the ministry of Sir George Grey (1877-1879) and the Stout-Vogel Coalition (1884-1887). During the remaining fifteen years the 'Continuous Ministry' held the reins of government. In the early seventies it was a Fox-Vogel-Atkinson combination; during the early eighties it was an Atkinson-Whitaker-Hall combination. Personal changes there were many; the position of Premier in the Combination changed no less than ten times within the period. Its policy, too, changed with the changing circumstances of the Colony. During the prosperity of the seventies; during the depression of the eighties, it was borrowing and retrenchment, but, though less and less, borrowing always. It has now come to be regarded as a 'Conservative' administration. Yet it passed many constitutional reforms in the direction of radicalism, and it extended, in some remarkable ways, the functions of the State."—R. F. Irvine and O. T. J. Alpers, *Progress of New Zealand in the century*, p. 291.—"The year 1870 marks the beginning of a new period of peace and progress. From now on the memories both of war and of autocracy fade into the past. Prosperity reappears and continues uninterrupted. . . . As for the colonists, their character and courage had been tested in a stern and merciless struggle. Now the Colony had won its spurs, and could begin its career as a peaceful and civilised land. The problems which next presented themselves were no longer exclusively colonial; they became social and political. . . . Up to 1870 ministers had generally governed without having any political programme in the usual sense of the word. As long as the conflict with the Maoris lasted, that struggle had naturally absorbed most of the energies of the rulers, and prevented other problems from making a due impression on their minds. Government was carried on from hand to mouth, and there was little time to devote to questions of principle, or reforms of a wide scope. When the security of the State was no longer daily threatened, the rulers had leisure to give themselves up to distant hopes and wider schemes. It was then that Sir Julius Vogel, financial minister, first published his scheme of public loans and public works. Borrowing, it is true, was no new thing in the Colony, for the ten years of war through which she had just passed had had as their first and fatal result the creation of a public debt which rose in 1870 to £8,828,000. . . . The great idea of Sir Julius Vogel was to borrow yet more, but to improve the Colony, to develop it, and to attract settlers. He was able to win over Parliament to his plans, and later to put them into practice. Behind the apparent vacillations of parties which followed 1870 he was really directing the country. He carried through his loans, and though under this system New Zealand ran heavily into debt, it is generally recognised to-day that the realisation of this programme brought prosperity."—A. Siegfried, *Democracy in New Zealand*, pp. 38-39.—The public works policy led as its direct consequences to the abolition of the provincial system of government. "From the first, there had been in the General Assembly a party strongly opposed to the continuance of these provincial legislatures. The confusion of land-laws, the chaos of education systems, the conflict in administrative machinery, had increased the opposition. The large land revenues of the Southern provinces roused the jealousy of the Northern. And now, when a comprehensive system of public works was pro-

posed, the existence of the provincial system proved an obstacle to its successful adoption. Sir Julius Vogel had been elected as a strong provincialist. His wise scheme for recouping the cost of railways by reserving as public estate the land through which they would pass . . . was defeated by provincialists, jealous for their lands. An equally wise measure for planting State forests to counter-balance the rapid deforestation of the country before the advance of settlement, was similarly defeated by provincialists. . . . These two checks turned Vogel from an advocate into an enemy of the system; and the provinces were doomed. . . . As a substitute for the provincial legislatures, a Local Government Act [in 1876] created 63 counties and an endless succession of subordinate governing bodies. There are separate councils to manage counties and towns; separate boards to control harbours, and roads, drainage and irrigation, hospitals and charitable aid; while educational, electoral and judicial districts overlap each other."—R. F. Irvine and O. T. J. Alpers, *Progress of New Zealand in the century*, pp. 286, 287, 289.—Provincialists "found an unexpected champion in Sir George Grey, who came out of his retirement, was elected Superintendent of the Auckland Province, and, a little later member for Auckland West. He at once became the acknowledged leader of the party, and threw the whole weight of his ability and prestige into the fight. It was, however, a lost cause. In the new Parliament of 1875 Major Atkinson, leader of the Lower House, introduced a Bill for the abolition of the provinces, and the fiercest opposition was powerless to stay its passage."—J. Hight and H. D. Bamford, *Constitutional history and law of New Zealand*, p. 297.

1870-1890.—Progress.—"Gold bubble."—Effect of "Works policy."—Depression.—"The decade 1870-1880 constituted a striking and even sensational period in the progress of New Zealand. . . . When it opened, New Zealand was a federation of nine small provincial settlements; it had a population of something under a quarter of a million and a public debt of a little over seven millions; and it possessed few facilities for communication or transit: there were but 700 miles of telegraphs and 46 miles of railways. When it closed, New Zealand was a unified colony; the provincial legislatures had been swept away and the government centralised in Wellington; the population had been doubled, the public debt trebled; and the government had constructed, out of borrowed money, some 4000 miles of telegraphs and 1100 miles of railways [see also TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES: 1884-1904] with roads and bridges innumerable in most of the settled, and many of the unsettled, parts of the Colony. . . . [Already the "gold rush" of 1861 had brought New Zealand to the attention of seekers for adventure; after the discovery of gold in South Island 100,000 people reached the colony, chiefly from the British Isles, Australia and California. The inrush continued for some years; Westland was populated, and broke off as a separate province from Canterbury. The gold fever, however, was of comparatively short duration, for the fields though very rich did not prove to be of large extent, and by 1867 the bubble had burst. But a large proportion of the disappointed gold seekers turned their attention to other occupations, and though gold production decreased to less than a million, and after 1866 never again reached its maximum output of £2,844,000, the mines continued to bring in a steady income which later reached an average of about £2,000,000 a year. By 1869 the white

population was 237,000. But at this time there was little agriculture; there were no manufactures; practically the only exports were gold and wool, and the rich resources of the island were almost untouched. Then it was that Julius Vogel, who in 1869 was in the Fox Cabinet, brought forward his daring scheme, commonly known as the "Works policy," by which he purposed to open up the country with the aid of borrowed money; bring in large numbers of immigrants; create employment for them by the construction of railways, designed to provide communication from one end of the colony to the other, and ultimately to settle them on the land.] The immediate results of the Public Works Policy were political corruption and financial disaster; but subsequent history has proved that, if premature in conception and extravagant in administration, it has been productive of lasting good in accelerating the development of the colony. . . .

[Vogel's] projects met with immediate and almost universal approval. Parliament gave itself up unreservedly to his schemes; and for six years he enjoyed an amount of confidence never before given to one man in the House. Outside Parliament his *mana* was equally great. . . . The community had something to hope from a proposal to spend ten millions of borrowed money in the colony. . . . In the session of 1870 Parliament had passed Bills authorizing the floating in the London market of a loan of ten millions, and the sale of two and a half million acres of land to defray the cost of railway and other works and of state-aided immigration [which had formerly been in the hands of the provinces]. A rise in prices of wool and wheat had improved the Colony's credit and no difficulty was found in raising this and subsequent loans, though the rates were high; the promised means of inland communication had created a feverish demand for land, and the two and a half million acres, the price of which was to be spent by the provincial governments, found a ready market. . . . Next in importance to railway construction in Vogel's programme came state-aided immigration. Settlers were induced to come out to the Colony by part payment of their passage money and by grants of Crown lands. The prosperity of the Colony and the scope for employment it offered attracted many others; and between 1871 and 1881 the population increased from a quarter to half a million. . . . [Two commissioners, Dr. Featherston and F. H. Dillon Bell, were sent to Europe, and before long a stream of assisted emigration set in toward the colony from the British Isles, and definitely determined the national characteristics of the population. A number of north German and Scandinavian settlers were also sent out; but these were in the minority.] Vogelism had other results, however, than the creation of 40-acre settlements. It produced the wildest 'land-boom' the Colony has known. The North Island provinces had little land to sell; the natives there still held most of the territory. But the South Island provinces had broad acres; the revenue from the sale of these, by 'The Land Compact of 1856,' passed to the Provincial exchequers; and the legislatures vied with each other in selling their acres and swelling their revenues. . . . The worst feature of these sales by Provincial legislatures was that they were effected, in most cases, without any attempt to impose restraint on areas purchasable or to compel occupation or improvement. The result was that enormous blocks of fertile land were locked up in the hands of speculators and absentee-owners."—R. F. Irvine and O. T. F. Alpers, *Progress of New*

Zealand in the century, pp. 278-281, 283-285.—This landlocking produced a very unfortunate state of affairs. While the borrowed money lasted and speculation was rife, prosperity seemed to smile. But "the borrowing boom came to an end in 1879 and the next few years were a time of depression. It was at this period that legislation in New Zealand first took a decidedly Socialist trend. Large estates were taxed and were bought by the State and cut up into small farms. Insurance, hospitals, and other activities left to private enterprise in Australia, were brought under State control."—T. Danbabin, *Making of Australasia*, p. 249.—"With evenly balanced parties, Parliament was powerless in the next few years to cope with the evils that multiplied upon the unfortunate country. . . . Every effort was made to start new industries, and to find new markets for produce, but even where successful the benefit could not be reaped for some years to come. . . . [Not only was employment . . . scarce] but the industries that survived the depression were flourishing in a fictitious manner. Unprotected from the competition of English and foreign goods, which were dumped into New Zealand almost free of duty, the local manufacturers had to make reprisals upon the labor which was, unfortunately, all too abundant. Wages fell. Married men with families, compelled to choose between work at low pay and starvation, were at the mercy of circumstances. Boys came into competition with their fathers. . . . Female labour was similarly exploited. . . . Sub-contracting gave rise to 'sweating.' The cutting was remorseless. . . . Thousands of disappointed men, efficient, industrious, and temperate, left the colony in despair. Of those who remained many had emigrated from the Old World a few years earlier, full of hope and enthusiasm. They were now inconsolable agitators."—G. H. Scholefield, *New Zealand in evolution*, pp. 168-169.

1876-1890.—Grey administration.—Hall-Atkinson policy of retrenchment.—Suffrage.—State Socialism.—Meat and dairy industries.—In 1877 Vogel was followed in office by Sir George Grey, who received a mandate to retrench. This policy, however, was not carried out. "Grey as Premier preached economy, his colleagues practised extravagance; on the platform he had easily captivated the electors with his nebulous projects for the good of the 'unborn millions,' in the cabinet he proved an autocratic and tactless leader; was quite unable to control his colleagues; and soon quarrelled with the best of them. His majority was too small to allow him to carry his constitutional reforms; the land tax which he did carry did not produce the expected revenue; and when he left office in 1870, after two years of administrative muddling, the public debt had been increased by five millions; the revenue had diminished; and a fall in the prices of staple products had produced commercial depression. The time for taxation and retrenchment had come; and the Hall-Atkinson party were called to office to apply the drastic remedy. Their taxation took the form of a Property Tax of one penny in the pound on the capital value of every citizen's possessions. Their retrenchment was effected by the rough and ready method of a ten per cent reduction in all public salaries. Such a policy was not likely to be long popular. In 1884, accordingly, when Sir Julius Vogel returned to the Colony, he was soon restored to popular favour and again entered the House. He had become divorced from the old 'Continuous' party; and Sir George Grey had been deposed from the leadership of the 'Liberal' sec-

tion of the House, in which the most conspicuous member now was Sir Robert (then Mr.) Stout. The two joined forces and assumed office as the Stout-Vogel Coalition. Vogel as Treasurer pushed on borrowing and public works, though not with the old daring or the old extravagance. Stout and Balance devoted themselves to legislation in the direction of social improvement. So ill-matched a team did not long pull together, and 1887 found the Colony's finances still far removed from a condition of equilibrium. Once more Atkinson was called in to 'save the republic' by the same unpopular means of increased taxation and retrenchment. The customs duties were increased till they became, though nominally imposed for revenue purposes, practically protective. The salaries of the Governor and the Ministers and the honorariums of members of Parliament were cut down; and the number of members of the elective chamber was reduced from 95 to 74. The Colony had at last set its house in order; and when the Continuous Ministry had finally accomplished the ungrateful task, it was driven from office and made its exit from the stage of New Zealand politics. . . . Some important constitutional changes were effected during the period covered by the history of the 'Continuous Ministry,' all in the direction of increasing the popular control over the legislature. A Ballot Bill was passed on the eve of their accession to power. The principle of payment of members was established, thus removing an important restriction upon the selection of representatives. Members of the Legislative Council are paid £150, of the House of Representatives £240, per annum; with deductions for absence during session and a liberal allowance for travelling expenses. The duration of Parliament was reduced from five years to three; and in 1887-1889 Acts were passed removing anomalies then existing and placing the system of representation upon a strict population basis. To the 'country population'—that is to say people living outside of towns of 2000 or more inhabitants—28 per cent is added; and the total European population of the Colony thus ascertained, is divided by 70—the number of European members, and the quotient obtained gives the electoral quota. . . . The Maori population is divided into four electoral districts, each returning one native member to the House of Representatives; and two Maoris have seats in the Legislative Council. . . . But the most far-reaching constitutional change effected during these years was the adoption, in 1890 of the principle popularly known as 'one man, one vote.' The qualification for electors was two-fold. There was a 'property qualification' in virtue of holding property in an electoral district; and a 'residential qualification' in virtue of living in it. . . . The Act of 1880 forbade an elector to exercise a vote in respect of more than one constituency at the same election. It thus placed the franchise in New Zealand on what was practically a manhood basis. By a subsequent amending Act the last political privilege attached to the ownership of property was done away with in the colony. . . . 'State Socialism' in New Zealand, is often regarded as having begun in 1801; and, . . . that year did mark an important change in public opinion on socialistic legislation. But the colony had already, under the *régime* of the 'Continuous Ministry,' advanced far on the same path of development. The Public Works Policy placed in the hands of the State the ownership and management of the whole Railway, Telegraph and Telephone systems of the colony; the Central Government during the same period founded and endowed the

New Zealand University and established our State system of 'free, secular, and compulsory' education; and it undertook, in addition, the business of Life Insurance, a system of Land Transfer, and a Public Trust Office. In 1870, the Government of New Zealand, with a view to promoting thrift among the colonists, established a State Life Insurance office. . . . In 1870, also, Sir Julius Vogel established the Torrens system of Land Transfer in the Colony. All Crown Grants are now made under it; lands, alienated before it came into force, can be brought under it, where a clear title exists."—R. F. Irvine and O. T. J. Alpers, *Progress of New Zealand in the century*, pp. 203-208.—In 1882 a new industry arose, the freezing of the carcasses of sheep and cattle for export. From this date must be reckoned the growth of New Zealand's prosperity, for no other event in her history has had such an immense and lasting effect on her industrial progress. The first export of frozen meat was made in that year, and its value was about £20,000. It has continuously and steadily grown in importance, so that now the value has reached the annual sum of about £4,000,000. Land that was formerly used for growing cereals is now used for fattening sheep, with the result that the export of cereals has decreased. With the increase of population and the subdivision of the land into smaller allotments, two other industries have of recent years made great strides, the production of butter and of cheese. From the earliest days the export of butter and cheese was of importance, and it has become next in importance to wool and frozen meat. These changes in the agricultural and pastoral industries have led to great changes in the mode of dealing with the lands of the Dominion. At one time the largest areas of land were used for pastoral pursuits, and Crown lands were let on pastoral lease, called 'runs;' then came the sale and purchase of these lands, especially of land suitable for cereal production. With the development of the frozen meat industry, a more intensive pastoral occupation has arisen. Food is now grown in many districts for the winter feeding of stock. With the production of butter and cheese, co-operative dairies have been established, small farms have become remunerative, and a system of small holdings has grown up that was unknown in the early days."—M. A. Herbertson and O. J. R. Howarth, *Australasia (Oxford survey of the British empire, pp. 400-410)*.

1886-1906.—Forestry destruction.—State reserves and protection. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: New Zealand.

1890-1909.—Seddon-Ballance ministry.—Era of social and political experiment.—Land policy.—"On the 3rd of October, 1890, Parliament was dissolved and on the 5th of December the first election of Members of the House of Representatives took place under what was practically the one man one vote principle. In the January of the following year Sir Harry Atkinson's ministry resigned and another was called to power under the Premiership of Mr. John Ballance."—A. P. Douglas, *Dominion of New Zealand*, p. 397.—Ballance died in 1893, while still in office, and was followed by Richard Seddon, whom he had made minister of mines in 1890. The ministries presided over by these two men, Seddon and Ballance, were responsible for much of the advanced social legislation for which New Zealand became notable in the end of the nineteenth century. "Seddon retained office until he died thirteen years later; and the administration he formed outlasted his life six years, and survived six general elec-

tions. The ministry which was to pass some of the most novel and daring legislation that had ever been placed on any English statute book, and was to perform the hardly less remarkable feat of holding office continuously for over twenty years, in a country where the existence of parliament was limited to three years, began its career quietly enough. Retrenchment was the password everywhere; officials were dismissed, expenses cut down, and drastic economies effected in every department until the colony had recovered from the financial stress. The remedy was harsh but effectual. . . . Within a few months New Zealand turned the corner to prosperity; the Colonial Budget showed a surplus; and men who had been leaving the islands for Australia began to return with renewed hopes. Thus it was that when Seddon became Premier in 1893 the path was clear for immediate anxieties, and the first general election that was fought after his appointment increased his power. His government counted fifty-six supporters in a House of seventy-four."—A. W. Tilby, *Australasia 1688-1911*, v. 5, p. 394.—The most important legislation introduced before the death of Ballance was a measure designed to counteract the effects of Grey's early land Act, which had set the price of crown lands at five shillings an acre; but made no limit to the acreage which might be acquired by any one person. "The government had never ceased" . . . to buy up lands, sometimes on a moderate scale, when its funds were low, . . . sometimes on a large scale, when it was affluent. . . . There gradually arose in this way the territory of the State, which bears the name of Crown Lands. . . . An Act of 1892 (the Land Act) . . . resumed and, in a way, codified all preceding legislation on the point. . . . It sets up a system of lease in perpetuity, under which the State always retains the ownership of the land. . . . In this way the movement in favour of land nationalization in New Zealand stopped short, and became transferred into a crusade against large estates. This is, in fact, the whole point of the new legislation: to limit the area of Crown lands that one individual may acquire; and in certain circumstances it even goes so far as to compel the large landowner to sell against his will. . . . The advent of the Ballance-Seddon Ministry then had the result of inaugurating an entirely novel agrarian policy. The main idea of the earlier governments of the Colony had been that land must be sold to everyone who came, ceaselessly and without restriction or regulation. They thought that thus, in the natural course of immigration, the country would become inhabited and developed. So far this was all right. But no one had thought of the speculators, who always appear in a newly-opened country. . . . In 1891, 584 individuals or societies owned seven million acres. . . . [When the Ballance-Seddon ministry attacked the problem of these great estates, the] great point in the debate was the question whether Crown lands should ever be sold, even to the smallest colonist. The radicals regretted that the smallest portion of Crown territory should ever be definitely lost and become private property; while the conservatives protected this principle of private property. A compromise followed, and now the Government can dispose of Crown lands in several ways, which we give below: The buyer has to choose between three systems: sale, pure and simple; lease, with a purchasing power; and lease in perpetuity. [This last system was later abolished. See below: 1006-1000.] Under the system of sale pure and simple, one-fifth of the price must be paid on the spot, and the rest within a month. But the buyer does

not become the owner, in the full sense of the word, unless certain conditions of improvement and residence are fulfilled. . . . In the 'lease with a purchasing power,' the rent is fixed at 5 per cent. of the value of the land, and, the lease being for twenty-five years, the lessee has the right of purchase after ten years, at the price arranged in the beginning. These two systems are not new, and have nothing in them of a socialistic or even original nature. But in setting up the third system, lease in perpetuity, the legislators of 1892 were evidently influenced by certain socialistic doctrines. For twenty years the formula 'land nationalisation' had great popularity in New Zealand; and it found its way into legislation with the lease in perpetuity. Under this system the State retains the ownership of the land, and only gives to the occupier a lease of 999 years . . . The rent is 4 per cent. of the value of the land, and is not afterwards subject to any alteration, which is a great advantage for the lessee. In these circumstances his rights are practically equivalent to those of ownership, but he can enter into possession without laying down any capital, so that the very poorest are enabled to set to work and cultivate the soil without having recourse to a loan. Under the two latter systems (lease with a purchasing power and lease in perpetuity), as in the first, the lessee must observe certain conditions of improvement and of residence. . . . This excludes the speculator who only buys to sell again, without interesting himself in the least in making the land productive. But the Act does not only exclude the speculator; it directly prevents the formation of large estates. A clause in the Land Act of 1892 limits the area of Crown lands that one individual can acquire to 640 acres of first-class land, and 2000 acres of second-class. This limit is a maximum, and the Government may reduce it at pleasure. This is the explanation of the State's interest in keeping or adding to the Crown lands. It cannot prevent a small land-owner from selling his property to a richer one and thus helping to form large estates. But, now that the State itself owns the greater part of the land, . . . [it is easy to control the conditions of land tenure]. Every year the Government puts at the disposal of the colonists, either by sale or by lease in perpetuity, some of the Crown lands available; and during the . . . [ten years prior to 1911] the amount of Crown lands thus disposed of totalled from two to three million acres. The number of colonists thus given a stake in the land was between two and three thousand a year. . . . But the Seddon Ministry did not stop there. Having taken up the formula 'The Land for the State,' it devoted its attention to another formula: 'The Land for the People.' Every year some thousands of immigrants arrive in New Zealand and ask either for lands or for work. To these new-comers must be added such of the unemployed as the Department for Labour has been unable to place. It is therefore necessary to find some practical means of setting up people who have little or no capital. The experiments made with this purpose in view have been very interesting. Small farm associations, village settlements and improved farm settlements were some of the expedients proposed to make it easier for people without capital to get on their feet. The Act authorises and encourages, under the name of small farm associations, associations of at least twelve persons for the purpose of acquiring between them a certain tract of land. When the purchase has been made, roads are mapped out, and then the land is divided into sections which are distributed by lot among the

associates. Then the association comes to an end, and each person is once more free, having had the advantage of not being isolated and the chance of securing a really good lot. The system of village settlement is very similar. But under this latter system the Government advances to the colonists the capital necessary for preliminary expenses. . . . The improved farm settlements were intended to provide labour for the unemployed and if possible to give them a stake in the land. From time to time, when employment makes itself particularly felt, the Government selects a certain tract of waste land and sends the unemployed workmen to occupy it. They receive wages for clearing the land, and then, when it is ready for cultivation, they are given the land, which they themselves have prepared, on perpetual lease."—A. Siegfried, *Democracy in New Zealand*, pp. 180-186.—The graduated land tax also militates against the holding of large estates. "The first land-tax was imposed in 1878. The capital value of all land, less all improvements, was assessed at its selling value, and on this assessment, less a deduction of £500, the owner had to pay a tax of one halfpenny in the pound. In 1879 this tax was abandoned, and a tax upon all property real and personal, save agricultural implements in actual use, and property belonging to churches, public bodies or societies, ships, and policies of life assurance, was imposed. It was at first one penny in the pound. This property tax, with some amendments and at a varying rate, remained in operation till 1892. Provision was made in that year for a new scheme of taxation—land and income taxes. There were two kinds of land-tax, ordinary and graduated. The ordinary land-tax was imposed on the ordinary value of the land less a sum up to £3,000 for improvements. There was also a deduction of £500 allowed in certain cases. A graduated tax was provided. On land of the unimproved value of £5,000 and less than £10,000, the rate was an eighth of a penny in the pound. This rate increased by a graduate scale, the tax rising to six-eighths of a penny in the pound where the unimproved value of the land was of £210,000 or over. Since then the system of graduation has been maintained, though the scale of taxation has varied. . . . The result has been that the holders of large blocks of land have found it to be more profitable to dispose of their properties than to hold them. Since 1878 land has greatly increased in value, in some districts the increase being more than fourfold."—G. H. Scholefield, *New Zealand in evolution*, pp. 410-411.—The attack on the question of capital and labor by the Seddon ministry was as energetic as the attack on land-monopoly, and the results were, for years, the ideal of social reformers in other parts of the world. "There is not in any other country in the world a more valuable or more enlightened body of Labour laws than those now upon the statute book of this progressive colony. They cover almost every risk to life, limb, health, and interest of the industrial classes. They send the law, as it were, everywhere a worker is employed for daily wages to fling the shield of the state over him or her in the labour of livelihood. The bare enumeration of these laws will indicate the far-reaching ground they cover:—The Coal Mines Act, the Master and Apprentices Act, the Conspiracy Law Amendment Act, the Trade Union Act, the Servant's Registry Offices Act (for the protection of servant girls against the risks of dishonest offices of that kind), Contractors and Workmen's Lien Act, three amended Employer's Liability Acts, three amended Shipping and Sea-

men's Acts, two Shops and Shop-assistant Acts, the Factories Act, and the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1894. . . . The Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act, passed in 1894. . . . attracted much attention outside New Zealand."—M. Davitt, *Life and progress in Australasia*, ch. 68.—See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: New Zealand.—In the winter of 1890 an old-age pension act was added to the radical legislation of New Zealand. The Agent-General for New Zealand in England has described the measure in a review article, as follows: "As finally licked into shape, the act is one for giving a small pension to the poorest section of aged colonists without any contribution on their part whatever. Briefly summarized, any New Zealander—man or woman—who has come to the age of sixty-five, after living not less than twenty-five years in New Zealand, shall be entitled to 6s. 11d. a week, or £18 a year. The full pension is . . . paid to those whose income from any source is less than £34. When the private income is above £34 a year £1 is deducted from the pension for every £1 of such excess income. When, therefore, the private income is large enough to be £18 a year in excess of £34 no state pension is paid. In other words, no one who has an income of £52 a year is entitled to even a fraction of the pension. A rather more elaborate portion of the act deals with deductions to be made from the pension where the applicant for it is possessed of accumulated property. Under this the applicant's real and personal property are assessed, and his debts, if any, are subtracted from the total value thereof. Then he is allowed to own £325 without suffering any deduction therefor. After that he loses £1 of pension for every £15 worth of accumulated property. The result is that any one possessed of £600 worth of accumulated property ceases to be entitled to any allowance whatever. Men and women are equally entitled to the pension, and where a husband and wife are living together their property or income is divided by two for the purpose of the calculations above mentioned. That is to say, their united income must amount to £104 or their united property to £1,200 before they are altogether disentitled in any part of the pension. They may have, between them, an income of £68, or as much as £650 of property, and yet be entitled to draw their respective pensions in full."—*National Review*, Feb., 1890.—See also SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: New Zealand: 1000-1912.—"It is continually asked what has been the effect of this interference with labour, this fixing of the wages, conditions, hours of labour, etc. . . . This at all events, can be said: strikes have been rare, and the Dominion is progressing. It is recognised that no industry is worth having if it cannot pay a living wage. The people in New Zealand believe that it is better to have no industries than to have a people steeped in misery, with physical health shattered, and with no hope of comfort or happiness. . . . In the Capital there is a Government labour department which has been in existence for 10 years. It supervises the various labour regulations, and the various agencies or various labour bureaux throughout the Dominion. . . . There are labour offices or bureaux throughout New Zealand, and in four of the cities there is a department to look after the unemployed. These branches deal with the unemployed, finding work for them and aiding them to get work. . . . The Government has always a considerable number of public works in progress, railways, roads, tracks, coal mines, etc., and the number of labourers employed by the State is

therefore large. . . . There is, as exists in England, a Workers' Compensation Act. It varies in some of its provisions from the English statute, but not in many vital details."—R. and J. L. Stout, *New Zealand*, pp. 165-167.

1891.—Represented at the council for federation. See AUSTRALIA: 1885-1892.

1893.—Universal Suffrage Act.—"A new Electoral Act was passed in 1893, and that Act was the first to create an equality of the sexes. Women had granted to them the same political rights as men, save that no woman could be elected as a member of Parliament. The freehold qualification was abolished, the residential qualification being the only one required. It was impossible thereafter to vote in more than one district, and all elections had to be held on one day. The ballot system was introduced in 1870."—R. and J. L. Stout, *New Zealand*, p. 96.—See also SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: New Zealand.

1894.—Represented at colonial conference at Ottawa, Canada. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1894.

1897.—Refuses to become member of federation of Australian colonies. See AUSTRALIA: 1900: Federation of Australian colonies.

1897.—Represented at colonial conference in London. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1897.

1897-1905.—Private charities.—Asylums. See CHARITIES: Australasia.

1899-1907.—Participation in Boer War.—Preferential and Reciprocal Trade Act.—"On October 11th, 1890, war began between Britain and the Boer Republics. On September 28th Seddon had moved in the House of Representatives that New Zealand offer the Imperial Government a contingent of mounted troops. The House approved by 54 votes to 5, and New Zealand had the distinction of being the first colony to line up beside the Motherland in the struggle. On October 21st the first contingent of New Zealanders left for South Africa. Between October 1880, and April 1902, ten contingents, totalling more than 6,000 men, sailed for South Africa, where they distinguished themselves alike by their skill and courage. The fruit of Seddon's visit to England in 1902 was his Preferential and Reciprocal Trade Act of 1903, which placed additional duties on certain goods not produced or manufactured in the Empire, and duties on foreign goods that were once imported free. This preferential trade was considerably enlarged in 1907, and has since been part of New Zealand's fiscal policy."—A. W. Shrimpton and A. E. Mulgan, *Maori and Pakeha*, pp. 353-355.

1900 (October).—Petition for annexation of Cook islands.—On the 10th of October, 1900, the earl of Ranfurly, governor of New Zealand, arrived at the Cook islands for the purpose of effecting the annexation of the islands to that colony, in accordance with the expressed wish of the natives. A British protectorate was declared over the group by Captain Bourke, of H. M. S. Hyacinth, in 1888. Since 1892 the interests of the protectorate had been guarded and directed by a British resident, paid by the New Zealand government, and the islands were now included within the boundaries of that colony. There are six islands in the group annexed (700 miles southeast of Samoa) the total population of which at the time of annexation was about 4,500. The inhabitants were "closely related to the Maori, and spoke almost the same language. They had petitioned in 1864 to be annexed, and their sympathies were entirely British. The way having been prepared

by a resolution in the New Zealand Parliament, the ariki of the group petitioned for annexation in 1900."—G. H. Scholefield, *Pacific: Its past and future*, p. 209.

1901.—Annexation of Cook and Niue, or Savage, islands.—"The inclusion of the Cook group in the boundaries of New Zealand was effected by an Order-in-Council in May 1901 under the authority of the Colonial Boundaries Act, 1895; and the change came into force the following month. Under the New Zealand act for the administration of the group the Federal Parliament previously existing is continued. Each island is governed by a council of nine members, the Resident Agent of New Zealand Government being ex-officio president. The Federal Council is presided over by the Resident Commissioner for the group. No ordinance has validity until assented to by the Government of New Zealand, which can also apply to the islands any New Zealand law it cares to. . . . Close to the Cook Islands is the outpost of Niue, or Savage Island, where German interests existed until 1899 which prevented British authority being set up. By the Samoa Convention Germany renounced her interests here, and the island was annexed to New Zealand in 1901. The natives of Niue are distinct from those of Rarotonga, and are of a roving disposition, so that of a population of 4500 about one-ninth are usually abroad in other Pacific islands."—G. H. Scholefield, *Pacific: Its past and future*, pp. 209-210.

1902.—Represented at imperial conference in London. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1902.

1906-1909.—Liberal party and Liberal ministry.—Years of power.—Ward ministry.—Revolt against conciliation and arbitration system.—Leases-in-perpetuity abolished.—Social legislation.—Compulsory military training.—New voting system.—In June, 1906, the Liberal party in New Zealand experienced a great loss, in the death of Mr. Richard J. Seddon, its strong leader, and the Prime Minister of Government for some time past. His place was taken temporarily by Mr. Hall-Jones, until Sir Joseph Ward, then absent from the country, returned and received the chief ministerial seat. Since 1893 the Liberal Party had derived large majorities in Parliament from each triennial election. "Sir Joseph Ward entered upon what was, superficially at least, a wonderful political inheritance. The party had enjoyed fifteen unbroken years of power, its legislation had drawn the attention of the world, the Opposition had been routed at the elections of the year before, and the country was riding happily on a swelling tide of prosperity. In the Liberal-Labour party led by Ballance and Seddon, moderate Liberals marched with Radicals and Socialists. On one of the outstanding political questions, land policy, the party was divided into freehold and leasehold camps, whereas the Opposition was for the freehold. . . . It was the good fortune of Ballance and Seddon that in 1890, and the years following, nearly everything favoured an alliance between Liberalism, Radicalism, and Labour. It was Ward's misfortune that he succeeded to the Premiership when that alliance was about to show signs of weakening. It is doubtful if even Seddon, with ten more years of power, could have prevented the rise of an independent Labour party. The reconstruction of the Government almost coincided with a serious revolt against the conciliation and arbitration system. Serious strikes began to occur. From the passing of the Act of 1894 up to the end of 1905 there had been no strikes among unions. In 1906 there was a very short strike by the Auckland tramwaymen.

In 1907 there were twelve strikes, but all in one industry, slaughtering at freezing works. The following year there were the same number in different unions, including the Wellington bakers, the Auckland tramwaymen, and the West Coast miners. Other unions supported strikers by resolutions and money. [See also LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1906-1913.] The outlook for peaceful methods was grave, and the Government made haste to amend the system by strengthening the conciliation side of it, writing fresh definitions of unlawful strikes, and imposing new penalties for infractions of the law. Fortunately public opinion supported the system. The new Ministry followed the lines laid down by its predecessors. Sir Joseph Ward had among his colleagues three men of note—Sir John Findlay, Attorney-General and Minister of Justice, . . . Mr. George Fowlds, an able and progressive Minister of Education, who was a prominent Single-taxer; and Mr. Robert McNab, who had made his name as a historian of the very early days of New Zealand, and now aspired to settle the land question definitely and boldly on radical lines. McNab brought in a leasehold Land Bill, but there was strong opposition to it in and out of Parliament, and it was modified. . . . The land problem had not been solved. . . . The land tax had had little effect in breaking up big estates; purchase by the Government and the stimulus of high prices ruling for land had been more potent factors. The intended effect of the tax had been negated to some extent by evasion. . . . The Government did a good deal. It increased the graduated land tax. It abolished in 1907, for future transactions, McKenzie's lease-in-perpetuity system, which now had few supporters, and substituted renewable leases, with periodical revaluation. It gave existing lessees the right to modify their tenure, or acquire the freehold. Eventually it set aside some millions of acres as an inalienable national endowment, the rents from which were to be devoted to old age pensions and education. But land monopoly continued to be a potent political cry, and was taken up with special force and effect by the Labour Party. Among a mass of other legislation may be singled out here the National Provident Fund Act of 1910, which encouraged the wage-earner to provide against destitution, incapacity, and old age, and the Licensing Act that gave people the opportunity of voting for or against national prohibition. By the year 1911 the population of the country had passed the million mark. In 1907 New Zealand officially ceased to be a Colony, and became a Dominion. The status of Australia and Canada, sister units in the Empire, made the change inevitable, but though the promotion in name was announced as momentous, it was received without enthusiasm. . . . Questions of defence forced themselves to the front. New Zealand had been lazily content with a system that had little to commend it. And in the session of 1909 following Sir Joseph Ward's attendance at a special naval defence conference in London, the Government passed an Act embodying the principle of universal training. Under the scheme of training put into operation boys served in the Junior Cadets from the age of twelve to the age of fourteen, and in the Senior Cadets from fourteen to eighteen, and then passed into the Territorials. . . . At twenty-five the Territorial passed into the Reserve and remained there for five years. No soldier could be compelled to serve outside the country. [See also WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909; New Zealand; Adoption of compulsory military training.] In 1908, three years after Seddon's last triumph, the Ward Government faced the electors. A new system of

voting was tried. The new system provided that where there was not an absolute majority the first two candidates must go to a second poll a fortnight later. . . . The Liberal party came back with a substantial majority, but its strength in the House, exclusive of Maori members, was reduced to forty-six, and the Opposition increased its numbers to twenty-six."—A. W. Shrimpton and A. E. Mulgan, *Maori and Pakeha*, pp. 361-364, 366-367, 371-372.

1907.—Represented at imperial conference in London.—Formulation of constitution.—Discussions of defense. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1907.

1909.—Offer of a dreadnought to imperial navy.—"In 1909, at the Imperial Conference, Sir Joseph Ward sprung a surprise by offering a battle cruiser to the Government without consulting his constituents at home. They were in a mood to make him pay for it himself when he returned, but later developments so justified him that he became a sort of political idol for a while. When the cruiser visited New Zealand in 1913, the excitement knew no bounds."—S. Greenbie, *Imperial conference and the Anglo-Japanese Alliance (World's Work, July, 1921)*.—See also WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: British imperial defense conference.

1909 (June).—Represented at imperial press conference. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1909 (June).

1910.—Legislation against trade monopolies. See TRUSTS: New Zealand.

1910-1919.—Statistics of trade unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1911.—Growth in prohibition sentiment. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: New Zealand: 1911.

1911.—Represented at imperial conference.—Discussion of naturalization laws, intercommunication, and social insurance. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1911.

1911-1921.—Election of 1911.—Defeat of Liberal party.—Reform party in power.—In the elections of 1911 the parties stood equal. The following March Ward resigned and was followed by Thomas Mackenzie, a member of the cabinet. The Mackenzie government lasted three months, but was defeated in July, 1912. It was followed by the Reform party, the successor of the Conservative party under Massey, who was still in office in 1921.

Also in: A. W. Shrimpton and A. E. Mulgan, *Maori and Pakeha*, p. 372.

1913.—Amending Act for industrial arbitration. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: New Zealand.

1913.—Immigration Act. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1904-1913.

1914.—Percentage of governmental control of railways. See RAILROADS: 1917-1919.

1914-1918.—Part taken in World War.—Military Service Act.—Socialist agitation against conscription.—"Into the war against Germany New Zealand threw herself even more wholeheartedly, if possible, than Australia. In the earlier stages of the war volunteers came forward with as much readiness as in the Commonwealth, and later New Zealand did not shrink from conscription of men of military age to keep up the strength of her forces. Some young men went to Australia to escape conscription, but they were exceptions. The New Zealanders under General Godley fought with the Australians on Gallipoli. [See also AUSTRALIA: 1914-1915; WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: a; a, 4, xx.] They distinguished themselves in France and also did excellent service in the Palestine campaign."—T. Dunbabin, *Making of Aus-*

tralia, p. 250.—The first expeditions were composed entirely of volunteers. But, as the war dragged on, it was recognized that some other method of filling up the ranks was advisable, and "on August 1, 1916, the Parliament of New Zealand enacted 'The Military Service Act, 1916,' establishing the Expeditionary Force Reserve. That Reserve consists of every male natural-born British subject resident in New Zealand, between the ages of 20 and 46 years inclusive, except members of the Expeditionary Force or men discharged from it, criminals, lunatics, and natives. The act may be extended to include natives by proclamation. Voluntary enlistment was to continue side by side with conscription until it was proclaimed that such enlistment should cease. . . . The 'No' vote in Australia encouraged the Socialist Anti-conscriptionists to enter upon a campaign, [against the act] in which it was claimed that Parliament had no mandate to initiate compulsory military service; that, had a referendum been taken in New Zealand, conscription would have been negatived in Australia, and that the Military Service Act should be repealed or a referendum taken. . . . [The regulations against sedition, which went into force in December, 1916, had the effect of stiffening this opposition, and] just before Christmas an Anti-Conscription Conference was held in Wellington at which numerous Labour bodies were represented. Resolutions were passed recommending a national campaign to secure the repeal of the Military Service Act. It was decided that representatives of the National Labour Party should take legal opinion as to whether [the act was in agreement with the Act of Constitution, in order to decide if a test case could be taken to the Supreme Court]. . . . A deputation from this conference waited on the Minister of Labour. The Government, it urged, was irritating the workers almost beyond endurance: New Zealand had already sent to the front enough men in proportion to her population: and there was great danger of the essential industries suffering. . . . At the end of January trouble began on the wharf in Wellington owing to the refusal of the men to 'dump' cargo (*i.e.* to discharge it in nets instead of slings) or to work after 5 p.m. if required; and to their restricting the number of boxes of butter in any one hoist to 30 instead of 48 as usual. . . . There was evidence of the introduction of a general 'go slow' policy; the result of which was to delay the shipment of produce to England. . . . The Government could not allow the continuance of a deadlock which held up food supplies for Great Britain. On February 10, under 'The War Regulations Amendment Act, 1916,' new War Regulations were published for the maintenance of industries essential for the public welfare. These regulations declared the lading and unloading of ships to be such an 'essential industry' and gave the Government power to declare any wharf a Government wharf. . . . Incitement to refuse effective service as a wharf labourer and other utterances or actions calculated to interfere with or delay unloading of ships were declared 'offences'. . . . [Early in February] concerted action was being taken throughout the Dominion by the coal miners for the adoption of a 'go slow' policy. . . . [The owners] met the miners and granted a war bonus of 10 per cent. and thought the matter settled. The evidence showed that the men had received instructions not to earn more than 12s. a day, and that the output in the mine that was under consideration by the Board had fallen by a third since the instructions were given. . . . The Government again responded by War Regulations, forbidding any seditious strike or lock-out. . . .

Pursuant to these regulations the coal mining industry . . . was also proclaimed an 'essential industry.'—*Round Table, June, 1917, pp. 625, 629, 631-633.*—See also LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1917.—“During the war there was a keen demand for . . . [dairy products and wool] at high prices; and New Zealand, partly owing, it is true, to more care and caution in public finance, came out of the war far better financially than Australia.”—T. Dunbabin, *Making of Australasia, p. 251.*

1916-1921.—Place of New Zealand in empire.—Difficulties in proposals for closer imperial federation and an imperial parliament.—The World War created a new set of problems for New Zealand. Previous to 1914 she had been concerned mainly with her own internal development. The World War brought her into the midst of the whole society of nations and pointed out to her, as to Australia, her anomalous position as a power too great to act as a mere colony, and yet not independent as a nation. The conferring of the Pacific mandates on Australia and New Zealand as independent states still further emphasized the difficulties of her position. Suggestions for an imperial parliament of British states did not wholly satisfy the New Zealanders, and the whole question of re-adjusting the relations of the colony within the empire was still under discussion when the imperial conference met in London in June, 1921. “At the outbreak of . . . [the World War] New Zealand coöperated with Australia in occupying German Samoa and after the close of the war New Zealand received a mandate from the League of Nations to administer it. [See BRITISH EMPIRE: Treaties promoting expansion: 1920; SAMOA: 1914-1920.] New Zealand's rule in Samoa has not been regarded with unmixed favour by either the white or the native inhabitants and some of the chiefs petitioned for direct rule by Great Britain. . . . A good deal of the discontent, as in the territories administered by Australia under mandate, was no doubt due to the difficulties and troubles of the transition period. But there has been a movement . . . for a confederation of the various Pacific groups, Fiji, Samoa, the Solomons, the New Hebrides, and others, which would then form a unit in the British Empire. The difficulty is the lack of homogeneity in the populations.”—T. Dunbabin, *Making of Australasia, pp. 240-250.* See also PACIFIC OCEAN: 1918-1921.—“New Zealand was strongly wooed by Australian statesmen to enter the Commonwealth on its foundation; and, when she declined, the way was left open for her subsequent entry, should she so desire. The New Zealand people, as a whole, had no hesitation in deciding that these islands would do better to preserve their independence and work out their own national destiny. . . . [On the question of imperial federation] among the more thoughtful students of Imperial questions in this Dominion there is a well-defined dread lest, in adopting some form of federation, with a central Parliament exercising forms of compulsion on the hitherto free States of the Empire, we may be setting back the clock, and exposing the British Empire afresh to dangers from which it happily has been freed. Those who hold this view regard with misgiving any attempt to substitute some rigid material form of union for the spiritual ties of kinship which have hitherto held the Empire together.”—*Imperial union and the dominions (Quarterly Review, Jan., 1917).*

1917-1918.—World War.—Operations on Western front.—Memin road.—Battle of Baghaim.—Troops in Mesopotamia. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: d, 20; VI. Turkish

theater: c, 1, iii; c, 1, iv; 1918: II. Western front: k, 1; VI. Turkish theater: c, 1.

1917-1918.—Represented at imperial war conference.—Defense question.—Question of industry and raw materials. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1917: Imperial war conference; 1918: Imperial war conference.

1917-1921.—Education.—Industrial education.—Education of Maoris. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: New Zealand.

1918.—Contributions for relief during World War.—Total casualties. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 3; b, 8, ii.

1919.—Represented at Paris conference and Treaty of Versailles.—Anti-Japanese feeling. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of Work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; AUSTRALIA: 1919.

1920.—Immigration law.—Revision of tariff. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: New Zealand; TARIFF: 1919-1920: World wide tariff tendency.

1921.—Electoral system. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 1921.

1921.—Represented at imperial conference in London.—Question of Anglo-Japanese Alliance and Far Eastern policy.—Reparations. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921; 1921: Treaty of Versailles; JAPAN: 1918-1921.

1921.—Censorship of press. See CENSORSHIP: World War.

1921-1922.—Depression and recovery.—In common with the rest of the world New Zealand suffered from depression during the post-war years. The large quantities of wool held by the imperial government made the new clip a drug on the market, and other war time arrangements resulted in a small income from other agricultural products. “The year 1921 closed in gloom. The high costs of production combined with heavy freights to make New Zealand's position on the world market a most difficult one. In 1922, however, serious efforts were made to restore order in Government finance, and to restore industry to a competitive basis, . . . [while the government made] very serious efforts to lead the way in the national economy movement. The revenue for the first seven months of the fiscal year (April-October, 1922) showed an increase of £220,111 over the corresponding period in 1921, . . . while the total reduction in expenditure for the same period, due to economies and savings, amounted to £220,766. . . . The Meat Export Control Board, constituted in 1921, . . . [had] eased the situation somewhat by effecting reductions in freight and freezing charges, and by affording improved conditions of marketing.”—*New Zealand (Economist, Feb. 17, 1923, p. 334).*—At the close of the year, 1922, it was stated that “Mr. Massey's prediction that before the end of the year public expenditure would be well within income . . . [was] already approaching fulfilment. Various favourable causes . . . helped towards this result; the enhanced prices for New Zealand produce, good seasons, and the absence of industrial strife, are among the principal. But even then, only a policy of vigorous retrenchment could have insured success. The main opposition to the retrenchment . . . had come from the Labour party. The same party . . . opposed the reduction of taxation as far as it . . . [affected] the banker, the business and professional man, and the large companies. . . . The cost of living . . . [was] falling, almost every item except rent being lower. . . . A further reduction of 3s.

a week in wages . . . [has] been decreed and accepted by the workers."—*New Zealand (Economist)*, Dec. 2, 1922, p. 1036)

1922.—Motherhood Endowment Bill. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1920-1922.

1922.—Represented at Genoa conference. See GENOA CONFERENCE (1922).

See also COÖPERATION: New Zealand; HOUSING: New Zealand; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Australasia.

ALSO IN: T. L. Buick, *Treaty of Waitangi*.—W. P. Reeves, *New Zealand*.—H. Stewart, *New Zealand division*.—A. Saunders, *History of New Zealand*.—T. Dunbabin, *Making of Australasia*.

NEW ZEALAND ASSOCIATION. See NEW ZEALAND: 1837-1851.

NEW ZEALAND COLONIZATION COMPANY. See NEW ZEALAND: 1837-1851.

NEW ZEALAND LAND COMPANY. See NEW ZEALAND: 1837-1851.

NEWARK, David Leslie, Lord (1601-1682), Scotch general. Served in the army of Gustavus Adolphus; returned to England to take part in the war for the Covenant, 1640; joined Cromwell's forces in Scotland; was largely responsible for the victory at Marston Moor, 1643; supported Charles II; defeated by Cromwell, 1650; captured and imprisoned until the Restoration, 1660. See SCOTLAND: 1650 (September).

NEWARK, largest city in New Jersey, on the Passaic river. It was founded by migration from New Haven, 1664-1667. In 1920 it had a population of 414,524. See NEW JERSEY: 1664-1667.

1917.—Adopts commission form of government. See COMMISSION GOVERNMENT: 1917.

NEWBERN, city in eastern North Carolina, on the Neuse river. During the Civil War it was captured by Federal forces. See U.S.A.: 1862 (January-April; North Carolina).

NEWBERRY, Truman Handy (1864-), American senator. Served in the navy during the Spanish-American War; secretary of the navy, 1908-1909; elected to the United States Senate, 1918; convicted of excessive expenditures and fraud in election, 1920; decision reversed by Supreme Court, 1921; permitted to retain his seat, 1922; resigned, Nov. 22, 1922. See MICHIGAN: 1910-1922.

NEWBERRY LIBRARY, in Chicago. It was founded and liberally endowed by the will of Walter L. Newberry, 1868. See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS; LIBRARIES: Modern; Administration: Administration of some great libraries.

NEWBURGH, city in New York, on the west bank of the Hudson river, about fifty-seven miles north of New York City. "In April, 1782, he [Washington] established his head-quarters at Newburgh, two miles above the village of New Windsor, where he continued most of the time until November, 1783, when the Continental army was disbanded."—B. J. Lossing, *Field-book of the Revolution*, v. 1, p. 671.—Here in 1783 Washington made his reply to the "Newburgh Addresses" of John Armstrong, who urged the army to force Congress to redress its grievances. See U.S.A.: 1782-1783.

NEWBURN, Battles of. See ENGLAND: 1640.

NEWBURY, Battles of. See ENGLAND: 1643 (August-September); 1644 (August-September).

NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE, episcopal city and municipal county of England, capital of Northumberland, on the left bank of the Tyne, eight miles from its mouth. The port of Newcastle is the fourth in importance in the United Kingdom. In 1921 the population numbered 274,055. The city dates from the Roman Pons Ælii—one of the chain of forts by which the wall of Hadrian was fortified. On the withdrawal of the Romans, the

deserted camp became the residence of a community of monks and the town was called Monkchester. Robert, oldest son of William the Conqueror, commenced to build a castle in 1079 or 1080, hence the modern name Newcastle. The present castle was erected by Henry II between 1172 and 1177. Newcastle was the rendezvous of the armies which the first three Edwards led into Scotland. During the Civil War, 1642-1646, it declared for the king and sustained a ten months siege, by the Scots. See PONS ÆLI.

NEWCHWANG. See NIUCHWANG.

NEWCOMB, Simon (1835-1909), American astronomer and mathematician. Appointed professor of mathematics in the United States navy, 1861; director of the Nautical Almanac, 1877-1897; professor of mathematics at Johns Hopkins university, 1884-1894; author of several books on astronomy. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1896-1910.

NEWCOMEN, Thomas (1663-1729), English engineer. With Cawley and Savery, invented the atmospheric engine, 1705. See STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Development up to Watt's time.

NEWFOUNDLAND, Dominion of: Geographic description.—Area.—Population.—Resources.—Newfoundland is a large island, roughly triangular in shape, lying directly across the mouth of the St. Lawrence river. "The geographical situation of Newfoundland gives it a position of some strategical importance; stretching across the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, it guards the entrance both from the North and the South. The island is almost cut in two by the large bays of Placentia and Trinity, and the southern peninsula of Avalon is joined to the main body of the island by a neck of land which at its narrowest point is only three miles across. . . . With regard to size, Newfoundland is the tenth largest island in the world. Its greatest length, from Cape Ray on the south-west to Cape Norman on the north, is 317 miles; its greatest breadth, from Cape Spear to Cape Anguille, is almost the same. Its area is 42,000 square miles, and it is therefore one-sixth larger than Ireland, and only one-fifth smaller than England."—*Dominion of Newfoundland and Labrador (pamphlet)*, pp. 8, 13-14.—See also CANADA: Geographical description; Map; BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.—"The population is somewhere about a quarter of a million [1922]. Labrador, which is a dependency of Newfoundland, has an area of 120,000 square miles and a population of about 4,000. About one-fifth of the total number of inhabitants of Newfoundland resides in the capital city of St. John's, which is situated on the south-east coast. The greater part of the remainder of the population is found in the numerous outports which are all round the coast."—E. J. Edwards, *Report on trade and industrial resources of Newfoundland*, p. 6.—"With the exception of a few descendants of early French settlers and a few Mic-Macs, or half-breed Indians, . . . the entire population is of English, Scotch or Irish descent. . . . The education of the country . . . [in 1921 was] being effectively organised and improved. Agriculture is encouraged, and . . . the Fisheries are of apparently inexhaustible wealth, its mines, which include some of the largest iron mines in the world (at Bell Island) and its timber, which last provides the material for the great paper and pulp mills that are such a source of industry to a large proportion of the population, make Newfoundland a land full of promise."—*Dominion of Newfoundland and Labrador (pamphlet)*, pp. 6-7.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See BEOTHUKAN FAMILY.

1000.—Supposed identity with Helluland of Norse Sagas. See AMERICA: 10-11th centuries.

1498.—Discovery by John Cabot. See AMERICA: 1498; also Map showing voyages of discovery.

1500.—Visited by Cortereal, Portuguese explorer. See AMERICA: 1500.

1501-1578.—Portuguese, Norman, Breton and Basque fisheries.—“It is a very curious circumstance, that the country in which the Cabots started their idea for a navigation to the north-west, and in which they at first proclaimed their discovery of the rich fishing-banks near their Newfoundland-Isles, did not at once profit by it so much as their neighbors, the French and the Portuguese. . . . During the first half of the 16th century we hear little of English fishing and commercial expeditions to the great banks; although they had a branch of commerce and fishery with Iceland. . . . ‘It was not until the year 1548 that the English government passed the first act for the encouragement of the fisheries on the banks of Newfoundland, after which they became active competitors in this profitable occupation.’ [In Portugal, Cortereal’s discovery had revealed] . . . the wealth to be derived from the fish, particularly cod-fish, which abounded on that coast. The fishermen of Portugal and of the Western Islands, when this news was spread among them, made preparations for profiting by it. . . . According to the statement of a Portuguese author, very soon after the discoveries by the Cortereals, a Portuguese Fishing Company was formed in the harbors of Vianna, Aveiro and Terceira, for the purpose of colonizing Newfoundland and making establishments upon it. Nay, already, in 1506, three years after the return of the last searching expedition for the Cortereals, Emanuel gave order, ‘that the fishermen of Portugal, at their return from Newfoundland, should pay a tenth part of their profits at his custom-houses.’ It is certain, therefore, that the Portuguese fishermen must, previous to that time, have been engaged in a profitable business. And this is confirmed by the circumstance that they originated the name of ‘terra de Bacalhas’ [or Bacalhaõ] (the Stock-fish-country) and gave currency to it. . . . The nations who followed them in the fishing business imitated their example, and adopted the name ‘country of the Bacalhas’ (or, in the Spanish form, Baccallaos), though sometimes interchanging it with names of their own invention, as the ‘Newfoundland,’ ‘Terre neuve,’ etc. . . . The Portuguese engaged in this fishery as early as 1501, according to good authorities, and perhaps under the charter of Henry VII. In 1578, they had 50 ships employed in that trade, and England as many more, and France 150. . . . The inhabitants of the little harbors of Normandy and Brittany, the great peninsulas of France, . . . were also among the first who profited by the discoveries of the Cabots and Cortereals, and who followed in the wake of the Portuguese fishermen toward the north-west cod-fish country. . . . The first voyages of the Bretons of St. Malo and the Normans of Dieppe to Newfoundland, are said to have occurred as early as 1504. . . . They probably visited places of which the Portuguese had not taken possession; and we therefore find them at the south of Newfoundland, and especially at the island of Cape Breton, to which they gave the name, still retained,—the oldest French name on the American north-east coast. . . . The Spaniards, and more particularly the mariners and fishermen of Biscay, have pretended, like those of Brittany and Normandy, that they and their ancestors, from time immemorial, had sailed to Newfoundland; and, even before Columbus, had established their fisheries there. But the Spanish historian Nav-

arette, in more modern times, does not sustain this pretension of his countrymen. . . . We may come to the conclusion that, if the fisheries of the Spanish Basques on the Banks of Newfoundland and in the vicinity, did not begin with the voyage of Gomez [in 1525], they received from it a new impulse. . . . From this time, for more than a century, they [the Basques] appeared in these waters every year with a large fleet, and took their place upon the banks as equals by the side of the Bretons, Normans, and Basques of France, until the middle of the 17th century, when rival nations dispossessed them of their privileges.”—J. G. Kohl, *History of the discovery of Maine* (*Maine Historical Society Collections, series 2, v. 1, ch. 6, 8, with footnote*).

ALSO IN: R. Brown, *History of Cape Breton, ch. 1-2*.

1534.—Visited by Jacques Cartier. See AMERICA: 1534-1535.

1583.—Formal possession taken for England by Sir Humphrey Gilbert. See AMERICA: 1583; BRITISH EMPIRE: Expansion; 16th century: North America.

1610-1655.—Early English attempts at colonization.—Grants to Lord Baltimore and Sir David Kirke.—“For 27 years after the failure of the Gilbert expedition no fresh attempt was made to establish a colony in the island. During this interval fishermen of various nationalities continued to frequent its shores. . . . The French were actively engaged in the prosecution of the fisheries in the neighboring seas. Their success in this direction strengthened their desire to gain possession of Newfoundland. Hence it is that in the history of the country France has always been an important factor. Having from time to time held possession of various points of the land, England’s persistent rival in these latitudes has given names to many towns, villages, creeks, and harbors. . . . In 1610 another attempt was made to plant a colony of Englishmen in Newfoundland. John Guy, a merchant, and afterwards mayor of Bristol, published in 1609 a pamphlet on the advantages which would result to England from the establishment of a colony in the island. This publication made such a deep impression on the public mind that a company was formed to carry out the enterprise it suggested. The most illustrious name on the roll was that of Lord Bacon. . . . To this company James I., by letters patent dated April, 1610, made a grant of all the part of Newfoundland which lies between Cape Bonavista in the north and Cape St. Mary. Mr. Guy was appointed governor, and with a number of colonists he landed at Mosquito Harbor, on the north side of Conception Bay, where he proceeded to erect huts. . . . We have no authentic account of the progress of this settlement, begun under such favourable auspices, but it proved unsuccessful from some unexplained cause. Guy and a number of the settlers returned to England, the rest remaining to settle elsewhere in the New World. Five years afterwards, in 1615, Captain Richard Whitbourne, mariner, of Exmouth, Devonshire, received a commission from the Admiralty of England to proceed to Newfoundland for the purpose of establishing order among the fishing population and remedying certain abuses which had grown up. . . . It was shown that there were upwards of 250 English vessels, having a tonnage of 1,500 tons, engaged in the fisheries along the coast. Fixed habitations extended at intervals along the shore from St. John’s to Cape Race. . . . Having done what he could during the active part of his life to promote its interests, on his return to England, in his advanced years, he [Whitbourne] wrote an account of the country, entitled ‘A Discourse and Dis-

covery of Newfoundland.' . . . His book made a great impression at the time. . . . So highly did King James think of the volume that he ordered a copy to be sent to every parish in the kingdom. The Archbishops of Canterbury and York issued a letter recommending it, with the view of encouraging emigration to Newfoundland. . . . A year after the departure of Whitbourne, in 1623, by far the most skilfully-organized effort to carry out the settlement of Newfoundland was made, under the guidance of Sir George Calvert, afterwards Lord Baltimore. . . . When Secretary of State he obtained a patent conveying to him the lordship of the whole southern peninsula of Newfoundland, together with all the islands lying within ten leagues of the eastern shores, as well as the right of fishing in the surrounding waters, all English subjects having, as before, free liberty of fishing. Being a Roman Catholic, Lord Baltimore had in view to provide an asylum for his co-religionists who were sufferers from the intolerant spirit of the times. The immense tract thus granted to him extended from Trinity Bay to Placentia, and was named by him Avalon, from the ancient name of Glastonbury, where, it is believed, Christianity was first preached in Britain. . . . Lord Baltimore called his Newfoundland province Avalon and his first settlement Verulam. The latter name, in course of time, became corrupted into Ferulam, and then into the modern Ferryland. At this spot, on the eastern coast of Newfoundland, about 40 miles north of Cape Race, Lord Baltimore planted his colony, and built a noble mansion, in which he resided with his family during many years. [But after expending some £30,000 upon the establishment of his colony, Lord Baltimore abandoned it, on account of the poor quality of the soil and its exposure to the attacks of the French. Not long afterwards he obtained his Maryland grant (see MARYLAND: 1632) and resumed the enterprise under more favorable conditions.] . . . Soon after the departure of Lord Baltimore, Viscount Falkland, Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, hoping to permanently increase the scanty population of Newfoundland, sent out a number of emigrants from that country. At a later date, these were so largely reinforced by settlers from Ireland that the Celtic part of the population at this day is not far short of equality in numbers with the Saxon portion. In 1638, Sir David Kirke, one of Britain's bravest sea-captains, arrived in Newfoundland and took up his abode at Ferryland, where Lord Baltimore had lived. Sir David was armed with the powers of a Count Palatine over the island, having obtained from Charles I. a grant of the whole. [This was by way of reward for his exploits in taking Quebec (see CANADA: 1628-1635). Kirke] . . . governed wisely and used every effort to promote the colonization of the country. His settlement prospered greatly. The Civil War, however, broke out in England, and, Kirke being a staunch loyalist, all his possessions in Newfoundland were confiscated by the victorious Commonwealth. By the aid of Claypole, Cromwell's son-in-law, Kirke eventually got the sequestration removed, and, returning to Ferryland, died there in 1655, at the age of 56. At this time Newfoundland contained a population of 350 families, or nearly 2,000 inhabitants, distributed in 15 small settlements along the eastern coast."—J. Hatton and M. Harvey, *Newfoundland*, pt. 1, ch. 2.—"The prime importance of Newfoundland in the early days of English expansion lies undoubtedly in the fishery. As a training ground for seamen it outweighed the East Indian trade, and the men were more easily available in times of emergency. In 1615 it employed 5000 men and 250 ships of an

average burden of 60 tons. In the period 1630-40 these figures were doubled, the men numbering 10,680, and the total tonnage 26,700. At a time when the navy depended almost entirely upon the mercantile marine for its personnel, these figures are very significant, and go far to explain the sudden strength of the Commonwealth fleets in the Dutch war of 1652-4. . . . 'From the purely economic standpoint . . . Newfoundland conformed most closely to the canons of the mercantile system, and was the most valuable of the English dominions beyond the seas.'"—J. A. Williamson, *Short history of British expansion*, pp. 206-207.

Also in: H. Kirke, *First English conquest of Canada*, ch. 3-4.

1660-1688.—French gain their footing.—"With the possession of Cape Breton, Acadia, and the vast regions stretching from the gulf of the River St. Lawrence, and the mighty lakes, Newfoundland obtained a new value in the estimation of the government of France, as it formed one side of the narrow entrance to its transatlantic dependencies: consequently the pursuit of the fishery by its seamen was encouraged, and every opportunity was improved to gain a footing in the country itself. This encroaching tendency could not, however, be manifested without a protest on the part of the somewhat sluggish English, both by private individuals and by the government. Charles I. . . . imposed a tribute of five per cent. on the produce taken by foreigners in this fishery, to which exaction the French, as well as others, were forced to submit. During the distracted time of the Commonwealth, it does not appear that the struggling government at home found leisure to attend to these distant affairs, though the tribute continued to be levied. The Restoration brought to England a sovereign who owed much to the monarch of France, to whom he was therefore attached by the ties of gratitude, and by the desire to find a counterpoise to the refractory disposition of which he was in continual apprehension among his own subjects. It was not until 1675 that Louis XIV. prevailed on Charles to give up the duty of five per cent., and by that time the French had obtained a solid footing on the southern coast of Newfoundland, so that, with Cape Breton in their possession, they commanded both sides of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Over a territory of some 200 miles in extent, belonging to the British sovereignty, they had built up imperceptibly an almost undisputed dominion. At Placentia, situated in the bay of that name, a strong fort was erected, sustained by other forts standing at intervals along the shore, and at the same place a royal government was established. How real was the authority assumed, and how completely was the English sovereignty ignored, needs no better proof than is furnished in an ordinance issued by Louis in the year 1681, concerning the marine of France. In this state paper, Newfoundland is reckoned as situate in those seas which are free and common to all French subjects, provided that they take a license from the admiral for every voyage. . . . Not less than half of the inhabited coast of Newfoundland was thus taken under that despotic rule, which, while swaying the councils of England to the furtherance of its ambitious designs, was labouring for the subjugation of the European continent. The revolution of 1688 broke the spell of this encroaching autocracy."—C. Pedley, *History of Newfoundland*, ch. 2.

1694-1697.—French success in war with England.—Treaty of Ryswick.—"On the accession of William III. to the throne of England hostilities broke out between the rival nations. In William's

declaration of war against the French, Newfoundland holds a prominent place among the alleged causes which led to the rupture of pacific relations. The grievance was tersely set forth in the royal manifesto: 'It was not long since the French took license from the Governor of Newfoundland to fish upon that coast, and paid a tribute for such licenses as an acknowledgment of the sole right of the Crown of England to that island; but of late the encroachments of the French, and His Majesty's subjects trading and fishing there, had been more like the invasions of an enemy than becoming friends, who enjoyed the advantages of that trade only by permission.' Newfoundland now became the scene of military skirmishes, naval battles, and sieges by land and water. [In 1692 the English made an unsuccessful attack on Placentia. In 1694, a French fleet, under the Chevalier Nesmond, intended for an attack upon Boston and New York, stopped at Newfoundland on the way and made a descent on the harbor and town of St. John's. Nesmond] . . . was repulsed, and instead of going on to Boston he returned to France. A more determined effort at conquest was made later in the same year. The new expedition was under the command of Iberville and Brouillon, the former being at the head of a Canadian force. The garrison of St. John's was weak in numbers, and, in want of military stores, could only make a feeble resistance; capitulating on easy terms, the troops were shipped to England. The fort and town were burned to the ground, and the victors next proceeded to destroy all the other adjacent English settlements; Carbonear and Bonavista alone proved too strong for them. The English Government at once commenced dispositions for dislodging the invaders; but before anything was attempted the treaty of Ryswick was signed, in 1697. This treaty proved most unfortunate for Newfoundland. It revived in the island the same state of division between France and England which had existed at the beginning of the war. The enemy retired from St. John's and the other settlements which they had forcibly occupied. Their claims upon Placentia and all the other positions on the south-west coast were, however, confirmed. The British inhabitants of Newfoundland were, therefore, once more left open to French attacks, should hostilities be again renewed between the rival powers."—J. Hatton and M. Harvey, *Newfoundland*, pt. 1, ch. 2.—See also FRANCE: 1695-1696.

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV*, ch. 18.—W. Kingsford, *History of Canada*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 7.

1698-1729.—Rule of "fishing admirals."—Establishment of civil government.—"Prior to 1726 there was neither excellency nor justice, and the skippers of the west country [Devonshire, England] held uncontrolled sway, vouching the statute of King William (1698) for all their deeds. It was their real charter, and was declaratory of their custom. It recognised the first of them that chanced upon a harbour to be admiral there for the season, the second to be vice-admiral, and the third rear-admiral. It ordained no court, gave no compulsory jurisdiction, enacted no penal clauses—but what then? Who would question the right to his fishing-admiralship or set bounds to his power? As prosecutor, judge, jury, and executioner in his own case and that of his associates, he gave summary trial and sentence on the spot."—T. B. Browning, *Newfoundland (British America, British Empire Series*, v. 3, p. 266).—"For more than a century and a half settlement in Newfoundland was not only not encouraged, but was actu-

ally forbidden. The 'Merchant Adventurers' had become the proprietors of the island's fisheries, and through their influence laws were passed prohibiting colonization. Masters of vessels were put under bonds to return their crews to England at the end of the season, and settlement within six miles of the coast was made a penal offence. In the early days the sparse population of the country were under the rule of 'Fishing Admirals,' uncouth skippers appointed by the Merchants, and these administered laws in their own interests and appropriated for themselves the best fishing grounds, and generally harassed and oppressed the people. These rude fishing skippers represented Newfoundland as a barren waste and a land entirely unsuited for settlement, they themselves however, became rich and influential out of the proceeds of their voyages in search of fish. . . . Later on it was discovered that the reports about the country made by the Merchants and 'Fishing Admirals' were incorrect, and a period of progress commenced with the appointment of Naval Governors in 1729, the first of whom was Captain Henry Osborne. A system of Civil Government was then introduced, and courts were established; previously, accused persons had to be taken to England for trial. [The Supreme Court, which is still in existence, was established at this time.]"—*Dominion of Newfoundland and Labrador (pamphlet)*, p. 4.

1705.—English settlements destroyed by the French. See NEW ENGLAND: 1702-1710.

1713.—Relinquished to Great Britain by Treaty of Utrecht.—French fishing rights reserved.—In the twelfth and thirteenth articles of the Treaty signed at Utrecht, April 11, 1713, which terminated the War of the Spanish Succession (commonly known in American history as Queen Anne's War) it was stipulated that "All Nova Scotia or Acadie, with its ancient boundaries, as also the city of Port Royal, now called Annapolis Royal, . . . the island of Newfoundland, with the adjacent islands, . . . the town and fortress of Placentia, and whatever other places in the island are in possession of the French, shall from this time forward belong of right wholly to Great Britain. . . . That the subjects of France should be allowed to catch fish and dry them on that part of the island of Newfoundland which stretches from Cape Bonavista to the northern point of the island, and from thence down the western side as far as Point Riché; but that no fortifications or any buildings should be erected there, besides Stages made of Boards, and Huts necessary and usual for drying fish. . . . But the island of Cape Breton, as also all others, both in the mouth of the river of St. Lawrence and in the gulf of the same name, shall hereafter belong of Right to the King of France, who shall have liberty to fortify any place or places there."—R. Brown, *History of the Island of Cape Breton*, letter 9.—See also UTRECHT: 1712-1714; U. S. A.: 1690-1748.

ALSO IN: J. Hatton and M. Harvey, *Newfoundland*, pt. 1, ch. 3-4, pt. 3, ch. 7.

1744.—Attack on Placentia by the French. See NEW ENGLAND: 1744.

1748.—Islands of St. Pierre and Michelon ceded to France. See NEW ENGLAND: 1745-1748.

1763.—Ceded to England by Treaty of Paris, with rights of fishing reserved to France. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties; FISHERIES: 1763.

1763.—Control of Labrador, Anticosti and Magdalen islands. See CANADA: 1763-1774; LABRADOR: Name.

1778.—French fishery rights on the banks recognized in Franco-American Treaty. See U. S. A.: 1778 (February).

1783.—American fishing rights conceded in treaty of peace with the United States. See U.S.A.: 1783 (September).

1811-1894.—Sale of land permitted.—“Supply” system.—Bank failures.—“Sale of lands was first permitted in 1811. Some small parcels near the shore-line had, no doubt, been appropriated; but, as the terms of the holding were use in the fishery and sufferance, the governors of the day, admirals of the Royal Navy, deemed they were doing their country good service by tearing down houses, breaking up enclosures, and reducing garden-patches to a state of nature. A chimney was an object of special abhorrence, and the addition of a lean-to was sufficient to bring on the daring offender’s head the sharp justice of the quarter-deck. . . . The men of forty years ago [written in 1900] decried the mercantile system as indefensible in theory and ruinous in practice. The newer school of economists tells us that, with all its faults, it was a movement, a great and necessary movement, in national advancement and general civilisation; [but], . . . if you look to Newfoundland in 1825, and ask what justification it could show after so long trial, the answer must be that it left not one building that endures, not a local improvement attempted or realised, not a school, not a road. . . . [By the end of the eighteenth century, the merchant adventurers, who owned their own ships, had all but disappeared. Their place was taken by ‘capitalists’ who bought their fish, instead of catching it, and introduced, or developed the system of advances known as the ‘supply system,’ which attained] . . . its maximum in the sixties. . . . [It] had many features of a monopoly, for it centred in the hands of a small body of capitalists, called ‘merchants,’ who resided in the chief towns as St. John’s, Harbour Grace, Carbonear. It wielded almost absolute power over the main or sole industries of the country, the cod and . . . [important hair seal] fisheries, and . . . brought within its grasp the import as well as the export trade. . . . The mode of business was somewhat as follows: advances in truck, known as ‘supplies,’ . . . were dealt out to fishermen or middlemen in the spring at a charge debited which covered the risk of loss and prospective profit. In the autumn, or fall, a return was made of the season’s catch, which . . . was put to the credit side of the account, generally at a price that ruled in the local market. Further supplies were then required for the winter, and were had usually at the same rate, the balance, if any, being carried over to the next season. . . . In the sixties, in the heyday of ‘supply,’ there arose, and increased to alarming proportions, what is known as pauper relief. The Government had to step in and distribute sustenance to the people throughout large districts. Relief once given had to be continued, and prosperity in the fisheries seemed to make little difference in the result. . . . That a system so open to abuse should come to an end somehow, and at some time, had been long foreseen. The form in which the crash should come was not revealed till the 10th of December, 1894, when the Union and Commercial Banks, the only banks in the island, closed their doors. . . . The one institution that stood firm was the Savings Bank, a government institution.”—T. B. Browning, *Newfoundland (British America, British Empire Series, v. 3, pp. 264-271)*.

1818.—Fisheries Treaty between Great Britain and the United States. See FISHERIES: 1814-1818.

1826.—Institution of courts.—Courts were instituted in 1826, when the Supreme Court, which

still exists, received its charter. “Back to 1791, you find an establishment, tentative in its standing and jurisdiction, which was kept alive by annual acts lest any permanent encroachment should be made on the free fishery. . . . But prior to that time, nothing more tangible in the way of law could be obtained than ‘winter justices,’ constituted under executive order, whose decisions the bold west countrymen scoffed at and whose decrees they defied.”—T. B. Browning, *Newfoundland (British America, British Empire Series, v. 3, p. 265)*.—The Supreme Court consists of a chief justice and two assistant judges.

1832-1855.—Establishment of representative government.—“In the case of Newfoundland representative government had rather a stormy inception: the Legislature was distracted by a quarrel between the two Houses as to appropriation, which prevented the usual Acts being passed in 1837 and 1839; then questions of privilege led to much excitement and ill-feeling, and the interference of the Catholic clergy in elections produced strong party disturbances. . . . The colonists became more and more insistent in the demand for responsible government when they saw it established in the Provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. On the other hand, the Imperial Government were hampered in their desire to meet the wishes of the people by the fact that both France and America had important treaty rights on the coast of the Colony. . . . Eventually it was determined to give way, and the grant of responsible government was made [1855]. . . . In 1856, a dispatch from Mr. Labouchere, which has become famous in Newfoundland history, asserted that in the future there would be no question of altering the treaty obligations affecting the Colony save after full consultation with the Colonial Government.”—A. B. Keith, *Responsible government in the Dominion, v. 1, pp. 24-25*.

1854-1866.—Reciprocity treaty with the United States. See TARIFF: 1854-1866.

1867.—Provisions for entering Dominion of Canada. See CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: 1867.

1871.—Treaty of Washington. See ALABAMA CLAIMS: 1871.

1877.—Halifax fishery award.—Termination of fishery articles of Treaty of Washington.—Renewed fishery disputes. See FISHERIES: 1877-1898.

1893-1895.—Higher education.—Discovery of copper and iron.—“In 1893 an act was passed to provide for higher education. This act makes provision for the appointment of a Council of Higher Education, with the view of promoting a higher standard of education throughout the colony by the holding of examinations and the awarding of prizes and diplomas and scholarships to successful candidates. The council is to consist of twenty-three members, and the Superintendents of Education and Headmasters of Colleges are members *ex officio*. The sum of \$4,000 annually is appropriated for the purposes of this act. . . . [The discovery of copper was made in 1857. The first mine was worked in 1864, and in 1902 Newfoundland ranked sixth in the copper producing countries.] It was not till 1805 that the first discovery of iron ore was made in Bell Island, Conception Bay, twelve miles from St. John’s. This proved to be one of the most remarkable and also one of the most valuable mines in the world.”—M. Harvey, *Newfoundland at the beginning of the twentieth century, pp. 156, 85*.

1895.—Union with Canada refused.—Terms proposed for the union of Newfoundland with the

Dominion of Canada were rejected, and negotiations abandoned.

1897.—Conference of colonial premiers with British colonial secretary. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1897.

1897-1900.—Reid contract.—Question in politics.—In the fall of 1897 a line of narrow-gauge railway, with branches over six hundred miles in total length, was completed and opened to traffic. The main line of rail extends from the capital, St. Johns, to Port-aux-Basques, at the southwestern extremity of the island. The railway was constructed by a contractor, Robert Gillespie Reid, who agreed to operate it for seven years at his own expense, receiving therefor a land grant of 5000 acres per mile. In 1898 a new contract was made with Reid, which placed most of the resources of the island under his control. For an additional land-grant of 2500 acres per mile of road he undertook to operate the road for fifty years. By a present cash payment of \$1,000,000 to the colony treasury, he purchased the reversion of its right to the possession of the road at the end of that period. At the same time he secured the right to purchase from the government its telegraph lines and the dry-dock at St. Johns, for half a million dollars, and was given a monopoly for thirty years of the coast mail steam service, with an annual subsidy of \$750,000, he undertaking to maintain in it seven steamers, well equipped, and one to Labrador in summer. An extra subsidy was given for these steamers. This remarkable contract was bitterly denounced by a large party in the island, and the Imperial government was strongly petitioned to nullify the whole transaction; but the British Colonial Secretary, Joseph Chamberlain, while he characterized the contract as representing "the most unparalleled abrogation of its functions by a responsible government," decided that he could not properly interfere. The "Reid Deal," as it was known, then became a burning issue in Newfoundland politics, and the Ministry responsible for it, led by Sir James Winter, was ousted from the government in 1900. Reid was then arranging to transfer his Newfoundland contract and franchises to a company, which required the sanction of the colonial government. The new (Liberal) Ministry, of which Robert Bond was Premier, refused consent to the transfer unless Reid would amend his bargain with the colony in several very important particulars. He offered some concessions, but not to the extent demanded; and so the question between him and the Bond Ministry went into the canvass of 1900, for the election of a new Assembly, and the Conservatives, heavily backed by Reid, were defeated overwhelmingly, winning but 4 seats out of 36 in the Lower House of the Legislature. "The new Government appealed to the electorate in November, of 1900, the principal issue placed before the country being the modification of the railway contract made between the Government and Mr. Reid in 1898. The contest resulted in the Ministry being sustained by an overwhelming majority. . . . The Government set to work at once to carry out the popular will with respect to the railway contract of 1898. Negotiations were opened with Mr. Reid, which resulted in the whole railway system of the colony, the telegraph lines and 3,500,000 acres of land, acquired by Mr. Reid under the railway contract of 1898, reverting to the Government upon the payment to him of \$2,023,700. This was virtually the repayment to Mr. Reid of the \$1,000,000 which he had paid for the reversionary interest of the railway, together with the interest upon the same to date, and the payment of the sum of \$850,000

for all the land acquired him under the Railway Act, 1898. Mr. Reid entered into a new contract with the Government to operate the railway free of charge for fifty years, and the Government consented to his transferring this contract, and his remaining interests under the 1898 contract to a limited liability company, to be known as the Reid-Newfoundland Company. That company has been incorporated, and has entered upon its undertaking with exceeding bright prospects before it." —M. Harvey, *Newfoundland at the beginning of the twentieth century*, pp. 101, 105.

1898-1899.—Joint high commission for settlement of questions with the United States. See CANADA: 1898-1899.

1899-1901.—French Shore question.—The *modus vivendi*.—In 1899 the question of the French Shore became a serious international problem. The history of the question goes back to the date of Treaty of Utrecht. Agitation against French occupation of the Shore had been growing since that time, and it now reached a point where it could no longer be overlooked. "At the period of the negotiation of the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, by which the rights of the French fishermen were regulated [see above: 1713], thousands of French fishing vessels availed themselves of the inshore fisheries about the island; and that they might be not altogether without facilities for the drying and curing of their fish, they were granted under the Treaty the 'right to use a strip of the coast seven hundred miles long and half a mile wide.' Accompanying the Treaty, but, be it noted, not a part of it, was a declaration of King George, that British subjects on the island were not to interfere with these French coast rights by erecting permanent structures upon it, calculated to obstruct the operations of the French fishermen. This Royal declaration was harmless and unimportant when the population of the island was very small, and the French fishermen resorted to the inshore fisheries of Newfoundland."—B. Wilson, *Newfoundland's opportunity* (*Fortnightly Review*, Feb., 1899).—As the population increased, the treaty, and more the French interpretation of it, worked much hardship. "Between 1815 and [1886] . . . the condition of things on the [French] Treaty shore may be summarised as one of continual encroachment on the part of the French and weak toleration on the part of the British Government. The loose wording which characterises both treaties and declaration had been twisted by the French into meanings which could never have been contemplated, while without serious hindrance on . . . [the part of the British] they had contravened stipulations, the meaning of which leaves no opening for doubt. Forceful means had been taken, sometimes even by French cruisers, for preventing British fishing wherever it was likely to prove profitable, and the 'exclusive' right which . . . denied in principle [by the British] was in practice exercised. Instead of the stages and huts which were alone permissible by the treaty, substantial buildings had been erected, some of them factories provided with machinery for the canning of lobsters; while the terms 'fish' and 'fishery,' which the words of the treaty show to refer to nothing but cod were made to cover salmon . . . and lobsters. . . . Finally, the pretext afforded by the word 'interfering' in the royal declaration was used to prevent the utilisation of the coast by the English for other purposes besides fishing. With some 20,000 British subjects settled on the Treaty shore, it may be imagined to what a pass things had come when Lord Salisbury put his foot down firmly . . . and declared that no French officer

would be permitted to seize British boats, cut English nets, or drive British fishermen out of their own harbours. With a view to ameliorate matters there had been appointed, from the year 1846 onwards, seven different international Commissions, some of which resulted in arrangements conditional upon the assent of the Newfoundland Legislature. As might have been foreseen by anyone adequately acquainted with the local conditions, none of these compromises could have been accepted by the colony except at the cost of serious injury to itself, for which England offered no compensation. . . . In the event, none of these arrangements received the necessary local consent, and all proved abortive. In 1883 was constituted an eighth Commission, of which Sir Clare Ford, of the Diplomatic Service, and Mr. Pennell, of the Colonial Office, were the British members. After terms had been agreed upon, which again found no favour with the colonists, an amended arrangement was arrived at in 1886 [which the legislature of Newfoundland refused to ratify].—G. W. des Voeux, *My colonial service*, v. 2, pp. 141-143.—In 1886, the Newfoundland government passed a Bait Act, which prohibited the capture or sale of bait fishes, within Newfoundland waters, without special license by the government. The French government tried to have the act disallowed by the British government, but Sir William des Voeux, the governor, protested strongly against the disallowance, and the colonial conference, which met in London in 1887, sustained the Newfoundland government in the stand which it had taken. Thereupon the British government allowed the act, in spite of the protests made by France, but provided that it should not go into operation until 1888. In retaliation, however, the French government ordered that a lobster factory, which had been in operation on the French Treaty Coast, should be closed. This step was followed by an interchange of notes between the French and British governments on the subject, in the course of which the French contended that the Treaty of Utrecht had preserved to them full and exclusive rights to the shore, to the exclusion of the inhabitants of the island, and, in defiance of zoology, claimed that lobsters were "fish," and therefore came within the terms of the treaty. The British government, willing to defer to the French claims until a settlement could be made, directed removal of British factories on the shore, with the curious result that it was found that the act under which the removals were made had expired more than fifty years before. A test suit was brought by one of the factory owners in the Supreme Court. It was decided in his favor, and on being carried to the Privy Council the verdict was sustained. Meantime, a Royal Commission had found that on the Treaty Coast, which was 800 miles in extent, the French occupied only eight cod and nine lobster stations, which employed about 600 men, while the inhabitants who numbered 13,300 along that coast were debarred from the full use and enjoyment of their own shores. No wharves could be built, no permanent buildings could be erected within half a mile of the shore; and the railway which at that time was being constructed by Robert Gillespie Reid, was deflected 120 miles out of its course because of the French objection to a terminus on the shore. In 1890, a temporary agreement ("modus vivendi") concerning the lobster packing and other questions, was arranged between the British and French governments, which was extended from time to time, very much to the dissatisfaction of Newfoundland. Newspaper discussion on the subject was carried on in

both England and France, with an apparent show of readiness on the part of the latter country to bargain with the British for cessions in West Africa or elsewhere. Despite its reluctance, the Newfoundland legislature was prevailed upon in February, 1901, to pass an Act renewing the "modus vivendi" for another year. Several members who supported the measure declared that they did so for the last time, and only because of an unwillingness to embarrass the British government during the continuance of the South African war. The question, however, was not finally settled until 1904 when it was included in the Landsdowne-Cambon Convention.

ALSO IN: P. T. McGrath, *France in Newfoundland (Nineteenth Century, Jan., 1899)*.

1902.—British colonial conference at London. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1902.

1902-1905.—Negotiations and senatorial destruction of the Hay-Bond Reciprocity Treaty with the United States.—In November, 1902, a Treaty of Reciprocity which would have settled the long-standing disputes over American rights of fishing on the Newfoundland coast, on terms of most equitable advantage to both countries, and especially favorable to the interests of the general public in the United States, was concluded and signed at Washington by Secretary Hay and the British Ambassador, Sir Michael Herbert. The Premier of Newfoundland, Sir Robert Bond, had taken a principal part in the negotiation, and the resulting document was known consequently as the Hay-Bond Treaty. It secured to the New England fishermen the coveted privilege of buying bait and other supplies and hiring crews in Newfoundland ports; and it admitted the greater part of American manufactures into the island duty free. On the other hand, it opened the markets of the United States to the fish and fish products, the coal, oil, and ores of Newfoundland, for the benefit of the consumers of the country. The treaty was hailed with satisfaction by the general public of the United States, but opposed by a few interests whose gains might be lessened if any breach in their monopoly of the sale of salted fish and coal and oil should be permitted. The majority which has seldom failed of late to be retainable in the United States Senate for the service of such private interests, against the public good, was promptly organized by Senator Lodge, first for pocketing the Treaty throughout more than two years, and finally for amending it to death, in February, 1905. The provisions that made it advantageous to Newfoundland were cut out, and the treaty was reduced to a state which made it insulting as an offer of reciprocity.

1905-1909.—Renewed disputes over American fishing rights on Treaty Coast.—Arrangement of a modus vivendi.—Agreement on questions to be submitted to a tribunal of arbitration at The Hague.—Constitution of the tribunal.—The endless friction that attended the exercise of treaty-rights by American fishermen in the Newfoundland fisheries was freshly roughened in the fall of 1905, by a new enactment of the provincial legislature, to prevent the sale of bait or outfits and supplies of any nature to foreign fishermen, and by orders from the minister of marine and fisheries forbidding vessels of American registry to fish on the Treaty Coast. This reopened debate between the state department at Washington and the foreign office at London, over the intentions and meanings of that first article in the Treaty of 1818 which has been a source of incessant

sant dispute for ninety-one years. The following is the language of the article:

"Article I. Whereas differences have arisen respecting the liberty claimed by the United States, for the inhabitants thereof, to take, dry, and cure fish, on certain coasts, bays, harbours, and creeks of His Britannick Majesty's Dominions in America, it is agreed between the High Contracting Parties that the inhabitants of the said United States shall have, for ever, in common with the subjects of His Britannick Majesty, the liberty to take fish of every kind, on that part of the southern coast of Newfoundland, which extends from Cape Ray to the Rameau Islands, on the western and northern coast of Newfoundland, from the said Cape Ray to the Quirpon Islands, on the shores of the Magdalen Islands, and also on the coasts, bays, harbours, and creeks, from Mount Joly, on the southern coast of Labrador, to and through the Streights of Belleisle, and thence northwardly indefinitely along the coast, without prejudice, however, to any of the exclusive rights of the Hudson's Bay Company. And that the American fishermen shall also have liberty, for ever, to dry and cure fish in any of the unsettled bays, harbours, and creeks of the southern part of the coast of Newfoundland, here above described, and of the coast of Labrador; but so soon as the same, or any portion thereof, shall be settled, it shall not be lawful for the said fishermen to dry or cure fish at such portion so settled, without previous agreement for such purpose, with the inhabitants, proprietors, or possessors of the ground. And the United States hereby renounced, for ever, any liberty heretofore enjoyed or claimed by the inhabitants thereof, to take, dry, or cure fish on or within three marine miles of any of the coasts, bays, creeks, or harbours of His Britannick Majesty's Dominions in America, not included within the above-mentioned limits: provided, however, that the American fishermen shall be admitted to enter such bays or harbours, for the purpose of shelter, and of repairing damages therein, of purchasing wood, and of obtaining water, and for no other purpose whatever. But they shall be under such restrictions as may be necessary to prevent their taking, drying, or curing fish therein, or in any other manner whatever abusing the privileges hereby reserved to them."

With reference to the obstruction to American fishing in Newfoundland waters, the contention of Secretary Root was set forth in the following propositions:

"1. Any American vessel is entitled to go into the waters of the Treaty Coast and take fish of any kind.

"She derives this right from the Treaty (or from the conditions existing prior to the Treaty and recognized by it) and not from any permission or authority proceeding from the Government of Newfoundland.

"2. An American vessel seeking to exercise the Treaty right is not bound to obtain a licence from the Government of Newfoundland, and, if she does not purpose to trade as well as fish, she is not bound to enter at any Newfoundland custom-house.

"3. The only concern of the Government of Newfoundland with such a vessel is to call for proper evidence that she is an American vessel, and, therefore, entitled to exercise the Treaty right, and to have her refrain from violating any laws of Newfoundland not inconsistent with the Treaty.

"4. The proper evidence that a vessel is an American vessel and entitled to exercise the Treaty

right is the production of the ship's papers of the kind generally recognized in the maritime world as evidence of a vessel's national character.

"5. When a vessel has produced papers showing that she is an American vessel, the officials of Newfoundland have no concern with the character or extent of the privileges accorded to such a vessel by the Government of the United States. No question as between a registry and licence is a proper subject for their consideration. They are not charged with enforcing any laws or regulations of the United States. As to them, if the vessel is American she has the Treaty right, and they are not at liberty to deny it.

"6. If any such matter were a proper subject for the consideration of the officials of Newfoundland, the statement of this Department that vessels bearing an American registry are entitled to exercise the Treaty right should be taken by such officials as conclusive."

On the British side, Sir Edward Grey raised two principal objections to these propositions of Mr. Root: First—that "the privilege of fishing conceded by Article I of the Convention of 1818 is conceded, not to American vessels, but to inhabitants of the United States and to American fishermen"; second, that "inhabitants of the United States would not now be entitled to fish in British North American waters but for the fact that they were entitled to do so when they were British subjects. American fishermen cannot therefore rightly claim to exercise their right of fishery under the Convention of 1818 on a footing of greater freedom than if they had never ceased to be British subjects. Nor consistently with the terms of the Convention can they claim to exercise it on a footing of greater freedom than the British subjects 'in common with' whom they exercise it under the Convention. In other words, the American fishery under the Convention is not a free but a regulated fishery, and, in the opinion of His Majesty's Government, American fishermen are bound to comply with all Colonial Laws and Regulations, including any touching the conduct of the fishery, so long as these are not in their nature unreasonable, and are applicable to all fishermen alike."

To the first of these objections Mr. Root replied: "We may agree that ships, strictly speaking, can have no rights or duties, and that whenever the Memorandum, or the letter upon which it comments, speaks of a ship's rights and duties, it but uses a convenient and customary form of describing the owner's or master's right and duties in respect of the ship. . . . The liberty assured to us by the Treaty plainly includes the right to use all the means customary or appropriate for fishing upon the sea, not only ships and nets and boats, but crews to handle the ships and the nets and the boats. . . . I am not able to discover that any suggestion has ever been made of a right to scrutinize the nationality of the crews." As for the second objection, the American Secretary appealed to history against it. "The qualification," he said, "that the liberty assured to American fishermen by the Treaty of 1818 they were to have 'in common with the subjects of Great Britain' merely negatives an exclusive right. Under the Treaties of Utrecht, of 1763 and 1783, between Great Britain and France, the French had constantly maintained that they enjoyed an exclusive right of fishery on that portion of the coast of Newfoundland between Cape St. John and Cape Raye, passing around by the north of the island. The British, on the other hand, had maintained that British subjects had a right to fish along with the French,

so long as they did not interrupt them. The dissension arising from these conflicting views had been serious and annoying, and the provision that the liberty of the inhabitants of the United States to take fish should be in common with the liberty of the subjects of His Britannic Majesty to take fish was precisely appropriate to exclude the French construction and leave no doubt that the British construction of such a general grant should apply under the new Treaty. The words used have no greater or other effect. The provision is that the liberty to take fish shall be held in common, not that the exercise of that liberty by one people shall be the limit of the exercise of that liberty by the other."

As between these chief disputants in the matter, the first result of their exchange of arguments was a ready disposition to arrange some *modus vivendi*, under which peace might be kept on the fishing grounds until fresh undertakings could be planned for a lasting interpretation of the old enigmas in Article 1 of 1818. But the provincial Government of Newfoundland resented bitterly the imperial interference with its measures, charging that it was in violation of a pledge "given by the late Lord Salisbury in the House of Lords in 1891, to the effect that the colony had been given unlimited power with respect to its internal affairs." They were promptly told, however, that what concerned action under a British treaty went considerably beyond the internal affairs of their colony.

Considerable correspondence on the terms of the proposed *modus vivendi* brought an agreement on the 6th of October, 1906, set forth in the following communication from Ambassador Whitelaw Reid to Sir Edward Grey:

"I am authorized by my government to ratify a *modus vivendi* in regard to the Newfoundland fishery question on the basis of the Foreign Office Memorandum, dated the 25th ultimo, in which you accept the arrangement set out in my Memorandum of the 12th ultimo, and consent accordingly to the use of purse seines by American fishermen during the ensuing season, subject, of course, to due regard being paid in the use of such implements to other modes of fishery, which, as you state, is only intended to secure that there shall be the same spirit of give and take and of respect for common rights between the users of purse seines and the users of stationary nets as would be expected to exist if both sets of fishermen employed the same gear.

"My Government understand by this that the use of purse seines by American fishermen is not to be interfered with, and the shipment of Newfoundlanders by American fishermen outside the 3-mile limit is not to be made the basis of interference or to be penalized; at the same time they are glad to assure His Majesty's Government, should such shipments be found necessary, that they will be made far enough from the exact 3-mile limit to avoid any reasonable doubt.

"On the other hand, it is also understood that our fishermen are to be advised by my Government, and to agree, not to fish on Sunday.

"It is further understood that His Majesty's Government will not bring into force the Newfoundland Foreign Fishing-Vessels Act of 1906, which imposes on American fishing-vessels certain restrictions in addition to those imposed by the Act of 1905, and also that the provisions of the first part of section 1 of the Act of 1905, as to boarding and bringing into port, and also the whole of section 3 of the same Act, will not be regarded as applying to American fishing-vessels.

"It also being understood that our fishermen

will gladly pay light dues if they are not deprived of their rights to fish, and that our fishermen are not unwilling to comply with the provisions of the Colonial Customs Law as to reporting at a custom-house when physically possible to do so."

To explain the stipulation relative to "purse seines" it should be said that the New England fishermen claimed to be driven to the use of them, by the local regulations which hampered their fishing otherwise.

As formulated in the note of Ambassador Reid the *modus vivendi* was accepted by the British Government and went into effect. In due time thereafter the two governments entered upon a discussion of ways and means for accomplishing a definite and final settlement of the whole question of American rights in the Newfoundland fisheries. The outcome was an agreement signed at Washington on January 27, 1909, to the effect that the following questions shall be submitted for decision to a Tribunal of Arbitration, constituted as subsequent articles provide:—

"Question 1.—To what extent are the following contentions or either of them justified?

"It is contended on the part of Great Britain that the exercise of the liberty to take fish referred to in the said Article, which the inhabitants of the United States have for ever in common with the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, is subject, without the consent of the United States, to reasonable regulation by Great Britain, Canada, or Newfoundland in the form of municipal laws, ordinances, or rules, as, for example, to regulations in respect of (1) the hours, days, or seasons when fish may be taken on the Treaty coasts; (2) the method, means, and implements to be used in the taking of fish or in the carrying on of fishing operations on such coasts; (3) any other matters of a similar character relating to fishing; such regulations being reasonable, as being, for instance—

"(a) Appropriate or necessary for the protection and preservation of such fisheries and the exercise of the rights of British subjects therein and of the liberty which by the said Article 1 the inhabitants of the United States have therein in common with British subjects;

"(b) Desirable on grounds of public order and morals;

"(c) Equitable and fair as between local fishermen and the inhabitants of the United States exercising the said Treaty liberty and not so framed as to give unfairly an advantage to the former over the latter class.

"It is contended on the part of the United States that the exercise of such liberty is not subject to limitations or restraints by Great Britain, Canada, or Newfoundland in the form of municipal laws, ordinances, or regulations in respect of (1) the hours, days, or seasons when the inhabitants of the United States may take fish on the Treaty coasts, or (2) the method, means, and implements used by them in taking fish or in carrying on fishing operations on such coasts, or (3) any other limitations or restraints of similar character—

"(a) Unless they are appropriate and necessary for the protection and preservation of the common rights in such fisheries and the exercise thereof; and

"(b) Unless they are reasonable in themselves and fair as between local fishermen and fishermen coming from the United States, and not so framed as to give an advantage to the former over the latter class; and

"(c) Unless their appropriateness, necessity, reasonableness, and fairness be determined by the United States and Great Britain by common accord and the United States concurs in their enforcement.

"Question 2.—Have the inhabitants of the United States, while exercising the liberties referred to in said Article, a right to employ as members of the fishing crews of their vessels persons not inhabitants of the United States?

"Question 3.—Can the exercise by the inhabitants of the United States of the liberties referred to in the said Article be subjected, without the consent of the United States, to the requirements of entry or report at custom-houses or the payment of light or harbour or other dues, or to any other similar requirement or condition or exaction?

"Question 4.—Under the provision of the said Article that the American fishermen shall be admitted to enter certain bays or harbours for shelter, repairs, wood, or water, and for no other purpose whatever, but that they shall be under such restrictions as may be necessary to prevent their taking, drying, or curing fish therein or in any other manner whatever abusing the privileges thereby reserved to them, is it permissible to impose restrictions making the exercise of such privileges conditional upon the payment of light or harbour or other dues, or entering or reporting at custom-houses or any similar conditions?

"Question 5.—From where must be measured the 3 marine miles of any of the coasts, bays, creeks or harbours' referred to in the said Article?

"Question 6.—Have the inhabitants of the United States the liberty under the said Article or otherwise to take fish in the bays, harbours, and creeks on that part of the southern coast of Newfoundland which extends from Cape Ray to Rameau Islands, or on the western and northern coasts of Newfoundland from Cape Ray to Quirpon Islands, or on the Magdalen Islands?

"Question 7.—Are the inhabitants of the United States whose vessels resort to the Treaty coasts for the purpose of exercising the liberties referred to in Article 1 of the Treaty of 1818 entitled to have for those vessels, when duly authorized by the United States in that behalf, the commercial privileges on the Treaty coasts accorded by agreement or otherwise to United States trading vessels generally?"

Of the remaining articles of the Agreement, IV. and V. provide for the determination of future questions that may arise, and for the composition of the Tribunal of Arbitration, which is to be chosen from the members of the Permanent Court at The Hague.

The agreement above was formulated at a conference in Washington between Secretary Root, Ambassador Bryce, Hon. A. B. Aylesworth, Canadian minister of justice, and Attorney-General Kent of Newfoundland. In March the following were chosen from the general membership of the Permanent Court at The Hague to constitute the tribunal for this arbitration, namely: Dr. Luis Maria Drago, Argentina; Jonkheer de Savornin Lohman, Netherlands; Judge George Gray, United States; and Sir Charles Fitzpatrick, Chief Justice of Canada, with Dr. H. Lammasch, of Vienna, to be umpire on points of disagreement.

The case for the United States was delivered to the British embassy at Washington, and that for Great Britain to the American embassy at London, on October 4. A little later it was announced that the *modus vivendi* of 1908 had been renewed until the termination of the arbitration proceedings.

1907.—Represented at imperial conference in London.—Formulation of constitution. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1907.

1909.—A year of depression.—Scant earnings from fisheries.—Attitude toward confederation with Canada.—The year 1909 was one of great depression. The great majority of the population still had little to look to for their support except fishing, and the price of fish suddenly dropped to about half of what it was the previous season. This worked all the more hardship because in the decade just passed the price had steadily climbed until it had doubled itself. Moreover, the winter herring fishing was a failure; the seal fishery was below the average; the value of the whale fishery had almost vanished. Every form of industry, trade and commerce suffered, and to add to the sum of misfortunes the Bell iron mines closed for the winter season. It might have been thought that financial difficulties of such magnitude, coupled with the resulting loss of revenue to the government, would have turned the thoughts of the people toward union with Canada. On the contrary, feeling continued to be so strong against confederation that no party leader would think of weighing the advantages of such a union against the certainty of absolute political defeat.

ALSO IN: E. Smith, *Land of Bacalhós* (*Canadian Magazine*, July, 1909).

1909 (July-August).—Imperial defense conference. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909; British imperial defense conference.

1909-1921.—Influence of Fishermen's Protective Union.—Profit sharing.—"In the history of Trade Unionism throughout the world there is no more romantic story than that of the formation and growth of the Fishermen's Protective Union of Newfoundland. . . . Since the creation of the Union [about 1909] 250 councils or local branches have been formed, and at Port Union, the headquarters of the movement, a model town is developing, and is indeed well on its way towards completion. Shipbuilding yards have been established, where vessels of over 400 tons have been constructed, and 40 departmental stores worked on the co-operative basis are found in most of the busier centres in the country. The kerosene lamp, at one time an indispensable article in the equipment of a fisherman's house, has been replaced to a large extent by [electricity]. . . . In addition to the establishment of a successful business undertaking the . . . [Union] controls a newspaper which imparts its influence over every district of the country. . . . This Union . . . is the only one which enters the political field, and at the last general election [written in 1921] succeeded in getting a direct representation of twelve members out of the thirty six members returned to the local Parliament. The F. P. U. has a Co-operative business with a turnover of three million dollars, imports its goods and buys and exports codfish. . . . One of the outstanding features of the economic life of the people is the acceptance of the profit-sharing principle by employers and employed. Fishermen are employed almost exclusively on this basis. The owner of the fishing schooner takes one half of the value of the catch and the members of his crew receive one half between them in equal shares. Thus it depends upon the worker himself how much his share will be."—*Dominion of Newfoundland and Labrador* (pamphlet), pp. 16-18.

1910.—Hague decision.—The difficulties that arose between the United States and Newfoundland regarding their respective fishing rights in

1905 were finally settled by the Hague Tribunal in 1910. The award states among other provisions, that Great Britain may make regulations regarding the fisheries without the consent of the United States, provided they do not violate the provisions of the treaty of 1818, and that the three-mile limit is to be measured from a straight line (not more than ten miles long) drawn across bays between the two points nearest the entrance. See FISHERIES: 1909-1910.

1911.—Discussion of naturalization laws and social legislation at imperial conference. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1911.

1914-1918.—Expeditionary force in World War.—“The Naval Reserve in Newfoundland was formed in 1910, and . . . for many years prior to the War, the young seamen of the country did part-time service in the summer on the ships of the North Atlantic Squadron, and prepared themselves in this way for their arduous duties in the Navy. The pre-War establishment of the Newfoundland Naval Reserve was about 500, but in all 2,953 men were called to service in the Navy; . . . 107 of these men were killed in action and 124 were invalidated out of the Service through injuries received. Besides this number, there were a large number of Newfoundlanders who served in the regular Navy, having enlisted in other parts of the Empire. . . . In August, 1914, . . . [Newfoundland] at once offered five hundred men as a first contribution to the land forces of the Crown. . . . [By the middle of May, 1915 the Newfoundland battalion had increased to 2000 and the naval force to 1200.] The total numbers raised in the Dominion amounted to nearly 9,000, all ranks, of whom about 4,000 became casualties, including some 1,200 dead of wounds or sickness, or actually killed. No account is made here of Newfoundland enlistments in other forces, or of the Newfoundland Forestry Corps and the Newfoundland Royal Naval Reserve.”—*Dominion of Newfoundland and Labrador* (pamphlet), pp. 131, 134.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: World War: 1914-1918; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 8, ii.

1917.—Created a dominion.—Coalition cabinet.—In 1917, Newfoundland was created a dominion in recognition of its war services. An election was due during the World War; but a bill to extend the life of the legislature for one year was passed in August, and at the same time a coalition cabinet was formed. An excess profits bill, rejected by the council, was passed by the expedient of appointing four additional members, as provided for under the Constitutional Act. Thereafter, an act was passed which defines the powers of the upper house, and reserves money bills to the House of Assembly.

Also in: J. C. Hopkins, *Canadian Annual Review*, 1917, pp. 189-190.

1917-1918.—Questions of defense, industry and raw materials at imperial war conferences. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1917; 1918.

1918.—Conscription Bill.—The expeditionary force, which had served with distinction in Gallipoli and France, could no longer be kept up by the method of voluntary enlistment, and in consequence a Selective Conscription Act was passed.

1919.—Representation at Peace conference. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1921.—Railway question.—Increased agricultural production.—Paper mills.—“The Railway situation . . . became a difficult one during the

year and the Premier stated in the Legislature [May 25, 1921] that when the Railway Commission's term of office expired the relations between the Reid-Newfoundland Railway and the Government would be a serious question. During the Session a measure was passed providing for the operation of the Railway system for one year ending June 1st, 1922, by the Reid-Newfoundland Co. The Government guaranteed a loss in operation up to \$1,500,000 under the provisions of the Bill, but the Company would meet losses above that figure; it was passed by a vote of 18 to 14. Sir George Bury, . . . [who] had been appointed Commissioner to investigate conditions . . . reported that since 1904 operating costs had exceeded earnings by \$5,750,000; that the Joint Commission of the Reid interests and the Government, appointed in 1920, and since in control, had not improved matters. . . . Sir Edgar Bowring, Newfoundland's High Commissioner in London, . . . [on November 24] pointed out again that Fishing no longer was the staple industry and that: ‘We get out of the land twice as much as we get out of the sea. Our potato crop, amounting to 600,000 barrels, is more valuable than our Labrador fisheries; our hay crop, combined with roots, such as turnips, is more valuable than our shore fisheries, while the live-stock trade—cattle, horses, sheep, goats, etc.—is more valuable than the Bank fishery; so that Newfoundland, which has always been considered entirely a fishing country, turns out to be an agricultural country.’ . . . In December H. D. Reid announced at St. John's extensive plans for the development of the natural resources of Newfoundland. . . . He had negotiated a contract with the Armstrong, Whitworth Co. Ltd., to develop the resources of the Humber Valley; by that project paper mills would be established twice the size of the Harmsworth plant at Grand Falls with a capacity of 1,000 tons daily; the contract guaranteed the expenditure of \$7,000,000 within two years with the establishment of aluminum works and other industries and extensive waterpower development. . . . In 1920, the Newfoundland Legislature . . . [rejected] Woman Suffrage and in 1921—the fourth year of operation—there were some Prohibition troubles in the Island-Dominion though nothing so marked as in Canada and the United States.”—J. C. Hopkins, *Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs*, 1921, pp. 101-102.

1921.—Reparation receipts apportioned. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921.

See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Character: Characteristics of self-governing colonies; ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Telegraph: 1754-1866; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Canada.

NEWFOUNDLAND FOREIGN FISHING VESSELS ACT (1906). See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1005-1009.

NEWITTEES, North American Indian tribe. See WAKASHAN FAMILY.

NEWLANDS ACT (1013). See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1888-1921.

NEWMAN, John Henry, Cardinal (1801-1890), English Roman Catholic prelate. One of the leaders of the Oxford Movement; resigned living in the Anglican church, 1843; entered the Roman Catholic church, 1845; author of books on religious subjects. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1833-1000; OXFORD, OR TRACTARIAN, MOVEMENT.

NEWNHAM COLLEGE, women's college founded at Cambridge, England, in 1875. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: England: Education of women.

NEWPORT, Christopher (c. 1565-1617), English navigator. Commanded expedition which founded Jamestown, Virginia, 1607; led expedition to Virginia, 1610-1611. See VIRGINIA: 1600-1616.

NEWPORT, England, Treaty at. See ENGLAND: 1648 (September-November).

NEWPORT, Rhode Island, port in southeastern Rhode Island, on Narragansett bay.

1524.—Visited by Verrazano. See AMERICA: 1523-1524; 1524.

1639.—First settlement. See RHODE ISLAND: 1638-1640.

1658.—Organization of Jewish congregation. See RHODE ISLAND: 1647-1776.

18th century.—Commercial importance. See COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 17th-18th centuries: North American colonies.

1778.—Held by British.—Failure of French attack. See U.S.A.: 1778 (July-November).

1842.—Trial of Dorr. See RHODE ISLAND: 1841-1843.

1883.—Harbor improvement. See RHODE ISLAND: 1877-1887.

1899.—Ceases to be capital of state. See RHODE ISLAND: 1900.

NEWPORT NEWS, port in eastern Virginia, on the James river and Hampton Roads. It was first settled in 1619, but was not incorporated until 1860. It has one of the largest shipyards in the world and is an important commercial center.

NEWSPAPER: Growth and development in various countries. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS; also CHINA: 1920: Development of journalism; JEWS: Zionism: 1914-1918.

Censorship. See CENSORSHIP: United States; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship.

NEWTON, Sir Charles Thomas, (1816-1894), English archaeologist. See BRITISH MUSEUM: Explorations and accessions.

NEWTON, Sir Isaac (1642-1727), English mathematician and natural philosopher. Elaborated his theory of gravitation, his most important contribution to science, 1685; published his first book, "Principia," 1687; represented Cambridge in Parliament, 1689-1701; master of the mint, 1699; president of the Royal Society, 1703-1727. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Early experiments; INVENTIONS: 18th century: Measurements; EUROPE: Modern: Revolutionary period.

NEWTON, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1779 (August-September).

NEWTON BUTLER, Battle of. See IRELAND: 1689.

NEWTONIA, Battles of. See U.S.A.: 1862 (July-September: Missouri-Arkansas); 1864 (March-October: Arkansas-Missouri).

NEWTOWN THE BOLD, town built around Calais, France, by Edward III during his siege of the city. See CALAIS: 1346-1347.

NEY, Michel, Prince de la Moskowa, Duc de l'Elchingen (1769-1815), French marshal. Entered army, 1788; served in campaigns in Germany, France, Spain and Portugal; deserted Louis XVIII for Napoleon, 1815; defeated by Wellington at Waterloo, 1815; convicted and shot as traitor. See FRANCE: 1801-1803; 1814 (January-March); 1815 (June); 1815-1830; GERMANY: 1806 (October); 1806-1817; 1807 (February-June); 1812 (September); 1813 (May-August), to (October); RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September); SPAIN: 1809 (February-July).

NEZ PERCES, or Sahaptins.—"The Sahaptins or Nez Percés [the Shahaptian family in Major Powell's classification], with their affiliated tribes,

occupied the middle and upper valley of the Columbia and its affluents, and also the passes of the mountains. They were in contiguity with the Shoshones and the Algonkin Blackfeet, thus holding an important position, intermediate between the eastern and the Pacific tribes. Having the commercial instinct of the latter, they made good use of it."—D. G. Brinton, *American race*, p. 107.—In 1877 the Nez Percés under "Joseph" resisted being confined to their reservation in Idaho. The genius of their famous chief was displayed to advantage in his 1,000 mile retreat to the Canadian border. When within a few miles of safety he was forced to surrender to Colonel Miles on October 5, 1877.—See also IDAHO: 1834-1860; 1860-1878; U.S.A.: 1866-1876.

ALSO IN: J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology*, p. 106.

NGURU, mountainous district in the northeastern part of East Africa, west of Zanzibar. It was the scene of military operations during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 13; a, 14.

NIAGARA: Name and its original applications.—"Colden wrote it [the name] 'O-ni-ag-a-ra,' in 1741, and he must have received it from the Mohawks or Oneidas. It was the name of a Seneca village at the mouth of the Niagara river; located as early as 1650, near the site of Youngstown. It was also the place where the Marquis de Nonville constructed a fort in 1687, the building of which brought this locality under the particular notice of the English. The name of this Indian village in the dialect of the Senecas was 'Ne-ah'-gä,' in Tuscarora 'O-ne-ä'-kars,' in Onondaga 'O-ne-ah'-gä,' in Oneida 'O-ne-ah'-gäle,' and in Mohawk 'O-ne-ä'-gä-rä.' These names are but the same word under dialectical changes. It is clear that Niagara was derived from some one of them, and thus came direct from the Iroquois language. The signification of the word is lost, unless it is derived, as some of the present Iroquois suppose, from the word which signifies 'neck,' in Seneca 'O-ne-ah'-ä,' in Onondaga 'O-ne-yä'-ä,' and in Oneida 'O-ne-arl.' The name of this Indian village was bestowed by the Iroquois upon Youngstown; upon the river Niagara from the falls to the Lake; and upon Lake Ontario."—L. H. Morgan, *League of the Iroquois*, bk. 3.

ALSO IN: O. H. Marshall, *Niagara frontier (Historical writings)*, p. 283).

1679.—River navigated by La Salle. See CANADA: 1660-1687.

1687-1688.—Fort constructed by De Nonville and destroyed a year later.—"We arrived there [at Niagara] on the morning of the 30th [of July, 1687]. We immediately set about choosing a place, and collecting stakes for the construction of the Fort which I had resolved to build at the extremity of a tongue of land, between the river Niagara and Lake Ontario, on the Iroquois side. On the 31st of July and 1st of August we continued this work, which was the more difficult from there being no wood on the place suitable for making palisades, and from its being necessary to draw them up the height. We performed this labor so diligently that the fort was in a state of defence on the last mentioned day. . . . The 2d day of August, the militia having performed their allotted task, and the fort being in a condition of defence in case of assault, they set out at noon, in order to reach the end of the lake on their return to their own country. On the morning of the 3d, being the next day, I embarked for the purpose of joining the militia, leaving the regular troops under the direction of M. de Vaudreuil to finish what was the most essen-

tial, and to render the fort not only capable of defence, but also of being occupied by a detachment of 100 soldiers, which are to winter there under the command of M. Troyes."—Marquis de Nonville, *Journal of expedition against the Senecas (Historical writings of O. H. Marshall, p. 173)*.—"De Nonville's journal removes the doubt which has been entertained as to the location of this fortress, some having supposed it to have been first built at Lewiston. . . . It occupied the site of the present fort on the angle formed by the junction of the Niagara with Lake Ontario. . . . De Nonville left De Troyes with provisions and munitions for eight months. A sickness soon after broke out in the garrison, by which they nearly all perished, including their commander. . . . They were so closely besieged by the Iroquois that they were unable to supply themselves with fresh provisions. The fortress was soon after abandoned and destroyed [1688], much to the regret of De Nonville."—*Footnotes to the above*.

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV*, pp. 155, 166.

1725-1726.—Stone fort built.—Joncaire's wigwam.—Captain Joncaire "had been taken prisoner when quite young by the Iroquois, and adopted into one of their tribes. This was the making of his fortune. He had grown up among them, acquired their language, adapted himself to their habits, and was considered by them as one of themselves. On returning to civilized life he became a prime instrument in the hands of the Canadian government, for managing and cajoling the Indians. . . . When the French wanted to get a commanding site for a post on the Iroquois lands, near Niagara, Joncaire was the man to manage it. He craved a situation where he might put up a wigwam, and dwell among his Iroquois brethren. It was granted, of course, 'for was he not a son of the tribe—was he not one of themselves?' By degrees his wigwam grew into an important trading post; ultimately it became Fort Niagara."—W. Irving, *Life of Washington, v. 1, ch. 5*.—"In 1725 the Fort of Niagara was commenced by Chaussegross de Léry, on the spot where the wooden structure of de Denonville formerly stood; it was built of stone and completed in 1726."—W. Kingsford, *History of Canada, v. 2, p. 516*.

1755.—Abortive expedition against the fort by the English. See CANADA: 1755 (August-September).

1756.—Fort rebuilt by Pouchot. See CANADA: 1756.

1759.—Fort taken by the English. See CANADA: 1759 (July-August).

1763.—Ambuscade and massacre at Devil's Hole. See DEVIL'S HOLE.

1764.—Sir William Johnson's treaty with Indians.—Cession of four mile strip along both banks of river. See PONTIAC'S WAR.

1783.—Retention of fort by Great Britain after peace with the United States. See U.S.A.: 1784-1788.

1796.—Surrender of fort by Great Britain. See U.S.A.: 1794-1795.

1813.—Surprise and capture of fort by British. See U.S.A.: 1813 (December).

1815.—Fort restored by British.—On March 27, 1815, Fort Niagara was restored by the British to the United States.

NIAGARA, or LUNDY'S LANE, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1814 (July-September).

1864.—Peace mission. See U.S.A.: 1864 (July).

NIAGARA FALLS.—The falls of Niagara, famous for their beauty since they were first looked

upon by French explorers, are formed by the sudden plunge of the Niagara river, carrying the overflow of the Great Lakes from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario, over a high cliff, into a deep narrow gorge, which has been worn down through the Niagara escarpment by the ceaseless flow of water through untold centuries. The upper rapids, below Chipewewa, are about fifteen miles from Lake Ontario.

Preservation of scenic grandeur.—At the end of the nineteenth century, industrial organizations began to utilize the tremendous force produced by the sudden drop of the great volume of water in Niagara river. Fears were entertained that the withdrawal of water above the Falls would detract from their scenic beauty, and efforts were at once made to regulate the amount withdrawn. An act of Congress, designed "to preserve the scenic grandeur" of Niagara Falls, approved in June, 1906, authorized the secretary of war to grant permits for the diversion of water for the creation of power to an aggregate amount not exceeding 15,000 cubic feet a second, and to grant permits for the transmission of power from Canada to an aggregate quantity not exceeding 160,000 horsepower. The then Secretary of War, Taft, after careful investigations and hearings, granted permits for the diversion of the maximum amount of water under the act and for the admission of the maximum quantity of power. In reporting his decision Taft explained why he believed that the diversion authorized could be made without harm to the Falls: "I have reached [he said] the conclusion that with the diversion of 15,000 cubic feet on the American side and the transmission of 100,000 horse-power from the Canadian side, the scenic grandeur of the Falls will not be affected substantially or perceptibly to the eye. With respect to the American falls this is an increase of only 2,500 cubic feet a second over what is now being diverted and has been diverted for many years, and has not affected the Falls as a scenic wonder. With respect to the Canadian side, the water is drawn from the river in such a way as not to affect the American falls at all, because the point from which it is drawn is considerably below the level of the water, at the point where the waters separate above Goat Island, and the Waterways Commission and Dr. Clark agree that the taking of 13,000 cubic feet from the Canadian side will not in any way affect or reduce the water going over the American falls. The water going over the Falls on the Canadian side of Goat Island is about five times the volume of that which goes over the American falls. . . . If the amount withdrawn on the Canada side for Canadian use were 5,000 cubic feet a second, which it is not likely to be during the three years' life of these permits, the total to be withdrawn would not exceed ten per cent. of the volume of the stream, and, considering the immense quantity which goes over the Horseshoe Falls, the diminution would not be perceptible to the eye."—See also CANADA: 1000 (January); ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1815-1021; Electric power: 1800-1021.

ALSO IN: C. M. Dow, *Bibliography and anthology of Niagara Falls*.

NIAGARA FALLS, city in New York, twenty-two miles northwest of Buffalo, on the Niagara river.

1914.—A B C Conference held to promote peace between Mexico and the United States. See A B C CONFERENCE: Mediation; U.S.A.: 1014 (April); Occupation of Vera Cruz; MEXICO: 1013-1014.

NIAGARA MOVEMENT, organization among the negroes of the United States whose purpose is to aid in the advancement of the race. It was

formed at a convention which met at Buffalo, New York, in 1905. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1905-1921.

NIAGARA PEACE MOVEMENT, unsuccessful attempt of the Confederates in Canada to negotiate peace with the Union government, at a conference at Niagara. See U. S. A.: 1864 (July).

NIALL, dynasty in ancient Ireland founded by Niall "of the nine hostages," who reigned during the 5th century. The O'Neills descended from this family. See IRELAND: 5th-9th centuries; Niall of the nine hostages.

NIAUX, cavern in France. In 1906 prehistoric wall paintings were discovered here. See EUROPE: Prehistoric: Paleolithic art.

NIBELUNGENLIED.—"Of the bequests made to us of the [German] Popular Poetry of the time of the Hohenstaufen, by far the most important, in fact the most important literary memorial of any kind, is the epic of between nine and ten thousand lines known as the Nibelungen Lied. The manuscripts which have preserved for us the poem come from about the year 1200. For full a thousand years before that, however, many of the lays from which it was composed had been in existence; some indeed proceed from a still remoter antiquity, sung by primitive minstrels when the Germans were at their wildest, untouched by Christianity or civilization. These lays had been handed down orally, until at length a poet of genius elaborated them and intrusted them to parchment."—J. K. Hosmer, *Short history of German literature*, pt. 1, ch. 1.—"With an instinctive art, far different from acquired artifice, this Poet of the Nibelungen, working in the same province with his contemporaries of the Heldenbuch [Hero-book] on the same material of tradition, has, in a wonderful degree, possessed himself of what these could only strive after; and with his 'clear feeling of fictitious truth,' avoid as false the errors and monstrous perplexities in which they vainly struggled. He is of another species than they; in language, in purity and depth of feeling, in fineness of invention, stands quite apart from them. The language of the Heldenbuch . . . was a feeble half-articulate child's-speech, the metre nothing better than a miserable doggerel; whereas here in the old Frankish [Oberdeutsch] dialect of the Nibelungen, we have a clear decisive utterance, and in a real system of verse not without essential regularity, great liveliness, and now and then even harmony of rhythm."—T. Carlyle, *Nibelungen Lied* (*Critical and miscellaneous essays*, v. 3).—See also GERMAN LITERATURE: 350-9th century; 1050-1350.

Attila and Theodoric in story. See HUNS: Attila in Teutonic legend; VERONA: 493-525.

ALSO IN: W. Scherer, *History of German literature*, v. 1, ch. 2, 5.—B. Taylor, *Studies in German literature*, ch. 4.

NICÆA, or Nice, city in Bithynia. It was founded about 316 B. C. by Antigonus, one of the successors of Alexander the Great, and originally received the name of Antigonea. Lysimachus changed the name to Nicæa, in honor of his wife.

Capture by Goths. See GOths: 258-267.

325.—**First council**.—"Constantine [the Great] . . . determined to lay the question of Arianism [see ARIANISM] before an Œcumenical council. . . . The council met 325] at Nicæa—the 'City of Victory'—in Bithynia, close to the Ascanian Lake, and about twenty miles from Nicomedia. . . . It was an Eastern council, and, like the Eastern councils, was held within a measurable distance from the seat of government. . . . Of the 318 bishops . . . who subscribed its decrees, only eight came from the West, and the language in which the Creed was composed was Greek, which scarcely admitted of a

Latin rendering. . . . Its character, then, is strictly Oriental. . . . Of the 318 members of the Council, we are told by Philostorgius, the Arian historian, that 22 espoused the cause of Arius, though other writers regard the minority as still less, some fixing it at 17, others at 15, others as low as 13. But of those 318 the first place in rank, though not the first in mental power and energy of character, was accorded to the aged bishop [Alexander] of Alexandria. He was the representative of the most intellectual diocese in the Eastern Church. He alone, of all the bishops, was named 'Papa,' or 'Pope.' The 'Pope of Rome' was a phrase which had not yet emerged in history; but 'Pope of Alexandria' was a well-known title of dignity."—R. W. Bush, *St. Athanasius*, ch. 6.—"The first great general (œcumenical) council at Nicæa, just across the straits from Constantinople . . . was a magnificent display of worldly power, the first grand exhibition of what seemed to be the Church triumphant, but what was really the Church entering upon an alliance with the State,—an alliance full of all dangers to both parties. . . . The Council of Nicæa brings us to the question of the *belief* of the Church. . . . Men had not been content to take the simple account of Jesus as it appears in the New Testament stories, but had made a mystery out of it, and had gone into violent controversies on the question whether Jesus was God or a man, or both. Finally, a few years before the Council of Nicæa, the question was taken up by an Egyptian presbyter, named Arius, on one side, and Athanasius, afterward the bishop of Alexandria, on the other. Both admitted that Jesus was the Son of God, who had become an actual flesh-and-blood man to redeem the world from sin. Athanasius maintained, however, that Jesus was of the *same substance* with God and *co-eternal* with Him, while Arius denied both these points, because it seemed to him that Athanasius was either making two gods, or else dividing God into two parts. The Council of Nicæa was called mainly to settle this Arian-Athanasian controversy. It decided by a great majority in favor of Athanasius, and his doctrine has remained to this day the belief of the orthodox Catholic Church, both Greek and Roman, and has been kept by the vast majority of the Protestant churches which grew out of the Roman Catholic. Thus we see that at the time of the Council of Nicæa the Church had taken on the form, both as to belief and organization, which it was to maintain for fifteen hundred years."—E. Emerton, *Introduction to the study of the Middle Ages*, pp. 98-100.—See also NICENE CREED.

ALSO IN: A. P. Stanley, *Lectures on the history of the Eastern church*, lect. 3-5.

787.—**Synod**. See IDOLATRY AND IMAGE WORSHIP: 8th-9th centuries; ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY.

1080.—**Acquired by Turks**.—**Capital of Sultan of Roum**. See TURKEY: 1073-1092.

1096-1097.—**Defeat and slaughter of First Crusaders**.—**Recovery from Turks**. See CRUSADES: 1096-1099.

1204-1261.—**Greek empire**.—The conquest of Constantinople by the Venetians and the Crusaders, in 1204, broke the Byzantine empire into many fragments, some of which were secured by the conquerors and loosely bound together in the feudal empire of Romania, while others were snatched from the ruin and preserved by the Greeks, themselves. (See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1203-1204; 1204-1205; CRUSADES: Map of Mediterranean lands after 1204.) For the sovereignty of these latter numerous claimants made haste to contend. Three fugitive emperors were wandering in the outer terri-

ories of the shattered realm. One was that Alexius III, whose deposition of Isaac Angelos had afforded a pretext for the crusading conquest, and who had fled when Isaac was restored. A second was Alexius V (Murtzuphlos), who pushed Isaac Angelos and his son Alexius IV from the shaking throne when Constantinople resolved to defend itself against the Christians of the West, but who abandoned the city in the last hours of the siege. The third was Theodore Lascaris, son-in-law of Alexius III, who was elected to the imperial office as soon as the flight of Alexius V became known—even after the besiegers had entered the city—and who, then, could do nothing but follow his fugitive predecessors. This last was the only one of the three who found a piece of defensible territory on which to set up his throne. He established himself in Bithynia, associating his claims with those of his worthless father-in-law, and contenting himself with the title of despot, at first. But the convenient though objectionable father-in-law was not permitted to enjoy any share of the sovereignty which he acquired. Theodore, in fact, managed his affairs with great vigor and skill. The district in which his authority was recognized widened rapidly and the city of Nicæa became his capital. There, in 1206, he received the imperial crown, more formally and solemnly, anew, and rallied the Greek resistance which was destined to triumph, a little more than half a century later, over the insolent aggression of the Latin West. The small empire of Nicæa had to contend, not merely with the Latins in Constantinople and Greece, and with the Turkish sultan of Iconium, but also with another ambitious fragment of Greek empire at Trebizond, which showed itself persistently hostile. His successors, moreover, were in conflict with a third such fragment in Europe, at Thessalonica. But, ten years after the flight of Theodore from Constantinople, his empire of Nicæa "extended from Heracleia on the Black Sea to the head of the Gulf of Nicomedia; from thence it embraced the coast of the Opsikian theme as far as Cyzicus; and then descending to the south, included Pergamus, and joined the coast of the Ægean. Theodore had already extended his power over the valleys of the Hermus, the Caister, and the Mæander." Theodore Lascaris died in 1222, leaving no son, and John Dukas Vatatzes, or Vataces as his name is written by some historians, a man of eminent abilities and high qualities, who had married Theodore's daughter, was elected to the vacant throne. He was saluted as John III—assuming a continuity from the Byzantine to the Nicæan series of emperors. In a reign of thirty-three years, this prudent and capable emperor, as Gibbon expresses the fact, "rescued the provinces from national and foreign usurpers, till he pressed on all sides the imperial city (Constantinople), a leafless and sapless trunk, which must fall at the first stroke of the axe." He did not live to apply that blow nor to witness the fall of the coveted capital of the East. But the event occurred only six years after his death, and owed nothing to the energy or the capability of his successors. His son, Theodore II, reigned but four years, and left at his death, in 1258, a son, John IV, only eight years old. The appointed regent and tutor of this youth was soon assassinated, and Michael Paleologos, an able officer, who had some of the blood of the imperial Angelos family in his veins, was made in the first instance tutor to the young emperor, and soon afterwards raised to the throne with him as a colleague. In 1260 the new emperor made an attack on Constantinople and was repulsed. But on July 25, in the next year the city was taken by a sudden surprise, while 6,000

soldiers of its garrison were absent on an expedition against Daphnusia in the Black sea. It was acquired almost without resistance, the Latin emperor, Baldwin II taking promptly to flight. The destruction of life was slight; but the surprising party fired a considerable part of the city, to cover the smallness of its numbers, and Constantinople suffered once more from a disastrous conflagration. On the recovery of its ancient capital, the Greek empire ceased to bear the name of Nicæa, and its history is continued under the more imposing appellation of the Greek empire of Constantinople.—Based on G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine and Greek empires, from 716 to 1453, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 1.*—See also ROMANIA.

1330.—Capture by Ottoman Turks. See TURKEY: 1326-1359.

1402.—Sacked by Timur. See TIMUR.

NICÆA, Synods of (325, 787). See NICÆA: 325; IDOLATRY AND IMAGE WORSHIP: 8th-9th centuries; ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY.

NICÆAN CREED. See NICENE CREED

NICANOR (d. 162 B. C.), Syrian general. Governor of Judea. See CAPHARSALAMA, BATTLE OF.

NICARAGUA: Geographic description.—Resources.—Population.—"Of the Isthmian States, Nicaragua ranks next in size to Guatemala, being nearly as large as England without Wales [area 49,200 square miles], but has little more than half the population of Salvador. It presents the outlines of a somewhat irregular equilateral triangle wedged in between Honduras on the north and Costa Rica on the south. The base of the triangle rests on the Caribbean Sea, where it extends . . . from Cape Gracias á Dios southwards to the mouth of the Rio San Juan, while the apex is clearly indicated by the Coseguina volcano at the south side of Fonseca Bay [on the Pacific side]. . . . In Nicaragua geographers distinguish three physical zones, which, going westwards, are—(1) The Mosquito sea-board, partly of coralline (marine), partly of alluvial formation; (2) The uplands of the interior with the Cordillera de los Andes, forming part of the original continental framework, and extending from Mosquitia to the great depression which is now flooded by Lakes Nicaragua and Managua; (3) The coast-lands between the lakes and the Pacific, which are mainly of igneous origin, and form a southern continuation of the Salvador volcanic system."—A. H. Keane, *Central and South America, v. 2, pp. 217-218.*—"A feature of Nicaragua are the two great lakes that occupy the curious depression in the west of the Republic. These are Lake Nicaragua, over a hundred miles in length by forty in width, the extent of which is about 3,700 square miles, . . . the largest sheet of water between Michigan on the north and Titicaca on the south—and Lake Managua. . . . It is the presence of . . . [Nicaragua] lake that caused so many engineers to advocate the Nicaraguan inter-oceanic canal in preference to that of Panama. [See CENTRAL AMERICA: Map.] . . . The chief mineral wealth of Nicaragua is met with in the wooded central zone, though the Bluefields River is notable for its washings. A certain amount of gold-mining has been carried on by British and American companies, while silver-mining has been carried on to a lesser extent. The chief products of the Republic are tropical fruits, especially bananas, coffee, tobacco, cotton, sugar, rice, cocoa, and maize. Among the characteristic growths are the coyol palm, which yields *Vino de Coyol*, or Coyol wine, and the chocolate-tree, which actually yields a more powerful essence of chocolate than the cacao. . . . The Nicaraguan rubber industry is growing in importance, although no rubber-trees

have yet been planted, the rubber being still obtained from the wild growths in the forest. . . . It is supposed that of the inhabitants of Nicaragua [who, according to the census of 1920, numbered 638,119] some two thousand are of unmixed European blood. The greatest proportion of the rest are of that mixed strain which is characteristic of most of the districts of Central America; in many of these, however, the evidence of Spanish blood is very strong. The wild Indian tribes, known as 'Bravos,' are estimated to number some 40,000 [written in 1917]. They are to be met with for the most part in the mountainous districts, . . . principally in the provinces of Chontales, Matagalpa, and Segovia. The Mosquito Indians are supposed to amount to about 20,000. These . . . were British subjects until the year 1860, and they still cling as far as is in their power to this nationality, and, moreover, still insist on employing the English speech in addition to their own tongue."—W. H. Koebel, *Central America*, pp. 207-210.—See also CENTRAL AMERICA: Aborigines; Population; LATIN AMERICA: Geographic description.

ALSO IN: A. H. Keane, *Central and South America*, v. 2, pp. 217-218.—C. W. Domville-Fife, *Guatemala and the states of Central America*.—G. Niederlein, *State of Nicaragua*, pp. 83-84.

Name.—Nicaragua was originally the name of a native chief who ruled in the region on the lake when it was first penetrated by the Spaniards, under Gil Gonzalez, in 1522. "Upon the return of Gil Gonzalez, the name Nicaragua became famous, and besides being applied to the cacique and his town, was gradually given to the surrounding country, and to the lake."—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*; v. 1, p. 489, footnote.

1502.—Coasted by Columbus. See AMERICA: 1498-1505.

1522-1821.—Subjection to Spain.—Until 1718 the isthmus, including the province of Nicaragua, was subject to the viceroy of Peru, and from that year until 1821, to the Spanish representative at Bogota. See LATIN AMERICA: 1535-1700.

1821-1871.—Independence of Spain.—Brief annexation to Mexico.—Attempted federations and their failure. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1821-1871.

1850.—Clayton-Bulwer Treaty.—Joint protectorate of the United States and Great Britain over proposed inter-oceanic canal.—"In December, 1846, had been ratified a treaty with New Granada (which in 1862 assumed the name of Colombia) by which a right of transit over the isthmus of Panama was given to the United States, and the free transit over the isthmus 'from the one to the other sea' guaranteed by both of the contracting powers. Under the shelter of this treaty the Panama Railroad Company, composed of citizens of the United States, and supplied by capital from the United States, was organized in 1850 and put in operation in 1855. In 1849, before, therefore, this company had taken shape, the United States entered into a treaty with Nicaragua for the opening of a ship-canal from Greytown (San Juan), on the Atlantic coast, to the Pacific coast, by way of the Lake of Nicaragua. Greytown, however, was then virtually occupied by British settlers, mostly from Jamaica, and the whole eastern coast of Nicaragua, so far at least as the eastern terminus of such a canal was concerned, was held, so it was maintained by Great Britain, by the Mosquito Indians, over whom Great Britain claimed to exercise a protectorate. That the Mosquito Indians had no such settled territorial site; that, if they had, Great Britain had no such protectorate or sovereignty over them as authorized her to exercise dominion over their soil, even if they

had any, are positions which . . . the United States has repeatedly affirmed. But the fact that the pretension was set up by Great Britain, and that, though it were baseless, any attempt to force a canal through the Mosquito country might precipitate a war, induced Mr. Clayton, Secretary of State in the administration of General Taylor, to ask through Sir H. L. Bulwer, British minister at Washington, the administration of Lord John Russell (Lord Palmerston being then foreign secretary) to withdraw the British pretensions to the coast so as to permit the construction of the canal under the joint auspices of the United States and of Nicaragua. This the British Government declined to do, but agreed to enter into a treaty for a joint protectorate over the proposed canal. [This treaty, which was signed at Washington April 19, 1850, and of which the ratifications were exchanged on the 4th of July following, is commonly referred to as the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty. Its language in the first article is that] . . . the Governments of the United States and of Great Britain hereby declare that neither the one nor the other will ever obtain or maintain for itself any exclusive control over the said ship-canal; agreeing that neither will ever erect or maintain any fortifications commanding the same, or in the vicinity thereof, or occupy, or fortify, or colonize, or assume or exercise any dominion over Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito coast, or any part of Central America; nor will either make use of any protection which either affords, or may afford, or any alliance which either has or may have to or with any state or people, for the purpose of erecting or maintaining any such fortifications, or of occupying, fortifying, or colonizing Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito coast, or any part of Central America, or of assuming or exercising dominion over the same; nor will the United States or Great Britain take advantage of any intimacy, or use any alliance, connection, or influence that either may possess, with any State or Government through whose territory the said canal may pass, for the purpose of acquiring or holding, directly or indirectly, for the citizens or subjects of the one, any rights or advantages in regard to commerce or navigation through the said canal which shall not be offered on the same terms to the citizens or subjects of the other."—F. Wharton, *Digest of the international law of the United States*, v. 2, ch. 6, sect. 150 f.

ALSO IN: *Treaties and conventions between the United States and other Powers*, p. 440.—*Nineteenth Century*, v. 47, p. 498.—*Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Nov., 1899.

1855-1860.—Invasion of Walker and his filibusters.—"Ever since the time of Cortes there have been projects for connecting the two oceans through the lake of Nicaragua. . . . Hence Nicaragua has always been thought of great importance to the United States. The political struggles of the state, ever since the failure of the confederation, had sunk into a petty rivalry between the two towns of Leon and Granada. Leon enjoys the distinction of being the first important town in Central America to raise the cry of independence in 1815, and it had always maintained the liberal character which this disclosed. Castellon, the leader of the Radical party, of which Leon was the seat, called in to help him an American named William Walker. Walker, who was born in 1824, was a young roving American who had gone during the gold rush of 1850 to California, and become editor of a newspaper in San Francisco. In those days it was supposed in the United States that the time for engulfing the whole of Spanish America had come. Lopez had

already made his descent on Cuba; and Walker, in July, 1853, had organized a band of filibusters for the conquest of Sonora, and the peninsula of California, which had been left to Mexico by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. This wild expedition . . . was a total failure; but when Walker came back to his newspapers after an absence of seven months, he found himself a hero. His fame, as we see, had reached Central America; and he at once accepted Castellon's offer. In 1855, having collected a band of 70 adventurers in California, he landed in the country, captured the town of Granada, and, aided by the intrigues of the American consul, procured his own appointment as General-in-Chief of the Nicaraguan army. Walker was now master of the place; and his own provisional President, Rivas, having turned against him, he displaced him, and in 1856 became President himself. He remained master of Nicaragua for nearly two years, levying arbitrary customs on the traffic of the lake, and forming plans for a great military state to be erected on the ruins of Spanish America. One of Walker's first objects was to seize the famous gold-mines of Chontales, and the sudden discovery that the entire sierra of America is a gold-bearing region had a good deal to do with his extraordinary enterprise. Having assured himself of the wealth of the country, he now resolved to keep it for himself, and this proved in the end to be his ruin. The statesmen of the United States, who had at first supposed that he would cede them the territory, now withdrew their support from him: the people of the neighbouring states rose in arms against him, and Walker was obliged to capitulate, with the remains of his filibustering party, at Rivas in 1857. Walker, still claiming to be President of Nicaragua, went to New Orleans, where he collected a second band of filibusters, at the head of whom he again landed near the San Juan river towards the end of the year: this time he was arrested and sent back home by the American commodore. His third and last expedition, in 1860, was directed against Honduras, where he hoped to meet with a good reception at the hands of the Liberal party. Instead of this he fell into the hands of the soldiers of Guardiola, by whom he was tried as a pirate and shot, September 12, 1860."—E. J. Payne, *History of European colonies*, ch. 21, sect. 8.—"Though he never evinced much military or other capacity, Walker, so long as he acted under color of authority from the chiefs of the faction he patronized, was generally successful against the pitiful rabble styled soldiers by whom his progress was resisted. . . . But his very successes proved the ruin of the faction to which he had attached himself, by exciting the natural jealousy and alarm of the natives who mainly composed it; and his assumption . . . of the title of President of Nicaragua, speedily followed by a *decree reëstablishing Slavery* in that country, exposed his purpose and insured his downfall. As if madly bent on ruin, he proceeded to confiscate the steam-boats and other property of the Nicaragua Transit Company, thereby . . . cutting himself off from all hope of further recruiting his forces from the throngs of sanguine or of baffled gold-seekers. . . . Yet he maintained the unequal contest for about two years."—H. Greeley, *American conflicts*, v. 1, ch. 10.—See also CENTRAL AMERICA: 1821-1871.

ALSO IN: J. J. Roche, *Story of the filibusters*, ch. 5-18.

1860-1880.—Mosquito Coast autonomy.—A revolt by the Mosquito Indians against the suzerainty of Great Britain led to the treaty of Managua (January 28, 1860), by which Great Britain transferred to Nicaragua, the suzerainty of the coast from Gracias á Dios to Greytown. A measure of

autonomy was reserved to the Mosquito Indians, who refused to acknowledge the right of Nicaragua to interfere with them. The emperor of Austria was asked to arbitrate, and in 1880 decided in favor of the Indians.

1871-1894.—Struggle for Union. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1871-1885; 1886-1894.

1885.—Case concerning right of asylum. See ASYLUM, RIGHT OF: Right of asylum on merchant ships.

1890.—Represented at first international American congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890.

1894-1905.—Insurrection in Mosquito Indian strip.—Bluefields incident.—Nicaragua Treaty with Great Britain concerning Mosquito Territory.—In his annual message to Congress, December, 1894, President Cleveland referred as follows to disturbances which had occurred during the year at Bluefields, the principal town of the Mosquito district of Nicaragua, and commonly known as "the Bluefields Incident." "The so-called native government, which grew to be largely made up of aliens [after the treaty 1860] for many years disputed the sovereignty of Nicaragua over the strip and claimed the rights to maintain therein a practically independent municipal government. Early in the past year efforts of Nicaragua to maintain sovereignty over the Mosquito territory led to serious disturbances, culminating in the suppression of the native government and the attempted substitution of an impracticable composite administration in which Nicaragua and alien residents were to participate. Failure was followed by an insurrection, which for a time subverted Nicaraguan rule, expelling her officers and restoring the old organization. This in turn gave place to the existing local government established and upheld by Nicaragua. Although the alien interests arrayed against Nicaragua in these transactions have been largely American and the commerce of that region for some time has been and still is chiefly controlled by our citizens, we can not for that reason challenge the rightful sovereignty of Nicaragua over this important part of her domain."—*United States, Message and Documents: Abridgment*, 1894-1895.—In his Message of 1895 the President summarized the later history of the incident as follows: "In last year's message I narrated at some length the jurisdictional questions then freshly arisen in the Mosquito Indian Strip of Nicaragua. Since that time, by the voluntary act [1894] of the Mosquito Nation, the territory reserved to them has been incorporated with Nicaragua, the Indians formally subjecting themselves to be governed by the general laws and regulations of the Republic instead of by their own customs and regulations, and thus availing themselves of a privilege secured to them by the treaty between Nicaragua and Great Britain of January 28, 1860. After this extension of uniform Nicaraguan administration to the Mosquito Strip, the case of the British vice-consul, Hatch, and of several of his countrymen who had been summarily expelled from Nicaragua and treated with considerable indignity, provoked a claim by Great Britain upon Nicaragua for pecuniary indemnity, which, upon Nicaragua's refusal to admit liability, was enforced by Great Britain. While the sovereignty and jurisdiction of Nicaragua was in no way questioned by Great Britain, the former's arbitrary conduct in regard to British subjects furnished the ground for this proceeding. A British naval force occupied without resistance the Pacific seaport of Corinto, but was soon after withdrawn upon the promise that the sum demanded would be paid. Throughout this incident the kindly offices

of the United States were invoked and were employed in favor of as peaceful a settlement and as much consideration and indulgence toward Nicaragua as were consistent with the nature of the case."—*Ibid.*—By a new Treaty of Managua, dated April 19, 1905, Great Britain recognized the agreement made by Nicaragua in 1894, with the Mosquito Indians. The text of the treaty is as follows:

Article 1. The High Contracting Parties agree that the Treaty of Managua of January 28, 1860, is and shall remain abrogated.

Art. II. His Britannic Majesty agrees to recognize the absolute sovereignty of Nicaragua over the territory that constituted the former Mosquito Reserve, as defined in the aforesaid Treaty of Managua.

Art. III. In consideration of the fact that the Mosquito Indians were at one time under the protection of Great Britain, and in view of the interest that His Majesty's Government and the Nicaraguan Government take in their welfare, the Nicaraguan Government agree to grant them the following concessions:—

(a) The Government will submit to the National Assembly a law exempting, for fifty years from the date of the ratification of this Treaty, all the Mosquito Indians and the Creoles born before the year 1894, from military service, and from all direct taxation on their persons, property, possessions, animals, and means of subsistence.

(b) The Government will allow the Indians to live in their villages enjoying the concessions granted by this Convention, and following their own customs, in so far as they are not opposed to the laws of the country and to public morality.

(c) The Nicaraguan Government will concede a further period of two years for them to legalize their rights to the property acquired in conformity with the Regulations in force before 1894 in the Reserve. The Government will make no charge to the said inhabitants either for the lands or the measurement thereof, or for the grant of title deeds. For this purpose the title-deeds in the possession of the said Indians and Creoles before 1894 will be renewed in conformity with the laws, and, in cases where no such title-deeds exist, the Government will give to each family, at their place of residence, eight manzanas of land, if the members of the family do not exceed four in number, and two manzanas for each person if the family exceeds that number.

(d) Public pasture lands will be reserved for the use of the inhabitants in the neighbourhood of each Indian village.

(e) In the event of any Mosquito Indians or Creoles proving that the lands which they held in conformity with the Regulations in force before 1894 have been claimed by and allotted to other persons, the Government will indemnify them by the grant of suitable public lands of approximate value as near as possible to their present residences.

Art. IV. The ex-Chief of the Mosquito Indians, Robert Henry Clarence, will be permitted by the Nicaraguan Government to reside in the Republic of Nicaragua and to enjoy full protection so long as he does not transgress the laws, and provided his acts do not tend to incite the Indians against Nicaragua.

Art. V. The Mosquito Indians, and other inhabitants of the former Reserve, will enjoy the same rights as are secured by the laws of Nicaragua to other Nicaraguan citizens.

1895-1902.—In Central American Union. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1895-1902.

1896-1898.—Revolutionary conflicts.—Vice President Baca of Nicaragua joined a revolutionary

movement which was set on foot in February, 1896, by the Clericals, for the overthrow of President Zelaya, and was declared provisional president. The rebellion had much support from exiles and friends in Honduras; but the government of that state sustained and assisted Zelaya. The insurgents were defeated in a number of battles, and gave up the contest in May. During the civil war American and British marines were landed on occasions at Corinto to protect property there. In 1897, and again in 1898, there were renewed insurrections, quickly suppressed.

1897.—Boundary dispute with Costa Rica. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1897.

1900.—Hay-Pauncefote Treaty. See PANAMA CANAL: 1889-1903.

1901-1906.—Represented at third international congress at Mexico.—Signs treaty of compulsory arbitration. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902: 1906; ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1902.

1902.—Participates in second Pan-American congress.—Treaty of peace with other Central American states. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1902.

1904.—Peace conference of Central American states. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1904.

1904.—Arbitration of boundary dispute with Honduras.—In October, 1904, the United States government was informed that Nicaragua and Honduras had agreed to submit a boundary dispute to the King of Spain.

1905-1911.—Revolution.—Uprising against President Zelaya.—Breaking off of diplomatic relations with the United States.—Fall of Zelaya.—Dawson Agreement.—Zelaya's long régime (three terms, from 1898 to 1906) was comparatively peaceful, but his continuance in power created discontent and his aggressiveness disturbed Central America. "In October, 1909, a band of Nicaraguan Conservatives started a revolution at Bluefields. They won over Juan J. Estrada, the governor of the province of which that city is the capital, by proclaiming him provisional president, and thus secured control of most of the East Coast of the Republic. . . . The uprising was from the first regarded with sympathy throughout Central America and in Washington, for Zelaya's continual encouragement of revolutions in other countries had made him obnoxious to all of his neighbors, and had led to a general belief that his administration was the principal obstacle to the establishment of peace in the Isthmus. The relations between Nicaragua and the United States had been strained for some time, because of the friction caused by Zelaya's violations of the Washington Conventions, and because there had been a number of unpleasant diplomatic incidents. Nevertheless, both the United States and the other Central American countries remained at first ostensibly neutral in the contest. In November [1909], however, the execution by Zelaya's troops of two American soldiers of fortune, who held commissions in the revolutionary army, caused President Taft to break off diplomatic relations with the Liberal administration entirely, and to give the revolution his open, if indirect, support. The attitude of the American government was set forth in a note addressed by Secretary of State Knox to the Nicaraguan Chargé d'Affaires at Washington. 'Since the Washington Conference of 1907,' it stated, 'it is notorious that President Zelaya has almost continuously kept Central America in tension and turmoil.' . . . This note brought about Zelaya's fall, for he realized that he could not hope to maintain himself against open opposition of the

United States. After vainly attempting to come to an understanding with Secretary Knox, the Nicaraguan ruler yielded to the advice of President Diaz of Mexico and to the pleas of his friends at home, and resigned his position to Dr. José Madriz [1909]. . . . President Taft refused to recognize the new executive. The revolutionists also declined his offer to open peace negotiations. For a time, nevertheless, it appeared probable that President Madriz would be able to restore order. On February 22, 1910, a revolutionary army which attempted to invade the lake region was defeated and almost destroyed, and Estrada and the other leaders, with the remnants of their troops, were forced to retire to Bluefields. [The government at once tried to take the city but within a few weeks was forced to withdraw into the interior.] The Liberals in the capital, who had already lost the sympathy of many of Zelaya's former supporters by their wholesale political arrests and their partisan policy, were completely discredited by their failure to take Bluefields, and their government collapsed entirely when Estrada again approached the interior with a reinforced army. There were new outbreaks at several points in the lake region which it was impossible to suppress. . . . The agreement by which the Liberals had turned over the government to the revolutionary leaders had provided for a general amnesty, for a free election to be held within one year, and for the recognition of the debts contracted by both parties during the struggle. Little or no attention was paid to the two former articles, but the debts of both parties,—to members of the revolutionary forces,—were fully recognized, and, in so far as the condition of the treasury permitted, paid. . . . A large sum which had been left in the treasury by Dr. Madriz was soon exhausted, and new issues of unsecured paper money were resorted to. By April, 1911, the government admitted that the already depreciated currency had been further inflated to the extent of 15,000,000 pesos, and in the autumn of the same year 10,000,000 pesos more were secretly put into circulation. . . . The Republic was saved from falling into a condition of complete anarchy only by the assistance rendered to the new government by the United States. In October, 1910, the State Department sent Mr. Thomas C. Dawson to Managua to study the situation. . . . Through his good offices, the so-called Dawson agreement was signed on November 5 by the principal leaders of the revolution. This arrangement provided for the continuance . . . of Estrada at the head of the government, for the appointment of a commission containing American members to pass on all claims against the government arising out of the recent war and out of the cancellation of concessions granted by Zelaya, and for the negotiation of a loan treaty in the United States. A constitutional convention which met on December 31 elected . . . [Juan M. Estrada] provisional president for two years, and Adolfo Diaz vice-president. . . . Estrada's position was by no means an easy one. . . . When the Convention framed a constitution which would have made itself rather than the president the actual authority in the state, Estrada dissolved it. . . . Estrada later attempted to remove from office and imprison General Mena, who had used his control of the army to fill a new constituent assembly with his personal followers. The military leaders remained loyal to their chief, and prepared to secure his release by force. . . . [Estrada] . . . resigned, and Diaz succeeded to the presidency, with the consent of Mena. . . . General Mena had caused the Assembly to elect him President of the

Republic, in October, 1911, for the term beginning January 1, 1913, notwithstanding the protests of the United States Minister and of the Granada Conservatives, who asserted that this action was a violation of the Dawson agreement. The strength of the opposition to this proceeding encouraged President Diaz to attempt to throw off the control of the minister of war."—D. G. Munro, *Five republics of Central America*, pp. 227, 230, 232-234, 242.

1907.—War between Nicaragua, Honduras and Salvador.—Mexican and American mediation.—Washington peace conference.—General treaty of peace and amity.—Central American court of justice. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1907; HONDURAS: 1900-1915.

1909-1911.—United States assumes financial responsibility.—Fourth international American congress.—Political situation. See DOLLAR DIPLOMACY; AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1910; CENTRAL AMERICA: 1911.

1912.—Mena's flight.—Diaz's election.—"On July 29, 1912, he [Diaz] . . . summarily removed [General Mena] . . . from office. . . . Mena fled to Masaya. . . . On September 25, General Mena surrendered at Granada to Admiral Sutherland, the commander of the American forces, and the rebels were confined to their positions at Masaya and Leon. A few days later, Admiral Sutherland ordered Zeledon to evacuate the Barranca Fort. . . . When the Liberal leader refused, American troops stormed and took the position. The war soon afterwards came to an end with the surrender of Leon to another American officer."—D. G. Munro, *Five republics of Central America*, p. 243. —"General Mena was taken to Panama, where he was detained under American surveillance in order to make certain that there would be no fresh attempts on the part of his adherents to foment trouble in Nicaragua. The Presidential elections were held on Nov. 2 [1912], without disorder, and the provisional President Adolfo Diaz, the only candidate before the people, was elected to succeed himself. The American marines were withdrawn from Nicaragua shortly after the elections."—*American Year Book*, 1912, p. 82.—Diaz was inaugurated on January 1, 1913.

Also in: C. I. Jones, *Caribbean interests of the United States*, pp. 22, 176-177.—M. Wilcox, *Encyclopedia of Latin America*, p. 570.—*American History in Nicaragua* (*Nation*, June 7, 1922). —J. K. Turner, *Nicaragua* (*Nation*, May 31, 1922). —J. S. Zelaya, *Revolution of Nicaragua and the United States*.

1912-1913.—New monetary system.—"The new monetary system, with the gold standard, provided for under the act of March 20, 1912, went into effect March 24, 1913. The new unit of value is the gold 'Córdoba,' of the same weight and fineness as the gold dollar of the United States. Paper currency is issued by the National Bank, and the outstanding, Government issues were retired at the rate of 1 córdoba for 12½ of the old pesos or dollars. Suitable provisions have been made for the maintenance of all coins and bank notes at par with gold. The metric system of weights and measures prevails."—*Nicaragua* (*Pan-American Union*, Dec., 1917, pp. 10-12).

Also in: C. W. Donville-Fife, *Guatemala and the states of Central America*, pp. 224

1913.—New constitution.—A new constitution was adopted in 1912, and confirmed and amended in 1913. The legislative power, under the new constitution, which went into effect April 5, 1913, is vested in a Congress composed of two chambers; the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies.

Congress meets annually at Managua, the capital, on the 15th of December, and holds 45 ordinary sessions and may be prolonged for five more. Provision is also made for extraordinary sessions upon call of the Executive. Senators and Deputies are elected directly by the vote of the people, the Departments of the Republic being divided into electoral districts, there being one deputy for each 15,000 inhabitants or fraction above 8,000. One Deputy and one Alternate is elected by each District. Each Department elects one Senator and one Alternate for each two Deputies to which it is entitled. An additional Senator is elected only if the number of Deputies becomes odd. All citizens over the age of 21 are entitled to vote, as are those over 18 years of age who are married, or who can read and write. The Chamber of Deputies is renewed by halves and the Senate by thirds every two years. The Executive Power is vested in the President of the Republic and a Vice-President, who must be native citizens of Nicaragua, over 30 years of age, and who are elected by direct popular vote, for a term of four years, beginning January 1 after their election. . . . The cabinet of five ministers is composed of the Minister of Government, Justice, Police and Charities, Minister of Foreign Relations and Public Instruction, Minister of the Treasury and Public Credit, Minister of the War and Marine, Minister of Fomento (Promotion) and Public Works."—*Latin-American Year Book for 1920*, pp. 521-522.

1913-1916.—**Bryan-Chamorro Treaty with the United States.**—"During the closing days of the Taft administration a new treaty [between the United States and] Nicaragua was signed. In consideration of a payment of three million dollars, to be expended on public works and education, the southern republic agreed to give the United States: (1) an exclusive and perpetual right to construct an inter-oceanic canal across its territory; (2) the right to use the Gulf of Fonseca on the Pacific as a naval base; and (3) substantial control of finances and foreign relations. In short, Nicaragua was to become essentially a protectorate of the United States. The Senate failed to act, and the task of establishing more regular relations between the two countries was inherited by President Wilson. Change of administration brought no change of policy, and on July 20, 1913, the treaty, slightly modified, was resubmitted for ratification. Action failing, the instrument was redrafted and again submitted in 1914. Finally, on February 18, 1916, it was ratified by the Senate, and on April 11 by the Nicaraguan Congress. The United States obtained—in addition to the exclusive canal right, a naval base in Fonseca Bay, and the control of fiscal administration—a ninety-nine-year lease of the Corn Islands, adjacent to the eastern terminus of the Panama waterway, and admirably adapted for a naval base. The new political relations between the two countries were described in terms closely resembling those of the Platt Amendment applying to Cuba; and the right of intervention for the preservation of Nicaraguan independence was clearly asserted."—F. A. Ogg, *National progress*, p. 258.—See also *LATIN AMERICA*: 1913.

ALSO IN: J. B. Moore, *Principles of American Diplomacy*, p. 401.—M. Wilcox, *Encyclopedia of Latin America*, pp. 571-572.

1916-1917.—**Election.**—In October, 1916, Emiliano Chamorro was elected president and inaugurated January 1, 1917, for the term ending December, 1920. The election aroused a good deal of bitter feeling as Chamorro was the candidate who

was believed to be committed to the American financial program.

1917-1920.—**In World War.**—On April 18, 1917, Nicaragua broke relations with Germany and declared war, May 8. At Versailles she was represented as an original member of the League of Nations and on April 5, 1920, ratified the treaty.—See also *LATIN AMERICA*: 1917-1918: Central America in the World War; *PARIS, CONFERENCE OF*: Outline of work; *VERSAILLES, TREATY OF*: Conditions of peace.

1918.—**Boundary dispute with Honduras.**—The decision rendered by the king of Spain regarding the boundary between Nicaragua and Honduras, which was submitted to him in 1904, was unsatisfactory to both countries. Troops were dispatched to the border but the suggestion of the United States that the troops be withdrawn and that the controversy be submitted to the United States for adjustment was accepted.

1921.—**Election.**—On January 1, 1921, Diego Manuel Chamorro, retiring minister to the United States, was inaugurated as president.

1921.—**Central American Union.**—Nicaragua did not enter the Central American Union which was organized in 1921. See *CENTRAL AMERICA*: 1921.

1922.—**Schools and universities.**—In 1922 there were in the country 356 elementary and 10 secondary schools, these latter being neither compulsory nor free, as they are in the hands of private individuals. There were also several state normal schools and three universities, namely the Central University at Managua, the Western and Northern at Leon and the Eastern and Southern at Granada.

1922 (August).—**Border troubles.**—Revolutionary and bandit activity on the border of Nicaragua, Honduras and Salvador led President Chamorro to propose a conference of the three governments with a view to united action to restore order. The presidents of the three countries with their respective ministers of foreign affairs, and the ministers of the United States in these republics met on board the *U. S. S. Tacoma* in the Gulf of Fonseca, on August 19-20, 1922, and drew up and signed a treaty. The general treaty of peace and friendship made in Washington, 1907, was renewed. Each republic undertakes to prevent political emigrants from making armed invasions or disturbing the peace. In case of invasions the government in whose territory it was organized must capture the guilty parties and punish them in accordance with the law. Leaders of all invasions must be expelled if the threatened republic requests the expulsion.—See also *HONDURAS*: 1922; *CENTRAL AMERICA*: 1922 (March-August).

NICATOR, British battleship. In 1916 it was engaged in the battle of Jutland. See *WORLD WAR*: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a, 7.

NICCOLINI, Giovanni Battista (1728-1861), Italian dramatist. See *ITALIAN LITERATURE*: 1710-1890.

NICE, Asia Minor. See *NICÆA*.

NICE, France, capital of the department of Alpes-Maritimes, on the Mediterranean, at the western extremity of the Riviera.

1388.—**Acquired by the House of Savoy.** See *SAVOY AND PIEDMONT*: 11th-15th centuries.

1542.—**Siege by French and the Turks.**—Capture of town.—Successful resistance of citadel. See *FRANCE*: 1532-1547.

1792.—**Annexation to French republic.** See *FRANCE*: 1792 (September-December).

1814.—**Reverted to Sardinia.**

1860.—Cession to France. See ITALY: 1859-1861.

NICE, Treaty of (1538). See FRANCE: 1532-1547.

NICENE CREED.—"The Council of Nicæa (325) adopted the Nicene Creed, which at once became the Eucharistic Symbol throughout the Christian world. [See NICÆA: 325.] It was subsequently enlarged by taking up into itself the Eastern form of the Apostles' Creed, and so superseded it in the East as a baptismal symbol also. This Creed was regarded as a sufficient statement of the Christian Faith by the early Church; and is still so regarded by the Greek and Anglican Churches, if rightly interpreted in accordance with the New Testament and apostolic tradition. But its statements, as those of all human documents, were capable of various other interpretations than the normal ones. Accordingly, when these erroneous interpretations arose in the form of serious heresies, it became necessary for the Church to rule out these heresies and to give the official, historical interpretation of the Apostolic Faith by œcumenical councils assembled for the purpose, in the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh centuries. . . . [The Nicene Creed together with the Apostles' and Athanasian Creeds] as officially interpreted by ancient œcumenical councils, constitute the fundamental Christian Faith. . . . These centuries constituted the heroic age of Christianity, the age of the Fathers of the Church; and therefore the Faith of that age, as expressed in its official Creeds, must always command more respect and authority than the Faith of any other centuries."—C. A. Briggs, *Fundamental Christian faith*, pp. 3-5.—The Creed of Nicæa, 325, reads as follows:

"We believe

In one God the Father Almighty, maker of all things visible and invisible:

And in one Lord Jesus Christ, the Son of God, begotten of the Father, only-begotten, that is, of the substance of the Father, God of God, Light of Light, true God of true God, begotten not made, of one substance with the Father, through whom all things were made, both those in heaven and those on earth; who for us men and for our salvation came down and was made flesh, entered humanity . . . and suffered, and rose the third day, ascended into heaven, is coming to judge the living and the dead:

And in the Holy Spirit."—W. A. Curtis, *History of creeds and confessions of faith*, p. 70.

NICEPHORUS I (d. 811), Roman emperor (Eastern), 802-811. See VENICE: 607-810.

Nicephorus II (c. 912-969), Roman emperor (Eastern), 963-969. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 963-1025.

NICHOLAS I, the Great, pope, 858-867. Engaged in three important struggles: between the eastern and western church; with Lothaire, king of Lorraine, who attempted to divorce his wife; and in the controversy regarding the right of bishops to appeal to Rome over their metropolitans.

Nicholas II, Gerbard, pope, 1058-1061. Continued ecclesiastical reform. See PAPACY: 1056-1122.

Nicholas III, Giovanni Gaetano degli Orsini, pope, 1277-1280. Strengthened papacy by concluding concordat with Rudolph of Hapsburg which guaranteed Romagna and Ravenna to the papacy, 1278; issued constitution for Rome, 1278; repaired Lateran and Vatican. See VATICAN: Ancient Leonine city.

Nicholas IV, Girolamo Masci, pope, 1288-1292. Crowned Charles II king of Naples and Sicily, 1289.

Nicholas V, Tommaso Parentucelli (1398-1455), pope, 1447-1455. Crowned Frederick III, the last emperor to be crowned in St. Peter's, 1452; encouraged art and learning. See ITALY: 1447-1480.

Nicholas V, Pietro Rainalducci, anti-pope, 1328-1330. Consecrated in Rome, 1328, during the pontificate of John XXII at Avignon.

Nicholas I (1796-1855), tsar of Russia, 1825-1855. Founded the Secret Police for reform of civil and military service; carried on unsuccessful war with Turkey, 1828; crushed revolution in Poland, 1830-1831; aided Austria in suppressing insurgent Hungarians, 1849; started war with Turkey in 1853, which resulted in the Crimean War, 1854. See EUROPE: Modern: Russian in the 19th century; Wars of the Great Powers (1848-1878); RUSSIA: 1825; 1825-1885; 1853-1854.

Nicholas II (1868-1918), tsar of Russia, 1904-1917. Forced to abdicate and arrested, 1917; entire royal family killed at Ekaterinburg, July 16, 1918. See RUSSIA: 1894; 1896 (May-June); 1904-1905 (October); 1914 (August); 1916: Opposition of Duma to cabinet; 1917 (March 8th-15th); 1918 (July); ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern period: 1898-1899; EUROPE: Modern: Russia in the 19th century; FINLAND: 1905; 1908-1909; WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 5; 1917: III. Russia and the eastern front: h.

Nicholas (Nikolai Nikolayevich) Grand Duke (1856-), Russian general. On general staff in war with Turkey, 1877-1878; president of the Council of National Defense, 1905-1908; in supreme command of the Russian armies, 1914; governor-general of the Caucasus, 1915. See RUSSIA: 1916: Opposition of Duma to cabinet; WORLD WAR: II. Eastern front: d, 2; 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 5; 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 1; 1916: VI Turkish theater: d, 5.

NICHOLAS OF CUSA, or Cues (1401-1464), French cardinal and philosopher. Archdeacon of Liège; leader of reform movement in the church; maintained the theory of the rotation of the earth. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: 1300-1600.

NICHOLLS, Francis Tillon (1834-1912), governor of Louisiana, 1877-1880, 1888-1892. See LOUISIANA: 1878-1900.

NICHOLS, Robert Malise Bowyer (1803-), English poet. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1914-1922.

NICHOLSON, Sir Francis (1600-1728), British colonial governor. Lieutenant governor of Virginia, 1690-1694; governor of Maryland, 1694-1698; of Virginia, 1698-1705; of Acadia, 1713-1717; of South Carolina, 1710-1725. See VIRGINIA: 1684-1690; NEW YORK: 1680-1691.

NICHOLSON, William (1816-1865), Australian statesman. See AUSTRALIAN BALLOT: Origin.

NICHOLSON'S NEK, Battle of. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1800 (October-December).

NICIAS (d. 414 B. C.), Athenian general. Chief leader of the aristocratic faction in the Peloponnesian War; conducted unsuccessful expedition against Syracuse, 415-413 B. C. See SYRACUSE: B. C. 415-413; GREECE: B. C. 424-421.

NICIAS, Peace of (421 B. C.). See GREECE: B. C. 424-421.

NICKAJACK, proposed state to have been formed by seceding counties of northern Alabama and eastern Tennessee. See ALABAMA: 1801.

NICKEL PLATE-LEHIGH VALLEY RAILWAY: Plan for consolidation. See RAILROADS: 1921: Twenty rail systems proposed.

NICOLAIEVSKY RAILROAD: Construction in Russia. See RAILROADS: 1837-1908.

NICOLAITANES, ancient religious sect in Asia Minor. See CAINITES.

NICOLE, Pierre (1625-1695), French Jansenist. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: Jansenist schools.

NICOLET, Jean, French explorer. Came to America with Champlain, 1618; explored the Great Lakes and the region around Wisconsin, 1634-1635. See CANADA: 1634-1637.

NICOLLS, Richard (1624-1672), British soldier and colonial governor. Captured New Amsterdam from the Dutch, 1664; governor of New York and New Jersey, 1664-1668. See NEW YORK: 1664.

NICOLSBURG, Peace of. See GERMANY: 1886.

NICHOLSON, Arthur, Baron Carnock (1840-); British diplomatist. Chargé d'affaires in Persia, 1885-1888; consul-general in Budapest, 1888-1893; minister in Morocco, 1895-1904; ambassador to Russia, 1905-1910.

NICOMEDIA, capital of ancient Bithynia, Asia Minor, on the Gulf of Astacus. It was founded in 264 B. C.

258.—Capture by Goths. See GOths: 258-267.
292-305.—Court of Diocletian.—“To rival the majesty of Rome was the ambition . . . of Diocletian, who employed his leisure, and the wealth of the east, in the embellishment of Nicomedia, a city placed on the verge of Europe and Asia, almost at an equal distance between the Danube and the Euphrates. By the the taste of the monarch, and at the expense of the people, Nicomedia acquired, in the space of a few years, a degree of magnificence which might appear to have required the labour of ages, and became inferior only to Rome, Alexandria, and Antioch, in extent of populousness. . . . Till Diocletian, in the twentieth year of his reign, celebrated his Roman triumph, it is extremely doubtful whether he ever visited the ancient capital of the empire.”—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 13. See ROME: Empire: 284-305.

303-305.—Persecution of Christians. See ROME: Empire: 303-305.

1326.—Capture by Turks. See TURKEY: 1326-1395.

NICOPOLIS, ancient city in the southern part of Epirus, Greece. “Augustus gave this name to a city which he founded, 31 B. C., in commemoration of the victory of Actium, on the site of the camp which his army occupied.”—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 28.

NICOPOLIS, city in Cappadocia. “The decisive battle in which Pompeius defeated Mithridates and ended the long Mithradatic wars was fought, 66 B. C., in Lesser Armenia, at a place near which Pompeius founded a city called Nicopolis, the site of which is uncertain.”—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 3, ch. 8.

Battle of (48 B. C.). See ROME: Republic: B. C. 47-46.

NICOPOLIS, ancient city in Bulgaria, north of Tirnova, founded by Trajan.

Battle of (1306). See HUNGARY: 1301-1442; TURKEY: 1389-1403.

NICOSIA, capitol of Cyprus. It was sacked by the Turks in 1570. In 1921 the population numbered 18,461. See TURKEY: 1566-1571.

NICUESIA, Diego de (1465-c. 1511), Spanish soldier. Empowered by King Ferdinand to conquer and govern Castilla del Oro (modern Panama and part of Central America) 1508. See AMERICA: 1509-1511; COLOMBIA: 1499-1536.

NIEBUHR, Barthold Georg (1776-1831), German historian. See HISTORY: 26.

NIEDERSCHÖNFELD, Convention of. See AUSTRIA: 1743.

NIEMEN, river rising in Poland and flowing into the Baltic sea. Since 1919 it has formed the northern boundary of East Prussia. Its lower course is called the Memel. During the World War it was the scene of severe fighting between the Russians and Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: h; i; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part XII: Section II: Chapter III.

NIEPCE, Joseph Nicéphore (1765-1833), French inventor. Associated with Daguerre in the invention of photography. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Photography.

NIEPPE, town in northwestern France, about twelve miles northwest of Lille. It was a scene of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: d, 9.

NIETZSCHE, Friedrich Wilhelm (1844-1900), German philosopher. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1798-1896; ETHICS: 18th-19th centuries; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: h, 2.

NIEUPORT, town in northwestern Belgium, on the Yser river, about twenty-one miles southwest of Bruges. From 1594 to 1609 it was the scene of fighting between the Dutch and Spanish. During the World War it was held by the Allies after prolonged fighting. See NETHERLANDS: 1594-1609; WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: u, 6; v, 1.

NIFFER, city on the site of ancient Nippur, capitol of Babylonia. Archaeological explorations here have yielded important results. See BABYLONIA: First Babylonian empire.

NIGER, third largest river in Africa. It flows from the French Sudan through Niagara into the Atlantic ocean. See AFRICA: Geographic description.

NIGER COAST PROTECTORATE, Formation of. See NIGERIA, PROTECTORATE OF: 1882-1899.

NIGERIA, Protectorate of: Geographical description.—Population.—Trade and industry.—Nigeria, which lies in northwest Africa, comprises the basin of the lower Niger, and its affluents, including the Benue. Roughly speaking its coast line is along the shore of the Bight of Benin and the northern shore of the Bight of Biafra. From Rio del Rey it runs east and north to the western shore of Lake Chad and the French possessions, by which it is bounded on the west and north. The coast lands are low and swampy, and as the rainfall is exceedingly heavy, and the climate uniformly hot, this part of the country is very unhealthful for Europeans. Northern Nigeria, north of the Benue, is more hilly, and more temperate in climate. In fact, around Lake Chad, frosts are known in January and February. “Nigeria is not properly a name. . . . It is only an English expression which has been made to comprehend a number of native states covering about 500,000 square miles of territory in that part of the world which we call the Western Soudan. Ancient geographers called the same section of Africa sometimes Soudan, sometimes Ethiopia, sometimes Nigritia, sometimes Tekroun, sometimes and more often Genawah or Genowah—which, by the European custom of throwing the accent to the fore part of the word, has become Guinea; sometimes they called it simply Negro-land. Always, and in every form, their name for it meant the Land of the Blacks.”—F. L. Shaw (Lady Lugard), *Tropical dependency*, p. 7.—See also AFRICA: Map.—The British protectorate was declared over the region now known as Nigeria on January 1, 1900, after the charter of the United African company had been revoked (1899); when the territory first came under the control of the crown, it was divided into two protectorates, Northern and Southern Nigeria; which were aft-

wards united under one administration. "The area of 'Northern Nigeria' was about 255,700 square miles, that of 'Southern Nigeria,' including the colony, being about 76,700 square miles. [See BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.] The former consisted for the most part either of open prairie and cultivation, or was covered by sparse and low forest of the deciduous 'dry zone' type. The central portion—Zaria and Bauchi—forms a plateau varying from 2,000 to 4,500 feet in altitude, with a bracing climate. The dry desert wind—the 'Hamattan'—which prevails in the winter months causes the temperature to fall rapidly when the hot sun goes down, so that the nights, especially on the plateau, are often very cold. The rainfall is small, decreasing towards the confines of the Sahara, which forms the northern boundary. Southern Nigeria, on the other hand, is situated in the zone of equatorial rainfall. A great part of the country is, or was till recently [written in 1919], covered by primeval forest. It is low-lying with the exception of the water-parting, which traverses it from East to West, and divides the watershed of the Niger and Benue to the North from that towards the sea in the South. The southern portion is interested by a network of salt-water creeks, bordered by mangrove-swamp or vegetation so dense that it forms almost a wall of giant trees and undergrowth interlaced with creepers. . . . The population of the North—described 60 years ago by Barth as the densest in all Africa—had by 1900 dwindled to some 9 millions, owing to inter-tribal war, and, above all, to the slave raids of the Fulani. But these dreaded horsemen could not penetrate the forests of the South, where a population estimated at 7¾ millions (probably an over-estimate) found refuge. [The total population at the end of 1921 was about 18,500,000.] These tribes are of purer negro stock than the Hausas and other negroids of the North. Though in the more open areas they show themselves to be admirable agriculturists, many of the delta tribes live in a semi-aquatic life in their canoes, fishing and collecting the abundant sylvan produce (especially of the oil palm), both for their own sustenance and for trade with the middlemen who carry it to the coast merchants. From a very early date the influence of Islam had made itself felt in the North, and the religious revival of the early years of the nineteenth century had formed the motive for the Fulani conquests, which swept the country from Sokoto in the northwest to Yola, 1,000 miles to the East, and from the Sahara to the confines of the Equatorial Belt. The social and religious organization of the Koran supplemented, and combined with, the pre-existing, and probably advanced, form of tribal administration handed down from the powerful Songhay Empire, which had extended from Chad to Timbuktu. The courts were served by judges erudite in Moslem law and fearless in its impartial application. The system of taxation was highly developed, and the form of Administration highly centralized. . . . The exports consist of raw materials, the principal of which are oil and oil seeds, hides, skins, cotton, cocoa, rubber and tinore. The imports are manufactured goods, textiles, hardware, etc., with salt and kerosene. Formerly the largest import consisted of trade gin for sale to the natives. . . . Nigeria has an enormous wealth and variety of products, a large and fairly industrious population, good communications by water and by railway, and the conditions of life and health are not worse than those of other tropical countries, and have rapidly improved."—F. D. Lugard, *Report on the amalgamation of*

Northern and Southern Nigeria, and administration, 1912-1919, pp. 5-8, 29.

1882-1899.—History of formation of Niger Coast Protectorate.—Conventions of Great Britain with Germany and France.—Settlement of boundary of French Sudan and Sahara sphere.—The following "Notes on the Niger Districts and Niger Coast Protectorates, 1882-1893," tracing the several steps by which the existing protectorate was formed, appear in a paper "presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty, 1899 (C.—9372)": "In 1882 a Company, entitled the 'National African Company, Limited,' was formed to take over the business of the 'United Africa Company, Limited,' in Central Africa and in the Niger Regions. In October, 1884, the Company purchased the business and objects of the 'Compagnie Française de l'Afrique Equatoriale.' In the same year various treaties were concluded between Consul Hewett and native chiefs of the Niger Districts, by which these territories were placed under British protection. On the 26th February, 1885, the General Act of the Berlin Conference was signed, Chapter V. of which contained an 'Act of Navigation for the Niger,' which applied, generally, to the Niger and its affluents the free navigation articles of the Final Act of the Congress of Vienna of 1815. In April-June, 1885, the British and German Governments entered into an Agreement, by an exchange of Notes, defining their respective spheres of action in the Gulf of Guinea. . . . On the 5th June, 1885, a Notification was inserted in the 'London Gazette' to the effect that a British Protectorate had been established over the Niger Districts; the territories comprised within the protectorate were defined. . . . On the 10th July, 1886, a Royal Charter was granted to the 'National African Company, Limited.' In July-August, 1886, a Supplementary Agreement was entered into between the British and German Governments defining their respective spheres of action in the Gulf of Guinea from the Rio del Rey to a point to the east and near to Yola. On the 18th October, 1887, another Notification was inserted in the 'London Gazette,' in which it was stated that the British Protectorate of the Niger Districts then comprised the following territories:—On the line of coast between the British Protectorate of Lagos and the right or western river bank of the mouth of the Rio del Rey, and all territories in the basin of the Niger and its affluents, which were or might be for the time being subject to the government of the 'National African Company, Limited' (then called the 'Royal Niger Company'), in accordance with the provisions of the charter of the said Company, dated 10th July, 1886. On the 5th August, 1890, a Declaration was signed by the British and French Governments, which contained the following clause:—"The Government of Her Britannic Majesty recognises the sphere of influence of France to the south of her Mediterranean Possessions up to a line from Say on the Niger to Barrawa on Lake Tchad, drawn in such manner as to comprise in the sphere of action of the Niger Company all that fairly belongs to the kingdom of Sokoto; the line to be determined by Commissioners to be appointed." On the 1st July, 1890, another Agreement was entered into between the British and German Governments defining their spheres of influence in the Gulf of Guinea and in other parts of Africa. On the 18th June, 1892, that portion of the Niger Protectorate which lies on, or to the north of, the 7 degree of north latitude was, by notification to the Signatory Powers of the Brussels Act, placed

under the terms of Art. 91 of that Act, within the zone of prohibition of alcoholic liquors. On the 14th April, 1893, an agreement was signed between the British and German Governments, in which it was declared that the right bank of the Rio del Rey waterway should be the boundary between the Oil Rivers Protectorate and the Colony of the Cameroons. On the 13th May, 1893, a Notification was inserted in the 'London Gazette,' announcing that the portion of the British Protectorate of the Niger Districts which was under the administration of Her Majesty's Commissioner and Consul would, from the date of that Notification, be administered under the name of the 'Niger Coast Protectorate,' and would cease to be known as the 'Oil Rivers Protectorate.' And on the 15th November, 1893, a further Agreement was signed between the British and German Governments defining the boundary between their respective spheres of influence in the region extending from the Rio del Rey to 'a point to the east of, and close to Yola,' and on Lake Chad. Between 1884 and 1893 numerous Treaties were concluded by the National Africa Company and by the Royal Niger Company with native Chiefs and others possessing territories in the basin of the Niger districts, by which they engaged to make no cession of territory or to enter into any Treaty negotiations with Foreign States without the previous consent of the British Government, and in return for which they were placed under British protection."—Great Britain, *Parliamentary Publications (Papers by command, C.—9372)*.—In October, 1897, after a number of threatening collisions between English and French claims and undertakings had occurred in the Niger region, representatives of the two nations met in Paris to negotiate an agreement concerning boundaries. The result of their work was embodied in a convention signed June 14, 1898, but not ratified by both governments until June 13, 1899. By this agreement, the frontiers separating the British colony of the Gold coast from the French colonies of the Ivory coast and Sudan, and the British colony of Lagos from the French colony of Dahomey, were defined with precision, and the British and French possessions east of the Niger were then in the fourth article of the Convention, delimited as follows: Starting from a point on the left bank of the Niger which is fixed by the median line of the Dallul Mauri at its mouth, "the frontier shall follow this median line until it meets the circumference of a circle drawn from the centre of the town of Sokoto with a radius of 100 miles (160 932 metres). From this point it shall follow the northern arc of this circle as far as its second intersection with the 14th parallel of north latitude. From this second point of intersection it shall follow this parallel eastward for a distance of 70 miles (112 652 metres); then proceed due south until it reaches the parallel of 13° 20' north latitude, then eastward along this parallel for a distance of 250 miles (402 230 metres); then due north until it regains the 14th parallel of north latitude; then eastwards along this parallel as far as its intersection with the meridian passing 35° east of the centre of the town of Kuka, and thence this meridian southward until its intersection with the southern shore of Lake Chad. The Government of the French Republic recognizes, as falling within the British sphere, the territory to the east of the Niger, comprised within the above-mentioned line, the Anglo-German frontier, and the sea. The Government of Her Britannic Majesty recognizes, as falling within the French sphere, the northern, eastern, and southern shores

of Lake Chad, which are comprised between the point of intersection of the 14th degree of north latitude, with the western shore of the lake and the point of incidence on the shore of the lake of the frontier determined by the Franco-German Convention of the 15th March, 1894." On March 21st, 1899, the following Declaration was added to the Convention, and ratified with it in the following June: "The fourth Article of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, shall be completed by the following provisions, which shall be considered as forming an integral part of it:—

"1. Her Britannic Majesty's Government engages not to acquire either territory or political influence to the west of the line of frontier defined in the following paragraph, and the Government of the French Republic engages not to acquire either territory or political influence to the east of the same line.

"2. The line of frontier shall start from the point where the boundary between the Congo Free State and French territory meets the water-parting between the watershed of the Nile and that of the Congo and its affluents. It shall follow in principle that water-parting up to its intersection with the 11th parallel of north latitude. From this point it shall be drawn as far as the 15th parallel in such manner as to separate, in principle, the Kingdom of Wadai from what constituted in 1882 the Province of Darfur; but it shall in no case be so drawn as to pass to the west beyond the 21st degree of longitude east of Greenwich (18° 40' east of Paris), or to the east beyond the 23rd degree of longitude east of Greenwich (20° 40' east of Paris).

"3. It is understood, in principle, that to the north of the 15th parallel the French zone shall be limited to the northeast and east by a line which shall start from the point of intersection of the Tropic of Cancer with the 16th degree of longitude east of Greenwich (13° 40' east of Paris), shall run thence to the south-east until it meets the 24th degree of longitude east of Greenwich (21° 40' east of Paris), and shall then follow the 24th degree until it meets, to the north of the 15th parallel of latitude, the frontier of Darfur as it shall eventually be fixed.

"4. The two Governments engage to appoint Commissioners who shall be charged to delimit on the spot a frontier-line in accordance with the indications given in paragraph 2 of this Declaration. The result of their work shall be submitted for the approbation of their respective Governments.

"It is agreed that the provisions of Article IX of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, shall apply equally to the territories situated to the south of the 14° 20' parallel of north latitude, and to the north of the 5th parallel of north latitude, between the 14° 20' meridian of longitude east of Greenwich (12th degree east of Paris) and the course of the Upper Nile."—Great Britain *Parliamentary Publications (Papers by command: Treaty series, no. 15, 1899)*.

1897.—**Massacre of British officials near Benin.**—Capture of Benin.—An unarmed expedition from the Niger Coast Protectorate, going, in January, on a peaceful mission to the king of Benin, led by acting consul-general Phillips, was attacked on the way and the whole party massacred excepting two, who were wounded, but who hid themselves in the bush and contrived to make their way back. The consul-general had been warned that the king would not allow the mission to enter Benin, but persisted in going on. A "punitive expedition" was sent against Benin the

following month, and the town was reached and taken on the 18th, but the king had escaped.

1901-1913.—Subjugation of North Nigeria—Kano expedition.—Anglo-French Agreement of 1904.—Completion of Kano railway.—In 1901 it was apparent "that the unrest and troubles of northern Nigeria could not be dissipated, nor peace, security, and prosperity permanently established, until the northern states had been brought fully under the supervision of the Government of Great Britain. The paramount overlord of the region was the Sultan of Sokoto. His authority was recognized throughout all the Hausa states and in the districts beyond, while the Emirs paid him tribute and were selected by him for their offices from the members of the ruling families, exercising their authority independently, however, in all local matters. Accordingly, Sir Frederick [Lugard] tried . . . to establish friendly relations with this renowned sovereign and his chief associate, the Emir of Kano, but without success. No reply was vouchsafed to the messages of the High Commissioner until May, 1902, when a letter of defiance was brought to his hand from the haughty ruler of Sokoto. Matters dragged along without change until the end of the year, when the approaching mission of the Anglo-French Delimitation Commission to mark the boundaries necessitated steps being taken immediately for its protection. On January 29, 1903, an expedition comprising some twenty-four British officers and seven hundred West African Frontier troops set out from Zaria for Kano and Sokoto. Considerable resistance was expected at the former town, since it was defended by a strong wall and moat. But the Emir, Aliyu, with two thousand horsemen, happened to be absent in Sokoto at the moment; and the place was easily and quickly taken. . . . After leaving a Resident and garrison in Kano and receiving the submission of the Emir of Katsena in the northern part of the province, the column advanced toward Sokoto. *En route* it met and defeated the forces of the returning Emir of Kano, and finally forced an entrance into the capital triumphantly without encountering serious resistance. The Sultan, Attahiru, fled and was deposed, a new Sarikin or king being nominated by the High Commissioner, after an assembly of the chiefs and elders had agreed unanimously upon the best candidate. Sir Frederick Lugard took advantage of the occasion to explain the changed situation to the native rulers and people and to outline the main features of the future British policy. He had come, he declared, to settle the country and to give it peace. Since the Sultan of Sokoto and a number of the Emirs, in whose name the treaties had been signed, had broken the Niger Company treaties, declared war on the British, and finally been beaten, the old treaties were dead and the sovereignty of the country, taken over by the Fulani through right of conquest, now passed to the British. . . . Before peace and security could be permanently established, however, one more military expedition was necessary. The ex-Sultan of Sokoto, the ex-Emirs of Kano and Bida, the Magaji of Keffi, and other dissatisfied leaders had collected a large following to dispute the control of the country with the British. After some maneuvering they were driven eastward to Burmi by the English forces, where with the assistance of a new Mahdi—son of the old Mallam Jibrella—they successfully repulsed their pursuers. The troops of the High Commissioner withdrew to Bauchi temporarily; but, being soon reinforced by a new expedition from Lokoja returned and stormed the town of

Burmi on July 27, 1903. It cost the British their commander and some eighty men; but the ex-Sultan, the Magaji, and most of the rebellious chieftains were slain in the conflict, and their following completely dispersed. With this victory, the pacification of northern Nigeria was practically complete." (See BORNU.) The Anglo-French Agreement of 1904 compounded the rivalry with France, and the territories left to the British had to be pacified. Germans and British subdued the resistance of remote tribes on the Anglo-German frontier and the British and French crushed those in the north who resisted European penetration. Resistance on the part of the Africans was hopeless, when the Europeans came to an understanding between themselves. "Only one serious outbreak, that of 1906, has occurred since then. . . . The main caravan routes were, meanwhile, improved and kept open, a transport department organized, and a wagon road built from Zonggeru to Zaria and Kano in 1904 and 1905. As early as 1900, Sir Frederick Lugard had asked for a railway; but it was not till 1907 that the Secretary of State . . . authorized the construction of a line 350 miles long from Baro on the Middle Niger to Kano. This has since been completed, . . . 928 miles in all. It is now [1911] possible to travel direct from the coast to the great mart of Kano—not far from the northern limits of northern Nigeria."—N. D. Harris, *Intervention and colonization in Africa*, pp. 140-152.

1914.—Amalgamation of Southern and Northern Nigeria.—In 1906 "southern Nigeria and Lagos became one administration under the title of the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria. . . . The North, largely dependent on the annual grant from the Imperial Government, was barely able to balance its budget with the most parsimonious economy, and was starved of the necessary staff, and unable to find funds to house its officers properly. Its energies were concentrated upon the development of the Native Administration and the revenue resulting from direct taxation. Its distance from the coast (250 miles) rendered the expansion of trade difficult. Thus the anomaly was presented of a country with an aggregate revenue practically equal to its needs, but divided into two by an arbitrary line of latitude. One portion was dependent on a grant paid by the British taxpayer, which in the year before Amalgamation stood at £130,000, and had averaged £314,500 for the 11 years ending March, 1912. On January 1st, 1914, the former Governments of Southern and Northern Nigeria were formally amalgamated with some fitting ceremonial. After the oaths of office had been taken at each capital—Lagos and Zonggeru—by the Governor-General, the Lieutenant-Governors, and the Chief Justice, etc., a Durbar was held on the great plain at Kano, which was attended by all the chief Moslem rulers from Sokoto to Chad, who met for the first time in common friendship to swear allegiance to His Majesty, and by representatives of the principal Pagan tribes. It was estimated that not fewer than 30,000 horsemen took part in the picturesque display."—F. D. Lugard, *Report on the amalgamation of Northern and Southern Nigeria, and administration, 1912-1910*, pp. 7-8.—"Sir Frederick Lugard became the first Governor-General of Nigeria, with A. G. Boyle as Lieutenant-Governor of the South and C. L. Temple, Lieutenant-Governor of the North, assisted by nominated Executives and General Councils. The composition of the latter is unusual. It contains, besides the Governor-General and members of the Executive Council, one member from each of the

Chambers of Commerce of Lagos and Calabar, one from the Chamber of Mines, four Europeans representing the commercial, shipping, mining, and banking interests of the country, and six natives."—N. D. Harris, *Intervention and colonization in Africa*, p. 158.

1914.—Public treasury.—Education.—Charles Temple, when acting governor, "completed the organization of the Beit-el-Mal, or provincial public treasury. One half of the total annual revenue of each province goes directly to the Nigerian Government and one fourth to the native Beit-el-Mal for salaries and public works. The remainder is distributed among the district, sub-district, and village officials in the proportion of two-fifths, and one-fifth. The Emirs receive a fixed annual sum commensurate with their position and the wealth of their states; and the other public expenditures are regulated by the Residents, the Waziri, for example, usually getting £1000. The payment of fixed salaries in this way has had the most beneficial effects, particularly in the courts, where much bribery existed on account of the low and uncertain income of the judges. . . . Elementary and technical schools, and an institution for the training of teachers, and the sons of chiefs, are . . . in operation near Kano. . . . Every scholar pays his way and is instructed in his own religion, African geography, agriculture, institutions, and in the elements of education. All the work is in the Hausa language and along practical lines, so that the youth may be kept constantly in touch and in sympathy with his own land and people."—N. D. Harris, *Intervention and colonization in Africa*, p. 156.

1914-1919.—Effect of World War on trade.—Abolition of slavery.—"The year 1914 opened . . . with prospects of great development and prosperity. This was arrested by the outbreak of war, but before the War ended, . . . a great recovery took place, and (as the Niger Company reports to its shareholders) a 'very promising trade with America' developed. . . . Soon after the outbreak of war all Germans were deported, their stocks, and later their immovable properties, were sold by a Receiver acting under the orders of the Supreme Court. . . . The conditions, as in other Colonies, imposed no restriction on sale to Allies or Neutrals. This gave rise to considerable controversy in Parliament. The estates realised very large sums, and were, I think, in all cases secured by British purchasers, to whom fell the entire trade hitherto carried on by the Germans. The enormous prices paid for these properties was believed to have resulted in giving a fictitious value to land at Lagos. The disturbing effect of the War differed in the early and later periods. They were caused in the first year by the Cameroon Campaign, in which Nigeria bore a large part; by local outbreaks among the primitive tribes caused by rumours that the British were about to leave Nigeria—rumours traced in some cases to German agency, in others due to the withdrawal of Political Officers and troops for the Cameroon Campaign or lent to the Imperial Government; and finally by the action of the British Banks which refused credits, and by the sudden disappearance of the German firms. In the later years of the War, the demand for oleaginous produce and the opening of the American market for hides, skins and other produce went far to reestablish trade, and the chief disturbing elements were the shortage—and even more the uncertainty—of shipping, the high ocean freights and the diminution and high prices of all imports. . . . In 1900 when the Administration of Northern Nigeria reverted from

the Chartered Company to the Crown, large armies led by Fulani chiefs annually raided for slaves, and had depopulated the country. With the conquest of the Moslem States, . . . [organized annual raids for slaves] were put an end to. By the abolition of the 'Legal Status' of slavery, a slave had power to assert his freedom. It was not, however, illegal to possess a slave, but the status was a voluntary one. All children born after March 31st, 1901, were free at birth. The sudden abolition of the institution of domestic slavery would have produced social chaos, and the wholesale assertion of their freedom by slaves was therefore discouraged. A slave freed by redemption was in native opinion and in his own eyes, truly a freeman, while one who was arbitrarily emancipated by Government (unless for good cause), or who asserted his freedom by desertion, was not. Redemption with the coöperation of the native courts was encouraged. . . . It may be said that to-day [1919] there are no slaves in the Moslem States who are not well aware that they can assert their freedom if they choose, that the native courts deal liberally and impartially with all cases, and that the masters not only acquiesce, but increasingly recognise the advantages of free labour, while all persons under 18 years of age are free-born. . . . The number thus liberated in the Northern Provinces increases steadily each year, and exceeded 55,000 at the end of 1917—with 7,212 in that year. Residents report that even as regards those who voluntarily remain, the old relation of master and slave is practically dead and is replaced by that of master and servant. The traffic in children, especially in the Benue regions, has been suppressed with difficulty and recrudescence from time to time. The example set by Government of prompt payment to the individual labourer (and not through the intermediary of a chief), the introduction of currency, and the unwearied counsel of the political staff, have all contributed to the formation of a free labour market. The former slave owners are appreciating the advantage of being relieved of the responsibility of maintaining their slaves, and the many other disadvantages of the system of slave-labour, since they can now enforce their contracts in the courts. Hired labour is now largely employed by them. In the Southern Provinces the new Slavery Ordinance decreed the emancipation of all persons 'heretofore or hereafter born in or brought into' the country, a decree of emancipation justified by the successive enactments against slavery in past years, and by the fact that Moslem law, which recognises the institution, is not applicable in any part of the Southern Provinces."—F. D. Lugard, *Report on the amalgamation of Northern and Southern Nigeria, and administration, 1912-1919*, pp. 30, 43-44.

ALSO IN: *Reports in the Blue Book of Nigeria (1914-1920)*.—C. Lucas, *Partition and colonization of Africa*, ch. 9.—E. D. Morel, *Nigeria, its people and its problems*, ch. 1-2.—E. Sanderson, *Great Britain in modern Africa*.

NIGHT RIDERS, organization within the tobacco farmers' union of Kentucky. See KENTUCKY: 1905-1900.

NIGHT SCHOOLS. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Evening schools; General education: Canada; France.

NIGHTINGALE, Florence (1820-1910). English hospital administrator and founder of the nursing system. Went to the front as nurse at the outbreak of the Crimean War, 1854; organized nursing departments at Scutari and Balaklava; with a testimonial fund of £50,000, founded the

Nightingale Home at St. Thomas' hospital, London, 1860.

See RED CROSS: Character and aim; RUSSIA: 1854-1856; YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1854-1905.

ALSO IN: E. T. Cook, *Life of Florence Nightingale*.—A. Matheson, *Florence Nightingale, a biography*.

NIGRITA. See SUDAN.

NIHILISM.—"The reign of Nicholas I was an epoch of hard oppression. . . . It was under his sceptre, under his systematic oppression, that, by confession of the great revolutionary statesmen Herzen, Russian thought developed as never before."—E. P. Bazan, *Russia, its people and its literature*, bk. 2, ch. 1-2.—"The genuine Nihilism was a philosophical and literary movement, which flourished in the first decade after the Emancipation of the Serfs, that is to say, between 1860 and 1870. It is now [1883] absolutely extinct, and only a few traces are left of it, which are rapidly disappearing. . . . Nihilism was a struggle for the emancipation of intelligence from every kind of dependence, and it advanced side by side with that for the emancipation of the labouring classes from serfdom. The fundamental principle of Nihilism, properly so-called, was absolute individualism. It was the negation, in the name of individual liberty, of all the obligations imposed upon the individual by society, by family life, and by religion. Nihilism was a passionate and powerful reaction, not against political despotism, but against the moral despotism that weighs upon the private and inner life of the individual. But it must be confessed that our predecessors, at least in the earlier days, introduced into this highly pacific struggle the same spirit of rebellion and almost the same fanaticism that characterises the present movement."—Stepniak, *Underground Russia*.—See also EUROPE: Modern period; Russia in the 19th century; RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1855-1889.

ALSO IN: L. Tikhomirov, *Russia, political and social*, v. 2, bk. 6-7.—E. Noble, *Russian revolt*.—A. Leroy-Beaulieu, *Empire of the tsars*, pt. 1, bk. 3, ch. 4.

NIHONGI, Japanese chronicles collected and written in 720. See JAPANESE LITERATURE: 712-760.

NIHAU, one of the islands of the Hawaiian group, in the Pacific ocean. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Geographical description.

NIJNI-NOVGOROD. See NIZHNI-NOVGOROD.

NIKA SEDITION, riot which broke out in Constantinople in 532 between the blue and green circus factions. See CIRCUS.

NIKARIA, island in the Ægæan sea, near Samos. Greece was given control over it in 1920. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Contents of treaty: Part III: Political clauses: Greece.

NIKE APTEROS, or Wingless Victory, Temple of. See ARCHITECTURE: Classic: Greek.

NIKIAS. See NICHAS.

NIKKO, Temple of, in Japan. See TEMPLES: Ancient examples.

NIKLASBURG, Peace of (1622). See GERMANY: 1621-1623.

NIKLI, Treaties of (1205, 1308). See ATHENS: 1205-1308.

NILE, longest river in Africa and second longest in the world. It is formed by several head streams which flow into Lake Victoria Nyanza, and empties by a wide delta into the Mediterranean. Its length is about 3670 miles. See AFRICA: Geographic description; EGYPT: Position and nature of the country.

Exploration of sources. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1768-1773, and after.

Barrage and reservoir works. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: EGYPT: 1921-1922; EGYPT: 1884-1891; 1898-1901; 1900-1912.

Battle of the Nile (1798). See ABOUKIR; FRANCE: 1798 (May-August).

NIMEGUEN, or Nimwegen, city in western Holland, on the Waal, four miles from the German frontier. In ancient times it was the Roman Noviomagus, capitol of the Batavi. See BATAVIANS.

1591.—Siege and capture by Prince Maurice. See NETHERLANDS: 1588-1593.

NIMEGUEN, Peace of (1678-1679).—The war which Louis XIV began in 1672 by attacking Holland, with the coöperation of his English pensioner, Charles II, and which roused against him a defensive coalition of Spain, Germany and Denmark with the Dutch (see NETHERLANDS: 1672-1674, 1674-1678), was ended by a series of treaties negotiated at Nimeguen in 1678 and 1679. The first of these treaties, signed August 10, 1678, was between France and Holland. "France and Holland kept what was in their possession, except Maestricht and its dependencies which were restored to Holland. France therefore kept her conquests in Senegal and Guiana. This was all the territory lost by Holland in the terrible war which had almost annihilated her. The United Provinces pledged themselves to neutrality in the war which might continue between France and the other powers, and guaranteed the neutrality of Spain, after the latter should have signed the peace. France included Sweden in the Treaty; Holland included in it Spain and the other allies who should make peace within six weeks after the exchange of ratifications. To the treaty of peace was annexed a treaty of commerce, concluded for twenty-five years."—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV* (tr. by M. L. Booth), v. 1, ch. 6.—The peace between France and Spain was signed September 17. France gave back, in the Spanish Netherlands and elsewhere, "Charleroi, Binch, Ath, Oudenarde, and Courtrai, which she had gained by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle; the town and duchy of Limburg, all the country beyond the Meuse, Ghent, Rodenhuis, and the district of Waes, Leuze, and St. Ghislain, with Huyserda in Catalonia, these having been taken since that peace. But she retained Franche Comté, with the towns of Valenciennes, Bouchain, Condé, Cambrai and the Cambrésis, Aire, St. Omer, Ypres, Werwick, Warneton, Poperinghe, Bailleul, Cassel, Bavaï, and Maubeuge. . . . On February 2, 1679, peace was declared between Louis, the Emperor, and the Empire. Louis gave back Philippsburg, retaining Freiburg with the desired liberty of passage across the Rhine to Breisach; in all other respects the Treaty of Münster, of October 24, 1648, was reestablished. . . . The treaty then dealt with the Duke of Lorraine. To his restitution Louis annexed conditions which rendered Lorraine little more than a French province. Not only was Nancy to become French, but, in conformity with the treaty of 1661, Louis was to have possession of four large roads traversing the country, with half a league's breadth of territory throughout their length, and the places contained therein. . . . To these conditions the Duke refused to subscribe, preferring continual exile until the Peace of Ryswick in 1697, when at length his son regained the ancestral estates." Treaties between the emperor and Sweden, between Brandenburg and France and Sweden, between Denmark and the same, and between Sweden, Spain and Holland,

were successively concluded during the year 1679. "The effect of the Peace of Nimwegen was, . . . speaking generally, to reaffirm the Peace of Westphalia. But . . . it did not, like the Peace of Westphalia, close for any length of time the sources of strife."—O. Airy, *English restoration and Louis XIV*, ch. 22.

ALSO IN: W. Temple, *Memoirs*, pt. 2 (*Works*, v. 2).

NIMES, or Nîmes, capital of the department of Gard, France, 174 miles southwest of Lyons. In 1921 it had a population of 561,592. In ancient times it was called Nemausus, chief town of the Volcæ, and after 120 B.C. it became the leading Roman colony in Gaul. In 752 Pepin the Short expelled the Moslems. See CALIPHATE: 752-759; VOLCÆ.

NIMRITTI-BEL, outer wall of ancient Babylon. See BABYLON: Nebuchadrezzar, etc.

NIMROD, according to Genesis X, the son of Cush, grandson of Ham, and ruler of Shivar (South Babylon).

NIMROD, ship in Shackleton's antarctic expedition, 1908-1909. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATIONS: 1901-1909.

NIMWEGEN. See NIMEGUEN.

NIMY, town in southwestern Belgium, about two miles north of Mons. It was a scene of fighting during the battle of Mons, 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: k.

NINE HOSTAGES, King of the k. See IRELAND: Niall of the nine hostages; NIALL.

NINE WAYS, CITY OF THE, ancient name of Amphipolis, Macedonia. See AMPHIPOLIS; GREECE: B.C. 359-358.

NINETY-FIVE THESES OF MARTIN LUTHER. See PAPACY: 1517: Ninety-five theses of Luther.

NINETY-TWO, The, members of the Massachusetts colonial legislature who refused to rescind the Circular Letter of 1768. See U.S.A.: 1767-1768.

NINEVEH, ancient Assyrian city, on the east bank of the Tigris, opposite the present Mosul. (See BABYLONIA: Map.) The first positive mention of it is in the code of Hammurabi about 2000 B.C. It later became the capital of the Assyrian kings and held a position of splendor under Sennacherib (705-681 B.C.). "In or about the year before Christ 606, Nineveh, the great city, was destroyed. For many hundred years had she stood in arrogant splendor, her palaces towering above the Tigris and mirrored in its swift waters; army after army had gone forth from her gates and returned laden with the spoils of conquered countries; her monarchs had ridden to the high place of sacrifice in chariots drawn by captive kings. [See ASSYRIA: Later Assyrian empire.] But her time came at last. The nations assembled and encompassed her around [the Medes and the Babylonians, with their lesser allies]. Popular tradition tells how over two years lasted the siege; how the very river rose and battered her walls; till one day a vast flame rose up to heaven; how the last of a mighty line of kings, too proud to surrender, thus saved himself, his treasures and his capital from the shame of bondage. [See ASSYRIA: Fall of the empire.] Never was a city to rise again where Nineveh had been." The very knowledge of the existence of Nineveh was lost so soon that, two centuries later, when Xenophon passed the ruins with his Ten Thousand retreating Greeks, he reported them to be the ruins of a deserted city of the Medes and called it Larissa. Twenty-four centuries went by, and the winds and the rains, in their slow fashion, covered the bricks and

stones of the desolated Assyrian capital with a shapeless mound of earth. Then came the searching modern scholar and explorer, and began to excavate the mound, to see what lay beneath it. First the French Consul, Botta, in 1842; then the Englishman Layard, in 1845; then the later English scholar, George Smith, and others; until buried Nineveh has been in great part brought to light. Not only the imperishable monuments of its splendid art have been exposed, but a veritable library of its literature, written on tablets and cylinders of clay, has been found and read. [See LIBRARIES: Ancient: Babylonia and Assyria.] The discoveries of the past half-century, on the site of Nineveh, under the mound called Koyunjik, and elsewhere in other similarly-buried cities of ancient Babylonia and Assyria, may reasonably be called the most extraordinary additions to human knowledge which our age has acquired." Z. A. Ragozin, *Story of Chaldea, introduction*, ch. 1-4.—See also ASSYRIA: Art and archaeological remains.

ALSO IN: A. H. Layard, *Nineveh and its remains*.—Idem, *Discoveries among the ruins of Nineveh and Babylon*.—G. Smith, *Assyrian discoveries*.

Battle of (627). See PERSIA: 226-627; ROME: Medieval city: 565-628.

NINFEO, Treaty of (1261). See GENOA: 1261-1299.

NING-PO, port in eastern China, about ninety miles southeast of Hang-chau. By the Treaty of Nanking it was made one of the five open ports. See CHINA: 1839-1842.

NINIQUIUILAS, tribe of South American Indians. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

NIPAL. See NEPAUL.

NIPMUCKS, or Nipnets, tribe of North American Indians. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; NEW ENGLAND: 1675 (July-September); 1676-1678.

NIPPON, Japanese name for Japan. See JAPAN: Name.

NIPPUR, most ancient religious capital of Babylonia. See BABYLONIA: First Babylonian empire; NIFFER.

NIRVANA. See BUDDHISM: Nirvana.

NISÆA, port in Megara, Greece. It was taken by the Athenians under Pisisstratus during the conquest of Salamis, 570-565 B.C. See ATHENS: B.C. 70-565.

NISÆAN PLAINS, famous horse-pastures of the ancient Medes. "Most probably they are to be identified with the modern plains of Khawah and Alishar, between Behistun and Khorramabad, which are even now considered to afford the best summer pasturage in Persia. . . . The proper Nisæa is the district of Nishapur in Khorasan, whence it is probable that the famous breed of horses was originally brought."—G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies: Media*, ch. 1, with footnote.

NISCHANDYIS, Turkish secretaries of state. See SUBLIME PORTE.

NISH, or Nissa, city in Serbia, on the Nishava river, about 130 miles southeast of Belgrade. It is the Roman Naissus, the birthplace of Constantine the Great. In July, 1914, it became the temporary seat of the government. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: b, 4.

NISHAPUR, or Nishapoor, city in Khorassan, Persia, forty-eight miles west of Meshed. In 1221 it was destroyed by the Mongols. See KHORASSAN: 1220-1221; MONGOLIA: 1153-1227.

NISIB, Battle of (1839). See TURKEY: 1831-1840.

NISIBIS, ancient town in Mesopotamia, the modern Nisibin. It was successively an Armenian, Parthian, Roman and Persian stronghold. See

PARTHIA; ROME: Republic: B. C. 78-68; PERSIA: 226-627.

NISIN, or 'Isin, city in ancient Babylon. It was captured by Rim-Sin during the reign of Hammurabi. See **BABYLONIA**: First Babylonian empire; Hammurabi.

NISSA, Battles of (1688, 1690). See **HUNGARY**: 1683-1699.

NITIOBRIGES, tribe in ancient Gaul whose capital was Aginnum, the modern town of Agen on the Garonne.

NITROGENOUS MANURES. See **FERTILIZERS**: Chemistry applied to soil cultivation.

NITROGLYCERINE: Its discovery, manufacture and use. See **CHEMISTRY**: Practical application: Explosives: Nitroglycerine.

NITTI, Francesco Laverio (1868-), Italian statesman. Minister of finance, 1917; became premier and minister of the interior, 1919; resigned, 1920. See **ITALY**: 1909-1911; 1919: Internal affairs.

NIUCHWANG, or Newchwang, city and treaty port in the Manchurian province of Shing-king, China, about ten miles from the Gulf of Pechili. It was the sole port of entry for southern Manchuria until Dairen (Dalny) was developed as a port by the Russians and the Japanese. Originally Niuchwang was at the mouth of the Liao river, but by the setting of the coast has retreated inland. Niuchwang suffered in the Boxer disturbances of 1900 and in the Russo-Japanese War, after which the Japanese were constrained to restore the city to China.

NIUE ISLANDS, group of islands in the Pacific ocean, about 350 miles southeast of Samoa. In 1900 they were annexed to New Zealand. See **NEW ZEALAND**: 1901.

NIVELLE, Robert Georges (1856-), French general. Distinguished for success of campaigns in the World War, 1914-1915; made commander-in-chief of the armies of the north and northeast, 1916; unsuccessful in campaigns and dismissed, 1917; later served as governor-general of Algeria. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: II. Western front: b, 14; X. German rule in northern France and Belgium: b, 1; 1917: I. Summary: b, 2; II. Western front: b, 2, iii; b, 3.

NIVELLE, Battle of (1813). See **SPAIN**: 1812-1814.

NIVOSE, fourth month of the French revolutionary calendar. See **CHRONOLOGY**: French revolutionary era, etc.

NIXON, Sir John Eccles (1857-1921), British general. Served in the Afghan and South African wars; inspector-general of cavalry in India, 1906-1908; given command of forces in Mesopotamia, 1915. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: VI. Turkey: c, 1; c, 4.

NIZAM, title of the native ruler of the state of Hyderabad, India. See **INDIA**: 1662-1748; 1798-1805.

NIZAM DJEDID, Turkish military organization. See **TURKEY**: 1780-1812.

NIZHNI-NOVGOROD, capital of the government of the same name, Russia, at the confluence of the Oka and the Volga. It was founded by Yuri Vsevolodovitch, grand prince of Suzdal; in 1221 (see **RUSSIA**: Map: Growth of Russia in Europe: Map of Russia and the new border states), and annexed to Moscow in the 14th century. The municipality is divided into an upper and lower town; the upper town containing the Kremlin, and the lower the fair grounds, to which the city owes its renown. While the Volga fair was certainly in existence as early as the tenth century, its site was definitely fixed at

Nizhni-Novgorod only in 1817. In 1915 the population was 2,081,200.

NO, or **NO AMON**, names given to Thebes in the Old Testament. See **THEBES**, Egypt.

NO MAN'S LAND, term applied during the World War to the dangerous ground between the opposing lines of trenches.

NO MAN'S LAND, Africa, region between Kafaria and south Natal, now known as Griqualand East. See **GRIQUAS**.

NO MAN'S LAND, England.—In the open or common field system which prevailed in early England, the fields were divided into long, narrow strips, wherever practicable. In some cases, "little odds and ends of unused land remained, which from time immemorial were called 'no man's land,' or 'any one's land,' or 'Jack's-land,' as the case might be."—F. Seebohm, *English village community*, ch. 1.

NO POPERY RIOTS (1780). See **ENGLAND**: 1778-1780.

NOBEL, Alfred Bernard (1833-1896), Swedish chemist and engineer. Invented dynamite, explosive gelatine, ballistite and artificial gutta-percha; left large fortune for the establishment of the Nobel Prizes. See **CHEMISTRY**: Practical application: Explosives: Nitro glycerine; **NOBEL PRIZES**.

NOBEL PRIZES.—By the will of Alfred Bernard Nobel, the distinguished Swedish engineer and chemist, pupil of John Ericsson and inventor of dynamite and other explosives, five great prizes, averaging nearly \$40,000 each in value, were instituted, for annual reward to persons who shall severally have made the most important discovery or invention in the domain of physics, chemistry and physiology or medicine; to the writer who has produced in literature the most distinguished work of an idealistic tendency, and to the person who has most or best promoted the fraternity of nations, the abolition or reduction of standing armies and the formation and increase of peace congresses. The award of the two prizes first named to be made by the Royal Academy of Science in Stockholm; the third by the Caroline Medical-Chirurgical Institute in Stockholm; the fourth by the Swedish Academy in the same city; the fifth by the Storting or Parliament of Norway. (See also **SWEDEN**: 1901.) The presentation of prizes on the first award was made with impressive ceremonies on December 10, 1901, that being the fifth anniversary of Mr. Nobel's death. Each year since, the awards have been made on that anniversary day. The recipients of the prizes in the various divisions have been as follows:

Physics: 1901.—Wilhelm Conrad Roentgen, professor of physics at the University of Munich.

1902.—Divided equally between Henrik Anton Lorentz, professor of physics at the University of Leyden, and Peter Zeeman, professor of physics at the University of Amsterdam.

1903.—Half to Antoine Henri Becquerel, professor of physics at the École Polytechnique and at the Museum d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, France, member Institut Française, and half to Pierre Curie, professor of physics at the University of Paris (Sorbonne) and teacher in physics at the Paris Municipal School of Industrial Physics and Chemistry, and his wife, Marie Sklodovska Curie, preceptress at the Higher Normal School for Young Girls at Sèvres.

1904.—Lord Rayleigh, professor of natural philosophy, Royal Institution of Great Britain, London.

NOBEL PRIZES

- 1905.—Philippe Lenard, professor of physics at the Physical Institute of Kiel.
 1906.—J. J. Thomson, professor of experimental physics at the University of Cambridge.
 1907.—Albert A. Michelson, professor of physics at the University of Chicago.
 1908.—Prof. Gabriel Lippman of the University of Paris.
 1909.—G. Marconi, Italy, and Prof. Ferdinand Braun of Strassburg.
 1910.—Prof. J. D. Van der Waals, Holland.
 1911.—Prof. W. Wien, Germany.
 1912.—Dr. Nils Gustaf Dalén, Sweden.
 1913.—Prof. H. K. Onnes, Holland.
 1914.—Prof. M. von Laue, Germany.
 1915.—Prof. W. H. Bragg and Prof. W. J. Bragg, father and son, England.
 1916.—Not awarded.
 1917.—Prof. Charles G. Barkla, Scotland.
 1918.—Prof. M. Planck, Germany.
 1919.—Prof. Stark, Germany.
 1920.—Prof. Ch. E. Guillaume, France.
 1921.—Dr. Albert Einstein, Austria.
 1922.—Prof. Niels Bohr, Copenhagen.

- Chemistry:** 1901.—Jakob Hendrik van't Hoff, of Holland, professor of chemistry in the University of Berlin.
 1902.—Emil Fischer, professor of chemistry in the University of Berlin.
 1903.—Svante August Arrhenius, professor at the University of Stockholm.
 1904.—Sir William Ramsay, professor of chemistry in University college, London.
 1905.—Adolf von Baeyer, professor of chemistry at Munich.
 1906.—H. Moissan, professor of chemistry at the Sorbonne, Paris.
 1907.—Eduard Buchner, professor of chemistry in the agricultural high school of Berlin.
 1908.—Prof. Sir Ernest Rutherford of the University of Manchester, England.
 1909.—Prof. W. Ostwald of Leipsic.
 1910.—Prof. O. Wallach, Germany.
 1911.—Madame M. Curie, France.
 1912.—Prof. V. Grignard and Prof. P. Sabatier, both of France.
 1913.—Prof. A. Werner, Switzerland.
 1914.—Prof. Theodore W. Richards, United States.
 1915.—Prof. A. R. Wilstätter, Germany.
 1916.—Not awarded.
 1917.—Not awarded.
 1918.—Prof. F. Haber, Germany.
 1919.—Not awarded.
 1920.—Reserved for award in 1921.
 1921.—Dr. Frederick Soddy, England.
 1922.—Dr. Francis W. Aston, England.

- Medicine:** 1901.—Emil Adolf von Behring, professor of hygiene and medical history at the University of Marburg, Prussia.
 1902.—Ronald Ross, professor of tropical medicine at the University college of Liverpool.
 1903.—Niels Ryberg Finsen, professor of medicine, Copenhagen, Denmark.
 1904.—Ivan Petrovich Pavloff, professor of physiology in the Military Academy of Medicine, St. Petersburg.
 1905.—Dr. Robert Koch, member of the Royal Academy of Science, Berlin.
 1906.—Profs. Ramon y Cajal (Spain) and Camillo Golgi, Italy.
 1907.—Charles L. A. Laveran of the Pasteur Institute in Paris.

NOBEL PRIZES

- 1908.—Dr. Paul Ehrlich of Berlin and Prof. Elie Metchnikoff (Russia) of the Pasteur Institute, Paris.
 1909.—Prof. E. T. Kocher, Switzerland.
 1910.—Dr. A. Kossel, Germany.
 1911.—Prof. A. Gullstrand, Sweden.
 1912.—Dr. Alexis Carrel (France) of New York.
 1913.—Prof. C. Richet, France.
 1914.—Dr. R. Barany, Austria.
 1915-1918.—Not awarded.
 1919.—Dr. J. Bordet, Belgium.
 1920.—Dr. A. Krogh, Denmark.

- Literature:** 1901.—René François Armand Sully-Prudhomme, member of the French Academy.
 1902.—Theodor Mommsen, professor of history at the University of Berlin.
 1903.—Bjornstjerne Bjornson, author, Norway.
 1904.—Half to Frédéric Mistral of France and half to José Echegaray of Spain.
 1905.—Henryk Sienkiewicz, author, Poland.
 1906.—Prof. Giosuè Carducci of Bologna, Italy.
 1907.—Rudyard Kipling of England.
 1908.—Prof. Rudolf Eucken of the University of Jena.
 1909.—Selma Lagerlöf, Sweden.
 1910.—P. J. L. Heyse, Germany.
 1911.—M. Maeterlinck, Belgium.
 1912.—G. Hauptmann, Germany.
 1913.—Sir Rabindranath Tagore, India.
 1914.—Not awarded.
 1915.—Romain Rolland, France.
 1916.—Verner von Heidenstam, Sweden.
 1917.—Karl Gjellerup and Hendrik Pontoppidan, Denmark.
 1918.—Not awarded.
 1919.—Carl Spitteler, Switzerland.
 1920.—Knut Hamsun, Norway.
 1921.—Anatole France, France.
 1922.—Jacinto Benavente, Spain.

- Peace:** 1901.—Divided equally between Henri Dunant, founder of the International Red Cross Society of Geneva, and Frederic Passy, founder of the first French peace association, the "Société Française pour l'Arbitrage Entre Nations."
 1902.—Divided equally between Elie Ducommun, secretary of the international peace bureau at Berne, and Albert Gobat, chief of the interparliamentary peace bureau at Berne.
 1903.—William Randal Cremer, M. P., secretary of the International Arbitration league, London.
 1904.—The Institute of International Law, a scientific association founded in 1873 in Ghent, Belgium.
 1905.—Baroness Bertha von Suttner for her literary work written in the interest of the world's peace movement.
 1906.—Theodore Roosevelt, president of the United States, for the part he took in bringing the Russo-Japanese war to an end. Money set apart by the president for the establishment of a permanent industrial peace commission.
 1907.—Divided equally between Ernesto T. Moneta, president of the Lombardy Peace union, and Louis Renault, professor of international law at the University of Paris.
 1908.—K. P. Arndolsen of Sweden and M. F. Bajer of Denmark.
 1909.—Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, Paris, and M. Beernaert, Belgium.
 1910.—Berne International Peace Bureau.
 1911.—T. M. Asser, Holland, and A. H. Fried, Austria.
 1912.—Not awarded.

- 1913-1914.—Elihu Root, United States, and M. Lafontaine, Belgium.
 1915.—Not awarded.
 1916.—Not awarded.
 1917.—International Red Cross Committee of Geneva.
 1918.—Woodrow Wilson, president of the United States.
 1919.—Not awarded.
 1920.—M. Léon Bourgeois, France.

NOBLE GUARD: Origin and duties. See **VATICAN:** 1744.

NOBLES, Roman: Origin of term.—“When Livy in his first six books writes of the disputes between the Patres or Patricians and the Plebs about the Public Land, he sometimes designates the Patricians by the name Nobiles, which we have in the form Nobles. A Nobilis is a man who is known. A man who is not known is Ignobilis, a nobody. In the later Republic a Plebeian who attained to a curule office elevated his family to a rank of honour, to a nobility, not acknowledged by any law, but by usage. . . . The Patricians were a nobility of antient date. . . . The Patrician nobility was therefore independent of all office, but the new Nobility and their Jus Imaginum originated in some Plebeian who first of his family attained a curule office. . . . The true conclusion is that Livy in his first six books uses the word Nobiles improperly, for there is no evidence that this name was given to the Patres before the consulship of L. Sextius.”—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 1, ch. 11.—See also **ROME:** B. C. 146.

NOBUNAGA, Oda, Japanese chief. Acknowledged ruler of thirty provinces, 1568; opposed Buddhist priests and welcomed Christianity; protected and encouraged the Jesuits. See **JAPAN:** B. C. 600-A. D. 1853; 1334-1574; 1542-1593; 1549-1605.

NOCHE TRISTE, name given by the Spanish conquerors of Mexico to the night of June 30, 1520, when their forces were nearly annihilated. See **MEXICO:** 1520 (June-July).

NOETIANS AND SABELLIANS.—“At the head of those in this century [the third] who explained the scriptural doctrine of the Father, Son, and holy Spirit, by the precepts of reason, stands Noëtus of Smyrna; a man little known, but who is reported by the ancients to have been cast out of the church by presbyters (of whom no account is given), to have opened a school, and to have formed a sect. It is stated that, being wholly unable to comprehend how that God, who is so often in Scripture declared to be one and undivided, can, at the same time, be manifold, Noëtus concluded that the undivided Father of all things united himself with the man Christ, was born in him, and in him suffered and died. On account of this doctrine his followers were called Patripassians. . . . After the middle of this century, Sabellius, an African bishop, or presbyter, of Ptolemais, the capital of the Pentapollitan province of Libya Cyrenaica, attempted to reconcile, in a manner somewhat different from that of Noëtus, the scriptural doctrine of Father, Son, and holy Spirit, with the doctrine of the unity of the divine nature.” Sabellius assumed “that only an energy or virtue, emitted from the Father of all, or, if you choose, a particle of the person or nature of the Father, became united with the man Christ. And such a virtue or particle of the Father, he also supposed, constituted the holy Spirit.”—J. L. von Mosheim, *Historical commentaries*, 3d century, sect. 32-33.

NOETUS (fl. 3d century), religious leader of Smyrna. See **NOETIANS AND SABELLIANS.**

NOFELS, or Naefels, Battles of (1388, 1799). See **SWITZERLAND:** 1386-1388; **FRANCE:** 1799 (August-December).

NOGENT, Battle of (486). See **FRANKS:** 481-511.

NOGI, Kiten Marosuke, Baron (1840-1912), Japanese general. Governor-general of Formosa, 1896-1898; served in the Russo-Japanese War, 1904-1905. See **JAPAN:** 1902-1905.

NOLA, Battle of (88 B. C.). See **ROME:** Republic; B. C. 90-88.

NOLAN'S EXPEDITION. See **TEXAS:** 1799-1821.

NOLICURGAS, tribe of South American Indians. See **PAMPAS TRIBES.**

NOMAD, British battleship. It took part in the Battle of Jutland. See **WORLD WAR:** 1916: IX. Naval operations: a, 7.

NOMADES. See **NUMIDIANS.**

NOMADS, Modern. See **GYPSIES.**

NOMBRE DE DIOS, port on the eastern coast of the Isthmus of Panama. The first settlement, made by Columbus in 1502, was destroyed, and a new one established by the Spaniards in 1510. See **AMERICA:** 1524-1528; 1572-1580.

NOME, city on the northern shore of Norton sound, Bering sea, Alaska. Gold was discovered in its vicinity in 1898-1899 and the city was built during the great rush that ensued. It is now the commercial, industrial and educational center of Seward peninsula. See **ALASKA:** 1898-1899.

NOMENOË, or Nominioë (d. 851), duke of Brittany. In the hope of pacifying Brittany, Louis the Debonair named him governor, 826; kept peace through Louis' life; rebelled against Charles the Bold, who was forced to recognize the independence of Brittany, 846. See **BRITANNY:** 818-912.

NOMES, name given by the Greeks to the districts into which Egypt was divided from very ancient times. See **EGYPT:** State organization in the early period.

NOMOPHYLAKES.—In ancient Athens, under the constitution introduced by Pericles, seven magistrates called Nomophylakes, or “Law-Guardians,” “sat alongside of the Proëdri, or presidents, both in the senate and in the public assembly, and were charged with the duty of interposing whenever any step was taken or any proposition made contrary to the existing laws. They were also empowered to constrain the magistrates to act according to law.”—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 46.

NOMOTHETÆ, legislative commission, elected and deputed by the general assembly of the people, in ancient Athens, to amend existing laws or enact new ones.—Based on G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The State*, pt. 3, ch. 3. See **GREECE:** B. C. 4th century; Economic conditions.

NON-COMBATANTS.—“During antiquity and the greater part of the Middle Ages war was a contention between the whole of the populations of the Belligerent States. In time of war every subject of one belligerent, whether an armed and fighting individual or not, whether man or woman, adult or infant, could be killed or enslaved by the other belligerent at will. But gradually a milder and more discriminative practice grew up, and nowadays [1906] the life and liberty of such private subjects of belligerents as do not directly or indirectly belong to their armed forces are safe, as is also, with certain exceptions, their private property. This is a generally admitted fact. But opinions disagree as to the general position of such

private subjects in time of war. The majority of the European continental writers for the last two generations have propagated the doctrine that no relation of enmity exists between belligerents and such private subjects, or between the private subjects of both belligerents. . . . English and American-English writers have, however, never adopted this doctrine, but have always maintained that the relation of enmity between the belligerents extends also to their private citizens. . . . It is impossible to sever the citizens from their State, and the outbreak of war between two States cannot but make their citizens enemies. . . . Nobody doubts that such private individuals are safe as regards their life and liberty, provided they behave peacefully and loyally, and that, with certain exceptions, their private property must not be touched. On the other hand, nobody doubts that, according to a generally recognised custom of modern warfare, the belligerent who has occupied a part or the whole of his opponent's territory, and who treats such private individuals leniently according to the rule of International Law, can punish them for any hostile act, since they do not enjoy the privileges of members of armed forces. Although, on the one hand, International Law does by no means forbid, and, as a law between States, is not competent to forbid, private individuals to take up arms against an enemy, it gives, on the other hand, the right to the enemy to treat hostilities committed by private individuals as acts of illegitimate warfare. A belligerent is under a duty to respect the life and liberty of private enemy individuals, but he can carry out this duty under the condition only that these private individuals abstain from hostilities against himself. Through military occupation in war such private individuals fall under the territorial supremacy of the belligerent, and he can therefore demand that they comply with his orders regarding the safety of his forces. The position of private enemy individuals is made known to them through the proclamations which the commanders-in-chief of an army occupying the territory usually publish."—L. Oppenheim, *International law*, pp. 59-61.

See also BELLIGERENCY; INTERNATIONAL LAW; NEUTRALITY; NEUTRALIZED STATE.

ALSO IN: G. B. Davis, *Amelioration of rules of war on land*.—Idem, *Elements of International law*, pp. 312-313.

NONCONFORMISTS, DISSENTERS, English. See ENGLAND: 1559-1566; 1662-1665; 1672-1673; 1711-1714; 1827-1828: Removal of disabilities, etc.

NONCONFORMISTS, Polish. See POLAND: 1763-1790.

NON-COÖPERATION MOVEMENT, India. See INDIA: 1921-1922.

NONES, 5th, or 7th day of the month according to the Roman calendar. See CHRONOLOGY: Julian era.

NONINTERCOURSE LAW OF 1809. See U.S.A.: 1804-1809; 1808-1810.

NONJURORS. See ENGLAND: 1689 (April-August).

NON-PARTISAN ELECTION LAW. See CHICAGO: 1920.

NON-PARTISAN LEAGUE.—"A league organized in North Dakota [1915] by Arthur C. Townley with the object of protecting the interests of farmers and securing for them a fair share of the profits on the sale of their produce." The precise program of the league was as follows: "State Terminal Elevators, Flour Mills, Stock Yards, Packing Houses, and Cold Storage Plants, State Hail Insurance, Exemption of Farm Im-

provements from Taxation, State Inspection of Dockage and Grading, Rural Credit Banks Operated at Cost. . . . The Farmers' Nonpartisan League was the name . . . chosen for [Townley's] organization. . . . [His] idea [was] . . . to fight money with money; to raise a fund large enough to make an effective campaign against the unlimited resources of the other side, and to get this from one of the poorest communities in the North. He had the audacity to make the annual dues six dollars—at a time when nine-tenths of those to whom he must appeal were poverty-stricken strugglers against bankrupting money rates and ruinous market conditions. Townley had the wit to perceive that he could hope to get it only by offering something tangible as well as the distant prospect of better conditions. He therefore made the six-dollar fee include a year's subscription to the last progressive magazine left in the East, and a year's subscription to the organ of the Nonpartisan League when that should be published. . . . The success he met with seems phenomenal, and plainly shows to what desperation the farmers had been driven. . . . In a short time . . . [Townley] had many organizers at work enrolling members and taking subscriptions on commission. . . . [and] 10 automobiles rolling through the state, with canvassers inside of them taking subscriptions and enlisting members; then 20, then 40, and then 60. He bought machines, ran in debt for them, chartered them, horrowed them. Steadily the figures of membership went up. By July he had 10,000, and when in September the League's newspaper, *The Nonpartisan Leader*, made its first appearance, it had 22,000 subscribers, every one of them a member of the League. It was about this time that the old-school politicians of the state woke up to the real nature of the work in hand. . . . Nothing was more familiar than farmer organizations; the junk-heap was littered with their remains. One more might add to the gaiety of nations, but would never threaten those that had sat so long in the seats of the mighty they had come to believe the seats their own. With the appearance of the *Leader* they awoke with a start. Twenty-two thousand members in about seven months were too significant to be ignored. In their own phraseology there was something doing, and from that moment on the League, bursting into sudden publicity, was obliged to fight its way inch by inch."—C. E. Russell, *Story of the Non-Partisan League*, pp. 213, 200-202, 203-204.—"The economic program of the Non-Partisan League of North Dakota came before the Supreme Court in *Green vs. Frazier* (252 U.S.—, 40 Sup. Ct. 499) in which taxpayers sought to enjoin the raising of funds by taxation to inaugurate a state bank, a state mill and elevator association and a state home-building association. The constitutional issue was whether such business enterprises are 'public purposes,' since it is established that taxation for a private purpose is a taking of property without due process of law. In rendering the opinion for a unanimous court Mr. Justice Day pronounced a somewhat Scotch verdict. Up to the final paragraph he is stating the facts and announcing general principles and attitudes. He then concludes by saying: 'Under the peculiar conditions existing in North Dakota, which are emphasized in the opinion of its highest court, if the state sees fit to enter upon such enterprises as are here involved, with the sanction of its Constitution, its Legislature and its people, we are not prepared to say that it is within the authority of this court, in enforcing the observance of the Fourteenth Amendment, to set aside such action by judicial decision.' So it is

settled that, if the conditions are sufficiently peculiar, a state may build, buy and sell dwellings, may run warehouses, elevators, flour mills and factories for 'manufacturing farm products' and may own and operate a bank. What makes the conditions peculiar and how peculiar they must be are not disclosed."—T. R. Powell, *Supreme Court and the constitution* (*Political Science Quarterly*, Sept., 1920).—In the election of 1920 the Non-partisan League supported Edwin Fremont Ladd for United States senator from North Dakota. Professor Ladd defeated Senator Gronna in the Republican primaries and was elected senator. He is a scientist of some note and has been president of the North Dakota Agricultural College. The state convention of the league, 1922, brought the retirement of Townley as national president and under the Minnesota sedition law he was forced to serve a term in jail. See NORTH DAKOTA: 1916-1921; 1919; 1921.

ALSO IN: A. Bruce, *Non-Partisan League*.—H. E. Gaston, *Non-Partisan League*.—A. B. Gilbert, *Non-Partisan League* (*National Municipal Review*, July, 1918).

NOOTKA CONVENTION. See NOOTKA SOUND; OREGON: 1790-1805.

NOOTKA SOUND: Nootka Sound controversy.—"Nootka Sound is a small inlet on the western shore of Vancouver Island. . . . Made known to the world by Captain Cook in 1778. A few years afterwards a flourishing fur trade sprang up between the Northwest Coast and China. Nootka became the center of this trade, though it remained for several years without any settlement except an Indian village. On account of its sudden and growing importance, the Russians, English, and Spaniards all laid plans for occupying the port. It happened that all planned to carry out the project in the year 1780. . . . Though the Nootka incident can make no claim to rank in importance with the great events of that year, yet it was destined to have an influence on the movement then started and to be influenced in turn by them. . . . An English expedition from India and a Spanish from Mexico each sailed in the spring of 1789 to establish a colony at Nootka. The promoters of neither knew anything of the other. The Spanish commander arrived first and took possession. Nearly two months later the Englishman came. A quarrel ensued. The Spaniard seized the Englishman, imprisoned him, his officers and crew, and sent them to Mexico as a prize. A consort vessel arrived a few days later and met the same fate. Two other English vessels had been seized earlier. One of them had been released on bond and the other had been confiscated without adjudication. The Viceroy of Mexico, instead of acting on his own responsibility, reported the matter to the Government at Madrid. The Spanish Court complained to the British that subjects of the latter had violated the territorial sovereignty of the former, and demanded that the offenders be punished to prevent such enterprises in the future. The British Cabinet rejected the Spanish claim to exclusive sovereignty over the territory in question, and suspended all diplomatic relations until Spain should have offered a satisfactory reparation for the insult which His Britannic Majesty felt that his flag had suffered. Each Court refused to grant the demand of the other and stood firmly on the ground originally taken. . . . Each nation also called upon its allies for assurances of support and entered negotiations for forming new alliances. For a time it seemed that all Europe would be drawn into war over what, on the face of it, appeared to be an

insignificant quarrel between two obscure sea captains. . . . But far from being merely a dispute over a few captured vessels and a comparatively unimportant trading post, it was the decisive conflict between two great colonial principles, of which England and Spain were, respectively, the exponents. . . . The settlement of the controversy determined the subsequent position of England and Spain on the Northwest Coast. Later, after the United States had bought the Spanish claim, the Nootka Sound affair became a part of the Oregon controversy. For a time the dispute threatened to change the course of the French Revolution. It menaced the existence, or at least the expansion, of the United States. It promised to substitute English for Spanish influence in Latin America."—*Annual Report of the American Historical Association for the year 1904*, pp. 283-285.—See also OREGON: 1790-1805.

ALSO IN: H. M. Stephens, *Revolutionary Europe*, pp. 77-79.

NOOTKAS, tribe of North American Indians. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America; North Pacific coast area; WAKASHIAN FAMILY.

NOPH. See MEMPHIS.

NORAX, in mythology, son of Hermes and legendary founder of the ancient town of Nora, Sardinia. See SARDINIA: Name and early history.

NORBECK PRIMARY LAW. See SOUTH DAKOTA: 1018

NORD, Canal du, northeastern France. It extends north from the Somme river, near Peronne, and connects with the Scheldt. During the World War there was much fighting in this region.

NORDENFELT BOATS. See SUBMARINES: 1885; 1887.

NORDENSKJÖLD, Nils Adolf Erik, Baron (1832-1901), Swedish explorer. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1867-1901; also Map of arctic regions.

NORDENSKJÖLD, Otto (1869-), Swedish explorer. Led an antarctic expedition, 1902. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1001-1000.

NORDERIES, divisions of the Hy-Ivar kingdom. See NORMANS: 10th-13th centuries.

NORDHAUSEN, town in the republic of Saxony, Germany, fifty-six miles southwest of Magdeburg. It was formerly a free city but was ceded to Prussia by the Treaty of Lunéville, 1803. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

NORDLINGEN, Battles of (1634, 1645). See GERMANY: 1634-1630; 1640-1645; AUSTRIA: 1618-1645.

NORE, Mutiny at. See ENGLAND: 1707.

NOREMBEGA. See NORUMBEGA.

NO-RENT MANIFESTO. See IRELAND: 1881-1882.

NORFOLK, port in Virginia, on the northern side of the Elizabeth river near Chesapeake bay. It is the second largest city in Virginia, and the terminus of many steamship lines. Its deep and commodious harbor makes it accessible to the largest ships. It leads the world in the traffic of coal, lumber, grain, vegetables, fruit and cotton. Norfolk was organized as a town in 1682, and incorporated as a borough in 1736.

1776.—Bombardment and destruction. See VIRGINIA: 1775-1776.

1779.—Pillaged by British marauders. See U.S.A.: 1778-1779: Washington guarding the Hudson.

1861 (April).—Abandoned by Federal commandant.—Destruction of ships and property.—Possession taken by Confederates. See U.S.A.: 1861 (April): Activity of rebellion, etc.

1862 (February).—Threatened by Federal capture of Roanoke island. See U.S.A.: 1862 (January—April: North Carolina).

1862 (May).—Evacuated by Confederates. See U.S.A.: 1862 (May: Virginia); Evacuation of Norfolk.

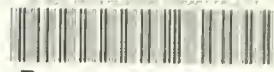
NORFOLK AND WESTERN RAILWAY. See RAILROADS: 1921: Twenty rail systems proposed.

NORFOLK ISLAND, in the Pacific ocean, about 550 miles northwest of New Zealand. The island was discovered by Captain Cook in 1774. A penal colony was established here in 1856, when the British government transferred the mutineers of the *Bounty*, from Pitcairn island. In 1896 the

island was annexed to New South Wales. It is administered by an executive council made up of a president and six members, two of whom are elected and four appointed. Although administered by New South Wales the island is not politically connected with Australia. See NEW SOUTH WALES: 1896; AUSTRALIA: 1914; TASMANIA.

NORICUM, Roman province in Central Europe. It reached from the Danube on the north to Illyricum, Cisalpine Gaul and Pannonia on the south and east. It extended as far west as Rætia. The town was conquered by the generals of Augustus about 13 B. C. See NUREMBURG; PANNONIA; RHETIANS; ROME: Empire: B. C. 31-A. D. 14.

NORIMBERGA. See NUREMBURG.



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