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THE STANDARD HISTORY
OF ALL
NATIONS AND RACES

Containing a Record of all the Peoples of the World from the Earliest Historical Times, with a Description of their Homes, Customs, and Religions; their Temples, Monuments, Literature, and Art

IN
TEN
VOLUMES

... BY ...

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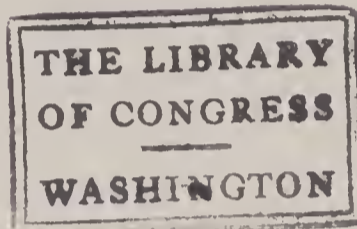
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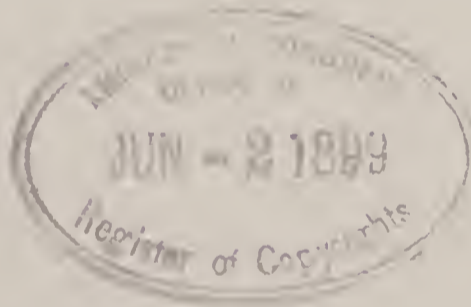


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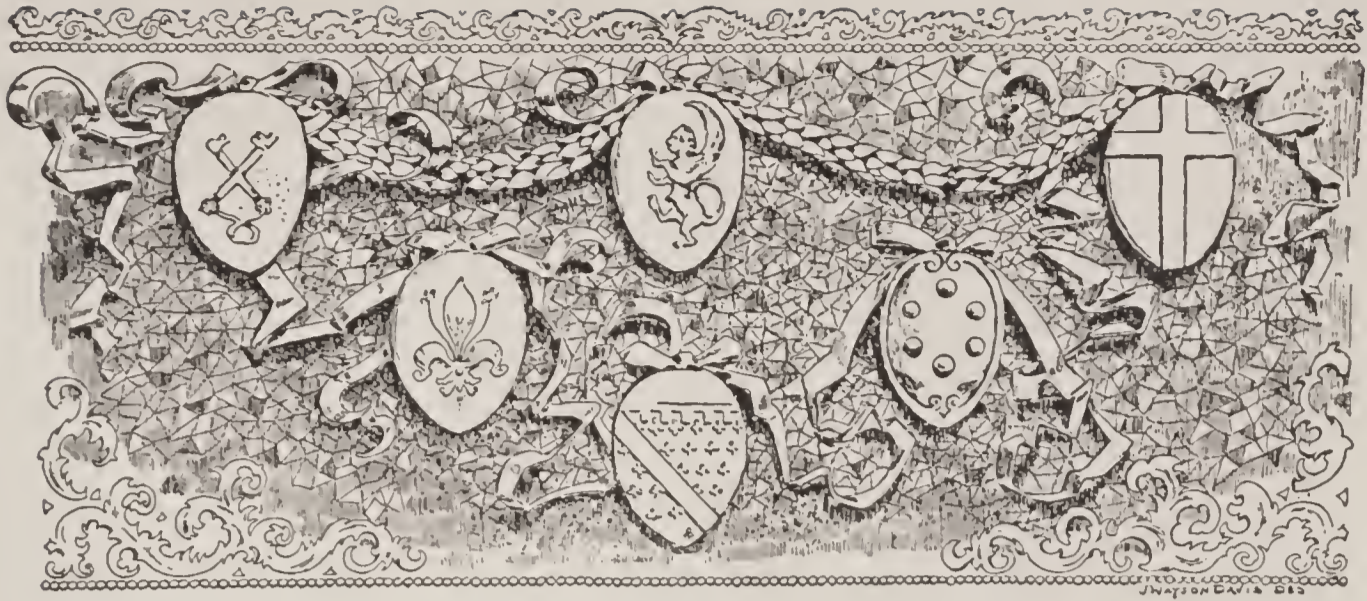
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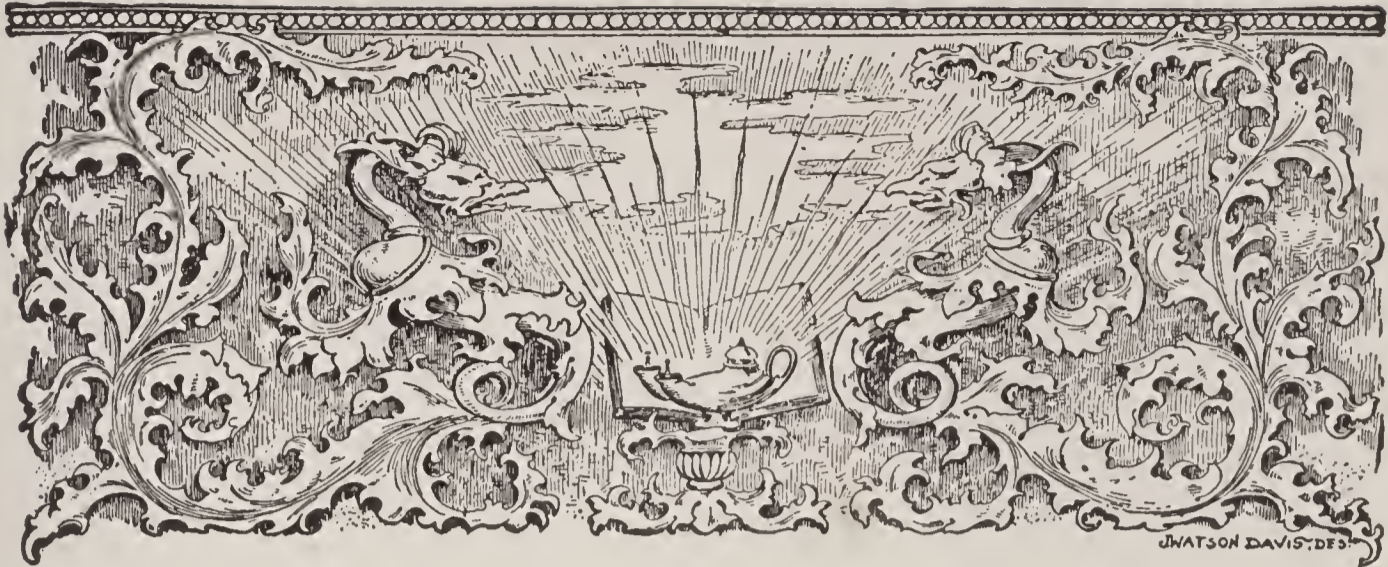
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THE BRITISH EMPIRE

THE HISTORY OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

[*Authorities*: The books on the various parts of the British Empire are legion, and we can only cite a few of the more renowned. FOR ENGLAND: S. R. Gardiner and J. B. Mullinger, *Introduction to the Study of English History*; Pearson's *Early and Middle Ages*, vol i (1867); Kemble's *Saxons in England* (1849; new ed. 1876); Sharon Turner's *History of the Anglo-Saxons from the earliest period to the Conquest* (1852); Green's *Conquest of England, 758-1071* (1883); Freeman's *Norman Conquest* (1867-70; new ed. 1877-79); Bright's *Mediæval Monarchy* (1875); Hook's *Lives of the Archbishops* (1860); Froude's *History of England, 1527-88* (1856-69; new ed. 1881-82); Mackintosh's *History of England* (1834; new ed. 1846); Carlyle's *Letters and Speeches of Cromwell* (1845; new ed. 1872); Macaulay's *History of England, 1660-1702* (1849-55); Walpole's *History of England from 1815*, vols. i-iii (1878-80); Justin M'Carthy's *History of Our Own Times* (1879-80; new ed. 1892); Bright's *Growth of Democracy* (1888); Molesworth's *History of England, 1830-74* (1866-73; new ed. 1874). FOR SCOTLAND: Innes, *Critical Essay on the Ancient Inhabitants of Scotland*; E. W. Robertson's *Scotland under her Early Kings* (2 vols. 1862). For the period from the Reformation to the Union—Knox's, Calderwood's, Spottiswoode's, and Robertson's Histories, Baillie's Letters, Wodrow's and Burnet's Histories, the Acts of Parliament, and the State Papers. Mackintosh's *History of Civilization in Scotland* (1878-84), his *Scotland from the Earliest Times to the Present Century* (1890); and the Duke of Argyll's *Scotland as It Was and as It Is* (1887). FOR IRELAND: See Plowden's *Historical Review of the State of Ireland* (1811); Moore's *History of Ireland* (4 vols. 1839); *Papers and Correspondence of Lord Cornwallis* (3 vols. 1859); Froude's *English in Ireland in the Eighteenth Century* (3 vols. 1871-74); Duffy, *Young Ireland* (1880); Walpole's *Short History of the Kingdom of Ireland* (1882); *Two Centuries of Irish History, 1691-1870*, with Introduction by Bryce (1889).]



THE British empire consists of (1) the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, (2) India, the colonies, protectorates, and dependencies.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland has been, since January 1, 1801, the official title of the political unity composed of England, Scotland, and Ireland. Great Britain was employed as a formal designation from the time of the union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland in 1707. Although the name in earlier times had been often used both by English and by foreign writers, especially

James I
First
King of
Great
Britain

DIVISION III
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 ANCIENT
 AND
 MODERN
 BRITISH
 EMPIRE

for rhetorical and poetical purposes, it was not until after the accession of James I (1604), that it became a recognized part of the royal style. Its adoption was due to the king himself, who was anxious to give expression to the fact that he was sovereign of the undivided island, and not only of England or Scotland. As early as 1559, the Scottish Congregation had formally proposed through Maitland the union of the two crowns and the adoption of the name *Great Britain* for the common country, but in England the innovation at first met with great opposition. Various objections, sentimental and practical, were urged against it in parliament, and the judges, when appealed to by the king, declared that the adoption of the title would invalidate all legal processes. At length, on October 20, 1604, the king, weary of discussion, cut the knot by assuming the title by royal proclamation, which declared that Great Britain was "the true and ancient name which God and time have imposed upon this Ile, extant and received in histories, in all mappes and cartes wherein this Ile is described, and in ordinary letters to ourselfe from diverse foreign princes, warranted also by authentical charters and exemplifications under seals and other records of great antiquitie."

Parliaments of
 England
 and
 Scotland
 United
 1707

Although King James declared the two crowns united, it was not until 1707 that the final union of the parliaments was effected. From that date the histories of the two countries may be said to merge into one. An act providing for the legislative union of the two countries passed the Irish parliament in May, 1800, and a similar act passed the British parliament two months later of the same year. In virtue of these acts, the union was effected on January 1, 1801.

Ireland in
 1801

Early
 History

The island in the remotest times bore the name of *Albion*. From a very early period it was visited by Phœnicians, Carthaginians, and Greeks for the purpose of obtaining tin. Cæsar's two expeditions, in 55 and 54 B. C. made it known to the Romans, by whom it was called *Britania*, but it was not till the time of Claudius, nearly 100 years after, that the Romans made a serious attempt to convert the country into a Roman province. Some forty years later, under Agricola, one of the ablest Roman generals in Britain, they had extended the limits of *Provincia Romana* as far as the line of the Forth and the Clyde.

Here the Roman armies came into contact with the Caledonians,

described by Tacitus as "large-limbed, red-haired men." After defeating the Caledonians under Gollgacus at "Mons Grampius," Agricola marched vigorously northward as far as the Moray Firth, establishing stations and camps, the remains of which are still to be seen. But the Romans were unable to retain their conquests in the northern part of the island, and were finally forced to abandon their northern wall and forts between the Clyde and the Forth, and retire behind their second wall, built in 120 A. D. by Hadrian between the Solway and the Tyne. Thus the southern part of the island became Roman altogether, specially known as Brittonia, while the northern portion was distinctively called Caledonia. The capital of Roman Britain was York (Eboracum). Under the rule of the Romans many flourishing towns arose. Great roads were made traversing the whole country, and helping very much to develop its industries. Christianity was also introduced, and took the place of the Druidism of the native British. Under the tuition of the Romans the useful arts and even many of the refinements of life found their way into the southern part of the island. Thus from the time of the Roman conquest, and still more decidedly after the Saxon invasions in the fifth century, the history of Britain branches off into a history of the southern part of the island, afterward known as England, and the history of the northern part of the island, afterward named Scotland.

In the following pages we shall treat the history of the British empire under each of its grand divisions, beginning with England and following with Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, and the Colonies, Protectorates, and Dependencies. The history of India is given in "Division II" under "Asiatic Civilization," Vol. III, page 1,033.

DIVISION III

EUROPE

ANCIENT
AND
MODERNBRITISH
EMPIRE

Caledonia

DIVISION III

EUROPE

ANCIENT
AND
MODERNBRITISH
EMPIRE

ENGLAND

ENGLAND.

ENGLAND is the southern, the largest, and by far the most populous portion of Great Britain, the largest and most important of European islands. Separated from Belgium, Holland, Germany, and Denmark by the North Sea, from France by the English Channel and the Irish Sea, the kingdom of England and Wales has only one short land frontier, that toward Scotland.

Mother of
Nations

England has for hundreds of years been one of the leading powers of Europe, one of the great moving forces of the world, and through her colonies a veritable mother of nations; but her area is relatively very small. The area of the British Islands is but 1-1600th of the surface of the world, and is not a fourth of the size of Texas. The colonies and dependencies of the empire of which England is the center cover a seventh of the land area of the globe. Twenty-nine of the States in the American Union are each larger than England, several much larger than the whole United Kingdom.

Angles
and
Saxons

Her name comes from the Engles, or Angles, who with the kindred Jutes and Saxons descended on the greater part of what used to be known as Albion, or Britain, conquered and occupied it in the fifth and following centuries. These kindred peoples all learned to call themselves *Englisc*, or English, and by Engalaland they understood the whole area now occupied by them — an area which in the seventh century extended more than the half of the island from the Firth of Forth to the English Channel. South-eastern Scotland, as occupied by Angles, and not by Saxons or Jutes, was in the stricter sense English; and the people of the non-Celtic parts of Scotland, though now markedly differing from the southern English, are, in blood and in mental and physical type as least, as English in the wider sense as the people of Oxford or Kent. Political circumstances led the English and Anglicized Celts of North Britain beyond Solway and Tweed to become the subjects of the alien Scottish king, but their language they still called *Inglis*, as distinguished from the Erse of their Scottish or Gaelic fellow countrymen.

Early
English
History

Though the history of England can not properly be said to begin till the fifth century, when the Teutonic tribes who had given the country its name established themselves in the island, it is of

some importance to understand the condition of the people whom they supplanted. There can be little doubt that, speaking generally, the inhabitants of the island when conquered by the Romans were of Celtic origin. They were not indeed entirely homogeneous; two distinct branches of the Celtic language were spoken, the Gauls of France are mentioned by Cæsar as having exercised authority over the island, the Belgæ had certainly established themselves there, and certain tribe-names led to the belief that men of Teutonic origin had already formed settlements. The island lying at the extremity of Europe had probably formed a natural refuge for tribes driven from their own lands, and a natural prey of those in search of new homes. But on the whole there can be little question that the population was Celtic.

It had passed beyond the age of barbarism, and when Claudius determined to complete the conquest which Cæsar's temporary raid in 55 B. C. had foreshadowed, some sort of general confederacy was in existence, a king of the name of Cunobelin reigned at Camulodunum, near Colchester, and the existence of not less than forty varieties of his coins bear witness to the greatness of his influence and the comparative civilization of his rule. His son, Caractacus, and eleven years later, Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, opposed a long and terrible resistance to the Roman arms; but the arrival of Agricola in 78, and his eight years of wise government, brought the country at length into the condition of a Roman province. The conquest of the whole island was, however, never completed. It seemed best to the Romans to limit their successes, and to attempt by great defensive works to exclude from their dominions the still unconquered Celts of the North. Lines were erected between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, and between Bowness and the mouth of the Tyne. The intermediate district was a scene of constant warfare, both lines were from time to time strengthened, and the more southern of the two changed during the fourth century into the great Roman Wall.*

* Before Agricola advanced into Scotland he planted some forts on the neck of land between the estuary of the Tyne and the Solway Firth, to protect him from attack in his rear, and to secure the bringing up of supplies. He adopted the same precaution before leaving the Lowlands of Scotland for the Highlands, placing encampments between the Firths of the Forth and Clyde. Afterward walls were constructed on these two lines. On the English side of the border we find a stone wall with a ditch on its north side. Attached to it are stationary camps, mile castles, and turrets for the accommodation of the

DIVISION III

EUROPE

ANCIENT
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EMPIRE

ENGLAND

An Early
Govern-
mentA Roman
ProvinceRoman
Wall

DIVISION III

EUROPE

ANCIENT
AND
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ENGLAND

Within this limit the occupation of the country was complete. For two centuries it was probably merely a military occupation, and at no time does it appear that there were more than 20,000 Roman soldiers in the province; but as time passed on it appears certain that the influence of the conquerors became largely felt. Towns, the remains of which still exist, were built, bringing with them of necessity the close intercourse of trade, and numerous traces of villas in many parts of the country show the spread of peaceful Roman life. It was the policy of Rome in its provinces to debar the middle classes from the use of arms, and though possibly the native nobles and princes were allowed to keep in some degree their rank, it was under the shelter of the Roman legionaries that civilization advanced, and it was by their prowess that safety from the threatened encroachments of unconquered Celts or marauding Teutons was secured. It is impossible to say how far civilization had extended, or how far the language had been influenced by the Roman occupation. The close resemblance of many common agricultural terms, of the names of plants, and so on, to Latin words would lead to the belief that the language was Latinized. On the other hand, local names, the names of woods, mountains, and rivers, are largely Celtic. It seems not improbable that both high civilization and Roman speech were chiefly concentrated along the great roads, and around the cities and stations with which these were lined.

Romans
With-
draw

The disturbances of the empire, and the danger which threatened it from the pressure of the outlying barbarians, in 411 com-

soldiery who manned it. To the south of the stone wall is a series of ramparts generally called the vallum. This fortification consists of three aggers, or mounds, and a ditch. The military way, along which the soldiery moved, lies between the *murus*, or stone wall, and the vallum. The wall was not intended as a mere fence to block out the Caledonians, but as a line of military strategy. Every station and mile-castle has a wide gateway opening northward. This does not look as if the Romans in the time of Hadrian had given up the country north of the wall to the enemy. Hadrian is now generally believed to have been the builder of the whole structure. Severus, however, repaired it; he advanced into Scotland, where in three years he lost 50,000 men, and came back to York to die. Agricola came to Britain in 78 A. D. Hadrian came toward the close of 119 A. D. Severus died in 211 A. D. Near the end of the fourth century Theodosius, for a brief period, reasserted the Roman dominion over the district between the walls of Antoninus and Hadrian, which, in honor of the Emperor Valens, obtained the name of Valentia. But this newly established province was soon lost, and it was not long before the Romans finally abandoned Britain. Considerable traces of Hadrian's wall yet remain in Northumberland.

pelled the withdrawal of the legions; and the half-Romanized inhabitants who had learned to rest on the support and valor of their conquerors were left to their own resources to withstand the unconquered Celts of the north, now known as Picts, and their piratical allies, the Irish Scots. The movement of the barbarians had affected the people on the borders of the North Sea; the Jutes from Jutland, the Angles from Sleswick, the Saxons from Holstein and the neighboring coasts, were covering the sea with their expeditions. Summoned to the assistance of the civilized Britons, a party of Jutes found means to establish themselves in Kent. It was an example readily followed. Before the year 600 Saxons and Angles had formed settlements extending as far northward as the Forth. About that year the various principdoms may be regarded as merged in two considerable and rival powers, Northumbria and Kent; while a third, Wessex, fated ultimately to devour the other two, lay along the south, at present interested in extending its power westward. It still remains a question whether the invaders destroyed the conquered inhabitants or not. On the strength of certain expressions of the chronicler Gildas,* it has been held that no quarter was shown; but it is more probable that, as in other cases of conquest, the invaders settled down in the midst of the conquered population, content to rule as manorial lords over their own free followers and the slaves and dependents of their predecessors.

It was long before the various settlements of the Saxons were fused into one. Long before political union was reached, the unity of the people found expression in a single Christian church. While the powers of Northumbria and Kent were still balanced, the marriage of the king of Kent with a Frankish princess offered an opportunity for the evangelization of the country. Augustine and his fellow missionaries landed in Thanet in 596, and, well

* Gildas, surnamed by some Sapiens, by others Badonicus, was the earliest native English historian, flourished in the sixth century, and wrote in Armorica (about 550-560) his famous treatise *De Excidio Britannicæ Liber Querulus*. This was first printed at London in 1525, again in Gale's *Scriptores* (1691) where it was first divided into two works, the History and the Epistle. The treatise falls naturally into two distinct portions: from the invasion of Britain by the Romans to the revolt of Maximin at the beginning of the fourth century, and from the close of the fourth century to the writer's own time. It is Gildas who narrates the story of the famous letter sent to Rome in 446 by the despairing Britons, commencing: "To Ægidius (Ætius) consul for the third time, the groans of the Britons."

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 EUROPE
 ANCIENT
 AND
 MODERN
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 EMPIRE
 ENGLAND

Gildas
 Early
 English
 Historian

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AND
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ENGLAND

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Intro-
duced

received by the king, found a home in Canterbury. A similar circumstance brought Christianity to the north; a Kentish princess, married to Edwin of Northumbria, took with her Paulinus, and established Christianity in York. The change of religion went near to destroying the Northumbrian power. Heathenism found a champion, and Penda, uniting the central tribes into the kingdom of Mercia, for a while established his supremacy over Northumbria, and drove the Roman priesthood to flight. The gap thus left was supplied by the devoted missionaries of the Celtic Church settled in Lindisfarne. But the restoration of the Northumbrian power was fatal alike to heathenism and to the Celtic Church. After the council of Whitby in 664, the Roman Church regained predominance, and was organized in a single archiepiscopal see by Theodore of Tarsus, holding his appointment from Rome. After the fall of Penda, the supremacy of the northern kingdom was unquestioned, till some sixty years later it gave way to Mercia. About the year 900, however, both Mercia and Northumbria had to yield to the third power.

Egbert
Estab-
lishes
Unity

Egbert, king of Wessex, who had seen something of centralization in the court of Charlemagne, during the thirty-six years of his reign gradually brought under his power all the English kingdoms, whether Anglian or Saxon, and continuing the hereditary struggle of his people with the British populations, established a permanent superiority over all England, with the exception of the Britons north of the Dee.

Danes
Invade
England

But already an enemy had made its appearance to which the newly centralized kingdom was to yield. The Danes, issuing from the Scandinavian coasts, had before the death of Egbert begun to harry the country. At first as robbers, then as settlers, and finally as conquerors, for two centuries they occupy English history. During the reign of Ethelred their incessant but isolated incursions assumed the form of an invasion, East Anglia passed into their hands, and their leader, Guthrum, took to himself the title of king. For seven years Alfred on the throne of Wessex carried on a deadly struggle with this rival power, and at length concluded a treaty of partition at the Peace of Wedmore (878), surrendering to the Danes the north and east of England, to be held by them as vassals of the Saxon king. The supremacy of Wessex was thus secured, and ripened in the following reigns into something little

short of an imperial authority. Edward the Elder was not only recognized as the overlord of Mercia and Northumbria, but the Welsh kings swore alliance, and the kings of Scotland and Strathclyde acknowledged him as their father and lord; he treated on equal terms and contracted marriage alliances with the greatest princes of Europe. His position was fully vindicated by his son Athelstan, under whom, perhaps, the West Saxon monarchy reached its highest point of greatness.

The decisive battle of Brunanburgh, in 937, won over a complicated confederation, dealt a death-blow to all opponents. The reign of Edgar the Peaceful, and the government of his great minister, Dunstan, closed the period of Saxon greatness. From this time onward weak kings, factious nobles, and a broken organization were unable to resist the renewed incursions of the Scandinavian tribes. The jealousies between the various sections of the people, restrained by the strong central authority of the late kings, broke out afresh. The northern kingdoms where Danish law prevailed afforded a natural support for the invaders. The alliance of King Ethelred with the Normans, and his marriage with Emma, a Norman princess, only added a fresh element of weakness by the presence of her foreign followers. Recourse was had in vain to large payments to the Danes, and to the cruel and treacherous murder, on St. Brice's Day, 1002, of the Danes settled in Wessex. Ten years later all opposition had been overcome, and Sweyn, the leader of the invaders, was practically king of England. He was succeeded by his son Canute, and though a brief outburst of vigor under Edmund Ironside enabled the English to secure a division of the country, the death of their leader compelled them to submit to Canute.

Under its Danish king England was ably ruled, and was in some respects the head of a Scandinavian empire. But Canute's two sons failed to continue their father's work. Opportunity was allowed for the rise of Goodwin, earl of Wessex, and on the death of Hardicanute in 1042, Edward the Confessor, the son of Ethelred, resting on the support of the great earl, re-established the house of Cedric on the throne. Educated in Normandy, he surrounded himself with foreign friends, and filled the high places of the kingdom with Frenchmen. As leader and representative of the national feeling, Goodwin succeeded after a while in driving

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Edgar
the
PeacefulEngland
under
Canute

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the foreigners from the country, and establishing himself in a predominant position over the south of England. In the north the influence of the earls of Mercia prevented his absolute supremacy. He handed on both his power and his rivalry with the northern earls to his son Harold. Successful against his rivals, Harold placed most of the earldoms in the hands of his brothers. So completely was he recognized as the first of Englishmen, that upon the death of the king he was raised to the throne.

William
 of Nor-
 mandy

In thus choosing a king from beyond the limits of the royal family a well-established English custom had been transgressed. A formidable rival claimant at once appeared. William, duke of Normandy, a cousin of the late king, demanded the throne as next of kin, and pleaded the promise of the Confessor. A second enemy threatened Harold; his brother Tostig had proved a traitor, and had been banished; he now returned in company with the Norwegian fleet. The northern earls opposed him, and Harold, hastening to their assistance, won the battle of Stamford Bridge over the invaders. But the decentralized character of the English constitution and the strength of family rivalry made lengthened union impossible. When, three days after, on the 28th of September, 1066, the Norman duke landed at Pevensey, it was single-handed and with hastily collected forces that Harold met him. The great battle of Senlac, near Hastings, was decisive. Harold and his brothers were slain, and England was left without a king. Again the jealousy between Wessex and Mercia prevented either a combined national opposition or the election to the throne of a native prince. William had little difficulty in slipping into the vacant post and securing his election. The series of local efforts at opposition which followed his election proved unsuccessful, and by 1070 his authority was recognized throughout the country.

England
 and the
 Conti-
 nent

The change of dynasty thus effected connected England with the great movements of the Continent. Up to this time it had been somewhat isolated. Though its church was in communion with Rome, and had frequent intercourse with it, it was distinctly a national church; though feudalism was rapidly advancing, it had pursued an independent and national course of development. It was in some degree as the champion of the great system of Western Christianity that William had put forward his claims, and he brought with him followers imbued with all the principles and

forms of Continental feudalism. All the varieties of class and of land tenure which had arisen spontaneously in England were now assimilated to those existing where complete feudalism was in force, the connection with Rome was ratified by an entire change in the episcopacy. But William had no idea of assuming the position of a chief among equals, or of subordinating his authority to that of the church. He found in the organization of the conquered kingdom principles which enabled him, while using feudal language, to be in fact an absolute king, and to set such limits to the power of Rome as to keep the church virtually in subordination. The Norman kings, when not engrossed in foreign enterprises, were occupied in establishing in opposition to the nobility and the church, that powerful monarchy which the Conqueror had established. They found in the old constitution of the national militia an instrument with which to oppose the feudal levies of the barons. An administrative system centered in the crown, and working chiefly through the machinery of the exchequer, went far to centralize the government. Triumphant suppression of insurrections enabled them to get rid of the feudal baronage of the Conquest, while a new nobility of administrative origin and attached to the national system gradually took its place.

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WESTMINSTER ABBEY

But the death of Henry I, leaving only a daughter, Matilda, gave room for a disputed succession. All the discordant elements which the royal power had held in repression burst into life. The reign of Stephen was a time of constant civil war, during which the nation learned, from the intolerable tyranny under which it groaned, the value of the repressing hand of royalty. The miserable time was brought to a close chiefly by the mediation of the

Henry
 Becomes
 King

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Strengthens Government

church. Matilda's son Henry, already a powerful prince in France, was accepted as the heir to the throne, and practically entrusted with the restoration of order. It was with the general concurrence of the nation that he was able to re-establish, upon a broader and better basis, the powerful monarchy of his predecessors. A series of great administrative reforms brought justice and finance into the hands of the king and his intimate council, or *Curia Regis*, and went far to break through the quasi-independence of the landowners. The suppression of a great insurrection affecting all his possessions, and supported by the kings of France and Scotland, left him unquestioned master of his kingdom so far as the baronage was concerned. His attempts to reduce the church to subordination were less successful; the opposition of Becket to the enactments of the Council of Clarendon produced a disastrous struggle with Rome. But though technically worsted, Henry's power suffered no serious diminution from his defeat. He handed on to his son a powerful and well-organized monarchy, in which the feeling of national unity had made great advances. His system proved strong enough to support the continued absence of Richard in the crusades and in his French dominions; national life even acquired increased strength by the self-government which was thus forced on the administration.

John Loses Power

In the hands of Richard's successor the evil effects of the enormous power concentrated in the crown became obvious. Boastful, tyrannical, and weak, John excited the anger of all classes. The disgrace he brought upon England, the shock thus given to the rising feeling of national pride, afforded an opportunity for the exhibition of the discontent he had roused. He had allowed himself to be stripped of all his French possessions; he plunged into a struggle with the Papal See, was excommunicated and deposed, and formally surrendered his crown into the hands of the pope. The nobility, freed from connection with the Continent, and supported by all parties smarting alike from the evils of misgovernment and the shame of disaster, appeared as the true leaders of the nation, and wrung from the humbled king that great charter*

Magna Charta

*The Magna Charta, the Great Charter granted by King John of England to the barons, has since that time been viewed as the basis of the English constitution. The oppressions of a tyrannical sovereign compelled a confederacy of the barons or tenants-in-chief of the crown, who took up arms for the redress of their grievances. They

which secured, in the form of a solemn treaty, the foundations of the future liberties of England (1272).

To make the charter a reality, and to secure the orderly development of these liberties, was the work of the great king Edward I.

John's compact with the people proved insufficient to restrain the personal and capricious exercise of the royal power in the hands of his son, Henry III. The surrender of the crown proved more of a reality than was expected; the Papal See, unable to establish a temporal suzerainty, mercilessly fleeced the people and the church, and the country was filled as of old with foreigners, on whom wealth and high places were lavished. The finances fell into

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Financial
 Struggle

demanding the restoration of the laws of Edward the Confessor and Henry I, laws which combined Norman feudalism with Saxon and Danish institutions. A conference was held at Runnymede, on the Thames near Egham, where king and barons encamped opposite each other; and, after several days' debate, John signed and sealed the charter with great solemnity on June 15, 1215.

The Great Charter provided against the abuse of the royal prerogative by protecting the rights and obligations of the feudal proprietor. It redressed a variety of grievances connected with feudal tenures, some of which are long since obsolete. Minute provisions were made regarding the ward, relief, and marriage of heirs, and rights of their widows. No scutage or aid was to be imposed without the authority of the common council of the kingdom, except on the three great feudal occasions of the king's captivity, the knighting of his eldest son, and the marriage of his eldest daughter. The liberties of the city of London and other towns, burghs, and ports were declared inviolable. Freedom of commerce was guaranteed to foreign merchants. Justice was no longer to be sold, denied, or delayed. The Court of Common Pleas, instead of, as formerly, following the king's person in all his progresses, was permanently fixed at Westminster, assizes were appointed to be held in the several counties, annual circuits established, and regulations made for the efficiency of the inferior courts. Life, liberty, and property were protected from arbitrary spoliation, and none was to be condemned to forfeit these but by lawful judgment of his peers or by the law of the land. No one was to be condemned on rumors or suspicions, but only on evidence of witnesses. Fines imposed were in all cases to be proportioned to the magnitude of the offense, and even the villain or rustic was not to be deprived of his necessary chattels. The testamentary power of the subject was recognized over part of his personal estate, and the rest was to be divided between his widow and children. The independence of the church was also provided for.

Pro-
 visions
 of the
 Charter

These are the most important features of that charter which occupies so conspicuous a place in history, and which establishes the supremacy of the law of England over the will of the monarch. A charter was at the same time granted to mitigate the oppressions of the Forest Laws. The terms dictated by the barons to John included the surrender of London to their charge, and the Tower to the custody of the primate till the 15th of August following, or till the execution of the several articles of the Great Charter. Twenty-five barons, as conservators of the public liberties, were empowered to make war against the sovereign in case of his violation of the Charter. Several solemn ratifications were required by the barons both from John and from Henry III, and a copy of the Great Charter was sent to every cathedral, and ordered to be read publicly twice a year.

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utter decay. At length a demand for money to support, in the interest of Rome, the claims of the king's son to the throne of Sicily brought matters to a crisis, and in 1258 the barons passed the Provisions of Oxford, drove Henry's foreign friends from the kingdom, and virtually superseded the crown by a committee of government.

Simon de
 Montfort

Henry's attempts to break from the restrictions laid on him produced an armed insurrection, and Simon de Montfort, at the head of the barons and the commonalty of the towns, defeating the royal forces at Lewes, established a revolutionary government of which he was practically the master. But the jealousy with which the nobility regarded the rise of Montfort allowed Edward, the prince of Wales, to come forward as the leader of a party at once conservative and reforming. His accession to the throne gave him an opportunity of carrying out his views. In the parliament of 1295, a complete assembly of all estates, he gathered into a national center all the scattered elements of representation and self-government which had long existed in the county courts. The principle that where all were concerned all should have a voice was acknowledged, and the national liberties were placed in the charge of an assembly in which all orders were included. At the same time the position of the crown was maintained and rendered effective by the large powers still left in the hands of the king's council. For many years the struggle between parliament and the prerogative remained undecided, but, armed with the power of taxation, and taking advantage of the wants or weaknesses of the sovereign, the parliament continued to make good its position as the national council. At the close of Edward III's reign it was able to attack and impeach the ministry.

Parlia-
 ment the
 National
 Council

The success of Richard II in ridding himself of the influence of his uncles by which his youth had been surrounded, and his vehement assertion of the powers of the crown, produced a revolution which closed the struggle, and Henry IV came to the throne with a parliamentary title, while the council nominated in parliament became in fact a body of national ministers.

Parlia-
 ment and
 National
 Life

The rise of parliament had gone hand in hand with the assertion of national life. Edward I had not only marked out the lines the constitution was to follow, he had rid England of foreign influences. Busying himself but little with the Continent, he had

devoted his attention to the conquest of Wales and Scotland. His death before the completion of his conquest of the northern kingdom allowed the Scots to inflict a final defeat upon his weaker son at Bannockburn. But the national feeling of the English, in abeyance during the political disturbances of Edward II's reign, reasserted itself in the ambitious efforts of Edward III to place himself upon the throne of France, and was strengthened by the brilliant victories which attended them. Though the victories were useless, and the war a series of raids rather than a well-considered conquest, the effects at home were of great importance. The continual want of money forced the crown to frequent concessions to the parliament; the spirit of the people was raised by success; and the life of the soldier played an important part in liberating the lower orders from serfdom. The villeinage of earlier times had been gradually declining, and rent and wages were taking the place of villein tenure and forced service.

The terrible ravages of the Black Death upset for a while the economic arrangements of the country, and the attempt to drive back the liberated serf to his old position caused the great rising of Wat Tyler* in 1381. The insurrection was suppressed, but a death-blow was practically dealt to serfdom. In close connection with this upheaval of the working classes was the movement in opposition to the church. The doctrines of Wyclif and the Lollards, so much in harmony with the democratic movement, could not fail largely to influence it, and for a while hostility to the church played a considerable part in parliamentary history.

The completion of the constitutional system marked by the accession of Henry IV did not prevent the recurrence of disorder, but during the reign of his son full harmony existed between the king and people. The disturbances which had broken out in France afforded an opportunity for renewing the war, and Henry V found no difficulty in carrying the people with him in his victorious attacks upon that country. A statesman, as well as a conqueror, his progress was very different from that of Edward

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Rent and
Wages
Instead
of Villein
Tenure
and
SerfdomPower of
Henry VWat
Tyler

* Wat Tyler was the leader of the peasant revolt of 1381. According to the traditional story, an insult offered by a tax-gatherer to the daughter of Walter the Tyler (a tiler of roofs) at Dartford in Kent led to the outbreak. Wat brained the tax-gatherer; and under Wat and Jack Straw the populace rose throughout Kent and Essex. Their first act was to liberate John Ball, who lay in Maidstone prison for Wyclifite teaching and seditious utterances, and then they marched on London.

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III. The Treaty of Troyes* seemed to promise the ultimate union of the two kingdoms, but the work of Consolidation was scarcely begun when the great king died, intimating to those who should carry on the work that the occupation of Normandy should be the limit of their aims. The foreign success and domestic harmony was of short duration. Though the power of the nobles as feudalists had disappeared, they were still too strong to accept easily the co-operation of the other orders in a national system except from the hands of a powerful ruler. Their strength had been increased by the great position given to the royal princes. The parliamentary establishment of the younger branch upon the throne had opened the door to the rival claims of hereditary succession. A strong government was scarcely possible during the infancy of Henry VI, especially as the council of regency found in the Duke of Gloucester, a man of ill-regulated ambition, an opponent with whom it was difficult to deal. His greater brother, the Duke of Bedford, devoted himself chiefly to the affairs of France, and though he had succeeded in maintaining some degree of order in England, his early death was the signal for an outbreak with which the council, and consequently the young king, proved unable to cope.

Duke of
 York as
 Cham-
 pion of
 Order

Continual disorder in France still further discredited the government. Taking advantage of the claim of hereditary right, the Duke of York came forward as the champion of order. The nobility ranged themselves on one side or the other of the contending parties, and the country became the seat of a cruel dynastic war.† The Yorkists were victorious in the struggle. The death of their old and moderate leader placed at their head his son Edward, a man of great ability, imbued with the morality and principles of an Italian despot, and as the long regency had inevitably replaced in the hands of the council much of its independent power, Edward IV found little difficulty in employing it

Treaty of
 Troyes

* This treaty uniting the French and English crowns was concluded May 21, 1420, between Henry V of England, Charles VI of France, and the Burgundian party. It was sealed soon after by Henry's marriage with the Princess Catharine.

Wars
 of the
 Roses

† The Wars of the Roses were the fierce struggle for the crown of England between the Lancastrians (who chose the red rose as their emblem) and the Yorkists (who chose the white); it lasted, with short intervals of peace, for thirty years (1455–85), beginning with the battle of St. Albans, and ending with Bosworth Field, where the Yorkists were successful.

for his own purposes. Parliament ceased to have much importance except to register the sovereign's will or to grant submissively the taxes he required. In the earlier struggles for national liberty the king had found his chief opponent in the baronage, and subsequently as leaders of the nation the nobles had exercised a great restraining influence.

In the interne-cine struggle of the Wars of the Roses they had committed political suicide, and Edward IV, surrounded by a nobility of his own creation, and armed with the powers of prerogative, which had never been formally abrogated, found himself able to establish a practical absolutism. The family dispute had not, however, reached its last act; Edward's successor, Richard III, rendered himself odious to all



HENRY VIII, KING OF ENGLAND

classes of the people, and the battle of Bosworth placed upon the throne a prince who claimed to be a representative of the Lancastrian House, and whose position was so far less absolute than his predecessors that he acknowledged that he was king by the will of the people.

The accession of Henry VII and the Tudor House opens the second act of the drama of English history. The great principles of the Middle Ages had passed away; it was the age of the rebirth

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Edward IV Establishes Practical Absolutism

Renaissance in England

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Henry
VIIIThe
Reforma-
tionEnglish
Church

of learning ; printing had been invented ; firearms were superseding the lance and bow ; the discovery of the Western world was soon to excite the spirit of nautical enterprise ; capital was taking the place of the restricted guild system ; the enclosure of commons was changing the face of the country, depopulating the fields, and filling the cities ; the church had begun to be shaken from its foundations. In the midst of this changed society the new dynasty had ascended the throne, claiming to rest upon the popular will, but invested with all the absolute authority with which the late reigns had surrounded the crown. It is not perhaps going too far to say that the king was endowed with a temporary dictatorship. The typical representative of this phase of government is Henry VIII, a man in whom gross passion and unscrupulous determination to gratify his own will were curiously blended with a certain amount of culture and a real desire for the well-being of his people. Charged, as it were, with the duty of re-establishing an orderly national life upon a strong monarchical basis, he plunged into war as a ready means of asserting national power. France and Spain were already on the threshold of their great struggle for the supremacy of Europe, and it was in strict accordance with the tradition of English policy that Henry allied himself with the Spanish house. But a change was speedily to pass over the foreign relations of England. Instigated by his passion for Anne Boleyn, Henry demanded a divorce from his Spanish wife ; the opposition of the papacy precipitated the Reformation in England, and transferred the national hostility from France to Spain.

The difficulties he encountered in his pursuit of the divorce brought him face to face with the one weak point in his position as absolute monarch. The possibility of the assertion of paramount authority by a foreign prince had been studiously hidden from him by his ecclesiastical minister Cardinal Wolsey, who, himself master of the church, had thought to avoid all contest of authorities by devoting his power to the service of the crown. Such a possibility was now suddenly revealed to him. The fall of Wolsey and the substitution in his place of Thomas Cromwell supplied the king with a very able instrument for a high-handed assertion of the independence of the English Church. The movement found support in the excited animosity to the doctrines and practise of Rome which was filling Europe. Led by the energy of

Cromwell, Henry proceeded beyond mere separation to the destruction of much of the apparatus of the old church. Reformed liturgies, an English Bible, the dissolution of the monasteries, seemed to secure a triumph for the advanced reformers. But the minister had overshot the desire of his master, and the reign closed amid Henry's efforts, by even-handed severity, to establish the supremacy of the crown without allowing the predominance of either party. So delicate an equilibrium could not be maintained. A burst of reforming zeal, supported by ministers of questionable character and still more questionable prudence, went far to destroy the position of England; and it was not without a very general consensus in her favor that Mary, the champion of the old faith, ascended the throne. Unfortunately, her birth and natural prejudices led her to ally herself closely with Spain.

A great reaction in favor of Roman Catholicism throughout Europe had begun; Spain was at the head of the movement, and there seemed every probability that England would lose its national independence, and be bound not only to the ecclesiastical supremacy of Rome, but to the temporal supremacy of Spain. Religious persecutions of a severity unknown in England added strength to the angry feelings then excited. Protestantism and national independence, were forced into connection, and it became the inevitable duty of Elizabeth on her accession (1558) to play her part as the supporter of this twofold cause. With the aid of her great minister, Lord Burghley, she acted with consummate ability. Far too weak to oppose at once the powerful forces of united Catholicism, she contrived by a temporizing policy to avoid the dangers which would have attended an open defiance. She took advantage abroad of every opening for indirect support of the Protestant cause; at home, skilfully mingling politics and religion, without direct religious persecution she treated her opponents as traitors. She encouraged with all her woman's wit the feeling for nautical enterprise which was rife in the country; and at length, with the obstacles which had met her early course removed, firmly seated on her throne, and regarded both at home and abroad as the champion of Protestantism, she was able to bid defiance to the power of Spain, and establish the supremacy of the English navy in the repulse of the Spanish Armada.

In carrying out the sweeping changes of his reign, Henry VIII

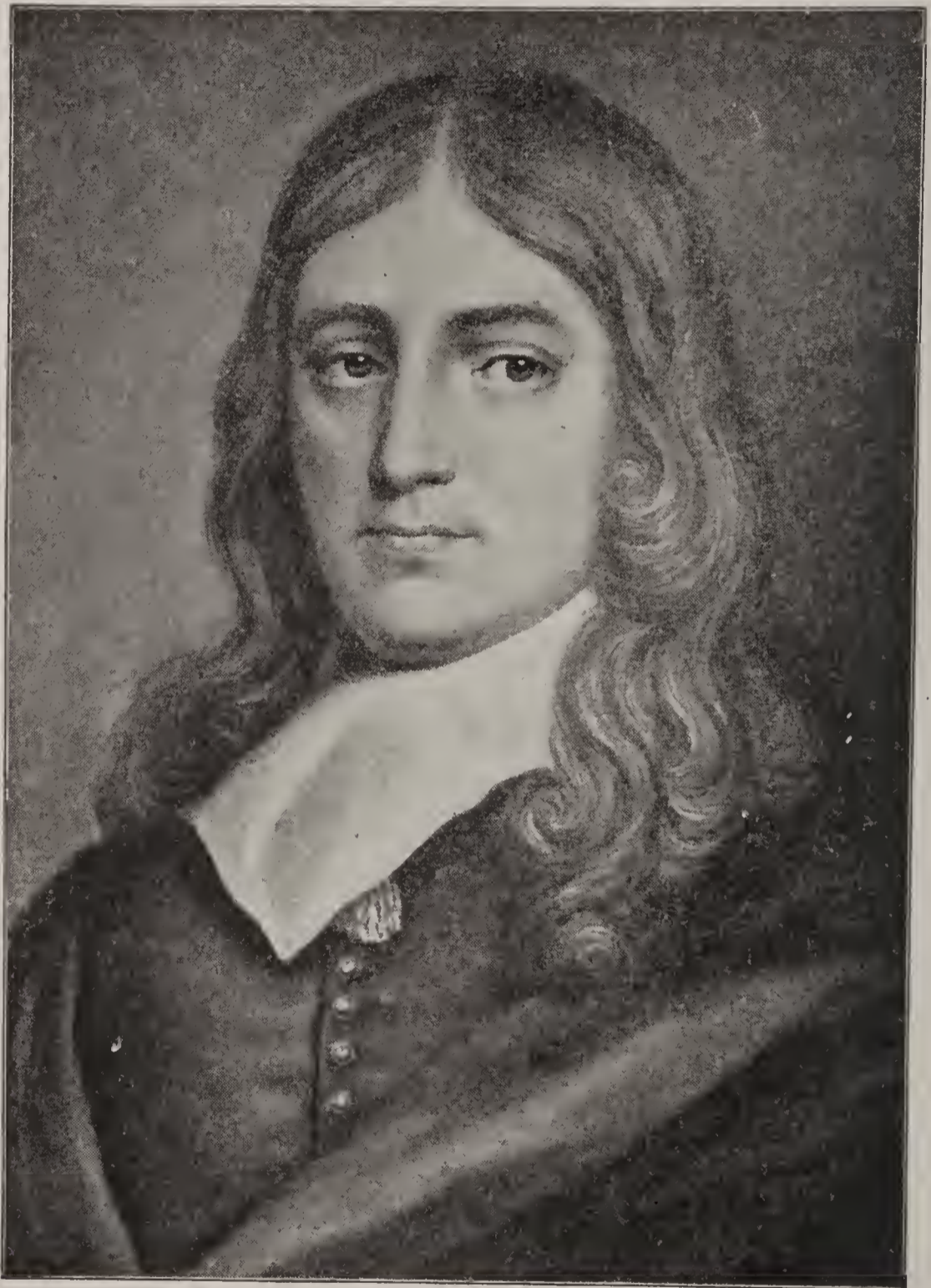
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Eliza-
 beth's
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Spanish
 Armada
 Defeated

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had found the support of his people necessary. Even the settlement of the succession, though entrusted to Henry and carried out according to his wish, was arranged with parliamentary sanction. The co-operation of the people was still more necessary for



JOHN MILTON

Parliamentary
 Influence
 Increases

Elizabeth. Throughout her reign the influence of parliament had been rising. Social changes had still further tended in this direction; if the old nobility had chiefly disappeared, a new nobility had taken its place, and the gentlemen of England, with property often increased from the monastic spoils, had become an important



THE CHILDREN OF CHARLES I OF ENGLAND

class. Though Elizabeth constantly assumed a masterful position with regard to her parliaments, she none the less listened to them, and at times yielded to their remonstrances. It remained for the House of Stuart to force by unwise opposition this rising power into a position of supremacy. The death of the Virgin Queen seemed likely to open the question of the succession, but the crown passed without difficulty to the Scottish king, and the long-delayed union of the the two kingdoms under one ruler was accomplished. The parliamentary settlement of Henry VIII had set aside the Scottish line; it was therefore by strict law of inheritance, only, that James found himself called to the throne. Trained in a different school of politics, and apparently succeeding by what it was the fashion of the time to speak of as "divine right,"* he failed entirely to understand the position of his predecessors. This miscomprehension of his historical position handed on to his descendants was the cause of the disasters which attended their dynasty. Conceiving themselves possessed of the powers inherent in the old English crown, and determined to make them good, they forced the nation to fight over again the battle which had already been decided in the time of the Lancastrians. The contest between personal monarchy and constitutional government was terminated only by the removal of the Stuarts from the throne. A battle-field was found in nearly every department of government. James I himself ran counter to many of the national prejudices. Thoroughly Protestant at heart, he favored the new high church party, who looked for support in a powerful crown; easily influenced by favorites, he fell in with the fashion of the monarchies abroad, and ruled through the hands of a great minister; in disregard of the wishes of the nation, he contracted a friendship for Spain, which was now regarded as the hereditary foe. But his weaknesses were not untempered by sagacity, and he succeeded in avoiding any overt breach with his people. His more obstinate son was less fortunate. From the beginning of his reign he found his parliament arrayed against him; it succeeded even in wringing from him

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Question
of Suc-
cession

James I

* Divine right, a term applied to describe the source of the power claimed for the monarch by the royalist party, in the great controversies between the monarchical and parliamentary, or commonwealth, parties in England in the seventeenth century. The monarch was held to be the immediate representative of the Deity, to whom alone he was responsible for all his actions—a principle which relieved him from all human responsibility, and gave him an absolute claim to the obedience of his subjects.

Divine
Right

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 Egotism
 of King

the great Petition of Right. Weary of the struggle in which he seemed to be worsted, he believed himself strong enough to stand alone, and for some years ruled without a parliament and in disregard of the most important liberties of his subjects. Financial difficulties, caused in part by his ill-advised efforts to establish the Episcopalian form of worship in his northern kingdom, compelled him at length to seek parliamentary aid. The long-repressed discontent of the nation thus found a means of expression, and the edifice of personal government fell before it. A grudging consent to hotly pressed reforms, an unfortunate laxity in observing his promises, and unwise efforts at resuming his power drove Charles into open hostility with the people, and the country was plunged into the horrors of civil war. Revolution ran its inevitable course; the constitutional leaders of the early movement gave place to men who dreamed of much more radical changes, and whose politics were deeply tinged with religious fervor. The war brought to the service successful generals, and in one of them was found a man who united vast practical ability with the subversive views and religious enthusiasm of the advanced party.

The parliamentary enemies of Charles, having completed their work by the execution of the king, found themselves mastered by the overwhelming ability of Oliver Cromwell. Raised to what was practically the throne, he set himself to reconstitute upon a new basis the constitutional structure which had been swept away. His large and tolerant views, and his determination to produce order, excited the hostility of the narrow sectarians who had formed the majority of the Long Parliament.*

By all men of conservative mind, or who shared in the loyal sentiment so prevalent among Englishmen, he was regarded with aversion. His efforts to bring well-ordered liberty out of the jarring elements with which he was surrounded, failed; he was

Long
 Parlia-
 ment

* Long Parliament, the name by which the fifth parliament summoned by Charles I is known. It succeeded the Short Parliament, dissolved after three weeks, and met November 3, 1640. It began its work by reversing all the tyrannical and illegal acts of the past eleven years, with the abolition of the Star Chamber and High Commission, and the impeachment of Strafford; while it secured itself by an act that it could not be dissolved without its own consent. Just before Charles I's trial it was "purged" by Colonel Pride of 96 members displeasing to the army, and the remnant — the "Rump" — continued to sit until its members were turned out by the Lord General Cromwell, April 20, 1653. The "Rump" was recalled by the officers on the failure of Richard Cromwell to maintain his

forced throughout his tenure of power to rely upon his own iron will. He succeeded in raising England to a high place among nations; it again assumed the position of leader of the Protestant interest, and again sought its allies among the enemies of Spain. But on the death of the great Protector, and at the prospect of a succession of military tyrannies, a wave of reaction swept over the country. Enthusiasm had died out, and that majority which

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OLIVER CROMWELL

Restora-
tion of
Charles
IIWar
with
Holland

at all times loves the old ways and prefers the easy paths of habit to the strenuous effort necessary to complete reforms, insisted on the restoration of the banished house. With general acclamation,

authority, and of the 160 members who had continued to sit after the king's death about 90 returned to their seats. Proving once more displeasing to the army, they were again turned out by General Lambert. They were restored amid the dissensions of the officers, as the only body in the country having any kind of legal authority, and, on the motion of

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though not without some attempts to restrain his power within legitimate limits, Charles II was brought back to Whitehall. Less arbitrary than his father, and far more capable of bending to the storm, he proved no less determined to maintain in his own way the fulness of the power he had inherited. He had to contend with much more formidable opponents. Though the full restoration of the church and crown had followed upon his accession, the rebellion had not been without permanent results. It was impossible that the parliament, which had for years been regarded as the source of government, should sink back into the position it had occupied in the reign of Charles I; the king could no longer hope to rule without it or to raise the revenue from illegitimate sources. The reign was one long dispute. The character of Charles, licentious, extravagant, and ready to waste the national resources upon his own pleasures, afforded ample ground of complaint. Surrounded by advisers as unscrupulous as himself, he sold himself to the French king to supply his financial wants. At the instigation of his paymaster, he plunged the country into a disastrous war with its Protestant neighbor, Holland, and by his mismanagement allowed the enemy's fleet to ride undisturbed at the very threshold of the capital. He tampered with the national credit, and attempted by an exercise of high prerogative to set aside the laws against the Catholics. The enthusiastic parliament elected upon his return became before the close of its long life his bitter opponent.

**The
 People
 Dissatis-
 fied**

The assaults of the opposition, Whigs, as they were now called, were directed against the Duke of York, the king's Roman Catholic brother. Nothing would satisfy them but his absolute exclusion from the throne. To bring discredit upon the Catholics, they were not ashamed to lend themselves to the infamous perjuries of Titus Oates. They thought of placing the king's illegitimate son, the Duke of Monmouth, upon the throne; but their insolence defeated itself. Charles, never deficient in political insight, understood the national love for the rights of legitimacy, the dread of a disputed succession, and the sympathy with which his efforts to support his brother were regarded. He dissolved his refractory parliament,

Ashley Cooper, the members ejected by "Pride's Purge" returned to their seats. After issuing the writs for a new election it dissolved itself, March 16, 1660. Thus ended the Long Parliament, which, twice expelled and twice restored, had lasted for twenty years.

and even thought of vengeance. He drove Shaftesbury, the leader of the opposition, from the country, and assaulted the strongholds of his enemies by finding excuses to confiscate the charters of London and other great cities. The Whigs, who saw that such a step by changing the constituencies might easily change the character of future parliaments, were driven to despair. The more statesmanlike among them began to think of seeking for the assistance of the king's nephew, the Prince of Orange. Some of the wilder spirits sought for a speedier remedy in assassination. The discovery and punishment of the Rye-house plot, and the skilful mingling of the aspirations of patriots with the atrocious schemes of vulgar murderers, for a while discredited the Whigs, and Charles died, to all appearance triumphant.

It remained for his brother to bring into action the deep-seated discontent which underlay the seeming success of the crown. With a want of judgment little short of judicial blindness, he proceeded in a few years to alienate every class in England. The open insurrections of Monmouth and Argyll were punished with reckless and bloody severity. The Test Acts were set at defiance, and Catholics filled the army. He maintained the shameful attitude his brother had adopted toward France. He laid his hand upon the freehold offices of the universities and the church, asserted the power of the crown to dispense with statutes, re-established the court of High Commission, called upon the clergy to read publicly his illegal declaration of religious indulgence, and established a standing army to overawe the capital. Such a series of tyrannical actions brought about the crisis.

The Whig leaders betook themselves to William of Orange. This great statesman, who had devoted his life to restrain within due limits the power of Louis XIV, at once accepted with joy the opportunity of adding the strength of England to his great combinations. Protestant in religion, tolerant both by nature and by political necessity, the powerful chief of a republican government, he was well fitted to rule a kingdom torn by religious and political factions. The heads of all the English parties had sought his aid; his mere appearance was sufficient to close the Stuart dynasty and drive James a fugitive from the country (1688).

The nation had again entered upon the full exercise of its powers. Taught by experience, before it deposited them in the hands

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Plotting
Assassination

Death of
Charles

William
of
Orange

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**Parlia-
ment
Trium-
phant****Power of
Royalty
Limited****Govern-
ment**

of the king, it formulated the liberties of the country in a great and binding charter which should at once and forever put an end to those efforts at personal rule which had rendered its previous history so stormy. The victory of parliament was thus completed. The reign of the first parliamentary king was indeed disturbed throughout by conspiracies, and rendered unrestful by the efforts of the exiled house, and at the close of the reign of Queen Anne for one critical moment there was a possibility that the Tories, under Bolingbroke, would succeed in re-establishing the Stuarts; but the rapid action of the great Whig nobles thwarted the attempt, and the failure of the Jacobite insurrection in 1715 secured, in accordance with the settlement of parliament, the Hanoverian House upon the throne. From that time onward, through the reigns of the four Georges, of William IV, and of Victoria, what we now regard as constitutional government * has constantly prevailed. The contests of parties, however severe, have been over differences of opinion of a less vital character than those involved in a change of dynasty. It has been possible, without revolution, without impeachment, to allow the quiet and orderly change of

* England holds a unique place among nations as regards her government. Under the nominal form of an hereditary monarchy, with restricted powers, the nation is actually governed by two houses of parliament, whose laws, when assented to by the sovereign, form the statutes of the realm. Her constitution is to a large extent unwritten, using the word in much the same sense as when we speak of unwritten law. Its rules can be found in no written document, but depend, as so much of English law does, on precedent modified by a constant process of interpretation.

The upper house, or House of Lords, consists of a varying number of members as regards the representation of England, but fixed with respect to Scotland and Ireland, comprising members of the royal family, archbishops, dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, bishops, barons, Scottish representative peers, and representative peers of Ireland. The government, through the sovereign, has an unrestricted power for creating new peerages, which at times has been largely used for political purposes. The actual functions of the House of Lords, as a branch of the legislature, are not very clearly defined; but it is generally assumed that it has a revising faculty over all bills passed by the Commons, except those relating to the public revenue and expenditure. Most of the sittings of the upper house are not only very short, but irregular.

If nominally inferior to the upper house, the lower house of legislature, or House of Commons, stands above it in actual power and authority. It is a power constantly on the increase, and tending to absorb all others, having proved the most auspicious for government. Its members are elected by popular vote. Although politically omnipotent, the House of Commons can not prolong its own existence beyond seven years. The average duration of parliaments in the present century has been three years and eight months, a term almost exactly coinciding with the average duration of cabinets within the period.

ministers as a regular part of the working of the parliamentary machine. Such a process implies little short of the complete disappearance of the personal wishes or opinions of the monarch as a factor in the political life of the nation. It was not without

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WILLIAM PITT

resistance that the crown consented to assume this attitude. Neither William III nor the statesmen who had secured his accession understood the full results of what had been done. Nor was William himself, bent upon using the wealth of his new

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**Benefits
of Party
Govern-
ment**

dominions to aid him in his great Continental schemes, inclined to resign any of the powers of the crown, or to throw himself into the arms of a single party; he attempted, like his predecessors, to employ, as his ministers, the ablest men of all parties. It was almost by accident that what is known as "party government," by which the king chooses his ministers from the majority in the House of Commons, and thus puts himself in harmony with his parliament, was discovered. The lesson which the success attending the great Whig movement of 1696 taught was strengthened by experience. It was not till the Duke of Marlborough, the heir of the views and objects of William, found himself supported by the homogeneous ministry of 1708, that he met with unqualified success. From that time the ministry, virtually a committee of the majority of the House, and known as the cabinet, has formed a recognized part of the machinery of the government.

But it was not only in the establishment of constitutional government that the revolution of 1688 produced a change in the attitude of England. It introduced the country as a first-rate power into the politics of Europe; no important complications have since arisen in which it has not played its part. Throughout William's reign, as a matter of course, its strength was employed against France. The war of the Spanish Succession opened to its armies under the leading of Marlborough a glorious career of victory. The Whig leaders, who had not shrunk from impeaching the authors of the Peace of Utrecht which closed it, yet appropriated the advantages then acquired, and forced England in support of the treaty to the very head of the European powers. In the war of the Austrian Succession, the national energies, directed chiefly against France, secured British supremacy upon the ocean, which ripened under the great Pitt in his alliance with Frederick of Prussia into the unquestioned command of the colonial world both in the East and West. Though paralyzed for a moment by the disasters of the American Rebellion, the military enterprise of the country revived under the younger Pitt. Forced into opposition to the French Revolution, he was the soul of the great coalitions by which the proselytizing vehemence of the Jacobins was held in check. The appearance of Napoleon upon the scene, and the extraordinary successes which attended his arms, changed the character of the war; it became a struggle for existence. It was

**Ocean
Suprem-
acy**

again English subsidies, English troops, and English successes in Spain which tended more than anything else to bring the great powers into action, and to rouse that feeling of national life which produced the overthrow of the Napoleonic empire. Once again England stood at the very head of European powers.

One cause of these vast successes, unexpected in a country under popular rule, is to be found in the character of the government which sprang from the revolution. That event was in its essence an aristocratic rather than a popular movement. The restriction of the constituencies and the influence of the possession of land threw power into the hands of a comparatively limited class. It was more as an oligarchy than as a democracy that England was able to prove itself so powerful abroad.

But great social changes were gradually working themselves out, a revolution was taking place in the industrial world. The enlarged application of steam, the invention of machinery, improved methods of agriculture, the extended use of coal, the removal of the iron trade from the South to the North, and its great increase, were all tending to bring into

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LORD HORATIO NELSON

Indus-
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Increasing
 Power
 of the
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greater prominence the trading, manufacturing, and artisan classes. The strange anomalies of the representation became still more glaring; change of occupation was not effected without much individual hardship, and the discontent arising from suffering was joined with that engendered by a sense of political exclusion. The ideas fostered by the French Revolution played their part in the general ferment. The determined and successful effort of the Irish Catholics to obtain religious emancipation laid bare the increasing weakness of the governing classes. And at length the leaders of the Whig party made common cause with the classes hitherto excluded from government, and, backed at once by the traders and the artisans, forced upon an unwilling parliament the great Reform Bill of 1832. This act was passed after a struggle lasting for more than a year, and it was carried in the teeth of the opposition of the House of Lords. The franchise was so arranged as to give a large share of influence to the middle classes of the towns. But though the land-owning aristocracy was no longer supreme, it was by no means thrown on the ground; lords and gentlemen of large estate and ancient lineage had taken the lead in reforming capital, and the class which had the advantages of leisure and position on its side would have no difficulty in leading as soon as it abandoned the attempt to stand alone. Experience taught large masses of men to submit to the guidance of experienced men. Among statesmen, too, the shock to the old order produced an open mind for the reception of new ideas, and the necessity of vesting authority on a wider foundation produced a desire for the spread of education, and gave rise to a public literature which aimed at interpreting to the multitude the thoughts by which their conduct might be influenced.

Various
 Reforms

The first great act of the Reform parliament bore the impress of the higher mind of the nation. The abolition of slavery in all British colonies in 1833 did credit to its heart; the new Poor Law in the following year did credit to its understanding. An attempt to strip the Irish established church of some of its revenues broke up the ministry. The king was frightened at the number of changes demanded, dismissed his ministers, and entrusted the formation of a new government to Sir Robert Peel. At this time the title of Tory was abandoned for the title of Conservative. It was the last time that the sovereign actively interfered in the

change of a ministry. The new ministry dissolved parliament. The increase in the number of his followers showed the country

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QUEEN VICTORIA

had to some extent taken alarm, but he could not command a majority, and he resigned office in favor of Lord Melbourne in 1835. The accession of Queen Victoria in 1837 did not cut short

Queen
Victoria

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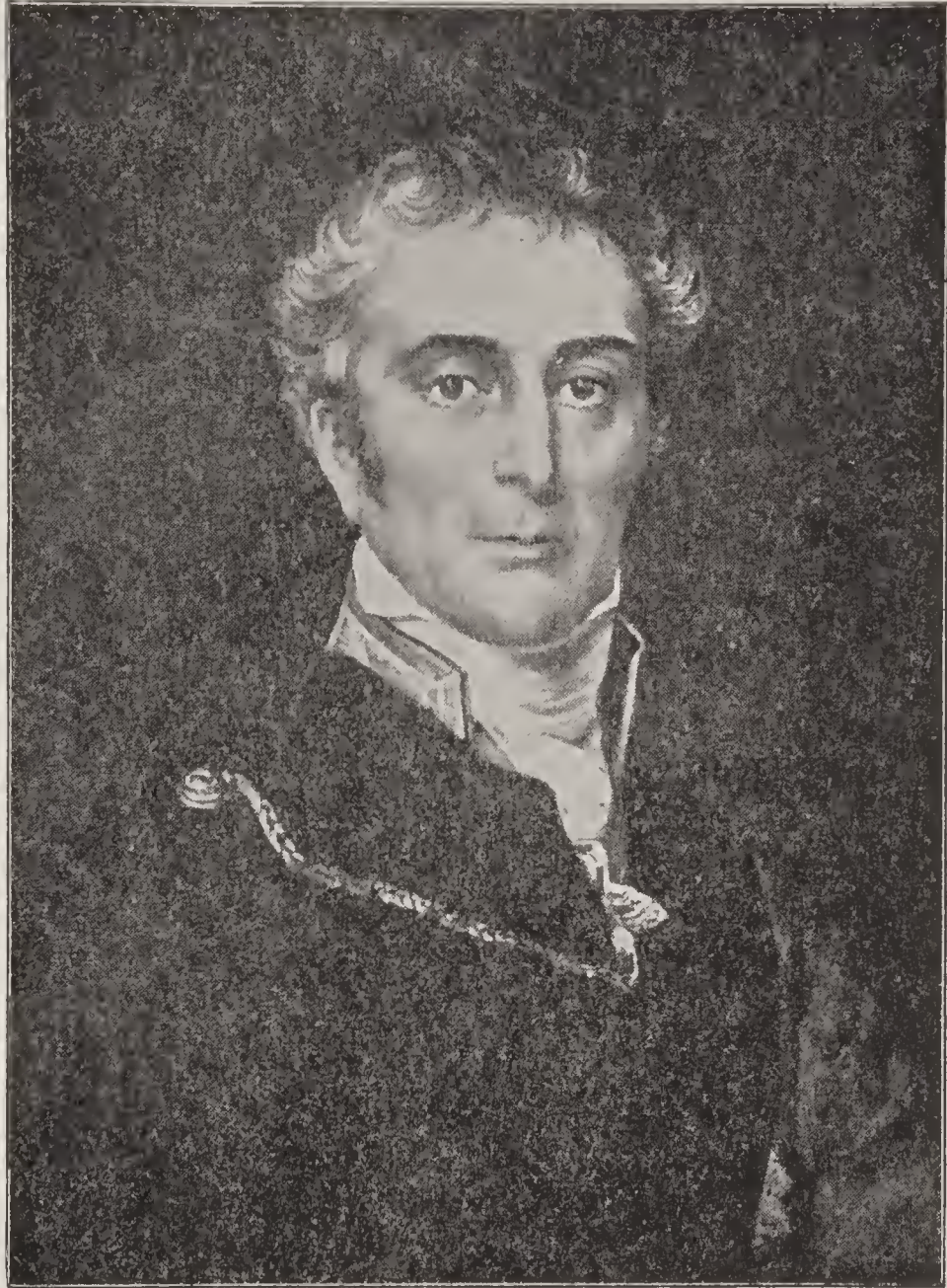
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Penny
Post
Intro-
ducedUnique
Corn
DutyFree
TradeCrimean
War

the tenure of power of the ministry, but the condition of the illiterate poor was deplorable, and it gave rise to the Chartist agitation for admission to the equal political rights of the middle classes. A large body of Chartists threatened an appeal to physical force, and the terror produced by these threats swelled the fire of conservative reaction. The ministry suffered, too, from a lack of financial ability. The introduction of penny postage for 1840 was a daring step in the face of the empire's finances, though it might be supported by the success of the lowering of the newspaper stamp duty in 1836. In 1841 the ministers produced free-trade measures as the best remedy for existing evils, but they were already discredited by past ill success in the management of the exchequer, and the hostile majority in the new parliament which carried Peel to power was the expression as much of want of confidence in their ability as of the dislike of their measures. The new ministry under Peel followed in the steps of his predecessors. An income tax was once more laid on to enable the prime minister to reduce the duties on imports. With respect to corn, he imposed a sliding scale of duties, which shut out foreign corn in seasons of low prices, and allowed it to come in in seasons of high prices. The great Anti-corn-law league was organized, and argued for the entire freedom from duty on imported food. At last Sir Robert Peel, shaken by argument, and moved by the difficulty of providing for an Irish famine, proposed and carried the repeal of the corn duties (1846). Peel's resolution broke up his party, and made his retirement from office inevitable. His system, however, was completed by his successor, Lord John Russell, and the markets were thrown open to foreign as well as to colonial sugar in 1846, and the repeal of the navigation laws in the following year enabled the merchant to employ foreign ships and seamen in the conveyance of his goods. After the short ministry of Lord Derby (1852) another sweeping abolition of duties was carried by Gladstone, as chancellor of the exchequer in the ministry of Lord Aberdeen (1853). In 1852-53 dissension arose between Russia and Turkey regarding the rise of Latin and Greek churches to preferable access to the "holy places" in Palestine. The emperor of Russia, resenting the concessions given French devotees, sent an envoy to Constantinople to demand redress, and not being satisfied, war was declared on June 26, 1853. On the plea that it was impossible to leave Rus

sia a free hand in dealing with Turkey, France and England formed an alliance against Russia in March of the following year; the invasion of Crimea followed. Several important battles were fought, resulting in favor of the allies till at length Sebastopol fell in 1855, and peace was signed the following year at Paris. Russia ceded a part of Bessarabia to Turkey, and consented to the free navigation of the new Danube and the neutrality of the Black Sea. Scarcely was the Crimean war over when Great Britain was threatened with the loss of her possessions in India through the mutiny of the Sepoys. For a time the authority of the government was entirely suspended throughout the greater part of Bengal, the whole of Oude, and a large part of central India, but in a comparatively short time 70,000 British troops



DUKE OF WELLINGTON

poured in from Burmah, Mauritius, the Cape, and elsewhere, and entirely suppressed the rebellion. One result of the mutiny was that by a bill passed August 21, 1858, the sovereignty hitherto exercised over the British possessions in India by the East India Company was transferred to the British crown.

Two wars with China (1858 and 1860), during which Canton was bombarded and Peking taken by the united forces of Britain and France, opened up five new Chinese ports to trade, with other

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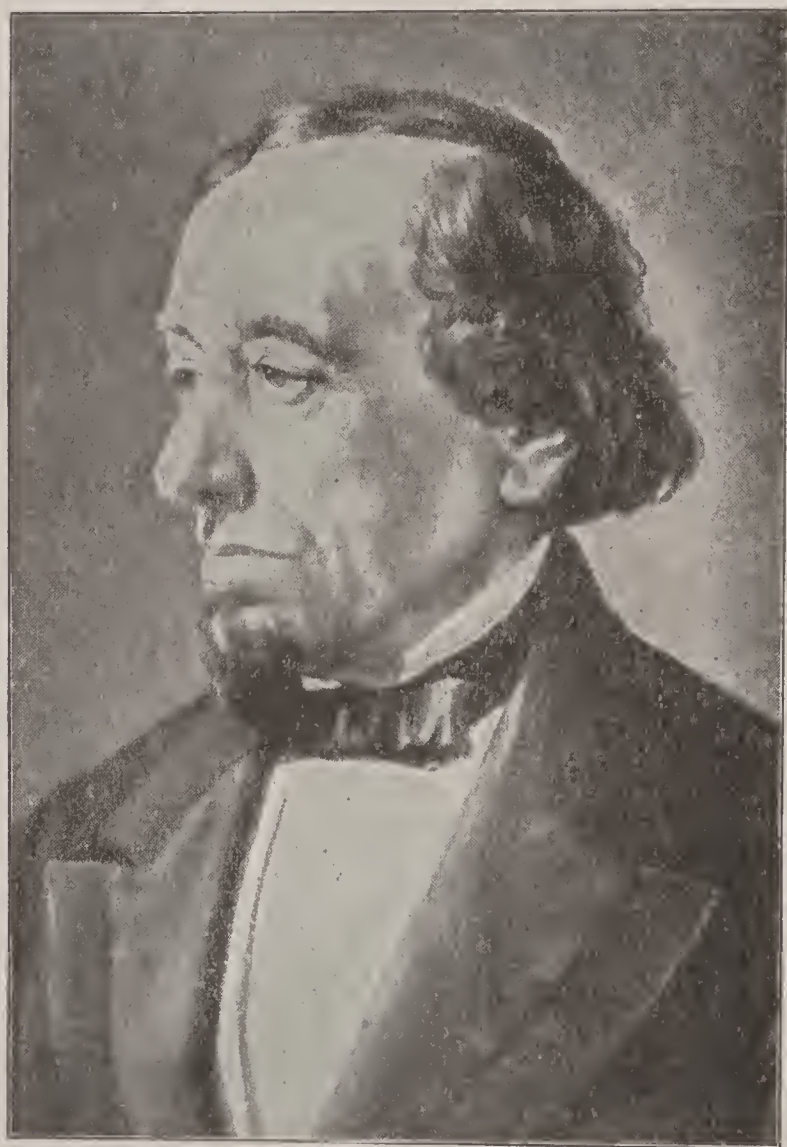
ENGLAND

**Indian
Mutiny**

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advantages. The great Civil war in the United States had for a time a disastrous effect on the cotton trade in Lancashire, causing wide-spread distress. Between 1861 and 1867 the Fenian movement, which had for its object the separation of Ireland from the United Kingdom, occasioned some excitement.

Parliamentary reform was attempted by several governments without success, until the government of the Earl of Derby in 1867 passed a measure establishing the principle of household suffrage.



BENJAMIN DISRAELI, EARL OF BEACONSFIELD

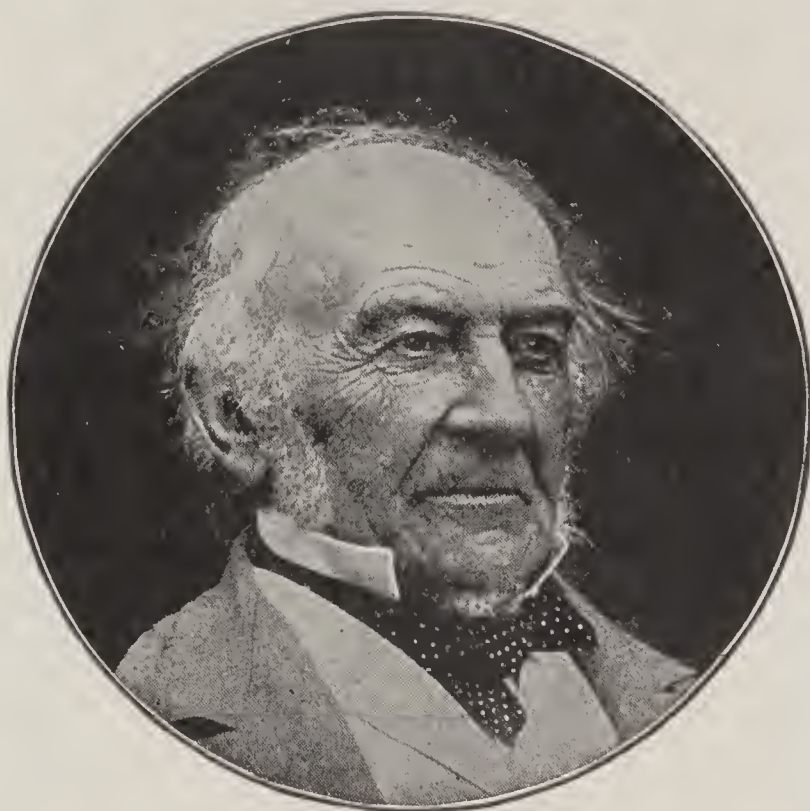
This year also saw the passing of the act by which the Dominion of Canada was constituted. In 1867 the Abyssinian expedition set out, and effected its object—the relief of English captives—in the spring of 1868. In the same year Lord Derby was succeeded by Mr. Disraeli as leader of the Conservative party, then in office. Before the end of the year a general election put the Liberals in power. In 1869 Mr. Gladstone's administration passed a bill for the disestablishment of the Irish Church. In 1870 an Irish Land Law bill, having for its

object the regulation of the relations between landlord and tenant, became law; and during the same session the act of parliament establishing a national system of education for England was passed. In 1871 the purchase of commissions in the army was abolished. Next followed the Ballot act and the Scotch Education act. Early in 1874 Mr. Gladstone dissolved parliament, and a large Conservative majority being returned, Mr. Disraeli (afterward earl of Beaconsfield) again became premier. The Ashantee war, begun the

Irish
 Church
 Disestab-
 lished

previous year, was brought to a successful termination early in 1874. In 1876 the title of Empress of India was added to the title of the queen. During the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78 Britain remained neutral, but took an important part in the settlement effected by the Berlin Congress, and acquired from Turkey the right to occupy and administer Cyprus. Then followed a war in Afghanistan, a war with the Kaffres of Zululand, and a brief war with the Boers of the Transvaal.

A new parliament was returned in 1880 with a large Liberal majority, and Mr. Gladstone once more became premier. This parliament passed a land act for Ireland (1881), an act for putting down crime in Ireland (1882), a reform act equalizing borough and county franchise (1884), and a redistribution of seats act (1885), both already described. The intervention of Britain in Egyptian affairs led to the bombardment of Alexandria by the British fleet (July, 1882), and the sending of an army into Egypt



WILLIAM E. GLADSTONE

to quell the rebellion headed by Arabi Pasha, which was soon accomplished; while the rising under the Mahdi in the Sudan caused British troops to be despatched to Suakin, and another force to be sent by way of the Nile (in the autumn of 1884) to relieve General Gordon at Khartum, an object which it was too late to accomplish. A new parliament was elected in the end of 1885, and for a brief period Lord Salisbury was premier, as he had latterly been in the preceding parliament, but in February, 1886, he made way for Mr. Gladstone. On March 29, Mr. Gladstone gave notice of his intention to introduce a bill which, among other things, would establish a separate Irish legislative body, and withdraw the Irish members from the imperial parliament. A determined opposition was organized, and a section of the Liberal party,

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**Egyptian
Cam-
paigns****Home
Rule for
Ireland
Defeated**

DIVISION III headed by men mostly old colleagues of Mr. Gladstone, operated with the Conservatives and succeeded in throwing out the bill on its second reading. The result was the resignation of the Gladstone ministry, and a general election, in which the Unionists, or those opposed to the bill, had a great majority. The Conservative party assumed office, with the Marquis of Salisbury as head. A criminal law amendment act for Ireland (1887), and a local government act for England (1888) were passed. In 1887 the jubilee of the queen was celebrated. The elections of 1892 resulted in a Liberal victory, and Mr. Gladstone again became premier.

EUROPE**ANCIENT
AND
MODERN****BRITISH
EMPIRE****ENGLAND****Glad-
stone
Fourth
Time
Premier**

The death of the Duke of Clarence (eldest son of the Prince of Wales) made the Duke of York heir to the throne.* A marvelous development of the African gold fields increased the value of these colonial possessions. England mourned the loss of the poet Tennyson, and of the historian Freeman. The year 1893 was memorable for the Bering Sea arbitration, the elevation of the American minister to ambassadorial rank, a campaign in Chitral, on the frontiers of India, the loss of the battle-ship "Victoria" off the coast of Tripoli, with twenty-two officers and three hundred and thirty-six men, and the defeat of Gladstone's second Home Rule bill for Ireland. The opening of the Manchester ship canal, the acquisition of Mashona and Matabeleland, and the death of Professor Tyndall were events of note. In 1894, the veteran statesman, Gladstone, finally retired from public life, the Venezuelan boundary trouble occurred. (See Vol. IX, pp. 1638-1654.) In the early part of 1895 the British arms were busily engaged with the tribesmen of the hills on the northwestern frontier of India and with the Kachins and Chius in Burmah. In June, 1895, Lord Rosebery's ministry resigned, and was succeeded by a Conservative ministry under Lord Salisbury. On the 25th of August, 1896, the

**Vene-
zuela
Incident****Heirs of
the
Throne**

* There are now three generations of direct heirs to the British throne. The youngest is the little son of the Duke of York. His father is the second son of the Prince of Wales who has been the "heir apparent" for the unusual period of nearly sixty years. An annuity of \$200,000 was settled on the Prince of Wales in 1863. He has besides the revenues of the duchy of Cornwall. These amounted prior to 1840 to between \$55,000 and \$80,000; since that period they have greatly risen, amounting in 1890 to \$364,525 (of which \$322,615 was paid to the prince, the rest being applied for the benefit of the estates, etc.). An income of \$50,000 is settled on the Princess of Wales, to be raised to \$150,000 in the event of her widowhood. The annuities of the Prince and Princess of Wales are charged on the Consolidated Fund. The Prince of Wales has a separate household, as also has the Princess of Wales. See "Prince of Wales," Vol. IV, p. 1413

Sultan of Zanzibar died and Said Kalid Barghash, a cousin of the dead ruler, usurped the throne. As Zanzibar is under a British protectorate, English troops were landed from the men-of-war in

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ALBERT EDWARD PRINCE OF WALES

the harbor, and the claims of the legitimate successor, Hamoudbin Mahomed, were enforced. This result was accomplished, however, only after the bombardment of the palace. February 22,

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 Death of
 Glad-
 stone

1898, Great Britain loaned \$80,000,000 to China, and in return gained many valuable trade concessions. William Ewart Gladstone, the veteran statesman, died on May 19, 1898, at his rural home in Wales. In the same month the British occupied the Chinese port of Wei-Hai-Wei, a position of great strategic importance, as it commands the approach to Port Arthur, the Russian port. On the 1st of July Great Britain, to offset the concessions which had been recently secured by France in China, leased a large part of the mainland and the waters of the bays approaching Hongkong. As a result of the increasing spirit of friendship existing between Great Britain and the United States an Anglo-American League was organized on July 13, 1898. The avowed intention of this influential body of representative Englishmen is the promotion of good-will between the two nations.

SCOTLAND.

SCOTLAND occupies the most northern part of the British Isles, and is separated from England, substantially, by the Solway, Cheviots, and the Tweed, the border isthmus being about sixty miles wide. The country now called Scotland emerges from prehistoric obscurity during the Roman occupation of Britain, though for many centuries little is known of its history. The Scots appear to have been descended from the Britons of the south or from the Caledonians, both of Celtic origin, and being pressed forward by new colonies from Gaul till they came to the western shores of Britain, there passed over to Ireland about a century before the Christian era. In their new abode, it is said, they obtained the name of Scuyts, or wanderers, from which the modern term Scots is supposed to be derived. About 320 A. D. they returned to Britain, or at least a large colony of them, under the conduct of Fergus, and settled on the coast of Caledonia whence they had formerly emigrated, and, in a few years after they were associated with the Picts in their expedition against the Roman provinces of South Britain.

The original seat of the Scots in North Britain was in Argyle, which they acquired by colonization and conquest before the end of the fifth century, and thence they spread themselves along the western coast from the Firth of Clyde to the modern Ross. About the middle of the sixth century, St. Kentigern (St. Mungo) imparted the knowledge of Christianity. The conversion of the northern Picts which took place about the same time, was effected by the famous St. Columba, an Irish-Scot of royal descent, who in 568 founded a monastery in Iona, which ultimately became one of the chief seats of learning in Europe and the nursery of over three hundred churches which St. Columba himself established. The indefatigable zeal of his disciples induced them to carry the faith to the Anglian inhabitants of Northumbria, and even to undertake voyages to the northern islands of the Norwegian seas for the purpose of propagating the gospel in these far-distant regions.

Aidan was inaugurated as sovereign by St. Columba in the island of Iona. He was a powerful prince, and more than once successfully invaded the English border, but in 603, toward the end of

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Origin of
 Scots

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Early
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 ary Zeal

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his reign, he received a severe defeat from the Northumbrian sovereign Ethelfrid.

The history of Aidan's successors is obscure and uninteresting, except to the professed students of early history. Their kingdom was overshadowed by the more powerful monarchy of the Picts, with which, as well as with its neighbors in the South — the Britons of Cumbria — it was engaged in almost unceasing conflict. The Scots were for a time under some sort of subjection to the



ROYAL OBSERVATORY, EDINBURGH

Gains
 of the
 Scots

English of Northumbria, but recovered their independence on the defeat and death of King Ecgfrid in battle with the Picts at Nechtansmere (Dunnichen, Forfarshire) in 685. In the middle of the 9th century, by a revolution, the exact nature of which has never been ascertained, the Scots acquired a predominance in northern Britain. Kenneth Macalpin, the lineal descendant of Fergus and Aidan, succeeded his father as king of the Scots in 836. The Pictish kingdom was weakened by civil dissension and a disputed claim to the crown. Kenneth laid claim to it as the true heir in the female line, and was acknowledged king of Alban in 843.

King Kenneth transferred his residence to Forteviot in Strath-

erne, which has been the Pictish capital, fixing soon afterward the ecclesiastical metropolis of the united kingdom at Dunkeld, whence in 908 it was translated to Abernethy. The Picts and Scots, each speaking a dialect of the Celtic tongue, gradually coalesced into one people, whose territory extended from the Firths of Forth and Clyde to the northern extremity of Britain. The crown descended to a line of princes of the family of Kenneth, whose rule gave a unity and tranquillity to the Scots of Britain which those of Ireland, at no time really united under one prince, never possessed. The first interruption to the descent of the crown in the line of Kenneth was the reign of a usurper named Grig, round whose name, amplified to Gregory by the writers of a later age, a cloud of legendary fiction gathered. The old family was restored by his expulsion in 893.

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**Line of
 Kenneth**

The reign of Constantine, son of Aodh, who succeeded in 904, was a remarkable one. In his time it is probable that the seal of the ecclesiastical primacy was transferred from Abernethy to St. Andrews, and that the legal residence was fixed to Scone. At the latter place, in the sixth year of his reign, the chronicles mention that Constantine the king, Kellach the bishop, and the Scots swore to observe the laws and discipline of the faith and the rights of the churches and the gospels. This seems to indicate the meeting of some sort of council, civil or ecclesiastical, or more probably a combination of both, according to the form prevalent at this period both among the Celtic and the Teutonic nations. Even before the establishment of the kingdom of the Picts and Scots in the person of Kenneth, northern Britain had experienced the attacks of a new enemy, the Scandinavian invaders, generally spoken of under the name of Danes. Constantine resisted them bravely, but toward the end of his reign he entered into an alliance with them in opposition to the English. In 937 a powerful army, composed of Scots and Picts, Britons and Danes, disembarked on the Humber, and was encountered at Brunanburb by Athelstan, king of England. A battle was fought there, the first of a series of unfortunate combats by Scottish princes on English ground. The confederate army was defeated, and, though Constantine escaped, his son was among the slain. Weary of strife, the king soon afterward retired to the Culdee monastery at St. Andrews, of which he became abbot, and there died in 953.

**Danish
 Inva-
 sions**

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During the reign of Malcolm, the first of that name, and the successor of Constantine, a portion of the Cumbrian kingdom, including the modern Cumberland and part of Westmoreland, which had been wrested from the Britons by Edmund, king of England, was bestowed by that prince on the Scottish sovereign. This grant was the foundation of that claim of homage made by the English kings on the Scottish sovereigns, which afterward became the cause or the pretext for the great struggle between the two



ABERDEEN.

Kingdom
 Ad-
 vanced

nations. The northern kingdom was still further increased in the reign of Kenneth, son of Malcolm, by the acquisition of Lothian, and of Northern Cumbria, or Strathclyde. The former province, previously a part of the Northumbrian kingdom, and entirely English in its population, was bestowed on Kenneth by Edgar, king of England. The Cumbrian kingdom, which had at one time extended along the west coast from the Firth of Clyde to the border of Wales, had been weakened by the loss of its southern territories; it was inhabited by a Celtic people speaking Cymric or Welsh, and now fell under the dominion of the Scottish king,

though its inhabitants long retained their own speech and a peculiar system of laws. The last addition to Scotland in the south took place under Malcolm II, son of Kenneth, who acquired the Merse and Teviotdale from the Earl of Northumbria, and thus advanced his kingdom on the eastern border to the Tweed. The reign of Malcolm II extended from 1003 to 1033. The kings who immediately followed are better known to the general readers than any of their predecessors, Shakespeare having made their names familiar to every one. Malcolm's successor was his grandson, Duncan, whose brief reign was followed by that of Macbeth. The latter was a vigorous and prudent ruler, munificent to the church, and famous as the only Scottish king who made a pilgrimage to Rome. But, although by marriage he was connected with the royal line, he was unable to secure the affection of his subjects. Malcolm, the eldest son of Duncan, assisted by his kinsman, Siward, Earl of Northumbria, invaded Scotland. The usurper was defeated and slain at Lumphanan, in Mar, in 1057, and Malcolm was acknowledged as king.

The long reign of Malcolm Canmore was the commencement of a great social and political revolution in Scotland. His residence in England, and still more his marriage with the English Princess Margaret, the sister of Edgar Atheling, led to the introduction of English customs, the English language, and an English population into the northern and western districts of the kingdom. The influx of English colonists was increased by the tyranny of William the Conqueror and his Norman followers. All received a ready welcome from the Scottish king, whose object it was to assimilate the condition of the Scots in every respect to that of their fellow subjects in Lothian; and what his stern though generous character might have failed to accomplish was brought about by the winning gentleness and Christian graces of his English queen.

Malcolm fell in battle before Aynwick Castle in the year 1093, and Margaret survived only a few days. It seems as if the work of their reign was about to be utterly overthrown. The Celtic people of Scotland, attached to their old customs, and disregarding the claims of Malcolm's children, raised his brother, Donald Bane, to the throne. The success, however, of this attempt to restore a barbarism which the better part of the nation had outgrown was

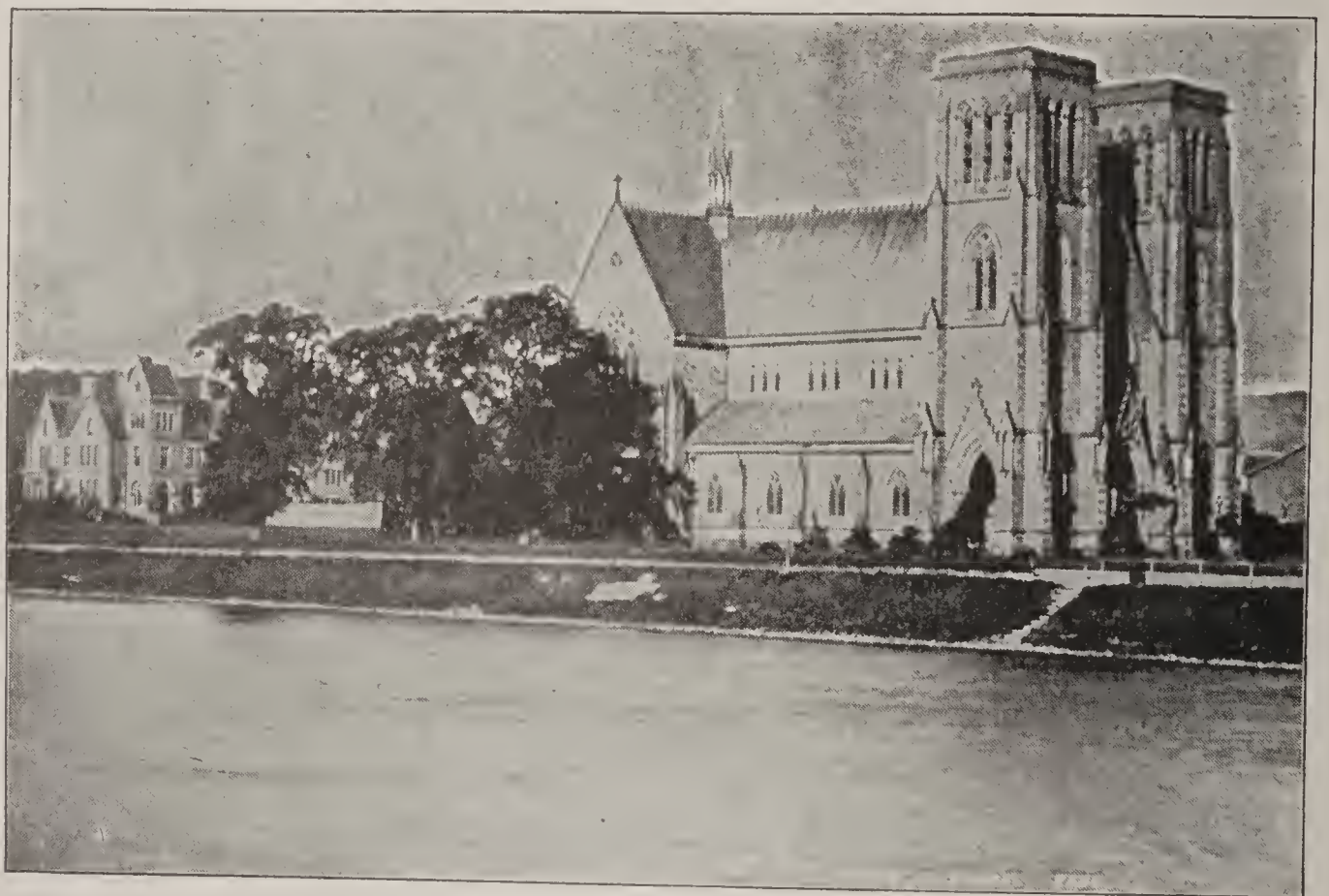
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Macbeth

English
 Factors
 Introduced

DIVISION III of brief duration; Donald was dethroned, and Edgar, the oldest surviving son of Malcolm and Margaret, was acknowledged as king. The very name of the new sovereign marked the ascendancy of English influence. That influence, and all the beneficial effects with which it was attended, continued to increase during the reigns of Edgar, and his brother and successor, Alexander I. The change went steadily on under the wise and beneficent rule of David, the youngest son of Malcolm. His reign, which extended from 1124 to 1153, was devoted to the task of ameliorating the

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Ascendancy of English Influence



INVERNESS CATHEDRAL

condition of his subjects, and never was such a work more nobly accomplished. David was in every respect the model of a Christian king. Pious, generous, and humane, he was at the same time active and just, conforming himself to the principles of religion and the rules of the church with all the devotion of his mother, but never forgetting that to him, not to the clergy, God had committed the government of his kingdom. He was all that Alfred was to England, and more than St. Louis was to France. Had he reigned over a more powerful nation, his name would have been one of the best known among those of the princes of Christendom. At the time of David's accession Scotland was still but partially

David a Model King

civilized, and it depended in a great measure on the character of its ruler whether it was to advance or recede. It received a permanent stamp from the government of David. The Celtic people were improved morally, socially, and ecclesiastically, and all along the eastern coast were planted Norman, English, and Flemish colonies, which gradually penetrated into the inland districts, and established the language and manners of that Teutonic race which forms the population of the greater part of Scotland. David encouraged and secured the new institutions by introducing a system of written law, which gradually superseded the old Celtic traditional usages, the first genuine collections of Scottish legislation belonging to his reign. David was as great a reformer in the church as in the state. The ecclesiastical system prevalent in Scotland almost up to his time differed in some points from that established in England and on the Continent, bearing a great resemblance to that of Ireland, from which it was indeed derived. David established dioceses, encouraged the erection and endowment of parishes, provided for the maintenance of the clergy by means of tithes, and, displacing the old Celtic monastic bodies, introduced the Benedictine and Augustinian orders.

David, though devoting his energies to the improvement of his subjects in the matter which has been mentioned, did not forget duties of a less agreeable kind. He knew that a Scottish king really held his crown by the tenure of the sword, and none of his fierce ancestors was a more intrepid warrior than the accomplished and saintly David. His skill and courage were shown, though without success, at the Battle of the Standard. As the representative, through his mother, of the ancient kings of England, he had many friends in that country; and had the Scottish army been successful, the history of the two kingdoms might in some respects have been different. At it was, he contented himself with maintaining the cause of his sister's child, the Empress Matilda, against King Stephen.

David's grandson and successor, Malcolm IV, and his brother, William the Lion, pursued the policy of their grandfather with equal resolution, though sometimes with less success. They were embarrassed by their connection with the English king, Henry II, who took advantage of his superior power and ability to impose unwise and unjust restraints on the independence of the Scottish

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Law
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cessful
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**A Period
 of Peace**
 Scot-
 land's
 Loss in
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 ander III

sovereigns and their kingdom — a policy which laid the foundation of the unhappy national strife of after years. This was averted for a time by the concessions of Richard I in 1189. “For more than a century,” says Lord Hailes, “there was no national quarrel, no national war between the two kingdoms — a blessed period.” That period was well employed by the next two kings, Alexander II and Alexander III, the son and grandson of William the Lion, to consolidate the institutions of their kingdom, and extend and confirm what had been begun by David. Alexander III was one of the ablest and best of the Scottish kings. By a treaty with the king of Norway he added to his kingdom Man and the other islands of the Western Sea, held by the Norwegians. His sudden death in 1286 was one of the greatest calamities with which Scotland could have been afflicted. It closed a period of prosperity — a course of improvement — which the kingdom did not again enjoy for fully 400 years.

Disputed
 Succes-
 sion
 Bruce

On the death of the infant granddaughter and heiress of Alexander III in 1290 the succession to the crown was disputed. The question between the two chief claimants, Baliol and Bruce, was not free from doubt according to the customs of the time; and Edward I of England, to whom the decision was referred, appears at first to have acted with good faith. But this great king, who had already subdued Wales, was now bent on uniting the British Islands under one scepter; and in the pursuit of that object he sacrificed humanity, honor, and justice. The results were most deplorable. The national spirit of the Scots was finally roused, and after a long struggle under Wallace and Bruce, in 1314 they secured their independence on the field of Bannockburn. The battle of freedom was won; but it was at the expense of tranquillity and civilization. The border counties were continually wasted by the English; the central provinces were the scene of frequent warfare among the chief nobles; and the highland districts became more and more the seat of barbarism, the Celtic tribes reacquiring something of their old ascendancy, just as they did in Ireland in the troubled times which followed the invasion of Edward Bruce. The strong arm of King Robert might have repressed these disorders had his life been longer spared after the treaty of Northampton; but his death in 1329 and the accession of an infant son again plunged the country into all the miseries of foreign and civi-

war. When that son, David II, grew up to manhood, he proved in every respect unworthy of his great father. The reigns of this prince and his successors Robert II and Robert III, the two first princes of the house of Stuart, may be regarded as the most wretched period of Scottish history. In the year 1411 the kingdom would have become absolutely barbarous if the invasion of the Lord of the Isles had not been repulsed at Harlaw by the skill of the Earl of Mar and the bravery of the lowland knights and burgesses.

A happier time began to dawn with the release of James I in 1424 from his English captivity. The events of the following period are better known, and a brief notice of the most important will be sufficient. The vigorous rule of James I

had restored a tranquillity to which his kingdom had long been unaccustomed; but strife and discord were again brought back on his assassination. One of the most calamitous features of the time was a long series of minorities. James himself had succeeded to the crown when a child and a captive; James II, James III, James IV, James V, Mary, and James VI all succeeded while under age, and all except James IV when little more than infants. The courage and ability shown by almost all the Stuart princes were insufficient to repair



MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS

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the mischiefs done by others in the beginning of their reigns, and to abate the great curse of the country — the unlimited power and constant feuds of the nobles. The last addition to the Scottish kingdom was made in the reign of James III, when the islands of Orkney and Shetland were made over to him as the dowry of his queen, Margaret of Denmark. The marriage in 1503 of James IV to Margaret of England was far more important in its ultimate results, and brought about in the reign of his great-grandson that peaceful union with England which the death of the Maid of Norway had prevented in the thirteenth century. Many good laws were enacted in the reigns of the Jameses; but the wisdom of the Scottish legislature was more shown in framing them than the vigor of the government in enforcing them. Among the most important improvements of the period was the establishment of universities; the first of which, that of St. Andrews, was founded during the minority of James I, and the institution of the College of Justice in the reign of James V.

Church
 Cor-
 ruptions

Church
 and
 State

Crom-
 well's
 Interfer-
 ence

During the reign of the fifth James religious discord added another element to the evils with which Scotland was afflicted. The practical corruptions of the church were greater than they were in almost any other country in Europe, and one of the consequences was that the principles of the Reformation were pushed further than elsewhere. The first great ecclesiastical struggle had hardly ceased, by the overthrow of the Roman Catholic system, when the strife began anew in the Reformed Communion in the shape of a contest between Episcopacy and Presbyterianism, the former being supported by the sovereign, the latter by the common people, the nobles throwing their weight into either scale, as it suited their policy at the time. James VI struggled hard to establish an absolute supremacy, both in church and state, in opposition to a powerful party, which admitted no royal authority whatever in the former and very little in the latter. After his accession to the English crown, he was apparently successful in carrying out his designs, but during the reign of his son, Charles I, the contest again broke out with increased bitterness. The nobility, whose rapacity had been checked by the sovereign, joined the popular party. The opponents of the crown bound themselves together, first by the National Covenant, and afterward, in alliance with the English Puritans, by the Solemn League and Covenant. Their



MONUMENT TO SIR WALTER SCOTT, EDINBURGH

efforts were completely successful, but their success lead to the utter overthrow of the monarchy by Cromwell.

The restoration of Charles II was welcomed by all classes, wearied as they were of a foreign and military rule, but especially by the nobles and gentry, who had learned by bitter experience that the humiliation of the sovereign was necessarily followed by the degradation of their order. Had the government of Charles II and James VII been reasonably just and moderate, it could hardly have failed in securing general support; but it was more oppressive and corrupt than any which Scotland had experienced since the

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ROYAL EXCHANGE, GLASGOW

regencies in the minority of James VI. The natural result was the revolution which seated William and Mary on the throne; the rising under Dundee was crushed at Killiecrankie.

**William
 and
 Mary**

The parliament of Scotland, which met for the last time in 1706, was originally composed, like the English parliaments, of three classes — the ecclesiastics (consisting of bishops, abbots, and priors), the barons, and the burgesses. The spiritual lords, during the establishment of Episcopacy after the Reformation, were composed of bishops only. When Presbyterianism was established at the time of the Covenant, and when it was formally ratified by law at the revolution, the ecclesiastical estate ceased to have any place in parliament. The barons, or immediate vassals of the

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Popular
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crowns, at first sat in their own right, whether holding peerages or not; but afterward the peers alone sat, the others sending their representatives. The burgesses were the representatives of the burghs. All the three estates sat to the very last in one house, the sovereign presiding in person, or through a commissioner named by him.

Hardly had the majority of the nation been successful in the revolution settlement when many of them began to repent of what they had done, and Jacobitism became more popular than ever royalist principles had been when the house of Stuart was on the throne. The discontent was greatly increased by the fears entertained of English influence. Ancient jealousies had been revived and intensified by the collapse of the Darien Scheme. The state of matters grew so threatening after the accession of Queen Anne that the ruling English statesmen became satisfied that nothing short of an incorporating union between the two kingdoms could avert the danger of a disputed succession to the throne and of a civil war. Supported by some of the ablest and most influential persons in Scotland, they were successful in carrying through their design, though it was opposed by a majority of the Scottish people, under such leaders as Fletcher.

The Act of Union was formally ratified by the parliament of Scotland on January 16, 1707. It subsequently received the royal assent, and came into operation on the 1st of May of the same year.* The union continued to be unpopular in Ireland for many years, an unpopularity increased by the corrupt means freely used to carry it through. Suspicions were cherished that the national life would pass away with the national separateness, and that the independence of the Scottish church and the distinctness of the national system of jurisprudence would inevitably suffer. There

* Down to 1707 Scotland had an independent parliament; the three estates of that kingdom sat together in one house, and the conduct of business was for the most part left to a smaller body called Lords of the Articles. At the Union the Scottish parliament ceased to exist; it was agreed that sixteen Scottish peers (elected by an assembly of peers at Holyrood, at the opening of a new parliament) should sit in the House of Lords, and not less than forty-five Scottish members in the House of Commons. The officers of state are the Secretary for Scotland, the Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, the Lord Clerk Register, the Lord Advocate, and the Lord Justice-clerk. The duties of the first, appointed under an Act of 1885 (amended 1887), were transferred to him from the Home Secretary, and relate to educations, sanitation, manufactures, prisons, etc. See government, Vol. III, p. 1364.

were agitations and petitions for the repeal of the union and the restoration of the national parliament. But the discontent gradually died down; not that the malcontents were silenced by argument but by the logic of facts. The association with the larger and wealthier kingdom of the south opened a vastly wider field to the enterprise for which in all departments of life the "*præferendum ingenium Scotorum*" had already been noted; and the rapid growth of prosperity by the extension of old and the establishment of new industries helped to bring about a sense of well-being and content. The peaceful acquiescence of the great majority of the nation in the union was brought out at the time of the Jacobite rebellions of 1715 and 1745; the Porteous mob was a temporary ebullition of a discontent only partly political. It became patent to all that the consequences of the union were beneficial to both countries; yet Scotland and England are in many respects two countries still.

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The
People
Acqui-
esce

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IRELAND

IRELAND.

Legend-
ary Early
History

IRELAND is an island forming part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. It is divided into the four provinces of Ulster, Leinster, Munster, and Connaught, which again are subdivided into thirty-two counties. The history of Ireland, like that of almost all ancient countries, "tracks its parent lake" back into the enchanted realm of legend and romance and fable. It has been said, not untruly, of Ireland, that she "can boast of ancient legends rivaling in beauty and dignity the tales of Attica and Argolis; she has an early history whose web of blended myth and reality is as richly colored as the record of the rulers of Alba Longa and the story of the Seven Kings." It is impossible to get at history in the beautiful myths and stories. We should puzzle our brains in vain to find out whether the Lady Cesair who came to Ireland before the deluge with fifty women and three men has any warrant, even the slenderest, from genuine tradition or is a child of fable altogether. We can not get at any hint of the actual truth about Conn of the Hundred Fights and Fin MacCoul and Oisín. But the impression which does seem to be conveyed clearly enough from all these romances and fables and ballads is that there was in Ireland a very ancient civilization, and that the island was occupied in dim, far-off ages by successive invaders who came from the south. The Phœnicians are said to have represented one wave of invasion and the Greeks another. Many an observer, who has little in him of the merely fanciful, has left it on record that in his opinion the Celtic Irish even still give evidence that they are the descendants of a Southern people. Nemedians, Firbolgs, Tuatha de Dananns, and Scots are reported to have successively planted themselves in an island which before their coming was probably the home of an Iberian people.

Reported
Phœni-
cian and
Greek In-
vasionSt.
Patrick

What may be called the authentic history of Ireland begins with the life and career of St. Patrick. Patrick was born in Scotland, and in his early youth was carried as a slave to Ireland. He escaped to Rome and rose high in the service of the then united church. Somewhat early in the fifth century he returned to Ireland with the object of converting the island to Christianity. Accomplishing his mission completely, he even made Ireland the great missionary school for the propagation of the faith all

over Europe. At this time Ireland was divided into septs or clans, each sept bearing the name of the head of the family. The septs all owed allegiance to the chief king. All the chieftainships were elective, and during the lifetime of each chief his successor was chosen from the same family, and was called the Tanist. All the land was held by the septs for the benefit of the people, and there was no feudal condition, and no system of primogeniture. Near the close of the eighth century the Danish sea-rovers invaded Ire-

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CUSTOM HOUSE, DUBLIN

land, and overran a great part of it, and made settlements on the eastern coasts. The Irish chiefs were divided among themselves and could not keep out the enemy, and the Danish occupation lasted for much more than a century. At last, in 968–984, a strong and capable Irish chieftain, Brian Boroimhe, brother of the king of Munster, defeated the Danes, and although he did not drive them out of the country, he reduced them to the condition of subdued and submissive residents. Brian now made himself king of Ireland, and for twelve years reigned a successful ruler over a peaceful and prospering country. As he grew old, the

Repeated
 Defeats
 of the
 Danes

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Danes plucked up spirits again, and got a fleet and an army from their kinsmen across the sea to invade Ireland. Brian, old as he was, proved himself equal to the occasion. He completely defeated the Danes at Clontarf, but was killed in his tent at the end of the battle by one of the enemy, April 23, 1014. There were no more Danish invasions; but the Danish settlers continued to occupy the seaport towns of the east, and in time became absorbed in the common population of the island.

A far more momentous event in the history of Ireland was the Norman invasion (1167-72). This took place in the reign of Henry II, and is another story of Helen of Troy, and of Virginia, and of the fabulous Florinda, who was said to have been loved not wisely but too well by Roderick the Goth. The king of Leinster carried off the wife of the chieftain of Breffni. The injured husband made war upon his wronger; the king of Leinster was getting the worst of it, and fled to England, and induced Henry II to lend him countenance and even help. Henry had before this received a bull from Pope Adrian IV, an Englishman, authorizing him to assume authority over Ireland, in order that Ireland might be made more submissive than she was to the ecclesiastical direction of Rome. Henry now took the opportunity offered him by the fugitive king of Leinster, and allowed, if he did not authorize, a sort of "Free Companions" invasion of Ireland, and afterward came over himself to finish the conquest. The Irish kings and chiefs fought fiercely, but the Normans were far better armed, and in fact the story of the Norman invasion of England was told over again in Ireland. Henry organized the country after the Norman fashion as well as he could. He divided the island into counties, and set up the courts, King's Bench, Pleas, and Exchequer, in Dublin. He allowed the native Irish, however, to keep to their time-honored system of law. He made huge grants of land, the septal property of the island, to his favorite Norman barons, leaving the barons to hold the granted land in the best way they could. So began the great land struggle in Ireland, which has lasted down to our own days.

Papal
 Bull Con-
 cerning
 Authority

The history of Ireland for a long time after the settlement of the Normans became nothing but a monotonous recital of the struggles between the Norman barons and the Irish chieftains, and the struggles between one Irish chieftain and another. The Nor-

man or English barons lived within the cincture of their own domains, and administered affairs on the feudal system. The English territory was known as the Pale. Outside were the Irish, who still strove hard to keep up their own laws, their own customs, and their own civilization. English law did not extend any of its protection to them. They had no rights which a Norman was bound to recognize. As time went on, however, a curious change was taking place. The English began to be drawn very much toward Irish ways and Irish people. They took to marrying Irish women, and speaking the Irish language. This mingling of races alarmed the government in England, and the severest enactments were passed forbidding the adoption by English settlers of Irish names, speech, customs, or garb. One especially cruel edict ordained that any Englishman who married an Irish wife was to be mutilated in a horrible way, and then put to death. It was not found possible, however, to put such laws in force often enough to prevent the blending of the races. The Englishmen still married the Irish women. The great Norman family of the Geraldines was described as more Irish than the Irish themselves.

By the time that Henry VII had come to the throne the greater part of the island was in the hands of Anglo-Irish chieftains. There was a parliament on the Norman idea sitting in Ireland, and illustrating at least the principle of a representative system. Henry VII seemed at first inclined to leave the Geraldines to manage Ireland in the best way they could; but when the Geraldines supported the cause of Perkin Warbeck and Lambert Simnel, Henry retaliated on them and on Ireland. He sent over Sir Edward Poynings as lord-deputy, with a strong army at his back, and with ample authority to make a great change. Poynings summoned a parliament at Drogheda, and compelled it to pass the famous measure known as Poynings' Act (1494). This act declared that all English laws should have force in Ireland, and that all legislation in the Irish parliament should be confined to measures which had been first approved of by the king and the privy-council in England. Poynings' Act is an epoch in the history of Ireland.

Henry VII died. The Geraldines defied the power of Henry VIII. The rebellion of "Silken Thomas" broke out. "Silken Thomas," so nicknamed because of the splendor of his dress, was Lord Thomas Fitzgerald, and he proved himself of stronger stuff

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English
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Henry
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ings' Act

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Church
Lands
Confis-
cated by
Henry
VIII

than silk. He raised a desperate revolt against the king, but after a hard struggle he was defeated, and he and his five uncles, who had taken up arms with him, were brought to the tower of London and hanged. Henry confiscated the church lands in Ireland exactly as he had done in England. A parliament was summoned in Dublin, at which, for the first time, some of the Irish chieftains were seen sitting side by side with Englishmen. These were certain of the Irish princes who had agreed to hold their lands as the gift of the crown, to attend the king's parliament and seek justice in the king's courts, to send their sons to be educated in England, and to renounce the authority of the pope. This parliament conferred on Henry and his successors the title of king of Ireland instead of Lord Paramount, the former designation of the sovereign. A weary chapter of struggle followed the death of Henry VIII. Henry had done his best to compel the Irish chieftains and people to give up the faith of Rome, and adopt what was now the faith of the majority in England. This was but a new source of bitterness and strife. The great family of O'Neill raised its head higher than ever, and the chief, whom, in defiance of English law, it elected to that place, Shane O'Neill, was actually able to make terms with Elizabeth. The Geraldine League was formed. Walter Devereux, the first earl of Essex, was sent over in 1573 to put down the O'Neills; but, although he slaughtered whole masses of them, he could not extirpate them. A chronic state of civil war prevailed. After each new rising had been put down, there was a new confiscation of territory, a new planting of English and Scottish settlers, and a new attempt to extirpate the native Irish.

Civil
WarO' Neill's
Rebellion

“Red Hugh O'Neill” was the most distinguished rebel who had yet appeared in Ireland. He was the grandson of an O'Neill who had consented to accept from Henry VIII the title of Earl of Tyrone. Hugh O'Neill had been brought up at the court of Elizabeth, and was accounted an ornament of even that most brilliant circle. He was confirmed in his title of Earl of Tyrone. But when he went back to his own country, he seems to have found blood thicker than water, for he resumed his ancestral title of “The O'Neill,” and put on all the ways of an independent Irish prince. He did not at first go into open rebellion; but “rebellion lay in his way and he found it.” Whether he was driven into it by the intrigues of

English agents and officials, or whether he of his own motion struck for the independence of the country, it would not now be easy to decide. He put himself at the head of a great rebellion of the chiefs, and he won a complete victory in Ulster over Sir Henry Bagenal, the lord-marshal. Bagenal himself was killed. There was something romantic about the encounter of these two opponents. Some time before, O'Neill, then a widower, had fallen in love with Bagenal's beautiful sister. His love was returned, and the lady eloped with him and became his wife. The river Blackwater saw her brother's defeat and death. For a while fortune seemed to smile on Hugh O'Neill. Robert, the second and most famous Essex, was despatched in 1599 to defeat him, with the largest army ever sent into Ireland up to that time; but Essex could do nothing. He was outgeneraled and outwitted by the Irish chief, and went back to England and his death. Lord Mountjoy, a stronger soldier, was sent to Ireland in his place, and he at last succeeded in defeating Tyrone, and putting down the rebellion. O'Neill had to come to terms, and to renounce all his claims as an independent Irish prince. Elizabeth died, and James I accepted the surrender.

But James had set his heart on getting rid of all the Irish laws and usages of the country, and if possible putting down the Roman Catholic religion. Tyrone and another Irish chief, Tyrconnel, fled from the country, which they saw they had no longer the power to maintain; and both died years after in Rome, and were buried there. "The fight of the earls," as it is called, left the island completely in the hands of King James. There were again vast confiscations and new settlements. When King Charles succeeded to the throne, and came into trouble with his people, some of the Irish chiefs thought their opportunity had come. The native Irish in Ulster rose under Sir Phelim O'Neill, not so much against English rule as against the Scotch and English settlers who had been planted there. In that rising, following on the eight years' administration of Stafford, occurred what is called "the massacre of 1641." So far as one can form any judgment, it does not seem as if there was any deliberate and purposed massacre of the Protestants, although it is impossible to doubt that there was a very barbarous slaughtering of Protestants in one place. The struggles of that time indeed show over and over again hideous incidents which

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Defeat of
 O' Neill

Massacre
 of Protes-
 tants

Its
 Causes
 Ques-
 tioned

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Counsel
 from
 Rome

Crom-
 well's
 Victories

Coloniza-
 tion by
 Cromwell

can hardly be described as anything but massacres. The question in this case is, Was there a conspiracy to massacre the Protestant settlers, or was there a rebellion, in the outbreak of which a slaughter of a great number of Protestants was a ghastly incident?

The rising soon became something very like a national rebellion. Colonel Owen O'Neill, nephew of the gallant Tyrone,—Owen Roe O'Neill, as he is always called in Irish song and history,—came over to lead the struggle. He had won a high place in the Spanish army. At first his arms in Ireland were all-successful. A parliament was held in Kilkenny—a national convention—in October, 1642, to proclaim and establish the independence of Ireland. The papal nuncio Ranuccini came from Rome to give his counsel and support to the movement. Charles himself favored the Irish, and made many pledges to them in the hope of getting their help. His hour, however, had come; his struggle was over, and his execution left Cromwell free to take Ireland in hand. The only man in Ireland capable of meeting Cromwell on a battle-field with any chance of success was unquestionably Owen Roe O'Neill; he had already won one victory over the English forces, but before he had time to throw himself across Cromwell's path, Owen died. He died so suddenly that the common belief of the Irish people was that he had been poisoned. There seems no good ground for assuming anything of the kind; but the death so sudden, and for the Irish so untimely, made the suspicion and even the belief quite natural. With O'Neill's death was gone the first and the last and the only chance of any success for the Irish movement. Cromwell's march was from victory to victory. He stamped out the rebellion with merciless severity, and then, like all his victorious predecessors, he went in for a resettlement of the island. Cromwell's was a resettlement with a vengeance. He seems to have contemplated such a plantation of the whole country with English and Scotch settlers as would render any further rising of the Irish impossible, and indeed would before very long lead to the positive extirpation of the Catholic Celts. All Ireland, except Connaught alone, was portioned out among the settlers. Connaught was set apart as a sort of reservation into which the unfortunate Irish were literally driven, and where they were cooped up within certain prescribed limitations. Irish women and girls were shipped off in thousands for virtual slavery or worse in the West Indies.

The Restoration brought the Irish little good, for Charles II was more anxious to conciliate the Cromwellian settlers than to restore the Irish owners. James II came to the throne, and the Irish Catholics got better treatment, and in consequence showed a very fervor of loyalty to him. They championed him with all their might when he quarreled with his people and fled from his throne. The Irish were in all these struggles invariably the losers. They supported Charles I, and brought Cromwell on them; they supported James II, and brought William III on them. William defeated James at the battle of the Boyne (1690), and on other fields. Limerick held out to the last. It was defended by a brave soldier and true patriot, Patrick Sarsfield. Disraeli once declared in the House of Commons that every true Irishman was proud of "the sword of Sarsfield," and William's generals could not capture it. A treaty was made which promised religious freedom to the Catholics, and to King James' followers the right to their estates. Then Sarsfield and his soldiers marched out with all the honors of war, and passed away into the service of foreign lands to meet the soldiers of England on many a Continental battle-field. The treaty was broken almost immediately after it had been made. King William, who was in Holland at the time of the Surrender of Limerick, would have upheld it if left to himself; but the opinion of his English supporters was fierce against the Catholics, and the result of the gallant defense and the honorable and patriotic surrender of Limerick was a series of new penal laws imposed on Ireland with the avowed purpose of extinguishing Catholicism in the island. These laws have in fact ever since been known as "the penal laws."

The two great struggles in Ireland were the religious struggle and the land struggle. The first was part of the great controversy going on all over Europe for the Church of Rome and against it. The main effort of English statesmanship was to extinguish Catholicism in Ireland. The land struggle began with the determination to impose on Ireland a system of land tenure foreign to her habits and traditions, and later on to take the land from the Irish people and give it to the imported settlers. Under William III the religious struggle became aggravated; the land struggle was not mitigated; and laws were even passed to crush the rivalry of Ireland in various branches of manufacture and of trade. The island

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Irish
Continual
Losers

Treaty
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Condi-
tion of
Poverty
Reached

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sank into wretched poverty, and when the two successive outbreaks of the Stuarts took place, in 1715 and 1745, Ireland, although in deep sympathy with the cause, was too weak to lift a hand in its support. The rights of the Irish parliament were still further curtailed under Anne and under George I. In the reign of George the appellate jurisdiction of the House of Lords over Irish cases was taken away by an act of the English parliament. The Irish parliament was a very poor specimen of a representative



MUCKROSS ABBEY, KILLARNEY

**Weak-
ness of
the Irish
Parlia-
ment**

institution. Since William III's time it was barred against Catholics. To the vast majority of the Irish people its existence might have been a matter of absolute indifference. Yet the sympathies of the country went with the Irish parliament simply because it was called an Irish parliament, and represented even in name the authority of the Irish people. Gradually there began to grow up in Ireland a popular party led by Protestants, who agitated for the restoration of its independent legislative power to the Irish parliament, and for the reform of that parliament in such a manner as to make it really representative. The war with the American colonies gave an opportunity to the popular party to drive home their demands. A great volunteer force had been organized in Ireland

to defend the country, as England could not spare troops for its defense. The volunteers were entirely in sympathy with the leaders, and when the war was over, they sustained them in their demands. English statesmen very wisely gave way, and in 1782 the Irish parliament was declared to be an independent legislature — “the king, lords, and commons of Ireland to make laws for the people of Ireland.” An immense impulse was given to popular agitation by this victory. The volunteers were disbanded. The new parliament was exclusively Protestant, and was elected by an exclusively Protestant vote. Yet its leaders at once went to work to obtain the emancipation of their Catholic fellow subjects. Grattan succeeded in obtaining an act to admit Catholics to practise at the bar. He then carried an act to enable Catholics to vote for members of parliament. In this object he was assisted and encouraged by Lord Fitzwilliam, the viceroy of Ireland. This was too much for George III. The king took fright at the advance made toward full emancipation of the Catholics, and at the very time when the Irish people thought they were near to a peaceful consummation of all their hopes, the viceroy was suddenly recalled, and all immediate hope of Catholic emancipation blighted.

There had been a society formed during the agitation called the Society of United Irishmen. It was formed as a merely peaceful organization to assist Grattan in the carrying of his reforms. It was gotten up and officered almost exclusively by Protestants; many of them young men of rank and influence. In the anger caused by the recall of Lord Fitzwilliam, and in the despair of any peaceful movement, the United Irishmen became a rebel organization. The war with France was going on. Napoleon was the rising sun of the French people. Wolfe Tone, a daring young Protestant, went over to France, and pleaded the cause of Ireland there. Napoleon took it up merely because he thought the Irish rebellion might be fostered into a diversion in his favor. A French fleet was sent, but was dispersed by a storm like another Armada. A landing was made in one place, but only by a very small force, who were soon defeated and captured. The rebellion broke out in the south, and there was some fierce fighting, but it was crushed. It had indeed, owing to the French failures, been only a series of disconnected risings. It was crushed with remorseless severity, and deeds of cruelty were perpetrated by the soldiery and the

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Home
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French
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ference

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Bribery
to Carry
Act of
UnionCatholics
Seated in
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mentParlia-
ment
Abol-
ished

yeomanry which the then commander-in-chief, Sir Ralph Abercromby, deplored and cried out against, but was wholly unable to repress, and which the viceroy lamented and denounced both at the time and after.

When the rebellion was put down Pitt thought the condition of things could only be bettered by adopting, with regard to Ireland, the same policy that had been adopted with regard to Scotland, and uniting the two islands under one common parliament. Grattan and his leading colleagues, among whom was Sir John Parnell, fought to the last against the policy of union, but they were overborne. There can be no doubt that very unscrupulous measures were employed to get a majority of the Irish parliament to pass the act. Some attempt has lately been made to show that the money spent was not spent in purchasing votes, but only in compensation for extinguished proprietary rights over constituencies. Certainly Lord Cornwallis, the viceroy who carried the Act of Union,* was not under any such impression. He understood that he was commissioned to bribe, and he executed his commission faithfully, while he frankly detested the work, and said so.

The Act of Union came into force on the 1st of January, 1801. There had been a promise held out to the Irish Catholics that the union should be a preliminary to their prompt emancipation, but King George would not hear of any such concession, and his ministers did not venture to press it on him. The Act of Union was followed almost immediately by the abortive and hopeless rebellion of Robert Emmet. Then a long dark night of conspiracy, agrarian and political, came on. A great movement was made for Catholic emancipation. The movement was led by Daniel O'Connell, and became successful after O'Connell had defied the law, presented himself as a candidate at the Clare election in 1828, and been returned by a great popular majority. It had become a mere alternative between concession and rebellion, and the Duke of Wellington, like the brave old soldier that he was, declared that he had seen too much of war, and would not have a civil war, and

* The Irish parliament was an assembly of a more or less provincial character, sitting in two houses. Its legislative independence was conceded, under pressure, in 1782, but it never obtained effective control over the executive. By the Act of Union the Irish parliament was taken away; and it was agreed that twenty-eight Irish peers (elected for life) should sit in the House of Lords, and one hundred Irish members in the House of Commons. See government, Vol. III, p. 1364.

so prevailed on George IV, and the Catholics were enabled to sit in parliament. The tithe struggle was for a long time a source of the bitterest trouble and the most frequent bloodshed, but a settlement was at last effected by means of which the tithe collector and the peasant were no longer brought into collision.

In 1842 O'Connell started a great agitation for the repeal of the Act of Union, and held "monster meetings," as they were called, and at one time seemed to have been on the verge of driving the country into rebellion. O'Connell, however, had no such purpose, and when the younger and more fiery of his followers found this out, they broke away from him altogether. O'Connell died while the horrors of the great famine of 1846 and 1847 were still on the land, and in the following year, 1848, the poetic, impassioned, ardently sincere Young Ireland party broke or drifted into rebellion. The rebellion was easily put down, hardly a drop of blood was shed. But the Young Ireland movement had undoubtedly revived the national feeling in all its intensity. There was a "Phœnix" conspiracy, as it was called, in 1858, and a Fenian movement in 1867. The existence and the succession of all these movements convinced men like John Bright, and afterward Gladstone, that there was much in the state of Ireland which called for reform and reconstruction. Gladstone set to work with characteristic energy. He disestablished and disendowed the Irish state church — a church which ministered to the spiritual wants of not quite one in five of the Irish population. He passed a series of measures to give better security of tenure to the Irish tenant-farmer, to entitle him to compensation for improvements he himself had made if he were to be ejected from his land, and to help to found a peasant proprietary in Ireland. A Land Commission — it might be called a Land Court — was formed, which had the power of reducing rents where reduction seemed necessary and rightful, and fixing the rent for a certain number of years. More lately, a Land Purchase Commission was created, the function of which is to assist tenants in buying their farms from the landlords, by an advance, under certain conditions as to repayment, of a large portion of the purchase money. These measures are in fact part of a great agrarian reconstruction which is still going on in Ireland, and to which Conservative governments as well as Liberals have made contribution. Meanwhile a fierce struggle had been waging between the

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**Irish
Famine**

**Rebellion
Calls
Glad-
stone's
Attention
to Ireland**

**Disestab-
lishment
of Irish
Church**

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Home
Rule
Party
Formed

peasantry and some of the landlords, the former supported by the popular and powerful Land League. There was much disturbance in Ireland, and Coercion act after Coercion act was passed. A Home Rule party had been formed, and out of this party sprang a small but very determined body of Irish Nationalist members who, under the leadership of Charles Stewart Parnell, a descendant of Sir John Parnell, already mentioned, set itself to force the claim of Ireland on the attention of the English parliament and public,



ROSS CASTLE, KILLARNEY (FROM THE ROAD)

by a system of persistent obstructions in the House of Commons.

Caven-
dish
Murdered

In May, 1882, the whole civilized world was horrified by the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish, newly appointed secretary to the lord lieutenant of Ireland, and Mr. Burke, the permanent under-secretary. The murderers were proved to be a gang of miscreants banded together secretly for the perpetration of such crimes. They were betrayed by some of their own associates, were found guilty, and some of them were executed. It was afterward proved, to the satisfaction of the whole world, that the leaders of the Home Rule movement had nothing whatever to do with the

murderous organizations — nor indeed, even at the time did many people believe that they had. The Home Rule agitation went on growing stronger, and at last, when a new Franchise bill had given a popular suffrage to Ireland as well as to England, the Home Rule party carried off eighty-six seats out of the one hundred and three which make up the Irish representation. Gladstone had long been turning toward a belief in the national justice in the claim for Home Rule, and this result of the elections in Ireland made a profound impression on him. In 1886 he brought in a bill to give Ireland a domestic parliament. The measure was defeated in the House of Commons. Gladstone appealed to the country; a considerable section of the Liberal party seceded from him; and the Conservative party came into office at the head of a large majority. Since that time the history of Ireland may be briefly summed up as an unceasing struggle for Home Rule.

A permanent act for the repression of crime in Ireland was passed in 1887, and an act for the benefit of Irish tenants, under which money is advanced to them to aid them in buying their farms, followed soon after. This latter act was championed by Lord Ashbourne, who had been Lord Chancellor of Ireland, the representative in the queen's cabinet, from 1886 until August of 1892, and was again appointed to that office in June of 1895. From 1886 till 1893 Ireland was the scene of factional fights and public and private scandals in which O'Shea, Mc Carthy, Parnell, O'Brien, and Pigott played prominent parts. In 1893 Gladstone, then eighty-four years old, made a magnificent effort to introduce a new Home Rule bill. This bill was considered an improvement on the one rejected in 1886, but in spite of this, it was voted down in the House of Lords, after being ratified by the House of Commons. This measure provided for the establishment of an Irish legislative council and legislative assembly. While the legislative power was, to a limited extent, entrusted to the voters of Ireland, the executive power remained vested in the queen of England and her appointees. It also provided for eighty Irish members in the House of Commons, and the items of revenue and taxes were settled in a manner satisfactory to the Home Rule party. The defeat of this bill put an effective damper on the question of Irish local government. In a spirit of revenge, the Irish party voted down a plan to erect a statue of Oliver Cromwell (1895).

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Popular
 Suffrage
 Given

Glad-
 stone
 Appeals
 for Home
 Rule in
 Ireland

Act to
 Benefit
 Tenants

New
 Home
 Rule Bill
 Defeated
 by House
 of Lords

Revenge
 of Irish
 Party

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In October of 1897, at about the time of the celebration of the anniversary of Parnell's death, the old longing of Ireland for self-rule showed itself in the national convention held in Dublin. This meeting was planned by Mr. John E. Redmond, the Parnellite leader, and was a representative gathering. Speeches were made and resolutions were adopted in which Home Rule was declared to be Ireland's only hope. On February 21, 1898, an Irish local government bill was introduced by the chief secretary for Ireland, Mr. Gerald Balfour. This bill provided for the administration of local affairs by county councils, urban and rural district councils, and boards of guardians. It also involved a readjustment of the rents. The democratic lines on which it was framed threw the burden of responsibility on the Irish people themselves. This measure applied to Ireland the methods of local self-government which were in use in Scotland and England. Mr. Balfour had the support of the Nationalists during the parliamentary struggle. July 29 the bill passed the third reading in the House of Lords, and before the session adjourned on August 22 had become a law.

WALES

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WALES occupies the peninsula in the west of the island of Britain, bounded by the Irish Sea, St. George's Channel, and the Bristol Channel, and touching the English counties of Cheshire, Shropshire, Hereford, and Monmouth. The principality of Wales is administratively a part of England, though differing more or less widely in blood, language, national character, and religious temper.*

The population of Wales contains Brythonic elements mixed with Goidelic and Ivernian or pre-Celtic, probably pre-Aryan. The Silures of Glamorgan and Brecknockshire, and east to the Severn were probably Goidelic; so were the Demetæ of Dyfed or west South Wales, but more strongly Ivernian; the Ganagni and Decanti of North Wales were mainly Ivernian. Between these were the Ordovices (Orddwy), Brythonic in the upper Severn Valley.

Origin

During the Roman occupation, Brythonic tribes seemed to have encroached on the Goidels and Ivernians; and the Brythons appeared to have become largely Latinized. Christianity had been introduced before the end of the second century, and extended beyond Roman territory. During the Roman occupation, invaders from beyond the North Sea had already given trouble; the south-east of the present England was administered by the "Count of the Saxon Shore;" the remaining territory, where Goidels and Ivernians had to be dealt with, was under the "Duke of the Britains," from southern Scotland to Land's End. When the Romans had gone, the Dux Britanniarum was succeeded by a Gwledig, who ruled over the tribes in the whole of his district, which were Brythonic, Goidelic, and Ivernian, the ruling race being Brythonic.†

*The established church is a part of the Church of England, with four Episcopal sees; Nonconformists, especially Calvinistic, Methodists, Congregationalists, Baptists, and Wesleyans are very numerous, and claim to be a large majority of the total population; but the proportions are much disputed. There are university colleges at Aberystwith, Bangor, and Cardiff, and a theological college at Lampeter.

Churches

†A common name for the people of this district was introduced, meaning "fellow countryman," Combrogæ, or, in modern form, Cymry, which survives in the names Cumberland and Cambria. Wales is from Wealas, "foreigners," the name given by the Anglo-Saxon invaders to the natives of Britain.

Meaning of Names

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Spread of
Chris-
tianity

Saxon invasions did not for some time much affect this western district; but at length disturbances in the North drove Cunedda Wledig, the ruler of the district, away from the Forth Valley where his seat was. He migrated to North Wales, waged war with the Goidelic tribes, and expelled them from the Dee to the Teifi, Brythonizing the country, except in the northwest corner. This resisted the process for some time, but at length, before 500 A. D., became Brythonic or Welsh in language, though Goidelic and Ivernian legends and traditions lingered there. In South Wales the Demetæ were hard pressed by the same influence, and squeezed into the modern Pembrokeshire by about 600. The Demetæ of Dyfed and the Silures of Morganwg do not appear to have been conquered, but they were Brythonized; and the Gaelic language thus disappeared from Wales. At the same time Christianity was energetically spread by Cunedda's descendants, of whom many are found in the lists of Welsh saints; *e. g.*, St. David Christianized the Ivernian (or Pictish) Menavia (now St. Davids), and founded a see there. The Gwledigship, more or less reduced to a shadowy claim of overlordship over all the tribal chiefs, remained with the descendants of Cunedda, who were princes or kings of Gwynedd, Venedotia, or Northwest Wales.

Cornwall
and
Wales
Sepa-
rated

In 577 Ceawlin took Bath, Cirencester, and Gloucester, and thus separated the Britons of Cornwall from those of Wales. In 665 Cadwaladr, in alliance with Penda, of Mercia, was defeated, and Penda slain, by Oswiu at Winwædfield. Strathclyde and Cumberland were separated by this battle from Wales. About 720 we find Cadwaladr's grandson, Rhodri (Roderick) Maelwynawg ab Tudwal, leading the Welsh chiefs; and he kept Saxondom at bay until 754, when he died. After his death his two sons quarreled about Anglesey, while the Welsh chieftaincies fell asunder. From 757 to 795 Offa of Mercia scourged the Welsh; in 795 was the still-remembered battle of Rhuddlan marsh; Shrewsbury and Hereford became English centers.

Danish
Inva-
sions

In 768 the church in Gwynedd conformed to the Roman time of keeping Easter, but remained heterodox as regards the celibacy of the clergy. During the ninth century Wales was sorely troubled with Danish invasions. It was for Wales a century of misery, in which, however, Rhodri Fawr (Roderick the Great) succeeded in bringing all the chiefs under one head for some time. Toward

the end of the century the Welsh chiefs all came successively under the protection of King Alfred, and the tenth century began quietly. The end of the tenth century was miserable; internecine strife aggravated and encouraged the attacks of the English and of the Danish sea rovers. In 1039 Gruffydd ap Llywelyn became king of Gwynedd, and after very varying fortune became in 1055 king of all Wales, except perhaps Morganwg (Glamorganshire). When he destroyed the settlements of Edward the Confessor's Norman friends in Herefordshire, there were no reprisals, but Gruffydd submitted to King Edward. He afterward broke the peace, and was defeated in 1063 by Harold and Tostig at Rhuddlan; Wales was vehemently attacked, and Gruffydd was murdered by his own people. Wales then submitted from sheer exhaustion.

After 1066 Welsh and English co-operated against William, but in vain; in 1070 William seized Chester; in 1071 Chester was made the center of a palatine earldom under Hugo de Avranches, and Shrewsbury of one under Roger de Montgomery; in 1072 we find a vassal of Earl Hugh's in Rhuddlan, building Rhuddlan Castle, and Hugh de Montgomery across the Plynlimmon range, harrying north Cardiganshire, while Montgomery Castle was being built. Rival claimants to Welsh princedoms call in Norman aid, while the Black Danes are still, in 1080, invading Dyfed and Anglesey, and attacking Bangor. In 1081, by the battle of Carno (Montgomery) the rightful heirs of Gwynedd and South Wales, Gruffydd ap Cynan ap Iago and Rhys ap Tewdwr, a descendant of Roderick the Great, rescued their provinces from a usurping Trahaiarn prince of Powys. Between 1081 and 1084 the Norman Conquest extended over Monmouthshire, Cardiff and Radnor castles were built, and William entered Wales. Under William Rufus the boundary line was pushed as far back as the Neath River in Glamorganshire, Brecknockshire (Brycheiniawg) was seized, and Earl Hugh of Chester gained a footing in Anglesey. In 1093 Rhys ab Tewdwr was killed by the Brecknock Normans, and so Pembroke and Cardigan were laid open; nothing was left but the mountain country of Northwest Wales.

In 1094 a general rising took place; the castles in Gwynedd were seized; the Normans were expelled from Anglesey, and they lost Montgomery Castle; and in 1095 William Rufus marched in person as far as Snowdon, but with no success. In 1096 Monmouth-

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Norman
ConquestLater
Conflicts
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Normans

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shire and Brecknockshire were retaken, and the Normans by this time held only Glamorganshire and Pembroke Castle. In 1097 Williams led two more unsuccessful expeditions into Wales. After 1097 the tide turned; in a short time the Normans had their castles again in their hands. From 1100 onward, under the politic Henry I, districts of country were allotted to the Welsh leaders under conditions of homage and service. Gruffydd ap Cynan growing too strong in Gwynedd among his mountains, Henry led an expedition against him in 1114, and Gruffydd was obliged to agree to a peace; Gwynedd thereafter began to prosper in agriculture, building, and wealth generally, though Gwynedd and Powys (under Cadwgan) were at strife. In South Wales, where in 1111 Henry had planted colonies of Flemings in Pembrokeshire and Gower to strengthen the Norman stations, Gruffydd ap Rhys ap Tewdwr asserted his heirship to the principedom; but though he gained some considerable successes, Wales was reduced to quietness by an expedition under Henry in 1121.

Expe-
dition
Into
Wales by
Henry II

After the death of Henry I, in 1135, there was a wide-spread revolt, and the men of Gwynedd took Carmarthen. Even such districts as Radnorshire were lost by the Normans; under Stephen the royal power had ceased, and the lords marchers, or border barons had become simply rival robbers. The Welsh leaders are found operating as far east as Flintshire, in Chester territory, and building a castle at Oswestry. By 1157 we find Gwynedd, under Owain, extending from Flintshire to Towyn (Merioneth); Powys, under Madoc ap Maredudd, extending far down, toward Shropshire; and South Wales, under Rhys, from Aberdovey to Kidwelly; but internecine strife still continues. In 1157 Henry II leads an expedition into Wales; Madoc of Powys assists him; Owain of Gwynedd is victorious by sea, but defeated by land, and submits; Rhys of South Wales then submits, and suffers loss of lands. Much land was distributed among Norman chiefs, and many diplomatic Norman-Welsh marriages made. Rhys, deprived of sundry lands by force, rose in revolt; he maintained himself till 1162; then submitted to a strong expedition sent against him, aided by the men of Gwynedd; but in 1163 all Wales was in unanimous revolt. Henry's struggle with Becket had begun, and the Welsh expectation of the return of Arthur had become general. In 1165 an extraordinary but unsuccessful effort was made by Henry; and

afterward being engrossed in his struggle with Becket, he treated the Welsh chiefs as ordinary feudal barons, and allowed them to fight out their own disputes. On this footing the Welsh chiefs swore homage and fealty to Henry, and Rhys of South Wales assisted him against his son's revolt.

In ecclesiastical matters, the Welsh bishops repudiated the claims of the see of Canterbury, the see of St. Davids being considered an archbishopric; but in 1203 the Welsh bishops were enjoined to obey the see of Canterbury. In 1194 Llywelyn ab Iorwerth, the rightful heir, became prince of Gwynedd, upsetting Henry's arrangements of 1170; in 1212, he, in alliance with other princes, attacked the Normans in Powys and Gwynedd, and rapidly extended his conquest during John's struggle with his barons; in 1217 he did homage to Henry III; in 1238 he exacted an oath of fealty to his son Dafydd from the leaders of Wales; and he died in 1240. Dafydd was beleaguered (1245) in Snowdonia by Henry. In 1246 Dafydd was succeeded by Owain and Llywelyn ap Gruffydd, his nephews, who at first surrendered their lordships to Henry; Edward, Henry's younger son, cruelly ruled over them, and a successful revolt resulted; in 1258 there was a Welsh-Scottish alliance against Henry III.

Llywelyn, who helped Simon de Montfort against Henry, obtained from Simon the fullest acknowledgment of his entire independence as "Prince of Wales,"* saving the homage to the English crown, and this was confirmed by Henry even after the battle of Evesham. But Edward I, after bearing with seizures of certain lands by Llywelyn, delays in reference to homage and certain money payments, appeals to Rome and Canterbury, and an offer of homage to France, declared Llywelyn a rebel in 1276; excommunication followed, and Llywelyn was forced to submission in 1277. In 1281 he broke out again, but was killed near Builth in 1282. In 1283 the statutes of Rhuddlan were passed, retaining Welsh law, modified, organizing the government of Wales, and diminishing the too independent power of the Norman barons.

In 1284 Edward II was born in Carnarvon town, and made

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 WALES

Successful
 Revolt
 and
 Alliance
 with
 Scotland

* Prince of Wales is the title borne by the eldest son of the sovereign of England. After the fall of the last native princes of Wales, Llywelyn in 1282, and David in 1283, Wales came fully under the dominion of Edward I, who in 1284 is fabled to have presented the Welsh with a prince in his infant son, Edward, really born at Carvarvon Castle.

Prince of
 Wales

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WALES

Rebellion
and Its
Punish-
ment

prince of Wales in 1300-1. For several years there were various brief insurrections, some with French assistance. In 1400 Owain ab Gruffydd Fychan, or Owain Glyndyfrdwy, Owain of the Glen of Dee or Owen Glendower, incensed by an encroachment on the part of Lord Grey de Ruthyn, took arms. Henry IV took the field against him in vain; in 1401 unconscionably severe prescriptive laws ("Ordinances of Wales") were passed against Welshmen; Sir Henry Percy (Hotspur), justiciary of Chester, was put in command; Owain raided the Severn Valley in 1402 as far as Leominster; Henry IV invaded Wales, but was driven back by extraordinary storms. Owain was recognized as "Prince of Wales" at Machynlleth in 1402. Thereafter he sided against Henry IV, and allied himself with Hotspur and others for a partition of the kingdom. Henry IV, marching against the Scots, turned aside, and intercepted Hotspur marching south, defeating him near Shrewsbury, 1403. Owain, who was in South Wales at the time, was left in possession during 1404, and made an alliance with Charles VI of France in 1405. He suffered two defeats, in Monmouth and Brecknockshire, in 1405; when French assistance arrived, it could be of little use, and retired. The English entered Wales, but were again driven back by bad weather. Owain fell back in power, and in 1415 he died in obscurity, still holding out; Rhys ab Tewdwr, his associate in the rebellion, and Rhys's brother Meredydd having been executed for treason in 1412. Meredydd's son Owain married Catherine, the widow of Henry V. Their grandson, Henry Tudor, became Henry VII, to the great delight of Wales, which now believed it saw Myrddin's (Merlin's) prophecies fulfilled, and the British race again ruling in Britain.

United
England
by
MarriageAttitude
in Time
of
Cromwell

By an act passed in 1536, Wales was incorporated with England, with English laws and liberties; in 1689 the lords marchers' surviving anomalous jurisdiction (with a lord president and council at Ludlow) was abolished; in 1831 the Welsh judiciary (Court of Great Sessions) was incorporated in the judicial system of England. During the Cromwellian struggle Wales was strongly royalist, and at a later period Jacobite in sympathy. The most striking features of its subsequent history have been the rise of Nonconformity and its recent intellectual awakening.



THE HISTORY OF GERMANY.

[*Authorities:* Baedeker's *Northern Germany*, 12th ed. London, 1897; *Southern Germany*, 8th ed. London, 1895; Bigelow (Poultney), *History of the German Struggle for Liberty*, London; Busch (M.), *Bismarck: Some Secret Pages of his History*, 3 vols., London, 1898; Carlyle (T.), *History of Frederick the Great*, 10 vols., London; Frederic (H.), *The Young Emperor William II of Germany*, 2d edition, London, 1898; James (E. J.), *The Federal Constitution of Germany* (Translation), 8, Philadelphia, 1890; Lowe (Charles), *Life of Prince Bismarck*, 2 vols., London, 1888; *The German Emperor, William II.* [In *Public Men of To-day* series.] London, 1898; Moltke (Count Von), *The Franco-German War, 1870-71.* (Translation by A. Forbes), 8, London, 1893; Wenzel (John), *Comparative View of the Executive and Legislative Departments of the Governments of the United States, France, England, and Germany*, 8, Boston, 1891; Whitman (Sidney), *Imperial Germany*, London, 1889; H. Tuttle's *History of Prussia* (Boston, 1885, *et seq.*).]



GERMANY is a country of Central Europe, and one of the Great Powers. It is now more specifically called the German Empire. The territorial limits of the country and its importance have varied greatly. In the Middle Ages and for one hundred and fifty years of the modern era, it was a large and powerful empire. After 1648, its importance gradually declined, through dismemberment, and the rise to greater power of certain states composing it, until (1806) it was formally disorganized. From 1815 to 1866, the German confederation included part of Austria, the most of Prussia, the kingdoms of Saxony, Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Hanover; also Hesse-Cassel, an electorate, and numerous duchies, grand-duchies, principalities and free states. In 1866 Austria was finally separated from Germany. From 1866 to 1871 Germany included (1) the North German federation, consisting of all the states north of the Main, of which Prussia was the head, and (2) the South German states, Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt, which were closely allied to the federation. In 1871

Decline of
Early
Empire

Modern
Federa-
tion

DIVISION III the German empire was formed, as it still remains, with the king
 EUROPE of Prussia as hereditary emperor. To the previous territory of
 ANCIENT AND MODERN Germany was added Alsace-Lorraine. Schleswig-Holstein had
 GERMANY been added to Prussia in 1866. The German empire is composed
 of the federation of twenty-five states, with one common imperial
 province. They are divided as follows: —

KINGDOMS: 1, Prussia; 2, Bavaria; 3, Saxony; 4, Würtemberg.

GRAND-DUCHIES: 5, Baden; 6, Hesse; 7, Mecklenburg-Schwerin;
 8, Saxe-Weimar; 9, Mecklenburg-Strelitz; 10, Oldenburg.

DUCHIES: 11, Brunswick; 12, Saxe-Meiningen; 13, Saxe Alten-
 burg; 14, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha; 15, Anhalt.

PRINCIPALITIES: 16, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen; 17, Schwarz-
 burg-Rudolstadt; 18, Waldeck; 19, Reuss-Greiz; 20, Reuss-
 Schleiz; 21, Schaumburg-Lippe; 22, Lippe-Detmold.

FREE-TOWNS: 23, Lubeck; 24, Bremen; 25, Hamburg.

REICHSLAND: 26, Alsace-Lorraine.

**Ancient
Sectional
Names**

Besides the political divisions mentioned above, there are applied
 to different parts of Germany, certain distinctive names which have
 been derived either from the names of settlements given the
 ancient Germanic tribes, or from the circles and other great sub-
 divisions of the old empire, thus the name of Swabia is still applied
 in common parlance to the districts embracing the greater part of
 Würtemberg and southern Baden, southwestern Bavaria, and
 Hohenzollern. The name of Franconia is applied to the Main dis-
 trict of Bamberg, Schwenfurt, and Wurzburg. The name of
 Palatinate is applied to Rhenish Bavaria and the north of Baden;
 the Rhineland to portions of Baden, Rhenish Prussia, Bavaria,
 Hesse-Darmstadt and Nassau; Voightland to the high ground
 between Hof and Plauen; Lusatra to the eastern part of Saxony;
 East Friesland to the country between the lower Weser and Ems,
 and Westphalia to the district extending between Lower Saxony,
 the Netherlands, Thuringia, and Hesse to the German ocean.
 The four Saxon duchies and the four Schwarzburg and Reuss
 principalities are frequently grouped together as the "Thuringian
 States."

**Earliest
History**

The earliest information we have of the Germans, the peoples
 and tribes who dwelt among the dense forests that stretched from
 the Rhine to the Vistula and from the Danube to the Baltic Sea,
 comes to us from the Romans, the principal authority being

Tacitus. The term Germans is of Celtic origin, though its meaning is not precisely known. It was in all probability borrowed by the Romans from the Gauls. The Germans were not one homogeneous nation, but a multitude of separate and independent tribes, who had radical origin, language, and similarity in their mode of life for their only links of connection.

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The first tribes of Germanic race to come into collision with the arms of Rome were the Cimbri and Teutons, who in 113 B. C. had invaded Styria, and there met with defeat from the troops of the consul Papirius. The next Roman general who made trial of their prowess was Cæsar. When in 58 B. C. he began his campaigns in Gaul, he found several hordes of Germans, mostly Marcomanni and Suevi, settled between the Rhine and the Vosges, and even on the western side of these hills. Appealed to by the Gauls of those regions to free them from their German oppressors, Cæsar, in spite of the redoubtable stature and strength of his enemies, and of their personal valor, inflicted a crushing defeat upon their ambitious chieftain, Ariovistus, and chased him and his followers across the Rhine. Then, continuing his campaign, he drove back (35 B. C.) behind the same river those tribes that had settled on its western side in Belgium, and even followed them into their original seats in Germany in two short campaigns.

Roman
 Invasions

The tranquillity which was established through Cæsar's exertions was, however, so seriously disturbed again by 15 B. C. that Augustus felt it necessary to make a serious effort to subjugate these troublesome neighbors of Gaul. Accordingly Drusus was sent (12 B. C.) at the head of eight legions across the frontier; and in four campaigns he was so far successful that he subdued the Batavians, Frisians, and other tribes as far as the Elbe, and likewise the Chatti on the Main. After the death of Drusus in 9 B. C., Tiberius conquered the Tencteri and Usipetes, who lived on the middle Rhine, and afterward the Sicambri and others settled on the lands at its mouth. In 6 A. D. the work was taken up by Varus; but he, in attempting to consolidate the Roman power by depriving the Germans of their national institutions and imposing upon them those of the empire, provoked a general revolt of the subject peoples. The animating spirit of this patriotic movement was Arminius, chief of the Cherusci, who not only overthrew Varus, and slew him and his legions (A. D.) at one

Romans
 Expelled

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blow in the Teutoburg Forest, but swept the Romans before him until he had expelled them from German soil. The struggle was renewed by Germanicus, who defeated Arminius and avenged the Roman honor, but at length in 16 A. D. withdrew his legions.

Henceforth the Romans contented themselves with guarding their long frontier next Germany; and in this task they succeeded for some time as much by stirring up dissension among the chiefs of their foemen as by their own military skill. Yet they managed to bring the Frisians and Batavians under their influence, until in 69 a fierce revolt broke out among the latter people, a revolt which was only quelled after a terrible struggle. About one hundred years later the Germans began to reverse the order of things. In the period 166–174 Aurelius was engaged in beating back a formidable incursion of the Marcomanni and Quadi into Roman territory.

From the third century we no longer read of single tribes as the Goths, Alemanni, Franks, Frisians, Saxons, Thuringians, and others. These powerful combinations began to harass the Romans all along their frontier line, from the mouth of the Rhine to the middle Danube, attacking the towns and forts, and breaking down the walls they had built to keep this boundary. In 375 began the movement before which Rome eventually succumbed. The Huns invaded Europe, and by their coming gave rise to what is known as the “Volkerwanderungen,” or “Migrations of the Peoples.” The races who lay next to Roman territory were being pressed upon more and more by those behind, upon whom the full brunt of the Hunnic attack had fallen, and at last they began to pour across the boundary in such broad, deep streams that the dams of the Romans were broken completely down before their onrush.

Invasion
 by the
 Huns

Of the history of Germany itself we learn little more that is authentic until we come down to the times of the Franks except that the Slavic nations, following in the wake of the Huns, seized and occupied the lands left vacant by the German emigrants who had gone Romeward, and that of the confederations still remaining at home in their original lands the most important were the Alemanni, the Thuringians, Saxons, Bavarians, and Franks. Attention is due the last named, since by them the kingdoms of France and Germany were subsequently formed. After the gradual expulsion or retirement of the Romans from Germany, the country

necessarily became subdivided into numerous petty states, each governed by its own chief. The erection of the Franko-Merovingian empire in France had given preponderance to the Frankish

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power on both sides of the Rhine, and when Charlemagne succeeded in 771 to the German as well as the Gallic possessions of his father, Pepin the Short, he found himself possessed of an amount of territory and a degree of influence which speedily enabled him to assert supremacy over the whole of the west of Germany, while his conquests over the Heathen Saxons in the

Charle-
 magne

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north, and the Avars who then held Pannonia in the southeast, extended his German dominions from the North Sea to the Alps, and from the Rhine as far as Hungary.

With Charlemagne, who received the imperial crown at the hands of the pope in 800, began the long line of emperors and kings who occupied the German throne for more than a thousand years; and with him ended the stability of the vast fabric which he had reared on the ruins of Roman power; for at his death in 814 no member of his family was competent to wield the imperial scepter. Although in 843 some portions of his German possessions fell, in accordance with the treaty of Verdun, to his grandson Ludwig, surnamed the German, who was recognized as king of Germany or East Francia, the final or absolute partition did not take place until 887, when Arnulf seized the eastern throne. On the extinction, in 911, of the degenerate Carlovingian dynasty in the person of Ludwig, "The Child," the provincial rulers, who, together with the archbishops, bishops, and abbots, constituted the chief members of the diet or national assembly, arrogated to themselves (in imitation of the practise of the nobles of the ancient German tribes) the right of electing their sovereign, who, however, could not assume the imperial title till he had been crowned by the pope. At this period there were in Germany five nations — the Franks, Saxons, Bavarians, Swabians, and Lorrainers.

Crown
 Be-
 stowed
 Only
 by the
 Pope

The Franks, as the descendants of those who had conquered the land and founded the empire, enjoyed a pre-eminence over the others; and hence on the extinction of the Carlovingian race, the choice of the prince-electors seems to have fallen almost as a matter of course on the chief of the Franks, the Duke of Franconia, who reigned as king of Germany from 911 to 918, under the title of Conrad I. At his own instigation, his rival and adversary, Henry, duke of Saxony, was chosen as his successor, and proved himself an able and warlike prince. The conquests of this great prince over the Danes, Slavs, and especially over the terrible Magyars, were confirmed and extended by his son and successor Otho I (136–173), who carried the boundaries of the empire beyond the Elbe and Saale, and who, by his acquisition of Lombardy, laid the foundations of the relations which existed for many ages between the rulers of Germany and the Italian nation. Otho's coronation festival was eventful, as it formed the precedent for the

Duties of
 Electors

exercise of those offices which, till the dissolution of the empire, were regarded as connected with the dignity of the secular electors; for on that occasion, while the emperor dined with his three spiritual electors, he was waited upon by the secular princes — the electors of Bavaria (afterward of Saxony) serving as grand-mar-

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MARTIN LUTHER

shal; of Swabia (afterward of Bohemia), as grand-cupbearer; and of Lorraine (afterward of Brandenburg) as arch-chamberlain. Otho II (973–983), Otho III (983–1002), and Henry II (1002–24) belonged to the house of Saxony, which was succeeded by that of Franconia, in the person of Conrad II (1024–39), an able ruler, who added Burgundy to the empire. His son and

Henry
 III and
 Papal
 Strife

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successor, Henry III (1039–56), temporarily extended German supremacy over Bohemia, Denmark, and Hungary, while he repressed the insolence and despotism of the great nobles of Germany. And while his stern piety moved him to interfere with force in the strife over the papal chair, he also gained the respect of his contemporaries by his zeal for justice and his valor

in the field.

The minority of his son and successor, Henry IV (1056–1106), enabled the nobles to recover much of their former power, and to apply a check to the further consolidation of the imperial authority, which had been considerably extended under the two preceding reigns. Henry's constant quarrels with the astute Gregory VII entangled him in difficulties and mortifications, which culminated in his



THE LUTHER HOUSE, EISENACH

Henry
 IV at
 Canossa

humiliation at Canossa, and only ended with his life, and which plunged Germany into anarchy and disorder. The emperor's most formidable rival, Rudolf of Swabia, was defeated and slain in 1080. With his son and successor, Henry V (1106–25), who made peace with the papacy by the Concordat of Worms in 1122, the male line of the Franconian dynasty became extinct; and after the crown had been worn (1125–37) by Lothair of Saxony, who

made a bold attempt to recover some of the prerogatives of which at his election the empire had been deprived through papal intrigues, the choice of the electors, after a season of dissension and intrigue, fell on Conrad III (1138-52), duke of Franconia, the first of the Hohenstaufen dynasty. His reign, in which the civil wars of the Guelphs and Ghibellines began, was distracted by the dissensions of the great feudatories of the empire, while the strength of Germany was wasted in the disastrous crusades, in which Conrad took an active part. On his death the electoral college for the first time met at Frankfort, which retained the honor of being the place at which the sovereign was elected and crowned till the dissolution of the empire in the nineteenth century. Frederick I (1152-90), surnamed Barbarossa, duke of Swabia, was, at the recommendation of his uncle Conrad, chosen as his successor, and the splendor of his reign fully warranted the selection. By the force of his character Frederick acquired an influence over the diets which had not been possessed by any of his immediate predecessors, and during his reign many important changes were effected in the mutual relations of the great duchies and counties of Germany, while we now for the first time hear of the hereditary right possessed by certain princes to exercise the privilege of election. Unfortunately for Germany, this great monarch suffered the interests of his Italian dominions to draw him away from those of his own country, while his participation in the crusades, in which both he and the flower of his chivalry perished, was only memorable for the misfortunes which it entailed on the empire.

The interval between the death of Frederick Barbarossa (1190) and the accession of Rudolf I (1273), the first of the Hapsburg line, which through a female branch still reigns in Austria, was one of constant struggle, internal dissension, and foreign wars. Individually, the princes of the Hohenstaufen dynasty were popular monarchs, their many noble and chivalrous qualities having endeared them to the people, while one of the race, Frederick II (1212-50), was, after Charlemagne, perhaps the most remarkable sovereign of the Middle Ages; but their ambitious designs on Italy, and their constant but futile attempts to destroy the papal power, were a source of misery to Germany, and with Frederick II ended the glory of the empire, till it was partially revived by the Austrian house of Hapsburg.

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Electors
 First
 Meet at
 Frank-
 fort

The
 Crusades

The
 Hohen-
 staufen
 Dynasty

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Great
Interreg-
num

His son, Conrad IV (1250-54), with whom the Hohenstaufen line ended in Germany, was succeeded, after a brief and troubled reign, by various princes, who in turn, or in some cases contemporaneously, bore the imperial title without exercising its legitimate functions or authority. This season of anarchy (known as the Great Interregnum) was terminated at the accession of Rudolf I (1273-91), who, by the destruction of the strongholds of the nobles, and the stringent enforcement of the laws, restored order.



CATHEDRAL OF WORMS

His chief efforts were, however, directed to the aggrandizement of his Austrian possessions, which embraced Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, and Tyrol.

For the next two hundred years the history of the German empire presents very few features of interest, and may be briefly passed over. Adolf of Nassau, who was elected to succeed Rudolf, was compelled in 1298 to yield the crown to the son of the latter, Albert I (1298-1308), whose reign is chiefly memorable as the period in which three Swiss cantons, Unterwalden, Schwyz,

and Uri, established their independence. After the murder of Albert the throne was occupied in rapid succession by Henry VII (1308-13), who added Bohemia to the empire, and, conjointly, by

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CHANCEL OF TRINITY LUTHERAN CHURCH, HANOVER, GERMANY

Frederick III, of Austria, and Ludwig IV, of Bavaria (1313-47). Charles IV (1347-78), of Luxemburg, was the successful candidate among many rivals; and, although he attended specially to the

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Huss
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 of Sigis-
 mund

Reign of
 Maxi-
 milian I

His
 Opposi-
 tion to
 Luther

interests of his hereditary possessions of Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia, he did not entirely neglect those of the empire, for which he provided by a written compact, known as the Golden Bull (1356), which regulated the rights, privileges, and duties of the electors, the mode of the election and coronation of the emperors, the coinage, customs, and commercial treaties of the empire, and the rights and obligations of the free cities. His son, Wenceslaus (1378–1400), who was finally deposed, brought the royal authority into contempt, from which it was scarcely redeemed by Rupert of the Palatinate (1400–10). The nominal reign of Sigismund (1410–37), the brother of Wenceslaus, would demand no notice were it not for his connection with the council of Constance in 1414, at which Huss was condemned, and which was followed by the disastrous Hussite wars.

The readiness with which Sigismund lent himself to the interests of Henry V, of England, and of all other princes who ministered to his love of personal display, brought discredit on the imperial dignity, while his dishonorable desertion of Huss will ever attach ignominy to his name. Albert II of Austria (1438–39), after a reign of less than two years, in which he gave evidence of great capacity for governing, was succeeded by his cousin, Frederick IV (1440–93), an accomplished but avaricious and indolent prince, whose chief object seemed to be the aggrandizement of the house of Hapsburg, with which the title of emperor had now become permanently connected, while he neglected the interests of Germany collectively, and suffered the Turks to make unchecked advances upon its territory.

Maximilian I (1493–1519), the son and successor of Frederick, resembled him in few respects, for he was active, ambitious, and scheming, but deficient in steadiness of purpose. His marriage with Mary, the rich heiress of her father Charles the Bold of Burgundy, involved him in the general politics of Europe, while his opposition to the reformed faith preached by Luther exasperated the religious differences which disturbed the close of his reign. Maximilian had, however, the merit of introducing many improvements in regard to the internal organization of the state, by enforcing the better administration of the law, establishing a police and an organized army, and introducing a postal system. With him originated, moreover, the special courts of jurisdiction known as

the "Imperial Chamber" and the "Aulic Council," and in his reign the empire was divided into ten circles, each under its hereditary president and its hereditary prince-convoker. Maximilian lived to see the beginning of the Reformation, and the success that attended Luther's preaching; but the firm establishment in Germany of the reformed faith, and the religious dissensions by which its success was attended, belong principally to the reign of his grandson, Charles I, king of Spain, the son of the Archduke Philip and of Joanna, the heiress of Spain, who succeeded to the empire under the title of Charles V (1519-56).

The management of his vast possessions in Spain, Italy, and the Netherlands, and the wars with France, in which he was so long implicated, diverted him from his German territories, which he committed to the care of his brother Ferdinand. The princes of Germany were thus left to settle their religious differences among themselves, and to quell, unaided by the head of the state, the formidable insurrection of the peasants (1524-25), which

threatened to undermine the very foundations of society, and which followed closely the nobles' war (1522-23), raised by Ulrich von Hurren and Francis von Sickingen in the vain hope of securing a more united Germany under the emperor. The rising of the lower orders was due to the preaching of the fanatic M \ddot{u} nzer, and other leaders of the sect of Anabaptists, which had arisen from a perverted interpretation of some of the tenets advanced by Luther.

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ANCIENT
AND
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GERMANY

Charles
V Also
King of
Spain

LUTHER HOUSE, FRANKFORT

The Ana-
baptist
Sect

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GERMANY

Peace
of Augs-
burgProtes-
tant
Tolera-
tion
Granted

Charles's determined opposition to the reformers rendered all settlement of these religious differences impracticable; and although, by the aid of his ally, Maurice of Saxony, he broke the confederation of the Protestant princes known as the league of Schmalkald, he was forced by his former ally to sign the Peace of Augsburg in 1555, which granted tolerance to the Lutherans; and, in his disgust at the complicated relations in which he was placed to both parties, he abdicated in favor of his brother Ferdinand (1556-64), who put an end to much of the religious dissension that had hitherto distracted the empire, by granting entire toleration to the Protestants. Although Ferdinand was personally mild and pacific, his reign was troubled by domestic and foreign aggressions — the different sects disturbing the peace of the empire at home, while the French and the Turks assailed it from abroad.

Thirty
Years'
War

During the next fifty years the empire was a prey to internal disquiet. Maximilian II (1564-76) was indeed a wise and just prince, but the little he was able to effect in reconciling the adherents of the different churches, and in raising the character of the imperial rule, was fatally counteracted by the bigotry and vacillation of his son and successor, Rudolf II (1576-1612), in whose reign Germany was torn by the dissensions of the opposite religious factions, while each in turn called in the aid of foreigners to contribute toward the universal anarchy which culminated in the Thirty Years' War, begun under Rudolf's brother and successor Matthias (1612-19); continued under Ferdinand II (1619-37), an able, but cruel and bigoted man; and ended under Ferdinand III (1637-57), by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648.

Its
Effects

The effect of the Thirty Years' War was to depopulate the rural districts of Germany, destroy its commerce, burden the people with taxes, cripple the already debilitated power of the emperors, and cut up the empire into a multitude of petty states, the rulers of which exercised almost absolute power within their own territories. Leopold I (1658-1705), a haughty, pedantic man, did not avail himself of the opportunities afforded by peace for restoring order to the state, but suffered himself to be drawn into the coalition against France, while his hereditary states were overrun by the Turks, and were indebted for their safety to Sobieski, king of Poland. Although success often attended his arms, the cunning of Louis XIV prevented peace from bringing the emperor any signal

Stras-
burg
Annexed
by
France

advantages; and it was in this reign that Strasburg was attached to the French Empire.

The reigns of Joseph I (1705-11) and Charles VI (1711-40), with whom expired the male line of the Hapsburg dynasty, were signalized by the great victories won by the imperialist general, Prince Eugene, in conjunction with Marlborough, over the French, in the war of the Spanish Succession (1702-13). But the treaty of Utrecht (1713) brought no solid advantage to the empire. The disturbed condition of Spain and Saxony opened new channels for German interference abroad. Germany was further distracted, after the death of Charles, by the dissensions occasioned by the contested succession of his daughter, Maria Theresa, who claimed the empire in virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction drawn up by her father in 1713, and through her of her husband, Francis I, of Lorraine, after their rival, the Bavarian elector, Charles VII, had by means of Prussian aid been elected in 1742 to the imperial throne. Charles, however, was obliged to cede his crown after a brief occupation of three years. Constant disturbances, intensified during the Seven Years' war (1756-63), when Frederick the Great of Prussia maintained his character of a skilful general at the expense of the Austrians, made the reign of Francis I (1745-65) one of trouble and disaster. Joseph II, his son (1765-90), during the lifetime of Maria Theresa, who retained her authority over all the Austrian states, enjoyed little beyond the title of emperor, to which he had succeeded on his father's death. But when he ultimately acquired his mother's vast patrimony, he at once entered upon a course of reforms, which were, however, premature; and unsuited to the cases to which they were applied; while his attempts to re-establish the supremacy of the imperial power in the south of Germany were frustrated by Prussian influence.

Leopold II, after a short reign of two years, was succeeded in 1792 by his son, Francis II, who after a series of defeats by the armies of the French Republic, and the adhesion, in 1805, of many of the German princes to the alliance of France, which led to the subsequent formation of the Rhenish Confederation under the protectorate of Napoleon, resigned the German crown, and assumed the title of Emperor of Austria. From this period till the Congress of Vienna of 1814-15, Germany was almost entirely at the mercy of Napoleon, who deposed the established sover-

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Treaty
of
UtrechtSuccession
ContestedGermany
at Napo-
leon's
Mercy

DIVISION III eigns, and dismembered their states in favor of his partizans and dependents, while he crippled the trade of the country, and ex-

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COLOGNE CATHEDRAL

hausted its resources by the extortion of subsidies or contributions. The second peace of Paris (1814) restored to Germany all that had

belonged to her in 1792; and, as a reconstruction of the old empire was no longer possible, those states which still maintained their sovereignty combined, in 1815, to form a German Confederation. Of the 300 states into which the empire had once been divided there now remained only 39, a number which was afterward reduced to 35 by the extinction of several petty dynasties. The diet was now reorganized, and appointed to hold its meetings at Frankfort-on-the-Main, after having been formally recognized by all the allied states as the legislative and executive organ of the Confederation; but it failed to satisfy the expectations of the nation, and soon became a mere political tool in the hands of the princes, who simply made its decrees subservient to their own efforts for the suppression of every progressive movement. The festival of the Wartburg, and the assassination of Kotzebue, were seized as additional excuses for reaction; and though the French Revolution of 1830 so influenced some few of the German states as to compel their rulers to grant written constitutions to their subjects, the effect was transient, and it was not till 1848 that the German nation gave expression, by open insurrectionary movements, to the discontent and the sense of oppression which had long possessed the minds of the people. The princes endeavored by hasty concessions to arrest the progress of republican principles, and, fully recognizing the inefficiency of the diet, they gave their sanction to the convocation, by a provisional self-constituted assembly of a national congress of representatives of the people.

Archduke John, of Austria, was elected vicar of the newly organized national government; but he soon disappointed the hopes of the assembly by his evident attempts to frustrate all energetic action on the side of the parliament, while the speedy success of the Anti-Republican party in Austria and Prussia dampened the hopes of the progressionists. The refusal of the king of Prussia to accept the imperial crown, which the parliament offered him in 1849, was followed by the election of a provisional regency of the empire; but as nearly half the members had declined taking part in these proceedings, or in a previous measure by which Austria had been excluded, by a single vote, from the German Confederation, the assembly soon lapsed into a state of anarchy and impotence, which terminated in its dissolution. The sanguinary manner

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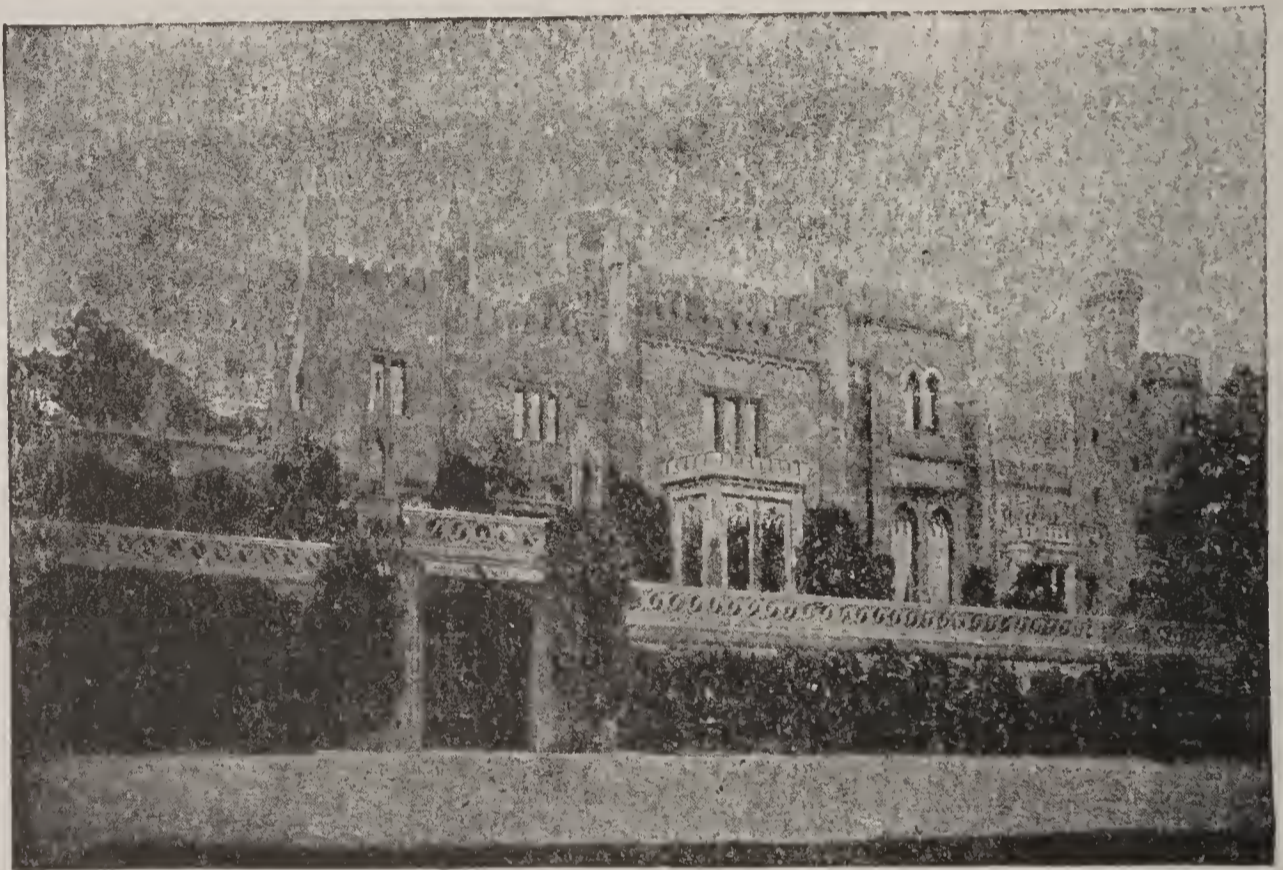
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AND
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A Con-
federationOppres-
sion
Causes
Discon-
tent

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in which insurrectionary movements had in the meanwhile been suppressed by Prussian troops both in Prussia and Saxony put an effectual end to republican demonstrations; and in 1850 Austria and Prussia, after exhibiting mutual jealousy and ill-will which more than once seemed likely to end in war, combined to restore the diet, whose first acts were the intervention in Sleswick-Holstein in favor of Denmark, and the abolition of the free constitutions of several of the lesser states. From that period the diet



BABELSBERG PALACE, POTSDAM

Strife for
 Supremacy
 between
 Austria
 and
 Prussia

became the arena in which Austria and Prussia strove to secure the supremacy and championship of Germany; every measure of public interest was made subservient to the views of one or other of these rival powers; and the Sleswick-Holstein difficulties were the principal questions under discussion in the federal parliament, down to the rupture between Prussia and Austria, and the dissolution of the Bund in 1866.

The immediate occasion of the war of 1866 was the difference that arose between Prussia and Austria, after the convention of Gastein (1865), as to the occupation and disposal of the territory taken from Denmark in the short war of 1864. But the real grounds lay in that rivalry between the two states for the leadership of Germany. There can be little doubt that the feeling of the

German people, as distinguished from the princes and bureaucracy, had, in recent times at least, been in favor of the purely German Prussia as their leader, rather than Austria. And when the parliament of Frankfort in 1849 offered the imperial crown to the king of Prussia, the unity of Germany might have been secured without bloodshed, had the monarch been less scrupulous, or had he had

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 Union
 Possible
 without
 War



A RARE PORTRAIT OF BISMARCK IN ARMOR

a Bismarck for his adviser. But that opportunity being let slip, and the incubus of the "Bund" being restored, it became apparent that the knot must be cut by the sword.

By the treaty of Gastein, Austria and Prussia agreed to a joint occupation of the Elbe duchies; but to prevent collision it was judged prudent that Austria should occupy Holstein, and Prussia Sleswick. Already a difference of policy had begun to show itself:

Prussian
 and
 Italian
 Alliance

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Prussia was believed to have the intention of annexing the duchies; while Austria began to favor the claims of Prince Frederick, of Augustenburg. In the meantime both nations were making ready for the struggle; and Italy, looking upon the quarrel as a precious opportunity to strike a blow for the liberation of Venetia, had secretly entered into an alliance with Prussia.

In the sitting of the German diet, June 1, 1866, Austria, disregarding the convention of Gastein, placed the whole matter at the disposal of the Bund, and then proceeded to convoke the states of Holstein "to assist in the settlement of the future destination of the duchy." Prussia protested against this as an insult and a violation of treaty; demanded the re-establishment of the joint occupation; and, while inviting Austria to send troops into Sleswig, marched troops of her own into Holstein. Instead of responding to this invitation, Austria withdrew her forces altogether from Holstein, under protest; and then, calling attention to this "act of violence" on the part of Prussia, proposed that the diet should decree "federal execution" against the enemy of the empire. This eventful resolution was carried by a great majority on the 14th of June, 1866; Hanover, Saxony, Hesse-Cassel, and Hesse-Darmstadt voting for it. The resolution having passed, the Prussian plenipotentiary, in the name of his government, declared the German Confederation dissolved forever, and immediately withdrew.

Resolu-
 tion
 against
 Prussia

War
 Declared

Thereupon identical notes were sent by Prussia to the courts of Saxony, Hanover, and Hesse-Cassel. The terms were not accepted, and the Prussian troops at once took military possession of the three kingdoms without resistance. War was now declared against Austria; the Prussian host, numbering in all 225,400 men, with 774 guns, invaded Bohemia at three several points. The Austrians, who had been surprised in a state of ill-organized unreadiness, had assembled an army of 262,400 men and 716 guns; and the greater portion of these were stationed under General Benedek, behind the Riesengebirge, expecting the attack from Silesia. The Prussian armies meanwhile crossed the Erzgebirge without opposition, drove the Austrian army steadily and quickly back with heavy losses, and, after effecting a junction, moved steadily forward to meet the Austrian army, now concentrated between Sadowa and Königgrätz.

Here, on July 3, was fought the decisive battle. The Austrian cavalry made heroic efforts to turn the tide of victory; but the stern-trained valor of the Prussians, armed with the till then little known breech-loading "needle-gun," was invincible, and the Austrian army was broken, and dissolved in precipitate flight. The Prussians lost upward of 9,000 killed and wounded; the Austrian loss was 16,235 killed and wounded, and 22,684 prisoners. After this decisive defeat, which is known as the battle of Königgrätz or Sadowa, all hope of staying the advance of the Prussians with the army of Benedek was at an end; a truce was asked for, but refused; and not till the victorious Prussians had pushed forward toward Vienna, whither Benedek had drawn his beaten forces, was a truce obtained through the agency of the emperor of the French, the peace of Prague (August 20.)

Italy, though more than half inclined to stand out for the cession by Austria of the Trentino, as well as Venetia, reluctantly agreed to the armistice (August 12.)

A brief campaign sufficed for the defeat of the minor states of Germany that had joined Austria; viz., Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt; and after peace had at last been arranged, some of them were forced to submit to a certain loss of territory. Saxony only escaped incorporation with Prussia through the resolute opposition of Austria supported by France; but the little kingdom, like all the other states that had taken arms against Prussia, was forced to pay a heavy war indemnity. Even the little principality of Reuss had to pay 100,000 thalers into the fund for Prussian invalids. The states north of the Main which had taken up arms against Prussia were completely incorporated; viz., Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Frankfort, and a small portion of Hesse-Darmstadt, as well as Sleswick-Holstein and Lauenburg; and the other states north of the Main were united with Prussia in a confederacy of a more intimate nature than before existed, called the North German Confederation.

Austria, by the treaty of Prague (August 20, 1866), was completely excluded from participation in the new organization of the German states, and formally agreed to the surrender of Venetia to Italy, to the incorporation of Sleswick-Holstein with Prussia, and to the new arrangements made by Prussia in Germany. A portion of the fifth article of this treaty secured that, if the "inhabitants of the

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Decisive
Battle of
König-
grätzPeace
Obtained
Through
Agency
of FranceWar
Indemni-
tiesA New
Confed-
eracy

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northern districts of Sleswick declared, by a free vote, their desire to be united to Denmark, they shall be restored accordingly;" but this was withdrawn in 1878 by secret treaty between Austria and Germany. Though losing no territory to Prussia, Austria had to pay forty millions of thalers for the expense of the war.

Constitu-
 tion
 Proposed
 by
 Bismarck

The North German Confederation, as thus constituted, possessed a common parliament, elected by universal suffrage, in which each state was represented according to its population. The first, or constituent, parliament met early in 1867, and adopted, with a few modifications, the constitution proposed by Count Bismarck. The new elections then took place, and the first regular North German parliament met in September, 1867. According to this constitution, there was to be a common army and fleet, under the sole command of Prussia; a common diplomatic representation abroad, of necessity little else than Prussian; and to Prussia also was entrusted the management of the posts and telegraphs in the Confederation.

The southern German states which up to this point had not joined the Bund, were Bavaria, Baden, Würtemberg, Hesse-Darmstadt, and Liechtenstein, with a joint area of 43,990 square miles, and a total population (1866) of 8,524,460. But, though these states were not formally members of the Bund, they were so practically, for they were bound to Prussia by treaties of alliance offensive and defensive, so that in the event of a war the king of Prussia would have at his disposal an armed force of upward of 1,100,000 men.

Consoli-
 dation
 of the
 Empire

During the next few years the North German Confederation was employed in consolidating and strengthening itself, and in trying to induce the southern states to join the league. The Zollverein was remodeled and extended, until by the year 1868 every part of Germany was a member of it, with the exception of the cities of Hamburg and Bremen, and a small part of Baden. This paved the way for the formal entrance of the southern states into the confederation; but they still hung back, though the ideal of a united Germany was gradually growing in force and favor.

War
 Averted
 by Inter-
 national
 Congress

In the spring of 1867, a war between Prussia and France seemed imminent, from difficulties arising out of the occupation of Luxemburg by the former; but by the good offices of the British government a congress of the great powers (Italy included) was assembled at London, at which an arrangement satisfactory to both nations

was amicably agreed upon, Luxemburg remaining in the possession of the king of Holland. It was evident, however, that hostilities had only been postponed, and on both sides extensive military preparations were carried on.

In 1870 the long-threatened war between Prussia and France broke out. On July 4 of that year, the provisional government of Spain elected Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern, a relative of King William of Prussia, to fill their vacant throne.

This step gave the greatest umbrage to the French government; and though by the advice of William I of Prussia, Prince Leopold resigned his candidature, France was not satisfied, but demanded an assurance that Prussia would at no future period sanction his claims.

This assurance the king refused to

give, and on the 19th of July the emperor of the French proclaimed war against Prussia. Contrary to the expectation of France, the southern German states at once decided to support Prussia and the northern states, and placed their armies, which were eventually commanded by the crown prince of Prussia, at the disposal of King William.

By the end of July the forces of both countries were congregated on the frontier. Napoleon, however, lost a fortnight in delays

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WILLIAM I OF GERMANY

France
 Pro-
 claims
 War

Southern
 German
 States
 Support
 King
 William

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after the declaration of war, and it was discovered that the French army was by no means in a state of satisfactory preparation, while the Germans were splendidly organized, and much superior in number. The result was that the French, instead of marching to Berlin as they anticipated, never crossed the Rhine, and had to fight at a disadvantage in Alsace and Lorraine.

French
 Losses
 and
 German
 Gains

On August 2, the French obtained some trifling success at Saarbrück, but the rapidly following battles of Weissenburg (August 4), Worth, and Spicheren (both August 6) were important German victories. The German advance was hardly checked for a moment, though the losses on both sides were very heavy. The battle of Gravelotte, in which King William commanded in person, was fought on the 18th; and, though the Germans suffered immense loss, they were again victorious, and forced Bazaine to shut himself up in Metz. The Emperor Napoleon and Marshall Mac Mahon in vain attempted to proceed to the relief of Bazaine. They were surrounded at Sedan, and completely defeated with heavy loss. The emperor surrendered on the 2d of September, with his whole army, about 90,000 men, and was sent as a prisoner into Germany. By the 19th of September the Prussians had reached Paris, and commenced a vigorous siege. Strasburg capitulated on the 27th after a severe bombardment; and on October 28 Bazaine surrendered Metz, with an army of 6,000 officers and 173,000 men, 400 pieces of artillery, 100 mitrailleuses, and 53 eagles. Verdun capitulated on the 8th of November; Thionville followed on the 24th; after which there were several capitulations of lesser importance.

Siege of
 Paris

Paris
 Sur-
 renders
 1871

The French made extraordinary efforts to raise armies and relieve Paris, but, with the exception of a momentary gleam of success on the Loire, they met with nothing but severe defeats. Of these may be mentioned the battle of December 3 in the Forest of Orleans, and that of Le Mans, January 12, in which contests Prince Frederick Charles took altogether 30,000 prisoners. After numerous unsuccessful sorties, and enduring great sufferings from famine, Paris surrendered on the 29th of January, and the war was virtually at an end. The French army of the east, 80,000 strong, under Bourbaki, was compelled to retire to Switzerland on the 31st. By the peace of Frankfort (May 10, 1871) France was compelled to pay a war indemnity of five millions of francs, or



BISMARCK, "THE IRON CHANCELLOR"

\$1,000,000,000, and the province of Alsace, along with the German part of Lorraine, was ceded to Germany.

A very important result of the war was to complete the fusion of the northern and southern states of Germany. The southern states joined at once in the war against France; in November of 1870, Baden and Hesse leading the way, they all became members of the German Confederation; and next month the re-establishment of the German empire was almost unanimously resolved, with the king of Prussia as hereditary emperor. It was at Versailles, on January 18, 1871,* that the king was proclaimed emperor of Germany.†

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Immense Indemnity Including Alsace and Lorraine

* The constitution for the new empire was promulgated by an imperial decree of April 16, 1871, and is contained in seventy-eight articles, under fourteen sections. Alsace and Lorraine were brought under its provisions from January 1, 1871. The preamble expressly declares that all the states of Germany form an eternal union for the protection of the territory of the Bund, and for the care of the welfare of the German people. The empire possesses the exclusive right of legislation on all military and naval affairs; on civil and criminal law for general application; on imperial finance and commerce; on posts, telegraphs, and railways in so far as the interests of the national defense and general trade are concerned. Wherever the laws of the empire come into collision with those of particular states of the Bund, the latter must be held as abrogated; and in all disputes that arise among the individual states, the imperial jurisdiction is supreme and final.

Government

There are two legislative bodies in the empire — the *Bundesrath*, or Federal Council, the members of which are annually appointed by the governments of the various states, represents the individual states of Germany; and the *Reichstag*, the members of which are elected by universal suffrage and ballot for a period of five years, represents the German nation. The former deliberates on proposals to be submitted to the latter, and on the resolutions received from it. A simple majority is sufficient to carry a vote in the Bundesrath. Acting under the direction of the chancellor of the empire, who presides over its sessions, the Bundesrath in addition to its legislative functions, represents also a supreme administrative and consultative board, and, as such, has eleven standing committees; viz., for the army and fortresses; naval matters; tariff, excise, and taxes; trade and commerce; railways, posts, and telegraphs; civil and criminal law; financial accounts; foreign affairs; Alsace-Lorraine; matters affecting the constitution; and the arrangement of business. Each committee consists of representatives of at least four states of the empire, besides the president; but the foreign affairs committee includes the representatives of the kingdoms of Bavaria, Saxony, and Würtemberg, and of two other states annually selected by the Bundesrath.

The Reichstag contains 397 members, or approximately one member for every 131,604 inhabitants. Its president is elected by the deputies. The limit of its session was formerly three years, but by the law of March 19, 1888, which came into force in 1890, the duration of the legislative period is now five years. The emperor has the power, after a vote by the Bundesrath, to prorogue and dissolve the Reichstag.

† The election of Wilhelm I, king of Prussia, as the German Emperor (1871) was by vote of the Reichstag of the North German Confederation, on the initiative of all the reigning princes of Germany. The imperial dignity is hereditary in the house of

German Emperors

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The new German empire set vigorously to work to organize itself as a united federation, under the skilful leadership of Prince Bismarck, who was appointed Reichshanzler, or imperial chan-

Hohenzollern, and follows the law of primogeniture. Since Charlemagne was crowned "kaiser" at Rome, on Christmas day in the year 800, there have been the following emperors:—

HOUSE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

Charles I, The Great, or Charle-	
magne.....	800-814
Louis I, The Pious.....	814-840
Louis II, The German.....	843-876
Charles II, The Bald.....	876-877
Charles, The Fat.....	881-887
Arnulf.....	887-889
Louis III, The Child.....	900-911

HOUSE OF FRANCONIA.

Conrad I.....	911-918
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HOUSE OF SAXONY.

Henry, The Fowler.....	919-936
Otho I, The Great.....	936-973
Otho II.....	973-983
Otho III.....	983-1002
Henry II, The Saint.....	1002-1024

HOUSE OF FRANCONIA.

Conrad II, The Salic.....	1024-1039
Henry III.....	1039-1056
Henry IV.....	1056-1106
Henry V.....	1106-1125

HOUSE OF SAXONY.

Lothar II, The Saxon.....	1125-1137
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HOUSE OF HOHENSTAUFEN.

Conrad III.....	1138-1152
Frederick I, "Barbarossa"....	1152-1190
Henry VI.....	1190-1197
Philip.....	1198-1208
Otho IV, "Von Wittelsback" ..	1208-1212
Frederick II.....	1212-1250
Conrad IV.....	1250-1254

FIRST INTERREGNUM.

William of Holland.....	1254-1256
Richard of Cornwall.....	1256-1272

HOUSE OF HAPSBURG.

Rudolf I.....	1273-1291
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HOUSE OF NASSAU.

Adolf.....	1292-1298
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HOUSE OF HAPSBURG.

Albert I.....	1298-1308
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HOUSES OF LUXEMBURG AND BAVARIA.

Henry VII.....	1308-1313
Louis IV, The Bavarian.....	1313-1347
Charles IV.....	1348-1378

SECOND INTERREGNUM.

Wenceslaus of Bohemia.....	1378-1400
Rupert of the Palatinate.....	1400-1410
Sigismund of Brandenburg....	1410-1437

HOUSE OF HAPSBURG.

Albert II.....	1438-1439
Frederick III.....	1440-1493
Maximilian I.....	1493-1519
Charles V.....	1519-1556
Ferdinand I.....	1556-1564
Maximilian II.....	1564-1576
Rudolf II.....	1576-1612
Matthias.....	1612-1619
Ferdinand II.....	1619-1637
Ferdinand III.....	1637-1657
Leopold I.....	1657-1705
Joseph I.....	1705-1711
Charles VI.....	1711-1740

HOUSE OF BAVARIA.

Charles VII.....	1742-1745
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HOUSE OF HAPSBURG-LORRAINE.

Francis I.....	1745-1765
Joseph II.....	1765-1790
Leopold II.....	1790-1792
Francis II.....	1792-1806

THIRD INTERREGNUM.

Confederation of the Rhine....	1806-1815
Germanic Confederation.....	1815-1866
North German Confederation..	1866-1871

HOUSE OF HOHENZOLLERN.

William I, The Great.....	1871-1888
Frederick.....	1888 (March-June)
William II.....	1888 (June)

cellor. Almost at once it found itself involved in the ecclesiastical contest with the Church of Rome, known as the "Kulturkampf" which had previously begun in Prussia. The origin of the struggle was an effort to vindicate the right of the state to interfere, some-

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EMPEROR WILLIAM MEMORIAL CHURCH

what intimately, with the behavior, appointments, and even educational affairs of all religious societies in the country. The Jesuits were expelled in 1872, and Pope Pius IX retorted by declining to receive the German ambassador. The famous Falk or May laws were passed in Prussia in 1873-4-5, and some of their provisions were extended to the empire. Several German

Bismarck
 Ap-
 pointed
 Imperial
 Chan-
 cellor

- DIVISION III** prelates, refusing obedience, were expelled from Germany; and
EUROPE the disorganization in ecclesiastical affairs became so serious that
ANCIENT the Reichstag passed a law in 1874 making marriage a civil rite.
AND The pope issued an encyclical declaring the Falk laws invalid, and
MODERN matters seemed for a time to be at a deadlock. On the election
GERMANY of a new pope, Leo XIII, in 1878, attempts were made to arrange
Marriage a compromise between the empire and the papal see. Falk, the
Made a Prussian "Kultus"-minister, resigned in 1879, and certain modifi-
Civil cations were made in the obnoxious laws of 1881 and 1883. Bis-
Rite marck took a further step toward Canossa in 1885 when he proposed
Bismarck the pope as arbitrator between Germany and Spain in the dispute
Yields as to the possession of the Caroline Islands; and he practically
to the owned himself beaten in the concessions which he granted in revi-
Papacy sions of the politico-ecclesiastical legislation in 1886 and 1887.
 Another semi-religious difficulty which demanded government inter-
 ference was the social persecution of the Jews, which reached a
 climax in 1880-81.
- Spread** In more strictly political affairs the rapid spread of socialism
of Social- excited the alarm of the government. Two attempts on the life
ism of the emperor (in May and June, 1878) were attributed more or
 less directly to the Social Democrat organization, and gave the
 signal for legislative measures conferring very extensive powers
 upon the administration to be used in suppressing the influence of
 socialism. These socialist laws, though limited in duration, were
 invariably renewed (sometimes with added stringency); before their
 validity expired, in 1889, several of the most important towns of
 the empire were in what is called "the minor state of siege" for
 police purposes, and a new permanent socialist law was proposed
 by the government in October of that year. A plot, happily futile,
 to blow up the emperor and other German rulers at the inaugura-
 tion of the National Monument in the Niederwald in 1883 was
 considered by government to justify its repressive measure. Prince
 Bismarck, however, was not content with repressive measures; he
 endeavored by improving the condition of the working classes to
 cut the ground from beneath the feet of the socialistic propagan-
 dists. The acknowledgment in the emperor's message to the
 Reichstag in 1881, that the working classes have a right to be con-
 sidered by the state, was followed by laws compelling employers
 to insure their workmen in case of sickness and of accident, and
- Improved**
Condition
of Labor

by the introduction (1888) of compulsory insurance against death and old age—measures that have been called “state-socialism.”

The energetic commercial policy of government also, which since 1879 has been strongly protectionist, has its springs in similar considerations; and

the recent colonial policy, which begun in 1884 with the acquisition of Angra Pequena, may be considered to be stimulated partly by the desire to gratify the national self-respect, and partly to provide new outlets under the German flag for the surplus population, and new markets for the home manufactures. None of the German colonies as yet, however, either in Africa or the Pacific Ocean, have been of any great commercial value.

The assembling of the Congo Con-

gress at Berlin in 1885 fitly marked Germany's admission to the list of colonial powers. On the maintenance and improvement of the army and navy the German government has bestowed the most unremitting care, urged especially by the attitude of the “Ravenche” party in France, though hitherto the imperial policy has been entirely pacific.



EMPRESS AUGUSTA VICTORIA

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EUROPE

ANCIENT
AND
MODERN

GERMANY

Com-
mercial
Policy

A
Colonial
Power

DIVISION III

EUROPE

ANCIENT
AND
MODERN

GERMANY

Reichs-
tag Dis-
solved
on Army
BillEnor-
mous
Military
Prepara-
tionDeath of
William
I

Considerable parliamentary friction has been caused more than once by the unwillingness of the Reichstag to vote military supplies to the amount and in the manner demanded by the emperor and chancellor. The latter desire to have practically a free hand in military matters, while the national parliament seeks to exercise a constitutional control over the army resembling that illustrated in Great Britain by the annual Mutiny Act. A compromise was effected in 1874 in virtue of which the military strength was fixed, and the supplies granted for periods of seven years at a time. In 1886 the government proposed to terminate the current Septennate in 1887 instead of in 1888, and immediately to add largely to the peace strength of the army. On the rejection of the bill, the Reichstag was dissolved (January, 1887) by the emperor, and an appeal made to the country. The Iron Chancellor still possessed the confidence and gratitude of the people, and the new elections in February, 1887, resulted in a crushing defeat to the opponents of the government, notably the Freisinnige and the Social Democrats. One of the most remarkable features of this election was a letter written by the pope in favor of the army bill, for which he subsequently received a quid pro quo in a further modification of the May laws. The Military Septennate bill was immediately passed; and was followed in 1888 by a Military Organization bill, which made several changes in the condition of service in the landwehr. The subsequent budgets show an enormous increase in the extraordinary military expenditure. While thus seeking peace by preparing for war, Germany has not failed to use diplomacy for the same end.

A personal meeting of the emperors of Germany, Austria, and Russia in 1872 was considered a proof of a political alliance (Dreikaiserbund); and when Russia drifted somewhat apart from Germany in 1878, an offensive and defensive alliance was formed between Austria and Germany in 1879. Italy afterward entered this Triple Alliance. Germany's influence on the Eastern Question was recognized in 1878, when the plenipotentiaries of the powers met at the Congress of Berlin.

On March 9, 1888, the Emperor William I died. His son Frederick, at that time suffering from a cancerous affection of the throat, immediately issued a proclamation, in which he promised to consider "new and unquestionable national needs," and it was

understood, and to some extent felt, that a more liberal era had commenced. The new emperor, however, died on June 15, and William II, his son, who succeeded, at once recurred to the policy of William I and Prince Bismarck. Much painful excitement was caused by a medical dispute as to the nature and cause of the late emperor's fatal illness, which speedily developed into a party ques-

tion, discussed on both sides with virulent acrimony.

The latter part of 1888 and the year 1889 were devoted by the young emperor to visiting the courts of several of his fellow sovereigns in Europe. Germany continued to extend her colonial empire, not, however without coming to blows with the natives; and in Samoa became temporarily involved in hostilities with one of the chiefs. Difficulties on the east coast of Africa led

in 1888 to a blockade by the British and German fleets to prevent the importation of arms and to check the slave-trade. This lasted until October, 1889.

William at once showed his intention to reserve to himself personal control of the government, and accordingly dismissed Bismarck (March, 1890), who did not approve of his policy. In the last few years the Social Democrats have been heard with considerable emphasis in Germany. Since 1884 several foreign

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GERMANY

**Frederick
Dies
with
Cancer**



WILLIAM II

**Slave-
Trade in
Africa
Checked**

**William
II Dis-
misses
Bismarck**

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Caprivi
 Named
 as Chan-
 cellor

Samoan
 Treaty
 Ratified

Austrian
 Emperor
 Refuses
 Audience
 to
 Bismarck

dependencies and protectorates have been acquired in Africa and Oceanica. Germany is a member of the Triple Alliance, which includes Austria-Hungary, and Italy. It was formed about 1883, chiefly through the efforts of Bismarck, and was intended as a defense against Russia and France. The best handbook in English is Lewis's *History of Germany* (Harpers). The Triple Alliance was renewed by Chancellor Caprivi, the successor of Bismarck, in 1891. In 1890 he secured Heligoland from England in exchange for German claims in Zanzibar and Witu. Emperor William II, on April 15, 1890, announced the appointment of Gen. Leo von Caprivi de Caprera to succeed Bismarck as chancellor and premier of the council. There was a general feeling that Bismarck's retirement would be an impediment to the national growth and prosperity of the empire. As a matter of fact this feeling had no foundation, for it was announced by Caprivi that he would continue, so far as possible, the government principles of Bismarck. An action of doubtful expediency was the abolition of the official press, but even this was, on the whole, favorably received. Events of importance during the years 1890-91 were, the meeting of the International Labor Congress in Berlin; the ratification of the Samoan treaty with the United States; the extension of the Triple Alliance for three years; the initial step in the imperial agitation for an increase in the army; and the celebration of the anniversary of the birth of the great strategist, Count von Moltke, and his death shortly afterward.

April 1, 1891, was Bismarck's birthday, and was a time of great rejoicing throughout the empire. The Iron Chancellor was the recipient of a note of congratulations from the emperor, which act was greeted with approval by all. The emperor's visit to England and Russia had the significant result of establishing existing friendly relations more firmly. August 10, 1891, the twentieth anniversary of the restoration of the empire was celebrated, and on September 21, the severe passport regulations applied to Alsace-Lorraine were relaxed. Early in 1892 Emperor William advocated the passage of a primary education bill, compelling children to be educated in religion. This bill met with pronounced opposition, and was withdrawn. On the occasion of the marriage of Count Herbert Bismarck, at Vienna, June 21, 1892, the ex-chancellor was refused an audience by the emperor of Austria. This affront was

strongly resented by Bismarck, and attributed by him to the influence of Emperor William. The emperor was publicly reproached by the Conservatives, and there was some talk of treason. Thus the breach between the emperor and Bismarck was widened. The "Guelph fund," consisting of about \$12,000,000 and representing the value of the estates of the king of Hanover, was turned over to the Duke of Cumberland. The empire was greatly agitated by the discussions of the army bill. It was proposed by the government that there should be an additional taxation and an increased number of recruits. A bill to this effect was introduced, and after many amendments was finally rejected by the Reichstag, May 6. The emperor called a new election, and the bill was passed by a small majority in July. The decree against the Jesuits, which expelled them from the empire in 1873, was repealed December 1. In January of the following year occurred the reconciliation of the Emperor William and Bismarck, and it was an occasion of much rejoicing. There was a disagreement between the emperor and Chancellor Caprivi in regard to the methods of suppressing the socialists, which resulted in the resignation of the latter, October 25.

Prince Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst succeeded him to the chancellorship, and with his ministry came the revival of the anti-revolutionary measures against socialists and anarchists. Quite an excitement was occasioned in the new parliament house on December 5, by the refusal of the socialists to cheer the emperor. This act was considered treasonable by many, but nothing serious came of it. The corner-stone of the new parliament building was laid in 1884 by Emperor William I. This is the finest structure in the empire, and cost over \$7,000,000. The anti-revolutionary bill was rejected by the Reichstag in January, 1895. The celebration of Bismarck's eightieth birthday, April 1, brought delegates from all parts of the empire. The Kaiser Wilhelm canal was opened in the presence of representatives of the governments of the world on June 19. This canal connects the Baltic and North Seas; its cost was over \$39,000,000. Other events of importance which occurred in this year were the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the surrender of the French, August 18; the action of retaliatory measures against the United States for the duty placed by the latter on German sugar; the enforcement of prohibitive acts against

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Resignation of Caprivi

Socialists Refuse to Cheer the Emperor

Kaiser William Canal Opened

American Industries Restricted in Germany

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American beef, and the prevention of American insurance companies from doing business in Germany. The twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the empire was celebrated as a national holiday, January 18, 1896. Within the last few years Germany has been one of the most prosperous countries of Europe. Great internal improvements in all directions have been made; her international relations have been greatly strengthened; she has satisfactorily demonstrated and enforced her military power; her navy has been thoroughly reorganized; by treaties with France the German possessions in Africa have been clearly defined, and the people, as a whole, are prosperous and contented. The number of political parties has increased; the socialists have gained in power, and the agrarian movement forced recognition. Toleration both in religion and politics has greatly increased. But while the emperor had done much for the empire, he did not strengthen monarchy by his insistence on his divine right to rule. In a speech at Königsberg, September, 1894, he warned the nobility not to go too far in their opposition to the government, vehemently denounced the socialists, and closed one of his periods with the remarkable words: "So do I, like my imperial grandfather, represent the monarchy by right divine." * The storm which this aroused resulted in the suppression of several socialist papers, the plant of the principal organ in Berlin being seized and confiscated. The socialist headquarters thereupon removed to Hamburg, out of Prussian jurisdiction. After the reconciliation with Bismarck, however, public sentiment turned in favor of the emperor, for the Iron Chancellor is to-day, and has been for many years, the idol of the German people.

Divine
 Right
 Asserted
 by
 William
 II

German
 Demands
 in China

In November, 1897, a few German missionaries were murdered in the province of Chan-Tung. The onslaught was said to have been instigated by the Chinese mandarins and priests, and planned by the governor of the province. The omission of the Chinese government to make immediate amends caused Germany to send four war-ships to the port of Kiao-Chou. On November 15 six hundred marines were landed with several pieces of artillery. The garrison of the Chinese forts fled, and the Germans hoisted their imperial flag over the forts. Germany demanded the punishment of officials implicated; reconstruction of the mission buildings;

* See "Divine Right," Vol. IV, page 1359.

payment of an indemnity to the relatives of the victims; payment of a heavy indemnity to cover the expenses of the German naval expedition, and of maintenance of the German force at Kiao-Chou.

The Chinese government, on the other hand, demanded the evacuation of Kiao-Chou before discussing these demands. This the German minister refused. Accordingly, in December the German government sent Prince Henry, a brother of the kaiser, in charge of a second squadron of German battle-ships and cruisers. The intention was that Prince Henry should visit Peking for the purpose of delivering to the emperor a letter from the kaiser including a program of Chinese reforms. Late in the year, it was announced that China had virtually acceded to all the demands of Germany, and that the whole difficulty was settled. By March of 1898, the German government announced to the world at large that it would keep the port of Kiao-Chou, and also assured the Powers that it would be a port open to the commerce of the world.

On July 30 of the same year, the German people suffered a severe loss in the death of Prince Otto Von Bismarck. For several years the ex-chancellor had been living in retirement at his home at Friedrichsruhe, owing to his differences with the present emperor of Germany, and although he went to his grave with these differences still unsettled, yet the nation as a whole mourned the death of this great statesman.

An important visit from a political and religious point of view was made by the emperor William II to Jerusalem in the fall of 1898. The start was made from Berlin October 12; on the thirteenth the royal party arrived at Venice on board the "Hohenzollern" and were cordially received by the king and queen and people of Italy. On their arrival at Constantinople, five days later, they were received by the sultan with every mark of friendship and every resource of pomp which could add to the spectacular impressiveness of the meeting. Going from there to the port of Jaffa they arrived at Jerusalem on the 29th, and on the 1st of November occurred the ecclesiastical ceremony which had been the primary object of the visit — the consecration of the Protestant church of the Redeemer in Jerusalem. As a result of the emperor's tour the friendship already existing between the German and Turkish peoples was greatly strengthened.

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Part of
 Kiao-
 Chou
 Perma-
 nently
 Taken

Death of
 Bismarck

The
 Emperor
 Visits the
 Holy
 Land

Friend-
 ship with
 Turkey
 Strengthened

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PRUSSIA

PRUSSIA

PRUSSIA is the largest and most important state in the German empire. It is a kingdom embracing nearly the whole of northern Germany. It is bounded on the north by the German Ocean, Jutland, and the Baltic; on the east, by Russia (and Russian Poland); on the south, by Austria, Saxony, the Thuringian states, Bavaria, Hesse-Darmstadt, and Alsace Lorraine; on the west, by Luxemburg, Belgium, and the Netherlands. Prussia owns, besides Hohenzollern, other small exclaves, or detached territories, lying within the bounds of other German states. The total area is 134,462 square miles, nearly two thirds of the entire German empire, with about three fifths of the population, equal to about one half of the state of Texas. The following are the provinces into which Prussia is divided: East Prussia, West Prussia, Berlin (city), Brandenburg, Pomerania, Posen, Silesia, Saxony, Sleswick-Holstein, Heligoland, Hanover, Westphalia, Hesse-Nassau, Rhenish Prussia, and Hohenzollern.

Area

Names
of Prov-
inces

The lands bounded by the Baltic which now form part of Prussia, were early occupied by Slavonic tribes, nearly allied to the Letts and Lithuanians. It is conjectured that they were visited by Phœnician navigators in the fourth century B. C.; but beyond the fact of their having come into temporary conflict with the Goths and other Teutonic hordes prior to the great exodus of the latter from their northern homes, little is known of the people till the tenth century, when they first appear in history under the name of Borussi, or Prussians.

Forced
BaptismPeople
Object to
So-called
Chris-
tianity

In 997 Bishop Adalbert of Prague suffered martyrdom at their hands while endeavoring to convert the people to Christianity. Boleslas, duke of Poland, succeeded, however, about 1018, in compelling them to submit to baptism and subjection. After many futile attempts on the part of the people to throw off the yoke of Christianity and foreign domination, they finally made a successful stand against Boleslas IV of Poland in 1161, and for a time maintained a rude and savage kind of independence, which the disturbed condition of Poland prevented its rulers from breaking down. The fear of losing their freedom if they adopted Christianity made the Prussians obstinately resist every effort for their conversion; and it was not till the middle of the thirteenth century, when the

knights of the Teutonic order began their "famous" crusade against them, that the Christian faith was established among them. The inroads of the pagan Prussians on the territories of their Christian neighbors, and their advance into Pomerania, were the exciting causes of this important movement. The knights of the order, when appealed to by Conrad, duke of Masovia, to aid in the subjection of the heathen, gladly promised their services on condition of being permitted to retain possession of the lands which they might conquer; and, having entered the Prussian territories in considerable numbers, they entrenched themselves in Vogelsang and Nessau in 1230, and at once entered upon the conquest of Prussia. For half a century the knights of this belligerent brotherhood were engaged in a war with the people — winning lands and souls by hard fighting — until at length in 1283 they found themselves undisputed masters of the country, which they had both civilized and Christianized after a fashion — that is to say, by almost exterminating the pagan population.

During this period of struggle the knights founded the cities of Thorn, Kulm, Marienwerder, Memel, and Königsberg, repopled the country with German colonists, encouraged agriculture and trade, and laid the foundation of a well-ordered, prosperous state. The unhappy wars between the knights and the Poles and Lithuanians, together with the moral degeneracy of the order, led, in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, to the gradual decline of their supremacy. In 1454 the municipal and noble classes, with the co-operation of Poland, rose in open rebellion against the knights, who were finally compelled to seek peace at any cost, and obliged in 1466 to accept the terms offered to them by the Treaty of Thorn, by which West Prussia and Ermland were ceded by them unconditionally to Poland, and the remainder of their territories declared to be fiefs of that kingdom. In 1511 the knights elected as their grand master the Markgraf Albert of Anspach and Baiteuth, a kinsman of the king of Poland, and a scion of the Frankish line of the Hohenzollern family. Although his election did not immediately result, as the knights had hoped, in securing them allies powerful enough to aid them in emancipating themselves from Polish domination, it was fraught with important consequences to Germany at large, no less than to the order itself. In 1522 the grand-master was acknowledged duke of Prussia,

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Pagans
 Almost
 Extermin-
 ated

Internal
 Strife

Catholic-
 ism Re-
 nounced
 for Luth-
 eranism

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Bible
Trans-
lated into
Polish

which was converted into a secular duchy (afterward known as East Prussia), and renounced the Roman Catholic religion for Lutheranism, his example being followed by many of the knights.

The country made rapid advances under the rule of Albert, who improved the mode of administering the law, restored some order to the finances of the state, established schools, founded the University of Königsberg (1544), and caused the Bible to be translated into Polish, and several books of instruction to be printed in German, Polish, and Lithuanian. His son and successor, Albert Frederick, having become insane, a regency was appointed. Several of his kinsmen in turn enjoyed the dignity of regent, and finally his son-in-law, Johann Sigismund, elector of Brandenburg, after having held the administration of affairs in his hands for some years, was, on the death of the duke in 1618, recognized as his successor, both by the people and by the king of Poland, from whom he received the investiture of the duchy of Prussia, which, since that period, has been governed by the Hohenzollern-Brandenburg house.

Political
Divisions
of the
State

Here it will be necessary to retrace our steps in order to briefly consider the political and dynastic relations of the other parts of the Prussian state. In 1134, the North Mark, afterward called the Altmark, a district in the west of the Elbe and northeast of the Harz, was bestowed upon Albert the Bear of Luxemburg, who extended his dominion over the marshy region near Brandenburg and Berlin (the Mittelmark), and assumed the title of Markgraf of Brandenburg. During the next two or three centuries his immediate descendants advanced still farther eastward, beyond the Oder into farther Pomerania. On the extinction of this line, known as the Ascanian house, in 1319, a century of strife and disorder followed, until finally Frederick VI, count of Hohenzollern, and markgraf of Nuremberg, became possessed, partly by purchase and partly by investiture from the Emperor Sigismund, of the Brandenburg lands, which, in his favor, were constituted into an electorate. This prince, known as the Elector Frederick I, received his investiture in 1417. He united under his rule, in addition to his Franconian lands of Anspach and Baireuth, a territory of more than 11,000 square miles. His reign was disturbed by the insubordination of the nobles, and the constant incursions of his Prussian and Polish neighbors, but by his firmness and reso-

lution he restored order at home, and enlarged his boundaries. Under Frederick's successors, the Brandenburg territory was augmented by the addition of many new acquisitions, although the system of granting appanages to the younger members of the reigning house, common at that time, deprived the electorate of some of its original domains. The Dispositio Achillea, however, which came into operation on the death of the Elector Albert Achilles (1470-86), while it separated Anspach and Brandenburg, legally established the principle of primogeniture in both. The most considerable addition to the electorate was the one to which reference has already been made, and which fell to the Elector Sigismund through his marriage in 1609 with Anne, daughter and heiress of Albert Frederick, the Insane, duke of Prussia. In consequence of this alliance the duchy of Cleves, the countships of Ravensberg, the Mark, the Limburg, and the extensive duchy of Prussia, now known as East Prussia, became incorporated with the Brandenburg territories, which were thus more than doubled in area.

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 Acquisitions of Territory

The reign of John Sigismund's successor, George William, (1619-40), was distracted by the miseries of the Thirty Years' war, and the country was alternately the prey of Swedish and Imperial armies; and on the accession of George William's son, Frederick William, the "Great Elector," in 1640, the electorate was sunk into the lowest depths of social misery and financial embarrassment. But so wise, prudent, and vigorous was the government of this prince that at his death in 1688, he left a well-filled exchequer, and a fairly equipped army of 38,000 men; while the electorate, which now possessed a population of one and a half million, and an area of 43,000 square miles, had been raised by his genius to the rank of a great European power. His successors, Frederick I (1688-1713) and Frederick William I (1713-40), each in his own way increased the power and credit of Prussia, which had been in 1701 raised to the rank of a kingdom. The latter monarch was distinguished for his rigid economy of the public money and an extraordinary penchant for tall soldiers, and left to his son, Frederick II (Frederick the Great), a compact and prosperous state, a well-disciplined army, and a sum of nearly nine million thalers in his treasury.

Thirty Years' War

Prosperity under Frederick William I

Frederick II (1740-86) dexterously availed himself of the extraor-

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Partitions
 of Poland

dinary advantages of his position to raise Prussia to the rank of one of the great political powers of Europe. In the intervals between his great wars, he devoted all his energies to the improvement of the state, by encouraging agriculture, trade, and commerce, and reorganizing the military, financial, and judicial departments of the state. By his liberal views in regard to religion, science, and government, he inaugurated a system whose results reacted on the whole of Europe; and in Germany more especially he gave a new stimulus to thought, and roused the dormant patriotism of the people. Frederick was not overscrupulous in his means of enlarging his dominions, as he proved by sharing in the first partition of Poland in 1772, when he obtained as his portion nearly all west Prussia and several other districts in East Prussia. His nephew and successor, Frederick William II (1786–97), aggrandized his kingdom by the second and third partitions of Poland in 1793 and 1795. Frederick William III (1797–1840), who had been educated under the direction of his grand uncle, Frederick the Great, succeeded his father in 1797, at a time of extreme difficulty, when Continental rulers had no choice beyond being the opponents, the tools, or the victims of republican ambition. By endeavoring to maintain a neutral attitude Prussia lost her political importance, and gained no real friends, but many covert enemies. But the calamities which this line of policy brought upon Prussia roused Frederick William from his apathy, and with energy, perseverance, and self-denial worthy of all praise, he devoted himself with his great minister Stein, seconded by Count Hardenberg, to the reorganization of the state.

Reor-
 ganiza-
 tion

In the years 1806–1810 Prussia underwent a complete domestic reorganization; and after the battle of Waterloo, which restored to Prussia much of the territory lost at the peace of Tilsit in 1807, the career of progress was continued. Trade received a new impulse through the various commercial treaties made with the maritime nations of the world, the formation of excellent roads, the establishment of steam and sailing packets on the great rivers, and at a later period through the organization of the Zollverein,*

Zoll-
 verein

* Zollverein (Ger., “customs-union”), a union of the German states, under the leadership of Prussia, so as to enable them in their commercial relations with other countries to act as one state. When, after the war of liberation in 1815, the political union, destroyed by the downfall of the “Holy Roman Empire,” had been restored to a certain degree in



QUEEN LOUISA OF PRUSSIA

and through the formation of railways. The most ample and liberal provision was made for the diffusion of education over every part of the kingdom and to every class.

In like manner, the established Protestant church was enriched by the newly inaugurated system of government subvention, churches were built, the emoluments of the clergy were raised, and their dwellings improved; but, not content with that, the king forcibly united the Lutheran and Reformed churches in 1817, a high-handed act most fruitful in discontent and difficulties. This tendency to overlegislation had long been the predominating evil feature of Prussian administration; and the state, without regard to the incongruous elements of which it was composed, was divided and subdivided into governmental departments, which, in their turn under some head or other, brought every individual act under governmental supervision, to the utter annihilation of political independence. The people soon perceived that this administrative machinery made no provision for political and civil liberty, and demanded of the king the fulfilment of the promise he had given in 1815 of establishing a representative constitution for the whole kingdom. This demand was not acceded to by the king, and its immediate fruits were strenuous efforts on his part to check the spirit of liberalism. Siding with the pietists of Germany, he introduced a sort of Jesuitical despotism, which was continued by his successor, Frederick William IV.

The Landstände or provincial estates, organized in accordance with the system in the Middle Ages, were the sole and inadequate mode of representation granted to Prussia in this reign, notwithstanding the pledge made to the nation for a full and general rep-

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 Lutheran
 and Re-
 formed
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 United by
 Force

Contest
 with the
 Papacy

the German Confederation, internal commerce was felt to be trammelled and depressed by the collection of revenue at the frontiers of every petty state; and united action in regard to foreign commerce was impossible. The first suggestion of such a customs-union came from Prussia; but it took many years before an actual beginning was made, and still longer before it reached its ultimate extent, as the plan was opposed for a long time by the jealousies and special interests of many of the states. In 1834 eighteen had entered a union for a term of eight years, in 1835-38 five more, in 1842-52 other five, including Baden, Brunswick, Frankfort, and Hanover. During the term 1854-65 all the German states were members except Austria, the two Mecklenburgs, and the Hanse towns. The events of the Austro-Prussian war disarranged the union. In 1867 a new customs-union was established between the North German Confederation and Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, and Hesse. But all such arrangements were rendered superfluous in 1871 by the constitution of the German empire.

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representative government. The accession of Frederick William IV (1840–1861) seemed to open a better prospect to the friends of constitutional freedom. A political amnesty was proclaimed, religious toleration was announced, and a contest betwixt the crown and the pope, in which the first signs of the coming Kulturkampf may be traced, was brought to a close by concessions on the part of the king. Frederick William, however, was an enthusiastic upholder of the divine right of kings,* and it soon became apparent that he was in no way prepared to follow up his vague promises of political liberty by sharing political power with the people.

Tem-
 porary
 Reforms
 Granted

The bureaucratic spirit of overgoverning became daily more and more irksome to the nation, and it was evident that a constitutional struggle was inevitable. The king and his advisers, under-rating the importance of the movement of 1848 in Germany, thought they had satisfied the requirements of the hour by granting a few unimportant reforms, and by making equivocal promises of future concessions. A collision between the troops and the citizens of Berlin, in which blood was shed, awoke the king to the full gravity of the crisis, and he hastened to allay the general discontent by the nomination of a liberal ministry, the recognition of a civic guard, and the summoning of a representative chamber to discuss the proposed constitution. The conversion of the monarch to liberalism was but temporary; and although, after much obstruction, a constitution, superseding the old Prussian estates by a representative parliament, was promulgated in January, 1850, it was repeatedly modified in the following years, until few of its democratic features were left. Frederick William had early distinguished himself and delighted many Germans, both within and without Prussia, by his patriotic utterances in favor of a new united Germany. He was deeply chagrined when in 1848 the national assembly at Frankfort, influenced by Austrian jealousy of the military strength of Prussia, declined to accept him as the national leader, and elected instead the Archduke John, of Austria, as lieutenant-general of Germany. Yet when, in the following year, he was offered the imperial crown, he found himself unable to face the responsibility of accepting it. He hesitated to make so important a move in the contest with Austria for the hegemony [leadership] of Germany.

*See "Divine Right," Vol. IV, p. 1359.

The later years of this reign were characterized by great advances in the material prosperity and internal improvement of the country. Extensive lines of railway and post-roads were opened, the river navigation greatly facilitated, treaties of commerce formed with foreign countries, and great expansion given to the Prussian and North German Zollverein, the army put upon a footing of hitherto unprecedented efficiency of arms and artillery, and the educational system of the country still further developed. William I (1861–1888), who became German emperor in 1871, had been regent of the kingdom since 1858, owing to the insanity of his brother, the late king. William was no more a lover of constitutional, or at least of popular, liberty than any of his predecessors; and in his opposition to the progress of the popular movement, in so far as it aimed at interference with the regal power, he was powerfully aided by his great adviser, Bismarck, who became prime-minister in 1862 and imperial chancellor in 1871. The successful wars with Austria (1866) and France (1870–71), which so enhanced the prestige of Prussia and which resulted in the united Germany of to-day, are described in the chapter on Germany. Since the king of Prussia became German emperor the history of Prussia has been practically merged in the history of Germany.

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PRUSSIA

Internal
ImprovementsWilliam I
Becomes
Emperor
of United
Germany

BAVARIA

BAVARIA is one of the states of the German empire; according to its size, the second in importance. Bavaria is divided into two unequal parts, which are separated by the Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt dominions, and of which the eastern comprises fully eleven twelfths of the whole. Its frontiers touch also on Alsace-Lorraine, Prussia, Bohemia, Austria, and the Tyrol. Bavaria is divided into eight districts, as follows: Upper Bavaria, Lower Bavaria, Palatinate, Upper Palatinate, Upper Franconia, Middle Franconia, Lower Franconia, Swabia, and Neuberg.

The Boii, a race of Celtic origin, appear to have conquered the country about 600 B. C., and they retained it until shortly before the Christian era, when they were subjugated by the Romans. After the decay of the Roman power, the Ostrogoths and Franks successively held possession of it, and it was a part of Charlemagne's empire. In 1180 it was transferred by imperial grant to

Earliest
History

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 BAVARIA

Otho, Count of Wittelsbach, whose descendant now occupies the throne. The Rhenish Palatinate was conferred on this family by the emperor Frederick III in 1216. Quarrels followed between relatives, and divisions of territory, until the dukedom of Bavaria was severed from the Rhenish and Upper Palatinates; of the latter, however, it repossessed itself in 1621, the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, confirming the title of its princes to that possession, as well as its right to the electoral dignity, to which it had been raised in 1624. In the war of the Spanish Succession, Bavaria supported France, and suffered considerably in consequence; but in 1777, on the extinction of the younger Wittelsbach line, it received the accession of the Rhenish Palatinate. In 1805 Bavaria was erected into a kingdom by Napoleon I. The king assisted Napoleon in his wars, and in consideration of his aid received large additions of territory. In 1813, however, the Bavarian king contrived to change sides opportunely, and thus managed to have confirmed to him, by the treaties of 1814-15, an extent of territory nearly as valuable as the possessions which the treaties of Presburg and Vienna had given him, and which he had now to restore to Austria. In 1818 a new constitution was granted.

New Constitution

Louis I Ascends the Throne

In 1825 Louis I ascended the throne. He was a well-meaning, liberal, and intellectual monarch; but he lavished the wealth of the kingdom to an extravagant degree on the embellishment of the capital, and on works of art, while neglecting works of practical value. The restriction of the freedom of the press, following the French Revolution of 1830, excited so much opposition that it was soon after rescinded; but fresh dissatisfaction was created by the imposition of new taxes. The Jesuits now obtained an immense influence with the king, which they used to the detriment of popular rights. The wrath of the people was further aroused against their monarch by his connection with the notorious Lola Montez, who was looked upon as an agent of the Ultramontanists.

Defeat in War with Prussia

In March, 1848, following the example set by the French revolutionists, the people of Munich seized the arsenal, and demanded reforms and the expulsion of Lola Montez. The king had to consent; but in the same month he abdicated. His son, Maximilian II, ascended the throne. He died in 1864, and was succeeded by his son, Louis II. In the war between Austria and Prussia in 1866, Bavaria took the Austrian side, and after the short struggle had to

pay Prussia thirty million florins (\$15,000,000) and to cede some small strips of territory. It also made a defensive and offensive alliance with Prussia; and in the struggle which followed between the party which aimed at bringing Bavaria into closer and friendlier relations with Prussia and the Ultramontane or "Patriotic" party, the former had on the whole the best of it. Munich was the main center of the old Catholic movement. On the outbreak of the great Franco-German war in 1870, Bavaria put its army under the command of the Prussian crown prince; and the Bavarian troops took a distinguished part in the battles of Weissenburg, Worth, Sedan, before Paris, and on the Loire. In November, 1870, the government agreed, on the granting of certain concessions, to become part of the German empire; and a month later it was the king of Bavaria who, at Versailles, proposed that the imperial crown should be conferred on the Prussian king. Since then the struggle between Liberals and Ultramontanes has proceeded with varying success. King Louis carried his grandfather's love of art and music to excess; he finally went mad, and committed suicide by drowning, June 13, 1886. He should be remembered less for his artistic extravagances than for his generous patronage of the great composer Wagner. He was succeeded by his brother, Otho (also unhappily insane), under the regency of his uncle, Prince Luitpold.

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 EMPIRE
 BAVARIA

King of
 Bavaria
 Proposes
 Imperial
 Crown
 for Prus-
 sian King

SAXONY

Saxony is a kingdom of Germany, taking in respect of area the fifth place, but in respect of population the third place, among the states of the empire; it lies between Bohemia on the south, Silesia on the northeast and east, Prussian Saxony on the north, and the minor Saxon states on the west.

Location

To understand the history of Saxony it is necessary to go back to the Old Saxons,* who, before their submission to the Franks, had been accustomed to choose a "duke" to lead them in war.

* The Saxons are first mentioned by Ptolemy as dwelling in the south of the Cimbrian Peninsula. In the third century a "Saxon League" or "Confederation," to which belonged the Cherusci, the Angrivarii, the Chauci, and other tribes, was established on both sides of the estuary of the Elbe and on the islands off the adjacent coast. During the reigns of the emperors Julian and Valentinian they invaded the Roman territory; but their piratical descents on the coasts of Britain and Gaul are far more famous. In 287 Carausius, a Belgic admiral in the Roman service, made himself "Augustus" in Britain by their

The Old
 Saxons

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SAXONY

Saxon
Ruler
Becomes
Ger-
many's
Future
Head

After the division of the Frankish dominion into an eastern and western kingdom, in which division the Saxons and their territory passed to the eastern half, or Austrasia, the Saxons were greatly exposed to the attacks of the Northmen on the northwest, and of the Slav tribes on the north and northeast, and so they chose them a duke again, one Otto (880–912), who not only defended his people valiantly, but extended their supremacy southward over Thuringia. His son, Henry (912–936), was in 919 chosen king of the eastern or German kingdom, and thus the Saxon chief ruler became the head of all the peoples in the future Germany. Henry reduced the Slav tribes living beyond the Elbe, and he made himself master of all the territories included in the present kingdom of Saxony, the Prussian province of Saxony, the minor Saxon duchies, and more besides. His son, Otto II, king of the Germans, made Count Hermann Billung duke of the Saxons, and the dignity continued in his family down to 1106. The princes of this house, to whom the Saxon people were greatly attached, were the most difficult enemies of the German emperors, who after 1024 were again men of Frankish race.

The power of the Saxon dukes was greatly increased under

help; and about 450, they, in conjunction with the Angles, established themselves permanently in the island and founded the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms. Before the fifth century they had settled along the North Sea coasts from the Elbe to the Loire, a part of what was later Flanders, being called the Saxon shore. But these Saxon settlements soon became absorbed in the kingdom of the Franks. In Britain, too, there was a Saxon shore with its count. In Roman times the coast districts of Britain, from Brighton northward to the Wash, were called *Litus Saxonicum*, or Saxon shore. These localities were particularly exposed to the attacks of the Saxons from across the North Sea, and were placed under the authority of a special officer, the Count of the Saxon Shore. At home the Old Saxons enlarged their territory by conquest till it embraced all the lands between the Rhine and Elbe, the North Sea and the Harz Mountains. Along with the Franks they destroyed the kingdom of the Thuringians in 531, and obtained possession of the land between the Harz and the river Unstrut; but this region, too, was forced to acknowledge the Frankish sovereignty. But the Saxons having thrown off the yoke, wars between the Saxons and the Franks were constant after 719; and the latter, after 772, were, under the vigorous leadership of Charlemagne, generally successful, in spite of the determined opposition offered by Wittekind (or Widukind). The desperate resistance of the Saxons was not finally broken until 804, though Wittekind submitted in 785. After the final submission, the conquered people accepted Christianity, having before defended their heathen faith in conjunction with their freedom. By the treaty of Verdun (843) the Saxon districts fell to Austrasia, the nucleus of the German empire. The "Saxons" of Transylvania are not all of pure Saxon descent; the name is used, rather, as synonymous with German.

Henry the Proud of Bavaria, who succeeded to the dignity in 1137, and especially under his son Henry the Lion, who conquered Mecklenburg, Hither Pomerania, and Holstein. This prince was deprived of his possessions by the emperor Frederick I (1180), who confined the duchy of the Saxons to the territories lying east of the Elbe, and divided those to the west of it between the Archbishop of Cologne and numerous petty bishops and princes. The dignity of Duke of the Saxons was given to Bernard of Ascania, son of the prince of Brandenburg. His descendant, Rudolf II (1356-70), called himself Elector of Saxony. In 1423 the Emperor Sigismund invested Frederick, landgrave of Meissen and of Thuringia, with the fief of Saxony. This prince, of the house of Wettin, was the ancestor of the reigning royal family in Saxony and of the various dukes of the minor Saxon states. The princes and nobles of the house of Wettin frequently divided and interchanged their possessions in whole or in part, and all the sons of a deceased elector often ruled in common or in conjunction with uncles, so that the history of the house is extremely complicated down to the beginning of the nineteenth century. But in 1485 a division was made which has in its broad features continued to hold good down to the present day. The family split into two main branches, called, from the two brothers who divided the territories between them, the (elder) Ernestine and the (younger) Albertine lines. The electoral dignity fell to Ernest, who ruled over Thuringia and the western part of modern Saxony. His son, his grandson, and his great-grandson were all zealous supporters of the Reformation, while the heads of the Albertine branch, who ruled in the eastern lands (beyond the Elbe), although they were Protestants, supported the pope and the emperor. In 1547 the emperor, after defeating the Elector of Saxony in battle, deprived him of the dignity and of the greater part of his lands; and gave title and lands to his own ally, the head of the younger line, and with that line they remained, the title being exchanged in 1806 for the higher dignity of king. Only the Thuringian territories remained with the older line.

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Rulers
 Support
 the Ref-
 ormation

During the Thirty Years' war the reigning elector, John George I (1611-56), remained neutral until Tilly invaded his territories; this drove him over to the Protestant side (1631). He made his peace, however, with the emperor in 1635, receiving Lusatia; but

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 SAXONY

**Elector
 Accepts
 Catholi-
 cism**

**War with
 Prussia
 and In-
 demnity**

**Socialist
 Uprising**

**Prussian
 Saxony**

in revenge for this desertion the Swedes wrought terrible havoc in his land and among his people for ten long years. The Elector Frederick Augustus I (1694–1733), a vain man, fond of magnificence, and eager to make a stir in the world, went over to Roman Catholicism and made an eager canvass for the throne of Poland. He was chosen king as Augustus II. After that the headship of the Protestant states of Germany passed to the Elector of Brandenburg, and the court and dynasty of the Protestant kingdom of Saxony have remained Catholic till the present day.

Saxony, in consequence of this alliance with Poland, was drawn into the war against Charles XII, of Sweden, and again suffered greatly from the Swedish armies. In the second Silesian war she sided with Austria, was beaten, and had to pay a million thalers indemnity to Prussia. When the Seven Years' war broke out, Frederick the Great refused to recognize the neutrality of Saxony, and, capturing her army, treated her as a conquered province, and forced the elector (Frederick Augustus II) to take refuge in Poland, to the crown of which country he had been elected in succession to his father.*

Frederick Augustus III (1763–1827) bent himself energetically to the task of building up his state again and restoring the prosperity of his subjects, matters in which he was eminently successful. He took little part in the early Napoleonic wars, and in 1806 proclaimed himself king of Saxony as Frederick Augustus I. Then he went over entirely to the side of Napoleon, and received large additions to his territory in 1807 and 1809. In 1813 Saxony was the scene of Napoleon's struggle with the allies, and the battles of Lutzen, Bautzen, Dresden, and Leipsic were followed by the congress of Vienna, 1814, when a large part of the dominion then under the Saxon monarchy was ceded to Prussia, and a period of great progress followed. In May, 1849, the Russian Bakunin and other democratic socialists stirred up a rising in Dresden, which resulted in a week's severe barricade fighting in the streets. In the Austro-Prussian war of 1866 Saxony took part with Austria,

* Prussian Saxony is a province of Prussia, formed in 1815 out of districts taken from the kingdom of Saxony, part of the duchy of Magdeburg, the Altmaik, the principalities of Halberstadt and Erfurt, and some smaller territories. It lies between Brandenburg, Hanover, Brunswick, Hesse-Cassel, the minor Saxon duchies, and the kingdom of Saxony. The duchy of Anhalt almost divides it into two portions.

and was occupied with the Prussian troops. Prussia desired to incorporate the kingdom, but Austria, supported by France, opposed this arrangement, and Saxony was admitted into the North German Confederation. In the Franco-German war, the Saxon army fought with the rest of Germany against France. Since 1871 the country has been peaceful, and in a wonderful degree prosperous.

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 SAXONY

WURTEMBERG

WURTEMBERG is a kingdom of Germany, lying between Baden on the west and Bavaria on the east, and touching Switzerland (Lake of Constance) on the south. It entirely surrounds Hohenzollern, in which state, as well as in Baden, it owns several detached portions of territory.

Württemberg was conquered in the first century by the Romans. It was occupied at that time by the Suevi. In the third century it was overrun by the Alemanni, who in their turn were subdued by the Franks. The Frankish emperors included part of their territories in the Duchy of Swabia, and eventually, in or before the thirteenth century, conferred upon a local family the dignity of Counts of Württemberg. Count Eberhard the Illustrious (1279–1325) greatly extended the possessions and power of the family, and made Stuttgart his principal residence. Eberhard II (1344–92) waged a long and finally successful feud against the towns of the Swabian league. From 1442 to 1482 the country was divided between two branches of the family; but in 1495 Count Eberhard V (1480–96) was created a duke of the empire. Ulrich (1498–1552), who began to rule when only sixteen, is perhaps the best known of the dukes; his extravagance and love of display occasioned the “Poor Conrad” peasant revolt (1514); he caused Ulrich Von Hutten’s cousin to be slain, whereby he roused a host of enemies — the knightly orders of the empire, the Bavarian dukes, the towns of the Swabian league, and the emperor. The ban of the empire being proclaimed against him, he was driven into exile. On his return he introduced the Reformation into his duchy; and the policy thus begun was energetically furthered by Ulrich’s son Christopher (1550–68), who was likewise the author of important legislative reforms.

Early
 Subjec-
 tion
 by the
 Romans

Exile of
 Ulrich
 and his
 Return

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WURTEMBERG

Suffering
from
Hostile
Armies

During 1547–99 Würtemberg was constrained to rank as a fief of the Austrian royal house. Though it took no direct part in the Thirty Years' war until 1634, the country suffered very greatly from the various hostile armies, especially the Imperialists, and it took all the energy and statecraft of Duke Eberhard III (1628–74) to repair the damages and recuperate the resources of his country. Under Eberhard Ludwig (1677–1733) the French, in repeated invasions, helped the mistresses of the extravagant duke to impoverish the land anew; nor did his cousin and successor do anything to improve its condition. Karl Eugen (1737–93), the next duke, aped Louis XIV, built castles, waged war against Frederick the Great, violated the constitution by arbitrary acts, but did much in his later years to foster education and science.

Frederick II (1797–1816) brought upon himself the vengeance of Moreau in 1800, but on going over to the French was rewarded with eight hundred and fifty square miles of new territory and an addition of 125,000 subjects, as well as the dignity of Elector. In the war that Napoleon began against Austria in 1805 the Elector of Würtemberg threw in his lot with the French, and his troops fought on that side down to 1813; in return for which he acquired the kingly title and an increase of territory that more than doubled the number of his subjects. The reign of the next sovereign, King William I (1816–64), was chiefly occupied with the reorganization of the new state and in the political conflicts that grew out of the democratic movements of 1848–49. Throwing in her lot with Austria in 1866, Würtemberg was beaten at Königgratz and Tauberbischofsheim, and her king (Charles, 1864–91) compelled to purchase peace from Austria at the cost of an indemnity of \$4,000,000. The successes of 1870–71 against the French called forth a more friendly feeling toward Prussia, and led to Würtemberg's incorporation in the new German empire.

Peace
Pur-
chased



THE HISTORY OF SWITZERLAND

[*Authorities:* Of the many books on this interesting nation we mention a few of the best published in this country and Europe. Tissot (Victor), *Unknown Switzerland* (Eng. trans. 1889); Mac Crakan (W. D.), *The Rise of the Swiss Republic*, 8, London, 1898; Coolidge (W. A. B.), *Swiss Travel and Swiss Guidebooks* (1889); B. Moses, *Federal Government of Switzerland* (Oakland, Cal., 1889); Adams (Sir F. O.) and Cunningham (C. D.), *The Swiss Confederation*, 1889; James (E. J.) (Translator), *The Federal Constitution of Switzerland*, 8, Philadelphia, 1890; Baker (Grenfell), *The Model Republic: a History of the Rise and Progress of the Swiss People*, London, 1895; Jay (Raoul), *Etudes sur la question ouvrière en Suisse*, 8, Paris, 1893; Seippel, (P.) (Editor), *La Suisse au XIX Siècle*, Lausanne, 1898; Sowerby (J.), *The Forest Cantons of Switzerland*, 8, London, 1892; Stead (R.) and Hug (L.), *Switzerland*, in "Story of the Nations" series, 8, London, 1890; Stephen (L.), *The Playground of Europe*, London, 1894; Umlauf (F.), *The Alps*, translated by L. Brough, 8, London, 1889; Vincent (J. M.), *State and Federal Government in Switzerland*, 8, Baltimore, 1891; Vulliemin (L.), *Histoire de la Confédération Suisse*, 2 vols., Lausanne, 1879.]



SWITZERLAND is a European republic comprising twenty-two cantons, three of which are divided into half cantons. This little state is nestled down in the center of Europe between France, Germany, Austria, and Italy.

Switzerland in the time of the Romans was inhabited by two distinct races, the Helvetians, probably of Celtic origin, who occupied the northwest, and the Rhoetians, who dwelt in the southeast. It was absorbed into an all-embracing Roman empire, and adopted the Roman usages, laws, and language. But when the Roman dominion fell, Helvetia was invaded by three German peoples, the Franks, the Ostrogoths, and the Burgundians (450). The latter, toward the close of the fifth century, embraced Christianity, which had already been established some two hundred years at Geneva, Coire, and other places, and which, by the close of the seventh century, had spread over the whole extent of country known as Switzerland.

Early
Races

Chris-
tianity
Received

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About 550 Helvetia became by conquest a portion of the great Frank empire, though retaining its ancient laws and customs. When the empire was partitioned among the Merwing princes, Helvetia was divided between two sovereigns, one reigning over the Franks and Ostrogoths, and the other over Little Burgundy. Pepin reunited them, and his illustrious son, Charles the Great, labored zealously to promote the prosperity of the country. Under his feeble successors, the principal landed proprietors, the judges



MT. BLANC (FROM BELOW THE GRAND MULETS)

of certain districts called gans, who themselves were named grafs, or counts, succeeded in throwing off the royal authority, and in making their power and privileges hereditary.

One of these, Rudolf, established in 888 the new kingdom of Burgundy, between the Reuss and the Jura, which about thirty years later was strengthened by the annexation of Arles. The other counts maintained their independence until about the middle of the tenth century, when they were compelled to acknowledge the supremacy of the German emperor. And after the death of Rudolf III (1032), the fifth and last king of Burgundy, the whole of Switzerland was subjected to the imperial scepter of the Emperor Conrad II.

German
 Suprem-
 acy Ac-
 knowl-
 edged

Under his grandson, Henry IV, the imperial authority was once

more overthrown, and feudalism ruled triumphant. Against the oppression of the nobles, however, the merchant and citizen class united, and Geneva, Zurich, Basel, and Lausanne became prosperous and independent towns. Gradually two among the feudal families attained to supremacy over the others; the Hapsburgs in northern Helvetia and the counts of Savoy in the southwest, owing but a nominal allegiance to the German crown. It was natural that in this state of things the cities should look to the monarchy, as their bulwark against a tyrannical oligarchy, and the monarchy, to weaken the power of the nobility, gladly espoused the cause of the cities, many of which, as Zurich, Bern, Basel, Uri, Schwyz, obtained seigniorial rights, and assumed the name of imperial cities or imperial districts.

In 1273 the crown of Germany devolved on Rudolf of Hapsburg, a Swiss nobleman, whose enlightened policy greatly favored the growth of these opulent commercial communities. His son Albert, however, was jealous of their independence, encroached upon their rights, and attempted to reduce them into subjection. He was defeated. His tyranny gave umbrage to the so-called Forest cantons or districts, and, encouraged by the success of their countrymen, they resolved to expel their Austrian bailiffs or landvogte. For this purpose their principal burgesses assembled in the famous field of the Rutli on November 7, 1307, under the leadership of Furst of Uri, Stauffacher of Schwyz, and Melchthal of Unterwalden, and formed the first confederacy of the Swiss cantons. They swore to preserve their ancient privileges, and resolutely declared war against the overwhelming forces of Austria. The legend of Tell enshrines the fervid patriotism of the time with all the splendor of poetical myth. The struggle which followed was keen and desperate, but it was decided in favor of the Swiss by the battle of Morgarten, where 10,000 men under the Emperor Leopold I were totally defeated on November 16, 1315, by 1,300 mountaineers.

For some years the Swiss cantons were unmolested by external enemies. A dread of Austrian power, however, induced them to cement still closer their defensive alliance, and the league was joined by Lucerne in 1332, completing the famous quartet of the "Vier Waldstatter," or League of the Four Forest Cantons. Zurich, which soon became the head, joined in 1351; Glarus and

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LANDA Swiss
Receives
the
German
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eracy
of the
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CantonsLegend
of Tell

DIVISION III Zug in 1352, and Bern in 1353. The number of cantons was now eight, and so remained for 128 years; and even after other cantons were admitted, the eight enjoyed special privileges all down to 1798. Soon after 1350 the emperors renewed their designs against Swiss independence and encouraged jealousy in neighboring princes, so that a league of 176 barons, with Duke Leopold at their head, burst upon the confederation, and were with difficulty resisted. At the crowning battle of Sempach the serried ranks of the barons' spearmen were irresistible, till Arnold von Winkelried rushed upon them, and, gathering as many spears as he could as he fell,

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CASTLE OF CHILLON

Internal
 Quarrels

opened a breach through which his comrades victoriously rushed in (9th, July, 1386). Leopold lay among the slain. The men of Glarus won another victory at Nafels in 1389, after which the Austrians made peace. Relieved from foreign pressure, the cantons quarreled among themselves, and, to resist the ambitious claims of Zurich, the Caddu, or League of God's House, was formed by the Grisons in 1400. It lasted until 1419. A second league of the Grisons, called Ligue Grise, or Grey League, was concluded about 1424, and a third, the League of the Free Jurisdiction, in 1436. The predominance of Schwyz at this time was such as to have given the country the name by which it is known in modern times, and the heraldic shield which it still bears as its national ensign.

From these intestine conflicts the Swiss were diverted by the lust of territorial conquest. Boldly launching themselves against the imperial armies, they invaded, in 1514, Argua and Thurgau, which they speedily overran and annexed. Three years later they crossed the Alps and conquered Ticino. To protect himself from these hardy mountaineers the Emperor Frederick III sought the help of France, and a French army invaded Switzerland. The Swiss illustrated their history with the glory of a second Thermopylæ at St. Jacob on the Birs, near Basel, where a body of 1,600, entrenching themselves in a churchyard, withstood the attack of 30,000 French under the Dauphin Louis (afterward Louis XI), and perished to a man, August 26, 1444. The French lost 10,000 men and were compelled to retreat. Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, a man of ungovernable ambition and haughty temper, now proposed to crush the daring Republicans, who had given him some trivial cause of offense and had defied his menaces.

He led into Switzerland a finely equipped army, but was defeated at Granson on the 5th of April, and at Morat his army of 35,000 men was annihilated on the 22d of June, 1476. In his distress he sought and obtained the aid of the Duke of Lorraine, and the two princes again encountered the Swiss at Nancy, 5th of January, 1477. They were totally defeated, and Charles the Bold fell on the field of battle.

In 1481 the towns of Fribourg and Soleure, or Solothurn, with dependencies, were admitted as two new cantons (the ninth and tenth) into the successful confederacy. Eighteen years later the Emperor Maximilian I made a final attempt to establish the imperial dominion over them. In the war which followed the Swiss gained six victories, and the emperor, baffled and beaten, concluded peace in 1499. Basel, Appenzell, and in 1513 Schaffhausen, were admitted into the confederacy, and the confederated thirteen states were now universally recognized as an independent European power.

From this time the Swiss entered upon a career of mercenary soldiery, fighting for whatever state was willing to hire their services. They conquered Lombardy for Maximilian Sforza in 1512, and beat the French at Novara the following year. After the great battle at Marignano, however, won by Francis I against them in 1515, they concluded a perpetual peace with France, confirmed by the alliance of 1521, and a Swiss corps thenceforward

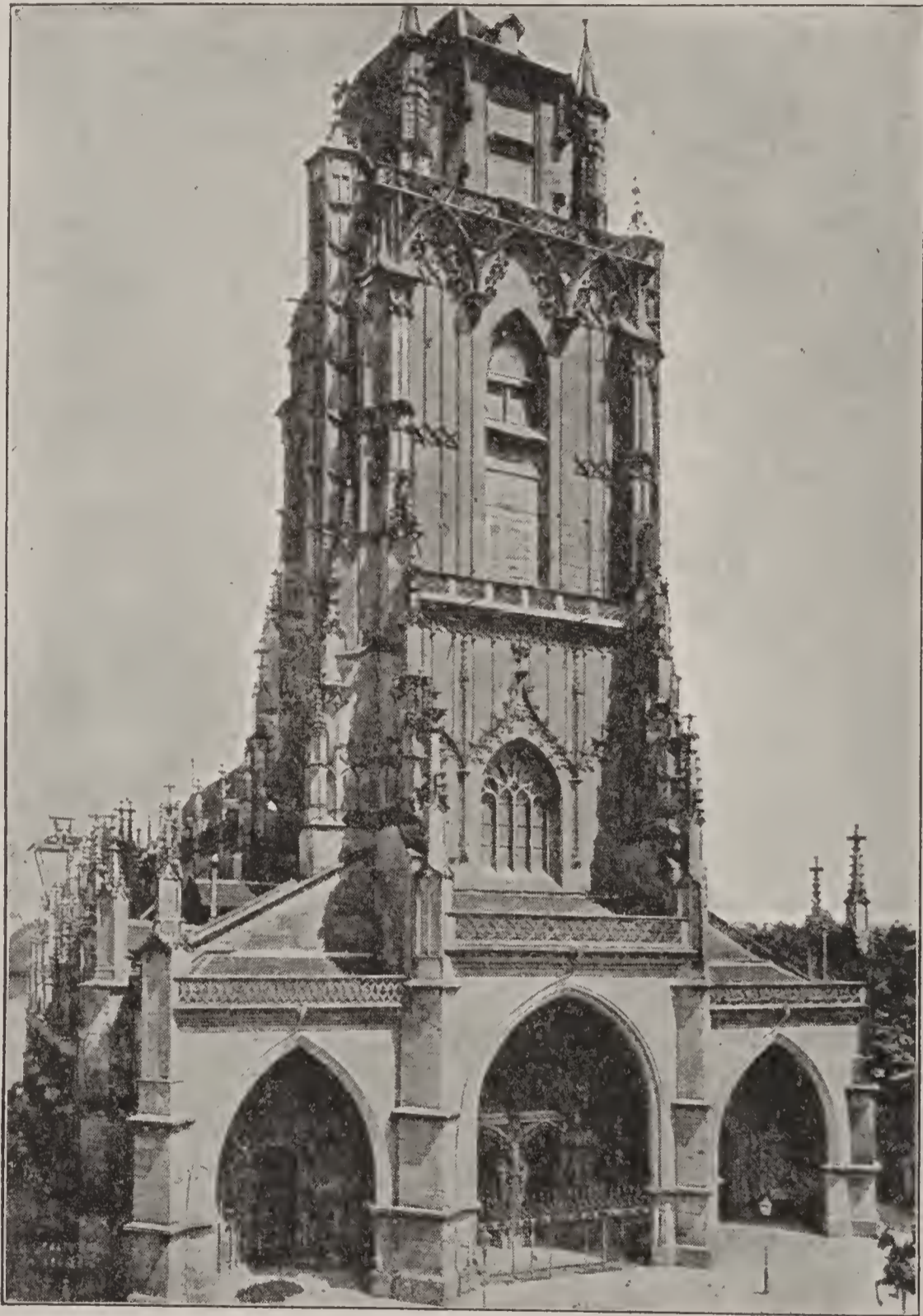
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LAND**French
Invasion
and Great
Loss****Later
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Hired
Soldiers**

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formed a regular part of the French military establishment. It is but just to acknowledge that their fidelity to their foreign masters was unimpeachable. When Louis XVI was dethroned, his Swiss



BERN CATHEDRAL

**Their
 Faithful-
 ness**

guards were faithful among the faithless, and shed their blood in defense of the fallen throne with heroic valor.

The era of the Reformation was a period of internal strife and dissension in Switzerland. Zwingli began to preach against the enormities of the Church of Rome in 1518, and found a willing audience at Zurich, which became the headquarters of Protestantism. His

doctrines were adopted by Bern, Basel, Schaffhausen, St. Gall, Bienne, and Mulhausen. Thus Switzerland saw itself divided by religious differences into two hostile camps, the Reformed and the Catholic, the latter including Uri, Lucerne, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Zug, Fribourg, and Soleure. In Appenzell, Glarus, and the Grisons the inhabitants were nearly equally divided between the two creeds. The trumpet of fanaticism soon rang out the tocsin of a civil war. A Protestant preacher was burned by the Schwyzers. Zwingli was slain in an engagement at Cappel, in which 8,000 Catholics carried all before them, and Zurich was crushed (1531). Two armies, each about 30,000 strong, mustered in defense of their respective beliefs, but happily a wiser spirit prevailed, and both sides laid down their arms. The jealousy of the cantons, however, allowed Constance, which desired admission to the confederacy, to slip forever, by falling in 1548 under the sway of Austria; and Geneva, Strasburg, and Mulhausen were driven off by this fatal exclusiveness. During the Thirty Years' war Switzerland, under the control of Bern, which had become the leading state, maintained a skilful neutrality, and by the Treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, was acknowledged as an independent state.

Yet, virtually, French influence was paramount in several of the Cantons, until their jealousy was aroused by the erection of the fortress of Huningen in 1679. During the persecution of the French Protestants toward the close of the reign of Louis XIV, the Swiss supplied them with pecuniary aid, and offered an asylum to their fugitives, nor did they suffer themselves to be intimidated by the threats of the French government.

For upward of a century Switzerland enjoyed complete external tranquillity except for occasional religious contests. The most important of these saw for a short time 150,000 Swiss in arms threatening a disastrous civil war, but the danger happily passed away (1712). Her barren mountains, however rich in majesty, possess little to tempt the ambitious, and favored by so prolonged a peace, she achieved considerable triumphs in the field of literature, art, and science. That her sons were worthy to compete with the eminent men of France, Germany, and Italy, will be admitted by the reader who recalls the memory of Haller, Bernoulli, Rousseau, Lavater, Gessner, Fuseli, Pestalozzi, and von Muller. Yet the heart of a nation is apt to be corrupted by unim-

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 The Ref-
 ormation

Religious
 Fanati-
 cism and
 Civil
 War

Famous
 Men of
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ped prosperity. Bound together by no dread of a foreign foe, the different cantons quarreled among themselves. In some the government was gradually usurped by a few privileged families; and it can not be denied that at the outbreak of the French Revolution extensive discontent prevailed. This terrible convulsion,



MONUMENT OF DUKE OF BRUNSWICK, GENEVA

however, hushed all minor differences. On the borders of Switzerland rose an ambitious and unscrupulous military despotism, and French force and French intrigue soon destroyed the vaunted independence of the different cantons. Portions of Switzerland were incorporated into the territory of France, and the confederacy was converted into the Helvetic republic, one and indivisible, under an executive directory of five persons, on the model of that of France. The legislative power was divided between a senate and a great council, to which each of the fourteen cantons, which resulted from the extensive rearrangement of territory now made, elected twelve members. A gallant attempt was made in 1802 by Aloys Reding to restore the independence of his country, but it was speedily crushed by the preponderant force of the French, and Napoleon in 1803 assumed the title of Mediator of Switzerland, which he oppressed by conscriptions and pecuni-

however, hushed all minor differences. On the borders of Switzerland rose an ambitious and unscrupulous military despotism, and French force and French intrigue soon destroyed the vaunted independence of the different cantons. Portions of Switzerland were incorporated into the territory of France, and the confederacy was converted into the Helvetic republic, one and indivisible, under an executive directory of five persons, on

ary exactions of the harshest character. The old thirteen cantons were once more restored. Several of the subject territories were at the same time raised into separate cantons, as Aargau, Thurgau, Vaud, and Ticino. The hitherto allied, but not confederated, states of the Grisons and St. Gall followed, and the number of cantons was thus nineteen.

In 1814, at Napoleon's fall, the free independence of the confederacy was once more acknowledged, and in the following year

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GENEVA (GENERAL VIEW WITH TOWER BRIDGE)

a new constitution was agreed upon between twenty-two cantons; Neuchatel, which belonged to Prussia, Geneva, and the Valais, being the three which now joined the confederacy. But as this constitution was oligarchical in principle, and gave no expression to the voice of the people, it was received with little favor by the masses. The general demand for reform was unexpectedly strengthened and enforced by the French Revolution of 1830, and the aristocratic party found it expedient to give way. The new constitution, however, retained one great defect—the weakness of the central power (or diet), which is still liable to be attended

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with serious disasters in any sudden emergency. Basel divided itself into two "half cantons," called Basel City and Basel Country, in 1832, and this division still exists. The long sacred right of asylum was partially abrogated by Switzerland owing to the pressure of the great European powers in 1834 and 1838; but when this was put to the test by a demand for the extradition of Prince Louis Napoleon (afterward Napoleon III), who had been for several years a citizen of Thurgau, the Swiss were ready to go to war rather than submit. The prince voluntarily left the country rather than submit it to this trial (1838).

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 Joins the
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Form of
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The most remarkable event in Swiss history was the civil war of 1847 between the Protestant cantons with their Free Corps, and the Ultramontane cantons, with their Sonderbund. The Jesuits having instigated various reactionary measures, the Liberal party insisted on their expulsion, and after a fierce struggle succeeded in carrying their point (1844-47). The Catholic cantons were mulcted in the expenses of the war, the Jesuits were expelled, the monasteries were suppressed, and some important reforms were introduced into the administration (1848). Later in the same year Neuchatel rebelled against the king of Prussia, as Prince of Neuchatel, declared itself a republic, and adopted a constitution similar to that of the other Swiss cantons. The Prussian king protested, but finding European public opinion against him, refrained from supporting his protest by arms, and Neuchatel joined the confederacy (1857). During the Italian and Prussian wars of 1859 and 1866, and the Franco-German war of 1870, Switzerland preserved her neutrality, and no noticeable incidents have occurred in her recent history except the disagreement with France in 1862, which was amicably settled, the election riots at Geneva in August, 1864, and the centralizing revision of the constitution in 1874. The confederation,* as at present established, still includes the two and

Constitu-
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* On August 1, 1291, the men of Uri, Schwyz, and Lower Unterwalden entered into a defensive league. In 1353 the league included eight cantons, and in 1513, thirteen. Various associated and protected territories were acquired, but no addition was made to the number of cantons forming the league till 1798. In that year, under the influence of France, the Helvetic Republic was formed, with a regular constitution. This failed to satisfy the cantons, and in 1803 Napoleon, in the Act of Mediation, gave a new constitution and increased the number of cantons to nineteen. In 1815, the perpetual neutrality of Switzerland and the inviolability of her territory were guaranteed by Austria, Great Britain, Portugal, Prussia, and Russia, and the Federal Pact which had been drawn

twenty cantons. The supreme legislative and executive power resides in two chambers; the first is a state council of forty-four members, two from each canton, elected triennially, and the second is a national council of 145 members, chosen one for every 20,000 electors. The executive rests with a cabinet of seven members. In 1873 there was a long dispute with Rome, ending in the expulsion of the Nuncio Mermillod, and the formation of a Swiss National Catholic Church. Upon Monsignor Mermillod

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up at Zurich, and which included three new cantons, was accepted by the Congress of Vienna. The Pact remained in force till 1848, when a new constitution, prepared without foreign interference, was accepted by general consent. This, in turn, was, on May 29, 1874, superseded by the constitution which is now in force.

The constitution of the Swiss Confederation may be revised either in the ordinary forms of federal legislation, with compulsory *referendum*, or by direct popular vote, a majority both of the citizens voting and of the cantons being required, and the latter method may be adopted on the demand (called the *popular initiative*) of 50,000 citizens with the right to vote. The federal government is supreme in matters of peace, war, and treaties; it regulates the army, the postal and telegraph system, the coining of money, the issue and re-payment of bank notes, and the weights and measures of the republic. It provides for the revenue in general, and especially decides on the import and export duties in accordance with principles embodied in the constitution. It legislates in matters of civil capacity, copyright, bankruptcy, patents, sanitary police in dangerous epidemics, and it may create and subsidise, besides the Polytechnic School at Zurich, a federal university and other higher educational institutions. There has also been entrusted to it the authority to decide concerning public works for the whole or great part of Switzerland, such as those relating to rivers, forests, and the construction of railways.

The supreme legislation and executive authority are vested in a parliament of two chambers, a "Standerath," or State Council, and a "Nationalrath," or National Council. The first is composed of forty-four members, chosen and paid by the twenty-two cantons of the confederation, two for each canton. The mode of their election and the term of membership depend entirely on the canton. Three of the cantons are politically divided—Basel into Stadt and Land; Appenzell into Ausser Rhoden and Inner Rhoden; and Unterwald into Obwald and Nidwald. Each of these parts of cantons sends one member to the State Council, so that there are two members to the divided as well as to the undivided cantons. The "Nationalrath" consists of 147 representatives of the Swiss people, chosen in direct election, at the rate of one deputy for every 20,000 souls. The members are paid from federal funds at the rate of 20 francs for each day on which they are present, with traveling expenses, at the rate of 20 centimes (2d.) per kilometer, to and from the capital. The chief executive authority is deputed to a "Bundesrath," or Federal Council, consisting of seven members, elected for three years by the Federal Assembly. The members of this council must not hold any other office in the confederation or cantons, nor engage in any calling or business. It is only through this executive body that legislative measures are introduced in the deliberative councils, and its members are present at, and take part in, their proceedings, but do not vote. Every citizen who has a vote for the National Council is eligible for becoming a member of the executive.

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**Religious
Liberty
Given**

being appointed in 1883, by the pope's authority, bishop of the united sees of Geneva, Fribourg, and Lausanne, the federal council quashed the appointment, and the dispute was forcibly brought to an end. Thus the ancient jealousy of interference still shows its power even against so venerated an authority as that of Rome. Full religious liberty is given in every canton, and civil marriage, with registration, has been compulsory since 1875, those wishing it adding a religious ceremony, as is usual in France and many other Roman Catholic countries.



THE HISTORY OF SCANDINAVIA

INCLUDING SWEDEN, NORWAY, AND DENMARK

[*Authorities:* FOR SWEDEN, see Montelius, *Civilization of Sweden in Ancient Times* (Eng. trans. 1888); the histories (in Swedish) by Strinholm, Geijer, Fryxell, and Carlsson. English readers may consult Otté, *Scandinavian History* (London, 1875), and Dunham, *History of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway* (Lardner's Cyclopaedia, 1834-35). FOR NORWAY, see Munch, *Det Norske Folks Historie* (7 vols. 1852-63); E. Sars, *Udsigt over Norges Historie* (1873-77); Keyser, *Norges Stats-og Retsforfatning* (1867). In English, *Heimskringla*, trans. by W. Morris and Magnusson (vols. iii.-vi. of Saga Library, 1891) or by Laing (3 vols. 1844; new ed. 1890); Boyesen, *History of Norway* (new ed. 1890); T. Michell, *History of the Scottish Expedition to Norway in 1612* (1886); and Powell and Vigfusson, *Corpus Poeticum Boreale* (1883). Carlyle's *Early Kings of Norway* (1878) is adapted from Laing's *Heimskringla*. FOR DENMARK, the best Danish works of Erslev, Trap, Grove, Falbe-Hansen, O. Nielsen, and Scharling; see also Both, *Kongeriget Danmark, en historisk-topografisk Beskrivelse* (2d ed. 2 vols., Copenhagen, 1882-85), and Miss E. C. Otté's *Denmark and Iceland* (London, 1881). For the history, works by Paludan-Müller, Barfod, Fabricius, Allen and Thorsöe may be consulted, and, in English, Miss Otté's *Scandinavian History* (1875), in Macmillan's series.]



SCANDINAVIA comprises two peninsulas in the north of Europe, occupied by the three modern kingdoms of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. These countries were inhabited in the earliest times by people of Teutonic stock, and about 100 B. C., the natives of Jutland and Schleswig became formidable to the Romans under the name of Cimbri. But it was chiefly in the ninth century they made their power felt in the western and southern parts of Europe, where hordes of Northmen, or Vikings, as they were called, made repeated raids in their galleys on the coasts of England, Scotland, Ireland, Holland, Germany, France, Spain, and Italy, where they plundered, destroyed, and sometimes founded new states.

Margaret of Denmark, at the close of the fourteenth century,

Early Raids of the Northmen

Three Crowns United

DIVISION III succeeded in uniting the crowns of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, in her own person. By the Union of Calmar (1397) these kingdoms were never to be disjoined. Norway, indeed, remained united with Denmark up to 1814, but Sweden was separated from it in the middle of the fifteenth century. From that time Sweden and Norway were separate states until the year 1814, when Denmark was obliged to cede Norway to Sweden. We shall follow the three kingdoms of Scandinavia separately, beginning with Sweden.

SWEDEN

SWEDEN comprises the eastern and southern divisions of the Scandinavian peninsula. It is divided into three chief parts, the southern being called Gotland, the middle part Svealand, or Sweden proper, and the northern Norrland. The north and north-west parts of Norrland are called Lapland.

From the earliest times of which we have any authentic information there were in Sweden two more or less distinct peoples; the Gota, or Goths, in the south, and the Svea, or Swedes, in the north. They spoke similar languages, were of the same Teutonic stock, and had like customs, institutions, and religious beliefs. Though split into numerous independent tribes, all recognized a common sanctuary in the temple at Upsala; and the sacredness attached to this religious center assisted the princes whose seat of government was at the capital, in gradually subduing the independent chieftains. All Sweden seems to have been united under one sovereign in the person of Eric Edmundson, of the Skioldunger dynasty, toward the end of the 9th century (890). At this time the Swedes were a nation of piratical sea-rovers, who harassed the shores of the Baltic with fire and sword. They were pagans, too, for though Ansgar had preached the religion of Christ as early as 829, it made no progress until the baptism of Olaf Skotkonung in 1000, nor indeed was it firmly established until the destruction of the heathen temple at Upsala a century later. Olaf received the name of Lap-King (Skotkonung), because he was crowned king in his nurse's lap. He was the first king who took the style of the King of Sweden instead of the King of Upsala. Churches and monasteries were founded by Eric the Saint (1155-60), who, by means of missionaries, mostly English, converted the Finns to

Origin
of the
People

Pirates
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Usual
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Christianity by uniting the cross with the sword, and who planted in Finland several Swedish colonies. This able and zealous monarch was murdered in 1160 by a Danish prince, named Magnus Henriksen, and a period of intestine convulsions followed, of strife and murder and rapine. Charles, the successor of Eric the Saint, obtained the erection of Upsala into an independent archbishopric, thus freeing his country from its ecclesiastical dependence upon the Danish see of Lund; but the remaining sovereigns of his line can hardly be said to have contributed much toward the advancement of their country, and it was reserved for a new dynasty to carry on the work of the earlier kings.

The powerful family of the Folkungas had risen near the throne, and while retaining their tribal rank of Jarls, had come to fulfil the functions of mayors of the palace. Eric Ericson died without heirs in 1250, and the vacant throne was conferred upon an infant of the great family, his father, Birger Jarl, acting as regent for him (1250-66). Birger was the grandest figure of his day in the north. He founded Stockholm (1254), he conquered and annexed Finland, protected the exiled princes of Russia, and controlled both Norway and Denmark. The conquest of Finland was thoroughly completed by Tarkel Knutsen at the close of the thirteenth century, in King Birger's reign (1290-1319), but this was the last great achievement of the dynasty. Domestic quarrels sprang up, and the weakness thus entailed upon the country left it unable to cope with the disaster of an unsuccessful expedition against Russia, and with the plague, which fell with full force upon this unhappy land (1348). In the midst of these calamities, which were all attributed to the badness of their rule, some with justice and some quite without reason, the house of the Folkungas fell—its last princes were banished (1363).

Albert, duke of Mecklenburg, was elected successor to the hated Folkungas (1363); but he soon had a formidable rival in Margaret, widow of the Swedish Hakon, king of Norway, and a Folkunga; in fact, Hakon was the son of the last king of the banished line of Sweden. Margaret had secured the election of her son Olaf to the throne of Denmark in 1375, and his father's death in 1380 made him king of Norway also, as well as claimant to his grandfather's crown of Sweden. A sharp war ended in the defeat and capture of King Albert, and the Swedish Diet at once offered

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A New
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FoundedMar-
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Success-
ful Rule

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SWEDEN

**Eric Sov-
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Three
King-
doms****Mar-
garet's
Death****Insurrec-
tion and
Revolt****Danish
Author-
ity Re-
sisted****Cruelty
of Chris-
tian II
Causes a
Revolt**

Margaret the crown. She, however, preferred her nephew Eric, already acknowledged as her successor in Norway and Denmark, to be titular king, and at a solemn meeting of the states at Calmar (the famous Union of Calmar) in 1397, Eric was crowned sovereign of the three kingdoms. The union rested, however, practically upon Margaret's wise conduct. She was called the Semiramis of the north, and ruled most nobly the federation she had called into being. She was, however, quite unable to effect real union. Not one of the three kingdoms would share a tittle of its independence, or part with one of its privileges. Even the crown was elective — for in the event of there being more than one son in the royal family, it was stipulated that each country should be free to elect its king from the whole number of princes. On Margaret's death, in 1412, the differences she so long had concealed at once broke out. Insurrection followed insurrection during the reign of the five princes who held the three crowns. A peasant named Engelbrecht led the Swedes to revolt in 1434, in consequence of the failures of the king in war, the heavy taxation, and the prevalence of Danish authority. The revolt was put down, but broke out again under Karl Knutsen, and this time the Norwegians joined the movement. Finally, the Danes agreed to depose Eric (1439), and the nephew of the great Margaret ended his days as a mere pirate on the shores of the lands where he had once reigned. His nephew, Christopher III, succeeded him, and by wise concessions maintained something like order; in fact, the death of Christopher without heirs, in 1448, was a great misfortune for the countries.

Sweden now elected Karl Knutsen king, and Norway also accepted him. He could not really retain the crown, but he was just strong enough to keep Christian I, of Denmark, from having any real authority in Sweden. His nephew Sten Sture succeeded him, and the son and grandson of this chief were able to defy the king of Denmark, and to rule Sweden in virtual independence under the style of Administrators. Norway, on the other hand, was soon crushed by Denmark.

In 1520 Christian II, of Denmark, restored the Danish supremacy over Sweden, but only for a few years. His tyranny stimulated against him the national hatred. Even during the ceremony of his coronation he caused ninety-four Swedish noblemen to be beheaded in the market-place at Stockholm. His cruelty so exas-

perated his subjects that, as was said, "the Union of Calmar was drowned in the blood-bath of Stockholm." They needed but a leader to break out into open revolt, and in the young Gustaf Ericson of Vasa they found one worthy of their implicit confidence and devotion. Under his guidance they threw off the Danish yoke, and in reward they elected him king. His rule was distinguished by firmness, moderation, and ability. He replenished the treasury, developed the natural resources, fostered trade and commerce, established the Reformed Church in close connection with the state, limited the power of the nobles, improved the administration of justice, organized a standing army, and equipped a small but efficient naval force. He also rendered the crown hereditary in his own family. If in this respect he gratified his personal ambition, in all other points he sedulously consulted the interests of his country, and Sweden should regard the memory of Gustaf Vasa with as much reverence and affection as Russia shows for that of Peter the Great. Both were more than kings; they were founders, and representative men.

Gustaf died in 1560. His son and successor, Eric XIV, whose keen, bright intellect was prematurely clouded by insanity, did much toward undoing his father's great work, but he was deposed in 1568. His younger brother, John, who then ascended the throne, endeavored to extirpate Protestantism and enforce popery upon his reluctant subjects. In this wild project he was followed by his son Sigismund, who was also king of Poland; and Sweden, beset by foreign enemies and distracted by internal feuds, counted some disastrous pages in her history, until the patriotism of the Diet proved equal to the crisis, compelled Sigismund to abdicate, and placed the crown on the brow of Charles IX, the ablest and most honest of Gustaf Vasa's sons. Under his wise and far-seeing rule Sweden recovered her prosperity at home and her influence abroad. It became his policy, as it was that of the English Tudors and Louis XI, of France, to reduce the power and abate the exorbitant pretensions of the nobles, while encouraging the growth of the commercial or citizen classes.

Gustavus Adolphus succeeded his father in 1611. A devout, God-fearing, earnest-minded prince, he won a world-wide fame by his crusade against popery. At the commencement of his reign he found himself involved in hostilities with Poland, Denmark, and

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Danish
Yoke
Again
Thrown
OffDisas-
trous
Attempt
to
Enforce
PoperyPros-
perity
Restored

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SWEDEN
Protestantism Espoused

Russia; but from these he was extricated by the genius of his great minister, Oxenstierna, who also reorganized the internal administration of the kingdom. Gustavus then espoused the cause of the Protestant princes of Germany, who were threatened by Austria and Spain with total destruction. Supported openly or secretly by England and France, he landed in Germany with a small but thoroughly disciplined army, and inflicted a succession of severe defeats on the imperialist leaders. His victories gained him the title of the "Lion of the North," but his career was abruptly terminated by a musket shot at Lutzen in 1632.

Abdication of Christina

His daughter, Christina, was only six years old when thus suddenly called to the throne. During her minority Sweden was ruled by Oxenstierna with extraordinary vigor and success, and his able generals fully maintained the military prestige which Sweden had secured under Gustavus Adolphus. Her territories were increased by the annexation of Jemptland, the islands of Gothland and Oeland, and on the continent Mecklenburg, Upper Pomerania, Bremen, Werden, and Wismar. Christina had a touch of madness in her nature, and though not devoid of ability, she undoubtedly rendered her subjects the greatest possible service by abdicating, in 1654, in favor of her cousin Charles Gustavus (Charles X). In 1660 this king, whose reign was brilliant with feats of arms, and who added the three Danish provinces of Halland, Scania, and Biekinge permanently to Sweden, was succeeded by his youthful son, Charles XI, whose long minority had no evil influence on the fortunes of his kingdom, through the exertions of his wise and patriotic ministers. In his reign the prerogatives of the crown were largely extended, and he bequeathed almost despotic power to his son, Charles XII (1697–1718), whose brilliant but checkered career, from the victory of Varna to the disastrous defeat at Poltava, where his whole army was cut off or made prisoners by the Russians under Peter the Great, whose captivity at Bender, in Turkey, romantic escape, and death by a cannon-ball at the siege of Fredericshall, in Norway—have so often furnished the moralist with a pregnant illustration of the follies, evils, and misfortunes of ambition.

Extension of Power and

Loss of Same by Charles

With Charles XII terminated the male line of the Vasas, and the place held by Sweden as a leading European power for a full century. Charles' brilliant follies cost Sweden all her Continental

possessions. The king of England (elector of Hanover) purchased Bremen and Werden from the Danes who had conquered them, Pomerania fell to Prussia and her allies, Finland, Livonia, and Carelia to Russia. His sister, Ulrica Eleonora, ascended the throne, by the free election of the states, but she was constrained to resign all pretensions to absolute power, and in 1720 transferred the government to her husband, Frederick, hereditary prince of Hesse-Cassel. Their reign was disturbed by the feuds of two hostile factions, the "Hats" or French party, and the "Caps," or Russian, neither of whom consulted the two interests of their country. In 1751 Adolphus Frederick, duke of Holstein and bishop of Lubeck, was called to the throne, and married Louisa Ulrica, sister of the king of Prussia. He was weak and incapable; his reign was disturbed by the quarrels of a faction; and Sweden made little real progress in material prosperity.

It seems necessary here to consider the new form of government established at this juncture, with a view of limiting the authority of the crown — in which it succeeded, without, however, establishing a government that had any elements of solidity. It was declared that the supreme legislative authority henceforth resided solely and absolutely in the states of the realm assembled in Diet, that the assembly must take place once in three years, and that the Diet could only be dissolved by its own consent. When the Diet was not sitting, the executive power was vested in the king and senate; but, bound in all affairs of state to abide by the opinion of the majority, and in possession of but two votes, the casting voice in events of equal suffrages, the king became entirely subordinate, and could only be considered as president of the assembly. At the same time, the senate was dependent on the states; since its members, though nominally appointed for life, were amenable to that body, and liable to be removed from their offices in case of real or stimulated malversation. The supreme authority was thus vested in a tumultuous assembly, composed of the four orders, to which the most penniless nobles, the meanest tradesmen, and the lowest peasants were admitted.

All statutes were signed by the king, and all ordinances issued in his name, but in neither case did he possess a negative. And, lest at any time he might attempt to exercise this privilege, it was enacted in the Diet of 1756 that "in all affairs without exception,

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ment****Power
of the
People**

DIVISION III which had hitherto required the sign manual, his majesty's name might be affixed by a stamp, whenever he should have declined his signature at the first or second request of the senate." Consequently, the royal signature was actually engraved, and was applied to the ordinary despatches of the government, under the supervision of the senate. In a word, the king enjoyed little more than the mere name of royalty; of power he had none; and he became, in fact, the ostensible instrument in the hands of the two great parties which alternately achieved power in the Diet. Firmly determined to wrest from the senate their assumed prerogatives, and to recover something more than the semblance of authority, the king proceeded to take a bold and decisive measure. On the 13th of December, 1768, he signed a declaration by which he formally abdicated the crown of Sweden; and by publishing this act throughout the kingdom he at once suspended all the functions of government. The senate felt their authority insufficient to counteract so momentous a measure; for their orders were disputed by all the colleges of state, who had ceased to transact the business of their several departments. Agreeably to the form of government, the magistrates of Stockholm proceeded to convoké the order of "burghers," which compelled the senate to consent to the desired assembly of the Diet; and on concurring with the request that he should confirm the proclamation for that purpose, the king resumed the royal authority. At the meeting of the Diet which took place on the 19th of April, 1769, a compromise was effected, which, though it coincided in some particulars with the king's views, was far from effecting the requisite ends.

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Adolphus Frederick died February 12, 1771, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Gustavus III, then twenty-five years of age. He was a prince of extraordinary capacity, but of a dissolute and insincere character. By a series of subtly devised measures he crushed the arbitrary power of the senate, and enlisted the great body of the people in support of the more extended authority of the crown. His policy was favorable to the development of the national resources, but his energy and his personal vices combined to create a number of enemies, by whose instrumentality he was assassinated March 16, 1792, being shot while at a masked ball by an officer named Ankarstroem. The wound proved mortal, and the king expired in great agony on the 29th, nominating his brother, the

duke of Sudermania, to the regency during the minority of his son Gustavus IV.

The next reign proved disastrous. Incapable of a firm policy, Gustavus IV courted in turn the alliance of France, England, and Russia, and proving faithful to none, incurred the hostility of all. His war with Russia involved Sweden in the utmost peril. The courage of her armies availed nothing against the overwhelming forces of the Russians, and to save the country from total ruin Gustavus was arrested and deposed, and his uncle raised to the throne under the title of Charles XIII (1809). He immediately concluded peace with Russia, sacrificing Finland to the great Muscovite power, and selling Pomerania (which had been restored to Sweden) to Prussia, in order to meet financial needs.

The reign of Charles, who was childless, was vexed by a series of domestic intrigues, which resulted in the nomination of the French General Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's ablest but least trusted soldiers, as crown prince and heir presumptive to the crown (1810). It was supposed that his election would have gratified the French emperor, whose overweening jealousy, however, regarded with unfavorable eyes the elevation of a possible rival, and Bernadotte soon showed that he had no intention of becoming his instrument, or of sacrificing the interests of his adopted country to the selfish schemes of imperial aggrandizement. Under his influence Sweden joined the allies in their opposition to the French emperor's projects of conquest, and received as a recompense, in 1814, the important addition of Norway into her territories.

Bernadotte became king in 1818, with the title of Charles XIV. His administration was prudent and sagacious. He confirmed Norway in the enjoyment of her national rights and privileges, and settled the administration of both countries on a firm and enlightened basis, which has continued to serve until the present day. A viceroy or governor-general resides at Christiania; the revenue and armies of both countries are kept distinct; and Norway enjoys her own separate parliament.

His liberal policy was adopted and continued by his son Oscar (1844-59), and the Bernadotte dynasty was firmly established in the affections of its subjects. Oscar was succeeded by Charles XV, born May 3, 1826. Under his auspices the doctrine of free trade was adopted January 1, 1864, and in December of the same

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**Broken
Alliances
Provoke
General
Hostility**

**Loss of
Finland**

**Norway's
Right
Con-
firmed**

**Oscar's
Liberal
Policy**

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 SWEDEN

year a National Scandinavian Society was formed at Stockholm, with the view of securing, by legal means, a confederation of the three Scandinavian kingdoms, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, for military and foreign affairs, while reserving to each its independent administration.* In 1865 the reform of the representative system of the country, which had been pending for at least a

hundred years, was carried into effect. During this reign railways were introduced, and the absurd laws which fettered religious liberty were greatly relaxed. Charles XV died in September, 1872, and as the law of Sweden excludes women from the throne, he was succeeded by his brother, Oscar II.

Early in 1898 the "Scandinavian Question" began looming up as a cause of political uncertainty in Europe. There



OSCAR II KING OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

had been a Swedish and Norwegian joint commission appointed in

Government

* The executive power of Sweden is vested in the hereditary king. He is advised by a council of ten members, who are responsible to the parliament. Seven of these preside one each over seven public departments (justice, foreign affairs, interior, finance, war, navy, and ecclesiastical affairs). The king shares the legislative power with the parliament, though he possesses the right of initiative and of veto. There are two houses, which enjoy equal powers, but as a rule sit and vote separately. The members of the first house (147) are elected by the provincial councils and the municipal councils of certain large towns, one for every 30,000 inhabitants; they sit for nine years, and receive

1895 to arrange a satisfactory solution of the difficulties which had long existed between the two component parts of the kingdom. The chief point of difficulty in dispute was the direction of foreign affairs. The Swedes insisted on having a single foreign minister for both kingdoms, while the Norwegian radicals dissented and proposed instead a separate foreign minister, and, of course, separate diplomatic and consular service for each. On April 21, the Norwegian Storting adopted universal male suffrage. September 21, 1897, Oscar II of Sweden and Norway celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of his accession to the throne. The end of this year showed the constitutional controversy between the two parts of the Scandinavian union still continuing. On November 11, the Norwegian Storting passed a resolution which called for the removal from the Norwegian flag of the emblem of union with Sweden.

On January 21, 1899, King Oscar, who had for some time suffered from ill health, decided to step aside and entrust the throne to his eldest son. The retiring king was at this time seventy years old, and had borne the burdens of a very active, responsible headship of two ever-quarreling states for about twenty-five years. King Oscar's retirement was provisional, and on February 20 his return to the throne was announced. Crown Prince Gustave continued, however, to aid his father in public tasks.

no salary. The members of the second house (228) are returned, by direct or indirect ballot as the electors themselves determine, one for every rural district that has less than 40,000 inhabitants, two for every rural district whose population exceeds that number, and one for every 10,000 in the towns; they are paid £66 each for each session. Every elector is eligible to sit in the second house of parliament. The twenty-four provinces and the city of Stockholm are each administered by a governor and a provincial council. The communes (parishes and towns) enjoy a liberal measure of self-government through their own local councils.

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NAVIA

SWEDEN

Dispute
with
Norway
Concern-
ing
Foreign
PolicyCrown
Prince
Associa-
ted with
King
in the
Govern-
ment

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NORWAY

NORWAY

Evolu-
tion of
National
Life

IT is not until the ninth century that the story of Norway begins to emerge from the obscurities of myth and legend. At the time the tribes of Gothic descent crossed the Baltic and settled in the southern parts of the Scandinavian peninsula they found the Lapps or Finns in possession. These people they drove north toward the Arctic Ocean. When this immigration took place can not be determined exactly. Indeed, if, according to one theory, the original home of the Aryans was in Scandinavia, it probably never took place at all. At the dawn of the historical period Norway was parceled out among the free men of the race (Norroeni, Norsemen, Norwegians), whose slaves — prisoners taken in war — tilled the soil, while they and their free dependents spent their time in fighting, viking raids, and similar pursuits. The ties that united these free men were personal rather than political or territorial, though for judicial purposes all who dwelt in a well-defined district (fylki) met at stated intervals and at fixed places to adjudicate in common, on terms of strict equality. Several of these districts were associated together in a higher unity — the thing. Of such things or meetings there came to be eventually three, the Frosta for the north, the Gula for the west and south, and the Eidsifia for the east; at a later date the Borgar thing for the southeast was separated from the Eidsifia. Each of these things had its own independent code of purely customary laws. The chief men, calling themselves kings, later jarls (earls), had no official authority; their power was due solely to their personal influence — their character, wealth, warlike renown, and long descent.

Earliest
Political
Associa-
tions

The cradle of the future kingdom of Norway was the district of Vestfold, on the western side of Vik (now Christiana Fjord). There a royal race from Sweden established themselves, seemingly in the seventh century. A descendant of these kings, Black Halfdan (died 860), reduced the petty kings to the north of him, as far as Lake Mjosen. His greater son, Harold Haarfager or Fairhair (king 863–930), extended his sway as far north as Trondhjem, in which district, as being his first conquest in lands that owed no allegiance to the chief king in Sweden, he established the seat of his power, just as the elector of Brandenburg called himself Frederick I, king of Prussia. After that in three great sea-fights, the

Harold
Pro-
claims
Himself
King

last near Stavanger in 883, he conquered the kings of the west and southwest, and proclaimed himself chief king in Norway. But many of the defeated chiefs (kings) refused to submit to Harold, especially when he asserted the right of conquest, seized their odal lands, and introduced a form of feudalism. They sailed across the Western (North) Sea, and colonized the Faroe, Shetland, and Orkney Islands, the Hebrides, Man, Ireland. But they so harassed the men (jarls) to whom Harold had given their lands in Norway that the king, pursuing them, slew many of them and reduced the islands to his sway, and appointed earls over them.

Those who were still disaffected escaped his rule by sailing on farther to Iceland. In Harold's reign the Skalds or improvisatore court-poets began to compose, and were held in great honor. Harold's son, Erik Bloodaxe, was driven from Norway by a younger brother Haco, in 935, and for many years the country was distracted by Erik's sons trying to recover their father's power. After Haco died (961) their principal opponent was Earl Haco of Trondhjem, who ruled Norway west of the mountain plateau until he was killed in a revolt (995). Olaf Tryggveson, a descendant of Harold Haarfager, a man who had won great fame as a viking in England (991-994) and elsewhere, stepped into the gap. Like his great-uncle Haco, he was a Christian, and like him he attempted to make his people Christian, and he did make them Christian, at least nominally and superficially. The beau-ideal of a sea-king, and the pride and admiration of his people, Olaf died a hero's death, fighting against a host off the north coast of Prussia (1000). After an interval of fifteen years another Olaf, likewise a descendant of Harold Haarfager, landed and won the kingdom from the son of Earl Haco. This Olaf, St. Olaf, made his people's Christianity more real, first thoroughly welded the kingdom into a united state, made all the western islands tributary, and ruled sternly but well. Ever since the days of Harold Haarfager the king of the Danes had claimed supremacy over at least southern Norway; in 1028 the great Canute came with a large fleet to make good his claim. Olaf fled to Russia, and in attempting to win back his crown perished in battle at Stikklestad near Trondhjem (1030). Five years later the chiefs of the land made Olaf's son Magnus king, and he became king of the Danes also in 1042. But this office he found so difficult that in 1046 he associated with

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**Usurper
Haco
Killed****St. Olaf**

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NORWAY

Death of
King in
Ireland

himself as king his uncle Harold Haardraada, who had served in the Vaering guard at Constantinople, and had fought against the Saracens in Sicily. War between the Danes and Norsemen was almost chronic all through the reigns of Magnus and Harold, of whom the latter became sole king in 1047. Harold's love of adventure led him to his death at Stamford Bridge in England in 1066. During the peaceful reign of Harold's son, Olaf Kyrre (1067-93), commerce thrived, industrial guilds were formed, and the land prospered greatly. The next king, Olaf's son, Magnus Barefoot, waged war in the Orkneys, Hebrides, and Ireland, till he fell in this last island in 1103. Two sons of Magnus, Eystein (died 1122) and Sigurd (died 1130), then reigned in concert, Eystein being a quiet stay-at-home prince, while Sigurd, who had inherited all the adventurous enterprise of his ancestors, sailed to the Levant, and visited Jerusalem and Constantinople (1107-11). After his return he greatly fostered the church. At this period the towns began to be prosperous.

From 1130 to 1240 the country was torn by internal feuds, three predominant parties contesting for power — an oligarchical party among the chief men; the bishop's party, who claimed the right to elect the king; and after 1174, the nationalist Birkebeiner (*i. e.*, "Birch-legs"), who generally had the first two parties allied against them, but who, in the long run, got the victory. After defeating the earls and bishops, and slaying their nominee or puppet, King Magnus, in Nord Fjord (1184), they chose for their king, Sverre (died 1202), a Faroe islander, and a clever man. Nevertheless, the civil strife went on until the twenty-third year (1240) of the reign of Sverre's grandson, Haco. This king reigned twenty-three years longer, and during that time the land recovered from her distractions. Iceland acknowledged the supremacy of the king in Norway in 1262. Haco died at Kirkwall (1263), shortly after being defeated at Largs, in an attack upon Scotland. It was during the first half of the thirteenth century that the Old Norse literature began to be written down. The laws were put in writing during the reign of Haco's son, Uagnus the Lawbetterer (1263-80), who, in 1266, gave up the Hebrides to Scotland. The pretensions of the bishops' party were finally crushed by Erik (died 1299), son of Magnus, and father of the little Margaret, Maid of Norway. Erik's successor, his brother Haco, dying (1319)

Iceland
Acknowl-
edges
Suprem-
acy of
NorwayBegin-
ning of
Norse
Litera-
ture

without a son, the throne passed, through a daughter, to the Swedish royal house, and again, through marriage, to the Danish (1380). The great Queen Margaret of Denmark united all three

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 NORWAY



BORGUND CHURCH

kingdoms by the Union of Calmar (1397). And now evil days fell upon the land. The extraordinary exertions of Norway's youth seem to have worn her out early; her high spirit and enterprise were gone; her literature died out, and her intelligence

Union
 with
 Sweden

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NORWAY
National Rights Disregarded by Denmark

burned down to a dull glimmer; her commerce passed into the tyrannical hands of the Hanseatic merchants of Bergen; her old colonies, Orkney and Shetland, were pledged to Scotland forever in 1468; Denmark, which at first respected her national rights, treated her from 1536 as a conquered province, and forced the Reformation upon her, yet the Norwegians never seriously resented the harsh and oppressive treatment of their rulers. In 1612, some 300 men from Scotland, while making their way to join the army of Gustavus Adolphus in Sweden, were cut to pieces by the Norwegian peasantry in the pass of Kringelen in Gudbrandsdal.

Restored by Sweden

The national spirit began to stir again in the awakening of the peoples occasioned by the French Revolution; and the transference of Norway to Sweden in 1814 gave back to the Norwegians their national rights, a liberal constitution, and their sense of national unity. At first they resisted the transference. Prince Christian of Denmark headed the movement for independence, and summoned a national assembly, which at Eidsvold (May 17) drew up a liberal constitution. But Sweden marched her forces into the country, and on October 10 Christian abdicated. Charles XIII of Sweden, having recognized the constitution, was elected king on November 4. In 1821 the Norwegians abolished all titles of nobility. The spirit of independence and of nationality has grown stronger as the years have passed, industry has thrived, commerce has prospered and brought wealth, and, intellectually, Norway stands in the van of progress. The principal event since the union with Sweden was the overwhelming protest of the people against the right claimed by the king to veto absolutely bills duly passed by their elected representatives, the struggle lasting through the years 1872-84.*

Government

* Norway is a free, independent state, nominally a kingdom, but practically to all intents and purposes a republic. The supreme executive rests with the king, who is at the same time king of Sweden; but the responsibility for his acts is borne by a council of state, appointed by himself from Norwegians above thirty years of age, and consisting of two ministers and at least seven councilors. One minister and two councilors must always be in attendance on the king when he is not in Norway. The other minister and the remaining councilors administer the affairs of the country, the minister presiding over the deliberations of the council (sometimes also taking a portfolio), and the councilors directing each a special department—at present seven, Religion and Education, Justice, Interior, Public Works, Finance, Defense, Revision of all Public Accounts. As viceroy in Norway the king may appoint his eldest son, or *his* eldest son, but none other; if there is a viceroy, he presides over the council of state. The king declares war and peace, and

DENMARK

DENMARK is the smallest of the three Scandinavian kingdoms, and consists of the peninsula of Jutland and a group of islands in the Baltic Sea.

The early history of Denmark is lost in the twilight of the saga-period, out of which loom dimly the figures of its heroes, their brave deeds and daring voyages. Within its borders the Celts had first their home, and from its shores the Angles and Saxons sailed, in the fifth century, to the conquest of England; while in their place the Danes from Zealand settled on the deserted lands, extending their sway as far south as the Eider. One of their earliest kings, Harald Hildetand, fell in battle against the Swedes in 695; and shortly afterward a branch of the Ynglinger occupied Jutland, where they held a footing for two centuries. One of their kings, Harald Klak, received baptism in 826 from Ansgar, but the introduction of Christianity did not at once place any check on the long accustomed inroads on Frankish territory, or on the piratical expeditions of the Vikings, although the country was soon torn by dissensions between the adherents of the old and new

makes treaties and agreements on his own initiative, but can not use the army and fleet for an aggressive war without the consent of the Norwegian parliament. Both countries are represented by one and the same diplomatic corps. The people participate in the government through the Storthing or parliament, which consists of one hundred and fourteen members, seventy-six representing the country districts and thirty-eight the towns. All Norwegians above twenty-five years of age who satisfy certain conditions of residence and property qualification, or station, meet once in every three years in the parish church and choose one man from every hundred of their number to select the members of parliament for the county. Every man so selected, even though it be against his will, is obliged to sit in one parliament (of three years) but not in a second. If a sitting member dies, his place is taken by the man who stands next on the list of representatives selected by the electors. As soon as the Storthing meets (in February every year in Christiania) one fourth (twenty-nine) of the assembled members are chosen to form an upper house; the remainder constitute the lower house, in which all legislative measures are proposed either by a member of the house or by a member of the government. The upper house may send back a bill twice; but after the second rejection both houses vote together as one, though in that case a majority of two thirds is necessary. The king's signature makes a bill law. But if he refuses to sign, and the bill is passed by three successive parliaments (not sessions), it becomes law in spite of the king's veto. Every member of the parliament is allowed \$3.25 a day with traveling expenses. The affairs of each county are directed by a special administrative officer. Both the counties and the communes enjoy a liberal degree of self-government. Justice is administered locally by sheriffs; from them an appeal is allowed to one of the four so-called diocesan courts, and from them to the supreme court sitting at Christiania.

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NAVIA

DENMARK

**Tradi-
tional
History****Intro-
duction
of Chris-
tianity**

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 NAVIA
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faith. Gorm the Old, who drove the Ynglinger from the peninsula, and first united the mainlands and islands under one rule, was the bitter enemy of Christianity; and although his death in 936 gave fresh vigor to the diffusion of the new faith, yet even its ultimate success was only insured by the zealous support it received from the Gorm's grandson, Canute.

Flourish-
 ing
 Nobility
 and Con-
 sequent
 Serfdom

On his death in 1035 the three kingdoms of his Anglo-Scandinavian empire separated, and his sister's son, Svend Estridsen (1047–76), ascended the throne of Denmark, founding a princely line that flourished four hundred years. Internal dissensions and external wars weakened the country, and the introduction of a feudal system raised up a powerful nobility, and ground down the once free people to a condition of serfdom. Waldemar I (1157–82) added Rügen to the other Wendish districts of Mecklenburg and Pomerania, and extended his sway over Norway also. Under Waldemar II the conquests of Denmark extended so far into German and Wendish lands, that the Baltic was little more than an inland Danish sea. The jealousy of the German princes and the treachery of his vassals combined to rob him, however, of these brilliant conquests, and his death in 1241 was followed by a century of anarchy and inglorious decadence of the authority of the crown, during which the kingdom was brought to the brink of annihilation. Under his great-grandson, Waldemar IV, Denmark made a transient recovery of the conquests of the older Waldemars, rousing the jealousy of the Hanseatic League, and the national laws were codified. From his death in 1375 till 1412, his daughter, the Great Margaret, widow of Hakon VI of Norway, ruled not only that country and Denmark, but in course of time Sweden also, with so light yet firm a hand that for once in the course of their history the three rival Scandinavian kingdoms were content to act in harmony. Margaret's successor, Eric, the son of her niece, for whose sake she had striven to give permanence by the act known as the Union of Calmar (1397) to the amalgamation of the three sovereignties into one, undid her glorious work with fatal rapidity, lost the allegiance and the crowns of his triple kingdom, and ended his disastrous existence in misery and obscurity. After the short reign of his nephew, Christopher of Bavaria (1440–48), the Danes exerted their ancient right of election to the throne, and chose for their king Christian of Oldenburg, a descendant of the old royal

Union of
 Calmar

family through his material ancestress, Rikissa, the great-granddaughter of Waldemar II, Christian I (1448–81), who was at the same time elected duke of Sleswick and Holstein, was the founder of the Oldenburg line, which continued unbroken till the death of Frederick VII in 1863. His reign was followed by half a century of international struggles in Scandinavia. The insane tyranny of Christian II cost that monarch his throne and freedom; the Danes chose his uncle Frederick I to be their king, while Sweden was forever separated from Denmark, and rose under the Vasas to be a powerful state.

Under Christian III (1536–59), the Reformation was established in Denmark. Christian IV, after his brief share in the Thirty Years' war, proved one of the ablest of all the Danish rulers. His liberal and wise policy was, however, cramped in every direction by the arrogant nobles, to whose treasonable supineness Denmark owes the reverses by which she lost (1658) all the possessions she had hitherto retained in Sweden; and with the relinquishment of these, and consequently of the undivided control of the passage of the Sound, the country's former international importance came finally to an end. The national disgraces and abasement which followed, led, in 1660, under Christian's son, Frederick III, to the rising of the people against the nobles, and their surrender into the hands of the king of the supreme power. For the next hundred years, chiefly marked by wars with Sweden, the peasantry were kept in serfdom, and the middle classes depressed; but by the end of the eighteenth century the peasants had been gradually emancipated, while many improvements had been effected in the mode of administering the laws, and the Danish kings, although autocrats, exercised a mild rule. The miseries of the reign of Frederick VI who governed as regent from 1784, brought the country to a verge of ruin. Denmark having joined Russia in a compact of the Northern Powers hostile to England, a fleet was sent into the Baltic, and considerable injuries were inflicted by an attack on Copenhagen, in 1801, under Parker and Nelson. From this the country rallied; but in 1807 the British government, suspicious of an intention on the regent's part to violate his neutrality and take sides with Napoleon, demanded the surrender of the entire Danish navy, to be restored at the conclusion of peace. A refusal was followed by the bombardment of Copenhagen in September, 1807, and the

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DENMARK

**Tyranny
of Chris-
tian II****Emanci-
pation
from Serf-
dom, and
National
Improve-
ments****British
Bom-
bardment
of Copen-
hagen**

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NAVIA

DENMARK

Norway
Ceded to
Sweden

fleet was given up; but this treatment drove Denmark into Napoleon's arms, and with him the kingdom was obliged to co-operate until the close of 1813.

By the Congress of Vienna, Denmark was compelled to cede Norway to Sweden. From this period a spirit of discontent grew up in the duchies, degenerating into mutual animosity between the Danish and German population, which led to an open rupture with

Denmark in 1848, immediately after the accession of Frederick VII. After alternate hostilities and armistices, the war was virtually concluded in 1849, by the victory of the Danes at Idsted; but in 1863 the quarrel was renewed. On the death of Frederick in that year, Prince Christian of Sleswick Holstein-Glucksborg ascended the throne under the title of Christian IX, in conformity with the act known as the Treaty of London of 1852, by which the Danish crown was settled on him and



CHRISTIAN IX

Treaty of
London

his descendants by his wife, Princess Louise of Hesse-Cassel, niece of King Christian VIII of Denmark. A pretender, backed by German influence and help, at once started up in the person of the eldest son of the Duke of Augustenborg, who assumed the title of Duke Frederick VIII of Sleswick-Holstein; but this cause was speedily merged and lost sight of by Prussia and Austria in their direct aim of incorporating the duchies with the German Confederation. Denmark, unaided by England and France, allies on whose support she had relied, was forced to go single-handed into the unequal contest. After a brave but utterly futile attempt at resistance, the Danes found themselves forced to submit to the

terms dictated by their powerful foes, and resign not only Lauenborg and Holstein, but the ancient crown-appanage of Sleswick. By the Peace of Vienna, 1864, the Danish king bound himself to abide by the decision which Prussia and Austria should adopt in regard to the destiny of the severed Danish provinces. The dissensions between these two great powers, which led to the Austro-Prussian war of 1866, resulted in the triumph of Prussia, and since then the duchies have remained an integral part of the state. Since the war, Denmark, although reduced to the narrow limits of the islands and Jutland, has recovered from its fall, and has greatly prospered, in spite of the spread of socialistic opinions, and the political dissensions that have ranged the government and Landsting, supported by the press of the capital, against the Folkething and majority of the people.*

The kingdom of Denmark is now under the rule of Christian IX, who was appointed to the succession of the crown by the Treaty of London, May 8, 1852, and by the Danish law of succession July 31, 1853. According to the last census taken February 1, 1890, the kingdom was shown to have increased in population, in wealth, and in internal improvements. The population is almost entirely Scandinavian, and nearly fifty per cent. of the people live exclusively by agriculture. An important feature in the finances of the kingdom is a large reserve fund, which is constantly kept on hand. The public debt in 1895 was \$56,275,556, while the investments of the state amounted to about \$67,071,194. The army is made up from able-bodied young men of the kingdom, who have reached the age of twenty-two years. The total peace strength of the

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DENMARK

King
Yields to
Prussia
and
Austria

Financial
Con-
dition

Present
Con-
ditions

Govern-
ment

*The government of Denmark is a constitutional monarchy, the king being assisted by a cabinet of seven ministers. The crown was elective until 1610, when the people and clergy, impelled by hatred toward the nobles, invested the sovereign, Frederick III, with absolute power, and declared the succession of the throne hereditary. From that time the crown exercised absolute rule till 1831, when a constitution was granted. This, proving unsatisfactory, was superseded in 1849 by the form of government which, with some alterations, Denmark now enjoys. The national assembly or Rigsdag consists of the Folkething and Landsting, which meet annually, the members receiving a fixed allowance during their sittings. The Landsting is composed of sixty-six members, of whom twelve are nominated for life by the king, while the remainder are elected for a term of eight years by certain bodies representing the large tax-payers of the kingdom. The members of the Folkething, whose number is fixed by statute in the proportion of one to every 16,000 of the population, are elected for three years by practically universal suffrage.

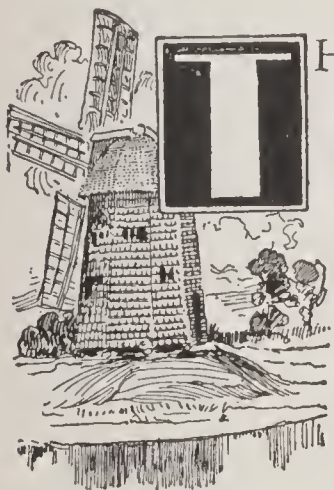
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army was in 1894 about 14,150 men; the total war strength about 75,000 men. At this time there were in Denmark nearly 1,500 miles of railway open for traffic, of which about 1,000 miles belonged to the state. The established religion is Lutheran, although there is complete religious toleration. Education is compulsory and has been progressing rapidly in late years.



THE HISTORY OF THE NETHERLANDS

[*Authorities:* The writings of Prescott, Motley, Thorold Rogers, Wagenaar, the very valuable collections of Gachard and Groen, the histories of Th. Juste, Bilderdijk, Fruin, Arend, Nuijens, Hofdijk, etc. (all in Dutch, except Juste, who wrote in French), give a wide range of excellent compilations concerning the people of the Netherlands. The most accessible literary history is Schneider's *Geschichte der Niederl. Literatur* (Leip. 1888), which is also the best in many ways. See also Murray's *Handbook for Holland and Belgium*, London; Havard (H.) *In the Heart of Holland*, (Eng. Trans.) 8, London, 1880; Wood (C. W.) *Through Holland*, 8, London, 1877; and Bemmele (J. Van) and Hooyer (G. B.), *Guide to the Dutch East Indies*, London, 1897.]



THE northwest corner of the great north European plain, a triangular region surrounded by France, Germany, and the sea, lying mainly in the basins of the Scheldt, the Meuse, and the lower Rhine, is now divided into nearly equal parts between the kingdoms of Holland and Belgium. The official designation of Netherlands is retained by what is commonly called Holland. The history of the "Spanish Netherlands" falls mainly under the head of Flanders and Belgium.

About a century and a half before the Christian era, a Teutonic people, known to the Romans as the Batavi, and who came from Hesse, occupied the land between the Rhine and the Waal. At this time the Frisians occupied the country north of the Rhine to the Elbe. The Batavi and Frisians differed little in appearance, manner of life, and religion. They clothed themselves with skins, fished, hunted, and led a pastoral life; were faithful, frank, chaste, and hospitable. The songs of the bards composed their literature and history. Warlike and brave, they selected their leader for his courage and prowess, and were armed with a bow and a short spear. They worshiped the sun and moon, and held their meetings in consecrated woods.

Location

Condition
of the
Primitive
People

Their
Religion

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 THE NETH-
 ERLANDS

End of
 Roman
 Suprem-
 acy

Petty
 Duke-
 doms and
 Rulers

Pros-
 perity
 Followed
 by
 Tyranny

The Romans, having subdued the Belgæ, next attacked the Frisians, who agreed to pay a tribute of ox-hides and horns, but continued restless and rebellious. The Batavi became allies of Rome, paying no tribute; but supplying a volunteer contingent, chiefly of cavalry, which was renowned for its impetuous bravery, and helped to win the battle of Pharsalia for Cæsar. About 70 A. D. Claudius Civilis, a Batavian, made a bold effort to overthrow the Roman power in Rhenish or Germanic Gaul, but failed in the end. Roman supremacy endured until the fourth century, when the inroads of the Salic Franks were followed by the Saxons and other tribes. The Franks took possession of the Insula Batavorum, and the name of the Batavi vanished. Christianity spread among these tribes, and even the Frisians, who were violently opposed to it, were forcibly converted by Charles Martel. At the end of the eighth century all the Low Countries submitted to Charlemagne, who built a palace at Nimeguen, on the Waal. The feudal system now began to develop itself, and dukedoms, counties, lordships, and bishoprics arose, the bishops of Utrecht, the dukes of Guelderland, and the counts of Holland being among the most powerful of these petty rulers, who owned but very little allegiance to their lords. During the ninth and tenth centuries the districts of the modern Netherlands belonged to Lotharingia, which acknowledged alternately French and German sovereignty. The nucleus of the countship of Holland, and the beginning of its power, were the work of Dirk III, who died in 1039. Count William II was even made King of the Romans (1248) through the influence of Pope Innocent IV. The crusades weakened the power and influence of the nobles and prelates, so that, during the Middle Ages, cities began to assume importance, strengthen themselves with walls, and choose their own rulers.

In 1384 the earldom of Flanders passed, through marriage, to the duke of Burgundy, whose grandson, Philip the Good, made it his special life effort to form the Netherlands into a powerful kingdom. He bought Namur, inherited Brabant with Limburg, and compelled Jacoba of Bavaria to resign Holland and Zealand. Charles V, as heir to Burgundy, inherited and united the Netherlands under his scepter. He fostered trades and industries in the Low Countries, and under his rule they attained a great prosperity, while cities like Bruges and Ghent reached the zenith of their

wealth and power. But he also tyrannized over the land with an iron will and hand, drained the life-blood of the nation for his continual warfare, and depopulated north and south by an implacable Inquisition,* which it is computed put to death in various forms at least 100,000 persons for heresy. Yet he was at times popular with the people. He spoke their language. He always remained a Fleming; and Ghent, after attempting to betray him, and riding in rebellion against him in 1539, owed her ultimate escape from the destruction which Alva counseled entirely to the fact of the emperor's citizenship. His son Philip II, who succeeded to the throne in October, 1555, was a character of the very opposite type. A Spaniard born, he remained a Castilian to his dying day — austere, harsh, narrow, domineering, fanatical. He never spoke a word of Dutch, nor did he understand the people. With Philip II commenced that terrible and desperate and long-fought struggle of Holland and Spain which finally resulted in the throwing off of the Spanish yoke, in the establishment of a free, strong, and prosperous commonwealth among the marshes of the low-lying delta. This heroic contest of the few against the many, of a handful of isolated burghers against the combined forces of the most powerful state in Europe, has excited a wonderful amount of interest in the civilized world. Motley, with the now countless editions of his great work, "The Rise of the Dutch Republic," and its continuation, has done more to popularize the story of the so-called Eighty Years' war of the Low Countries against Spain than any of his predecessors.

Philip II only remained in Holland for four brief years, and then left it, never to return, appointing as regent, Margaret of Parma, mother of the famous Farnese, and a natural daughter of Charles V, with a council, to which belonged Viglius, Berlaymont, the afterward notorious Cardinal Granvella, Bishop of Arras — all friends and flatterers of the young king and enemies of the people — as well as Egmont, who had won the battles of St. Quentin and Gravelines for Philip, and the king's lieutenant in Holland, Zealand, and Utrecht, young William of Orange, then completely unknown to fame. As the latter took leave of Philip, who was embarking at Flushing to return to Spain, the king bitterly complained to him of the opposition already manifested against his

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William
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* See "Inquisition," Vol. III, p. 1189.

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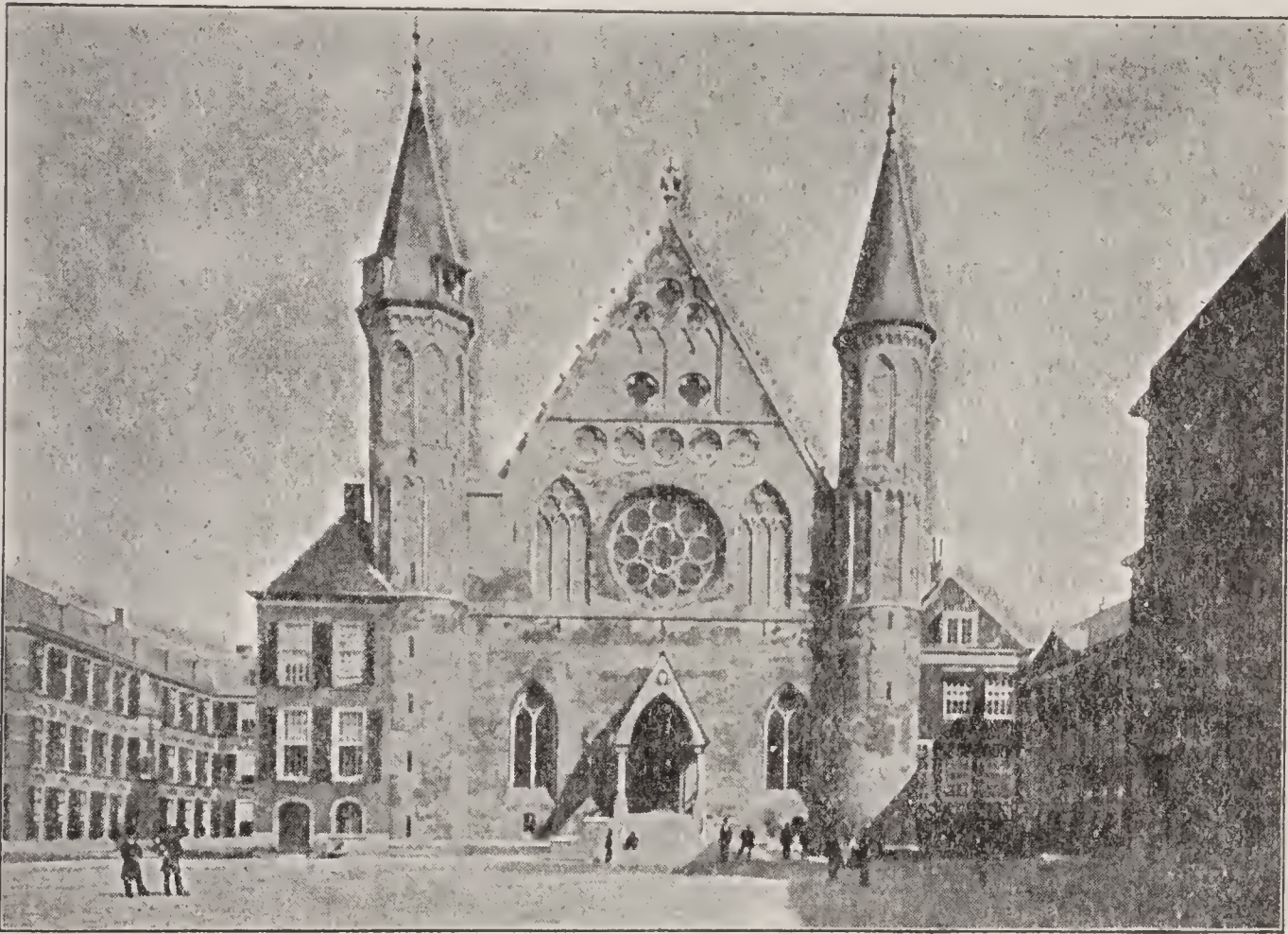
ANCIENT
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measures. These were mainly the maintenance of a standing Spanish army, and of the Inquisition — both contrary to the laws and privileges of the people, as well as to his own solemn vows before ascending the throne. William tried to persuade the king that he had nothing to do with the resistance complained of, as the Estates were acting on their own responsibility when they had petitioned his majesty. Whereupon Philip seized the Prince of Orange by the wrist, shaking it violently and exclaiming in Spanish, “*No los Estados, ma vos! vos! vos!*” (Not the Estates, but you! you! you!). The king on this memorable occasion showed as much perspicuity as his reign betrayed perverseness and perfidy. In William of Orange, then only twenty-six years old and six years his junior, Philip had truly recognized his worst foe, his most dangerous opponent, and the soul of the coming struggle against the royal authority. The king’s secret correspondence is there to confirm this view. Born on April 16, 1533, William belonged to an ancient family ruling a small principality in the south of France, but his ancestors, originally vassals of the pope, had settled in the Netherlands, where they occupied high functions under the princes of the house of Burgundy. William had been a favorite with Charles, whom he accompanied everywhere. It was thus that William had been able to acquire that profound knowledge of the military art, and to grasp the intricacies of the prevalent occult diplomacy in which he afterward proved himself such a consummate master. It was while he was hunting with the king of France in the Forest of Vincennes that Henry II communicated to William of Orange the fiendish plot France and Spain had concocted to massacre all the Protestants in both countries. Henry II did not know then the man to whom he had been so communicative: he had spoken to William the Silent. The prince never betrayed the least emotion. He buried in his bosom the project of a crime, which, although a devout Catholic himself (though a Protestant afterward), he had resolved to prevent at all hazards. He saw the storm coming. He determined to face it, to devote his fortune, his best powers, and his life to the cause of the weak against the strong, of the free against crushing despotism, fighting Philip with his own weapons, and having but one noble, self-sacrificing ambition — the welfare and the liberty of the people.

There is no doubt that Philip was betrayed by those in whom he had most implicit confidence, and that William of Orange knew of all the king's intentions and movements. Thus he was aware that Alva had collected an army in Italy by the orders of Philip in order to extirpate an abominable rebellion of heretics by sword, and to re-establish the Inquisition. The prince warned his friends Egmont and Hoorn in good time against the imminent danger; but they heeded not what he said, and paid for their folly on the

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Inquisi-
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Council
of
Troubles

HOTEL DES LOTERIES, THE HAGUE

scaffold of Brussels as soon as Alva had arrived there with 10,000 picked troops, and had established his Council of Troubles. This was no better than a council of butchers, and by means of it 20,000 inoffensive burghers were hurried to their doom.

20,000
Butch-
ered by
Spanish
Troops

William escaped to Germany in order to organize the national defense with his brothers. But his task was well-nigh hopeless. What could he do with a handful of half-paid and underfed hirelings. In 1572 the position of affairs could scarce have been more desperate. The Spaniards were absolute masters of the land, and the people, crushed under a reign of bloody rapine, had ceased to hope for deliverance, when the bold capture of Briel, by the

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Plan to
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Beggars of the Sea, on April 1, 1572 — a great date in Dutch history, duly honored in 1872 — changed the whole aspect of affairs. They were marauders, those Beggars of the Sea, desperadoes clinging to the broad, hospitable ocean, after having been driven from the land by the Spaniard; but they were also patriots who had adopted as a title of honor the opprobrious epithet that Berlaymont had given them when they were petitioning the regent for the maintenance of their rights, and they held Briel for “Father William.” Their daring capture became the sign of a general revolt, and soon William the Silent was again at the head of affairs in the name of the king, still nominally maintained as the ruler of the land. William’s projects, which consisted of a junction with the French Huguenots, were indeed direfully frustrated by the butchery of St. Bartholomew. The southern portion of the Low Countries could not be delivered from the clutches of the enemy, and were forever lost to the cause of freedom; but the north continued to struggle single-handed, and at last Alva had to depart in disgust without having accomplished his mission. His successors could do nothing to retrieve Philip’s fortunes or dampen the inspiriting influence which the heroic defense of towns like Haarlem, Leyden, and Alkmaar had infused into the burghers of the new state. The military chest of the Spanish commanders was always empty, as the Dutch, masters on the sea, cut off all supplies, and revolts were frequent among the Spanish soldiery. Ottavio Farnese, duke of Parma, who succeeded to the lieutenancy in 1578, saw but one way of settling the question, and that was the forcible removal of William of Orange. Philip, who had held all along the same sinister designs, was only too eager to fall in with this plan. In June, 1580, there appeared that infamous ban which declared William a traitor, a miscreant, and an outlaw, putting a heavy price upon his head (25,000 gold crowns), and promising the king’s pardon and titles of nobility to whosoever might be found willing to rid the land of him. William replied in his famous Apologie; but he was not able to cope with a royal assassin. Numerous attempts against the prince’s life were made, and although they failed for a time, the bravo’s work was finally accomplished. Balthasar Gerards, the miserable instrument of a royal murderer, shot William dead with a pistol, purchased with the very money the prince had given him by way of alms to a

“poor Calvinist.” This took place at Delft on July 12, 1584, near the top of a staircase which has been preserved in the same state ever since. Gerards was arrested, tortured, and finally put to death in an atrocious manner; but no expiation, however awful, could bring to life again the noble patriot.

The blow was crushing and irreparable, yet William might have fallen at a moment even more critical to Holland than July, 1584. He did not leave his country in a state of paralyzed chaos. The Union of Utrecht, accomplished in January, 1579, had cemented the alliance of the northern provinces banded together against the king of Spain; and the solemn declaration of July, 1581, by which the free Netherlands forever renounced their allegiance to Philip II, had virtually completed William’s task of deliverer. His manifesto of renunciation and denunciation would alone have sufficed to stamp him as a man of genius in the eyes of posterity. It is a remarkably clear, bold, and spirited defense of a people’s rights against the claimed rights of the anointed king at a time when the former had been forgotten. Yet William’s doom, far from undoing his work, as Philip and Parma hoped, only tended to make it more durable. The bloody deed seemed to spur the whole nation to a revolt fiercer than ever. Maurice of Nassau followed in his father’s footsteps, and the successes of the Dutch, especially at sea, became more numerous. Parma, indeed, took Antwerp after a long siege, but failed to effect a junction with the Armada in 1588, as the Hollanders prevented his fleet from leaving the Scheldt; and when the great general died in 1592, six years before his master, he had not accomplished his mission. Philip III was not more fortunate, and could do nothing better than sign in 1609 the twelve years’ armistice with the “rebels,” who were already masters of the sea, and had laid the foundations of their great Indian empire by the establishment of the East India Company in 1602, practically making their own conditions. Maurice had been against the armistice, but he was overruled by the states, who wanted peace for trading. Unfortunately, the breathing time to 1621 was in a large measure filled up with religious and political dissensions between the adherents of Gomarus, the orthodox Lutherans, and the Armenians, the milder-mannered followers of Arminius, to whom Hugo Grotius and other celebrated men of the time belonged. These disputes culminated in the persecution of

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**Alliance
 against
 Spain**

**Peoples’
 Rights
 Defended**

**East
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 Company
 Estab-
 lished**

**Arme-
 nians
 Perse-
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the Armenians, who were forced to flee, like Grotius, or were put on their trial for high treason, like Olden Barneveldt, the Grand-pensionary of Holland, and one of her most distinguished sons, who was beheaded in 1618 with the approval of Maurice. But these internal troubles did not check the progress of the new republic. Maurice died in 1615, and his brother Frederick Henry finally freed his country from the Spaniards, who in 1648 were compelled to recognize the "rebels" as an independent nation by the Treaty of Munster.

Zenith of
Holland's
Power

In this epoch lies, perhaps, the period of Holland's greatest material and intellectual development. Her ships could be seen everywhere, and the Dutch had become the general carriers of the world's trade. Amsterdam, grown powerful and rich, was the Venice of the north, where, besides commerce proper, both banking and stock-broking reached a flourishing stage at an early period. From this emporium started the fleets of the great trading companies, and the vessels of intrepid explorers, like Hudson, Heemskerck, Houtman, Lemaire, Tasman, and many others. Dutch agriculture and floriculture, gaining new experience, and teaching fresh methods, grew famous, and so did many branches of science and industry. The first optical instruments came from Holland, and Huygens gave us the pendulum-clock. Arts and letters flourished, and the names of Erasmus, Grotius, Vossius, Burman, Gronovius, Boerhaave, Spinoza, Huygens, Rembrandt, Cuyp, Van der Helst, Hobbema, Potter, and many more became known and illustrious far beyond the national frontiers. The art of printing, perhaps not a glory of Holland in its inception, had at any rate attained a high degree of perfection there in the seventeenth century, as the names of Plantin and Elzevir testify. The liberty of the press, secured at an early date, led to the establishment of numerous newspapers, Dutch and foreign. The foreign news-sheets of Holland, mostly published in French, were sent all over the world, as they contained the latest intelligence and things that were not allowed to appear in print elsewhere. The Gazette de Leyde was among the oldest and most powerful of these early journals (1680-1814).

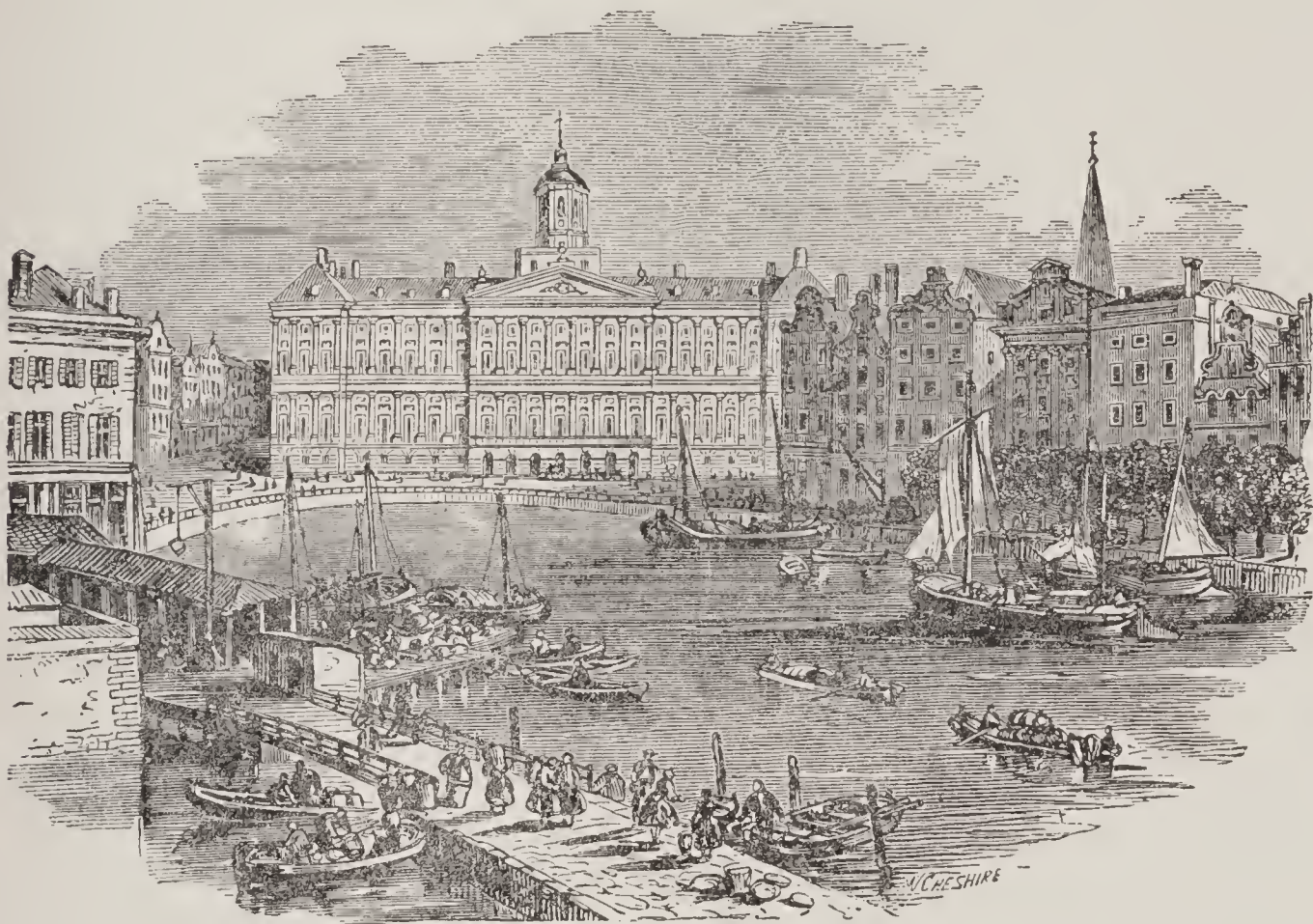
Inven-
tions and
Eminent
MenLiberty of
Press and
ResultsEnvy
Aroused

The rising power of Holland had the natural result of creating envy and cupidity in her nearest neighbors. The first serious antagonism came from England, where trade and navigation were

also rapidly coming to the front. Both countries were then pure commonwealths—Cromwell ruling in England, and the Grand-pensionary John de Witt having virtually the destinies of the United Provinces in his hands since the death of Frederick Henry's son, the last stadtholder before William III. Cromwell's Act of Navigation, which aimed at the destruction of Holland's monopoly in the carrying trade, led to the great naval war of 1652–54, during which twelve important battles, more or less decisive, were fought, and both nations distinguished themselves by the intrepid daring

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AMSTERDAM

of their commanders and seamanship. Yet otherwise the result was barren, though the names of De Ruyter, Tromp, Evertsen, and Van Galen shone forth ever afterward. These hostilities between Holland and England were renewed when Charles II had been restored by General Monk; but the war of 1664–67 remained as undecisive as its predecessor, despite De Ruyter's daring feat of sailing up the Medway, which caused for a while wild panic in the British capital.

Hostili-
ties with
England

An ensuing war with France, now allied with England against the United Provinces, was much more serious, as De Witt had done his best to strengthen the navy, but at the cost of a totally

War
with
France

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neglected army. The hosts of Louis XIV, under captains so famous as Conde and Turenne, made short work of all resistance that Holland could offer on land, although De Ruyter's fleet kept the allied squadrons at bay, and thus, probably, saved his country from political annihilation. At the most critical juncture a violent popular reaction set in against De Witt and his brother Cornelis, and in favor of the young Prince of Orange, who had been held back by their party. John De Witt, one of the most clear-headed and bold statesmen of his day, was murdered as a traitor by an infuriated mob at The Hague, and the stadtholdership re-established in the person of a prince then (1672) only twenty-two years of age. But the people's instinct had been right after all, for William III's accession proved the salvation of Holland, as it also accomplished, later on, the political regeneration of England. The fortunes of the war changed immediately with William at the head of affairs. He showed himself an able tactician and a still more skilful diplomatist. By dexterously maneuvering between Holland's enemies he managed to gain time and isolate France. At last, in 1678, Louis XIV was compelled to sign the treaty of peace of Nimeguen, as William had become, for the time being, the ally of the king of England, by his marriage with Mary, daughter of the Duke of York. William was not satisfied with what the peace of Nimeguen gave to Holland; and the following years were passed in preparing for the great events which he no doubt saw rapidly approaching. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes flooded Holland once more with political refugees, who here found a new fatherland, and who subsequently helped to fight the battles of Europe against their common tyrant. In the English Revolution of 1688 by William III, many of these Huguenots played an active and prominent part. To Holland the inauguration of the new era in England did not mean peace, but it meant an honorable alliance and security from further encroachments of the French king. The Dutch troops fought bravely in the battles of England, even after William's death in 1702.

The King
 Gains an
 Ally in
 England
 by Mar-
 riage

Dutch
 Troops
 Fight for
 England

Again a
 Republic

The Peace of Utrecht, in 1713, marks the close of Holland's activity as a great power in Europe. For her the eighteenth century was the century of demoralization and decay. After William's death she became a republic once more; the stadtholdership was re-established in 1747, but it made no difference in the down-

ward course. The National Convention of France having declared war against Great Britain and the stadtholder of Holland in 1793, French armies overran Belgium (1794); they were welcomed by the so-called patriots of the United Provinces, and William V and his family (January, 1795) were obliged to escape from Scheveningen to England in a fishing smack, and the French rule began. The United Provinces now became the Batavian republic, paying forty-two and a half millions of dollars for a French army of 25,000 men, beside giving up important parts of the country along the Belgian frontier. After several changes Louis Bonaparte, June 5, 1806, was appointed king of Holland, but, four years later, was obliged to resign because he refused to be a mere tool in the hands of the French emperor. Holland was then added to the empire, and formed into seven departments. The fall of Napoleon I and the dismemberment of the French empire led to the recall of the Orange family and the formation of the southern and northern provinces into the ill-managed kingdom of the Netherlands, which in 1830 was broken up by the secession of Belgium. In 1839 peace was finally concluded with Belgium; but almost immediately after national discontent with the government showed itself, and William I in 1840 abdicated in favor of his son. Holland being moved by the revolutionary fever of 1848, King William II granted a new constitution, according to which new chambers were chosen, but they had scarcely met when he died, March, 1849, and William III (born 1817) ascended the throne.*

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InvasionHolland
Annexed
to FranceOrange
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RecalledA New
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*The government of Holland is a limited constitutional monarchy. The modern Grondwet, or Constitutional Law of 1848, was altered in 1887 to suit new electoral and other requirements. The crown is the executive power; legislation is vested in the states-general. The king presides at a council of state, whose members are appointed by him. Its functions are similar to those of the privy-council in Britain. He also selects ministers, who countersign all royal decrees, and whose responsibility is settled by a special law. The states-general is divided into a first and a second chamber. The second chamber consists of one hundred members, the first chamber of fifty members, the former being elected by direct suffrage, the latter by the provincial councils from among the highest-taxed citizens in the state, or those that hold or have held important public posts. The members of the second chamber are elected for four years. Only male subjects thirty years old, in the full possession of their civic rights, are eligible. Each member receives by way of salary eight hundred and thirty dollars a year, and besides, a stipend for traveling and incidental expenses during each session. The members of the first chamber are elected for a term of nine years. No one can be a member of the two chambers simultaneously. Ministers may sit in both, but only possess a consultive voice. The second chamber alone has the right of amendment and of initiat-

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The bill for the emancipation of the slaves in the Dutch West Indian possessions, passed in 1862, decreed a compensation for each slave, and came into force in 1863. The expenses of this emancipation came to \$5,326,830, and the number of slaves set free was about 42,000, of whom 35,000 were in Dutch Guiana.

In 1863 the naval powers bought up the right of the king of Holland to levy toll on vessels navigating the river Scheldt, the king of Belgium binding himself also to reduce the harbor, pilot, and other charges on shipping within that kingdom.

Capital
Punish-
ment
Abol-
ished

In 1869 capital punishment was abolished. In 1872 a new treaty with England, defining and limiting the sphere of influence and action of Britain and Holland in the Indian Archipelago, and removing the restrictions of the treaty of 1824 as to Sumatra, was followed by a war with Atcheen, until then an independent Malay state in North Sumatra, a war that severely taxed the military and financial resources of the Dutch-Indian government.

New
Treaty
with
England

The present king having no living male issue, the succession to the crown was vested in the princess of Orange, Wilhelmina, the only child of King William's second marriage, born in 1880. Of late years the great question of internal politics has been the new constitution, which was duly promulgated November 30, 1887. This act increased the electorate of Holland by no less than 200,000 voters. A revisior of the school laws in a sectarian sense was carried early in December, 1889. Meanwhile in 1888, the queen, Emma of Waldeck, was appointed regent in the event of the king's demise, and a council of guardians named to assist her in the education of Princess Wilhelmina. In 1890 William III died, and his daughter became queen, still remaining under the regency of her mother. September 6, 1898, Wilhelmina was inaugurated Queen of the Netherlands.

William
III Dies
and his
Daughter
Becomes
Queen

ing legislation. All judges are appointed by the crown for life. There is a supreme tribunal (at The Hague), and ministers, members of the states-general, and certain high officials can be arraigned only before it. There is no state religion, but the state supports financially the different churches.



THE HISTORY OF BELGIUM.

INCLUDING FLANDERS

[*Authorities: Hymans, La Belgique Contemporaine* (1880); Wauters, *Le Belgique, Ancienne et Moderne* (1882 ff.); the *Annuaire Statistique*; and the histories by Juste; (4th ed. 1868), Moke (7th ed. 1881), and Hymans (5 vols. 1880); Allen (Grant), *the cities of Belgium*, London, 1897; Baedeker (K.), *Belgium and Holland*, 12th ed., Leipsic, 1897; Murray's *Handbook for Holland and Belgium*, London.]



B

ELGIUM is one of the smaller European states, consisting of the southern portion of the former kingdom of the Netherlands (as created by the Congress of Vienna), lying between France and Holland (*i. e.*, the present kingdom of the Netherlands), the North Sea and Rhenish Prussia. Its greatest length from northwest to southeast is 173 miles; and its greatest breadth from north to south, 105 miles. The history of Belgium prop-

Extent of Territory

erly dates from the year 1831, when the Southern Netherlands parted from Holland, and were constituted into a separate and independent kingdom. But it may be well to introduce our account of Belgian history with a brief sketch of its previous developments. On the downfall of the Roman empire, the Gallia Belgica of the Romans passed under the dominion of the Franks.

As the feudal system arose, the country was distributed under a number of dukes and counts with a considerable measure of local independence. These provinces were absorbed by the great house of Burgundy from 1385 onward, and they continued under that rule till the downfall of Charles the Bold in 1477. With his daughter Mary they then passed to the house of Hapsburg, and remained with the Spanish branch of that line till the Peace of Utrecht in 1713, being known as the Spanish Netherlands, to distinguish them from the northern provinces, which in the reign of

House of Burgundy

Peace of Utrecht

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Philip II, had revolted from Spain, and formed a Protestant republic, while the southern provinces continued subject to the Roman Catholic Church. In 1713, by the Peace of Utrecht, the Spanish provinces were transferred from Spain to Austria, as the Austrian Netherlands. The country was conquered by Pichegru in the campaign of 1794, and subsequently united to France by the treaties of Campo-Formio and Luneville. It now shared the fortunes of France during the consulate and the empire, received the Code Napoleon, and in all political relations was organized as



GATE TO FORTIFICATIONS, ANTWERP

The
 Battle-
 field of
 Europe

a part of France. After the fall of Napoleon it was united with Holland under Prince William-Frederick of Nassau, and its boundaries were defined by the Congress of Vienna, May 31, 1815. In the campaign of 1815 Belgium was once again, as it had often been, the "battle-field of Europe," and Belgian troops were present at Waterloo.

The union of what had been the Spanish or Austrian Netherlands to Holland in 1815 was from the first an arbitrary one, as the people of the northern and southern parts of the united kingdom differed essentially in religion, language, interests, and historic feeling. Nor was the policy of the Dutch fair or conciliatory.

The Dutch almost exclusively occupied the higher posts in the army and administration. The use of French in the southern provinces was discouraged, and the privileges of the Catholic clergy were curtailed. Old feelings of patriotism and the interests of self-government were equally disregarded. Thus Liberals and Catholics were alike ready to revolt against Dutch supremacy, and the concessions tardily made to satisfy the growing discontent did no good. The outbreak of the French revolution in 1830 set the example to the discontent across the frontier. On the king's birthday, August 24, 1830, several riots occurred in various towns of Belgium.

At this period, however, the idea of separation from Holland does not seem to have presented itself consciously to the Belgian mind; the deputies who were sent to The Hague to state the causes of the general dissatisfaction merely insisted on Belgium's possessing a separate administration, with the redress of particular grievances. But the dilatory and obstructive conduct of the Dutch deputies in the states-general assembled at The Hague on the 13th of September, together with the ill-advised occupation of Brussels by an army of 14,000 men, exasperated the Belgian nation beyond measure. A new and more resolute insurrection instantly took place. In seven days the people had deposed the old authorities, and appointed a provisional government. Prince Frederick, the son of the Dutch king, who commanded the troops, was compelled to retreat from Brussels to Antwerp, having suffered considerable loss. On the 4th of October Belgium was declared independent by the provisional government. The useless bombardment of Antwerp by the Dutch general Chasse, October 27, increased the bitterness of feeling, and rendered reconciliation wholly impossible. At the national congress of November 10, out of two hundred votes only thirteen were in favor of republican government.

Meanwhile, the London Congress had assembled, and after mature deliberation, the representatives of Austria, Prussia, Russia, and England, recognized the severance of the two kingdoms as a *fait accompli*, December 20. When the Belgian Congress met, it appointed Baron Surlet de Chokier provisional regent, but on June 4, 1831, it elected Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg king of the Belgians. Leopold entered Brussels on July 21, and subscribed the constitution. His marriage to a daughter of Louis Philippe

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Discon-
 tent

Revolt
 against
 Holland

Inde-
 pendence
 Declared

A King
 Elected

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BELGIUM
War Declared by Holland
Intervention by France and England

secured French support. Holland refused to acknowledge the validity of the decision of the London Congress, and declared war, which was speedily terminated by France and England — Holland securing that Belgium should annually pay 8,400,000 florins as interest for its share in the national debt of the Netherlands. And it was agreed by the powers that Belgium should remain an independent and perfectly neutral state. Holland, however, was still dissatisfied, and ventured to employ force. England and France were compelled to interfere. The French besieged and took Antwerp, still held by the Dutch troops; and the blockade of the coast of Holland having brought the Dutch to terms, the dispute was closed by a treaty signed in London, May 21, 1833.

Warlike Attitude again Shown
Treaty of Peace

In 1838, it seemed as if Holland and Belgium were likely to engage in war once more. According to the "twenty-four articles" of the "Definitive Treaty," Belgium was under obligation to give up Limburg and a part of Luxemburg during the above mentioned year. This it now refused to do, and put its army on a war-footing; but its obstinacy finally gave way to the unanimous decision of the five great powers, and on the 19th of April, 1839, a treaty of peace was signed at London, Belgium's annual share of the Netherlands' debt being at the same time reduced to five million florins; and both Limburg and Luxemburg being partitioned between Holland and Belgium.

After 1840, the opposition of the Catholic to the Liberal party became more and more decided, the educational laws not being satisfactory to the clergy, until, in July, 1845, the liberal Van de Weyer endeavored to confirm the so-called "union" of the two parties. In 1846 a purely Catholic ministry took office; but in 1847 a Liberal ministry was formed by Rogier. The revolutionary tempest of 1848 menaced the tranquillity of the country; but the king disarmed hostility by promptly declaring himself ready to retain or to surrender the crown of Belgium, according to the decision of the people.

Changing Ministries

In July, 1848, the elections greatly strengthened the liberal constitutional party, and in 1850 the educational question was supposed to be settled on soundly Liberal principles, but since then there has been a keen and continued struggle between Progressists and Ultramontanes, the balance of power shifting from time to time. Thus Liberal ministries have been in power from 1857 to

1864, and in 1878 (under Frere Orban); clerical ministers in 1870, 1876, 1880, and 1884, the education question being the chief bone of contention. On the death of Leopold I in 1865, his son succeeded as Leopold II. In 1861 Belgium took part in the London conference for settling the Luxemburg question, which threatened to plunge Europe in war, but did not sign the guarantee for the neutrality of Luxemburg. On the outbreak of the Franco-German war in 1870, the Belgians, fearing risks both from Prussia and from France, mobilized their army; but in a special treaty arranged

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 BELGIUM
Neutrality in Franco-German War



ROYAL THEATER, BRUSSELS

by England, both belligerents recognized anew the neutrality of Belgium, guaranteed in 1831 and 1839. In 1885 the Congo Free State, under the presidency of Leopold II, was acknowledged by the Powers. Although the country has on the whole steadily grown in prosperity, and constitutional principles* have been gen-

Industrial Riots

*The government of Belgium is a limited constitutional monarchy, and was established in its present form by the revolution of 1830. The succession is hereditary, females being excluded. The ministry includes departments for home affairs, finance, justice, public works, and war. The administration of justice is governed by the Code Napoleon. The legislative body consists of two chambers: the Senate, and a Chamber of Representatives, non-resident members of the latter body being paid a small salary during the

Government

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erally strengthened, yet 1886–87 witnessed industrial riots and socialist disturbances of a serious aspect, attended at Liege, Mons, Charleroi, and other places, with great violence. The king at the opening of the chambers in November promised that measures of reform should be introduced, and this had the effect of quelling the disturbances. In 1880 the jubilee of the state was celebrated with great enthusiasm.

Demands
 of
 Labor

Govern-
 ment
 Yields

Treaty
 with the
 United
 States

Brussels was chosen as the meeting-place of the International Anti-slavery Conference, and from November 18, 1889, until July, 1890, delegates from the leading nations of the civilized world considered the best measures for the suppression of the slave-trade in Africa. May 3, 1892, a long-standing socialistic agitation culminated in an attempt at wrecking by explosives the town hall at Liege. The contested point was the question of universal suffrage. From 1890 on there had been trouble between the laboring classes and the Chamber of Deputies, the Socialists demanding a revision of the constitution, and the Chambers universally rejecting the demands. Early in 1893, when it was seen that a revolution led by the determined Belgian workmen was the only alternative, the Chambers were forced to yield, and universal suffrage was granted. Late in the year 1897 a treaty between Belgium and the United States was concluded, by the terms of which the citizens of each country are exempt from military service while living within the jurisdiction of the other country.

session. According to the law amending the constitution, promulgated in 1893, the senate consists of members elected for eight years, partly directly and partly indirectly. The number of senators elected directly is in proportion to the population of each province, and is equal to half the number of members of the chamber of representatives. The latter are elected directly. The senate and chamber meet annually, and must remain in session for at least forty days; but the king has the power of convoking them on extraordinary occasions, and of dissolving them either simultaneously or separately.

FLANDERS

FLANDERS is a region of Europe now included in Holland, Belgium, and France, stretching along the German Ocean. It was originally inhabited by Belgic tribes, on whose subjection by one of Cæsar's lieutenants their territory was incorporated in Roman Gaul.

Under the supremacy of Rome they attained to a certain degree of civilization, being renowned for their agriculture, their industry, and their commerce. The region was afterward overrun by the Franks on their way to Gaul, many of them settling there permanently. By the Treaty of Verdun (843) Flanders was assigned to Neustria. The real nucleus of Flanders as a political state was the patrimony of a noble family whose possessions were grouped around Bruges and Sluys. In 862 the king of France, as suzerain, changed the title of the head of the family from forester, or ranger, to count. The first recipient of the honor was Baldwin I, Ironarm (837-877), who was likewise invested with the maritime region of Northeast France, on condition that he defended it against the Normans. His descendant, Baldwin IV (989-1036), having seized upon the emperor's town of Valenciennes in 1006, and proving himself able to keep what he had taken, was allowed to retain it (1007) as a feudatory of the empire. At the same time the emperor invested him with Ghent and the Zealand Islands (Walcheren, Beverland, etc.). Thus the Count of Flanders held of the emperor's as well as of the king of France. Under this count's son and successor, Baldwin V (1036-67), the county of Alost (Aalst), Tournai, and Hainault were added to the principality. On his death the Netherlands portion of Flanders was erected into an appanage for his younger son, Robert the Frisian, who on the death of his elder brother, Baldwin VI (1067-70), also wrested Flanders from Baldwin's widow Richilde, leaving to her and her son Hainault only.

From this time down to the end of the twelfth century the Flemish territories remained thus divided. The counts of Flanders of the tenth and eleventh centuries were active in promoting the well-being of their people; they built churches and monasteries, and encouraged the industries of the towns, whereby Flanders rose to be the chief center of woolen-weaving and fulling in Europe.

DIVISION III

EUROPE

ANCIENT
AND
MODERN

FLANDERS

Roman
Civiliza-
tion

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 FLANDERS

Part
 Taken in
 the
 Crusades

At this period Ghent, Arras, Courtrai, Lille, and Bruges were prospering cities, the centers of the intelligence and public spirit of the country. Robert II (1093–1111), son of Robert the Frisian, distinguished himself in the first crusade. His son, Baldwin VII (1111–1119), vigorously suppressed the private feuds of his nobles, and administered justice with remarkable severity. As he left no heir, the county was held by a succession of alien princes, as Charles of Denmark (1119–21); William, son of Robert of Normandy, till 1129; Thierry (Diedrich) of Alsace (1129–69), who took part in more than one crusade; and Thierry's son Philip (1169–91), who, besides championing the Christian faith against the Saracens, did much to foster industry and trade at home.

The accession of these foreign princes was turned to account by the Flemish cities, which extorted from them important charters of liberty and self-government. On Philip's death, Baldwin of Hainault reunited the two Flemish counties under one scepter. But he had a rival for Flanders proper in Philip of France, who, having married Baldwin's own daughter, the niece of Philip of Flanders, claimed this district as her dowry; and Baldwin was constrained to buy off his more powerful antagonist by the cession of the counties of Artois, a large part of Southern Flanders, and the towns of St. Omer, Hesdin, and some others. From this time forth Ghent superseded Arras as the capital. The next prince of Flanders was Baldwin IX (1194–1206), son of Baldwin of Hainault, who, after winning back from France most of southern Flanders (though not Artois), took the crusader's cross, and became the founder of the Latin empire of Constantinople. Baldwin was followed successively by his two daughters, Johanna (1206–43) and Margaret (1243–78), and by Margaret's son, Guy of Dampierre (1278–1305), who spent a large part of his life as a prisoner of France. Under these rulers the king of France first began to exercise a determining influence upon the government of Flanders. In 1256 the Zealand Islands were given to the Count of Holland, and to Holland they have ever since belonged. The next century presents a series of disputed successions, mostly fomented by the kings of France, who made strenuous efforts to unite Flanders to the French crown. The country was, in fact, divided between two streams of preponderating influence; on the one hand the nobles, headed by the counts, were enamored of

French
 Inter-
 ference

France and French society and French institutions (Leliaerts); and on the other the burghers of the towns (Claeuwaerts) clung tenaciously to their national independence and municipal freedom. It was the latter party that constituted the backbone and strength of the country. From the middle of the twelfth century the cities, growing more independent and more turbulent with the increase of wealth, began to play an increasingly important part in the politics of Flanders, warring one against another, and even waging civil strife within their own walls, taking up arms against their counts, and by their factions either consolidating or marring the fortunes of the rulers of the country. It was especially under Johanna and Margaret that the burghers of such cities as Bruges, Ypres, Ghent, and Lille made rapid progress in commercial prosperity and in the establishment of democratic principles of local government. Each of these cities possessed nearly 40,000 looms for weaving cloth; while Damme was a thriving seaport, doing a large shipping trade in wool, corn, cattle, beer, wine, etc. The struggle of the cities, represented chiefly by Bruges, Ghent, and Ypres, against the counts and other rulers, lasted more or less down to the Treaty of Utrecht (1713).

Philip IV of France, having for some years steadily fanned the dissension in Flanders, at length got Count Guy into his hands and took possession of his country (1300), which he governed by means of a regent, Chatillon. This man's oppressive rule, however, provoked a general revolt of the Flemings, who, in the Battle of Golden Spurs, fought near Courtrai on July 11, 1302, almost destroyed the army sent against them by the king of France. The contest continued until 1320, during all which time the Flemings successfully repelled the attempts of Philip to invade their country; and at last wholly shook off the claims of France. Under Louis, who became Count of Flanders in 1322, and who neglected his country to spend most of his time at the court of France, the cities frequently broke out into open revolt; Bruges even held Louis a prisoner for several months, nor were the rebels quelled except with the aid of a large French army (1328). In 1336 Jacon van Artevelde, who had acquired supreme influence and power in Ghent, induced the chief cities, in defiance of their count, to make an alliance with Edward III of England, to help him in his quarrel with France. From this time down to 1345, when he was slain

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Civil
 Strife

Prosper-
 ity of
 Cities

France
 Takes
 Posses-
 sion

A Revolt

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by a rival in Ghent, Van Artevelde was the real ruler of Flanders, though he found it an impossible task wholly to restrain the violence and disorder in the restless cities. Under Louis II, who succeeded his father, Louis I, in 1346, it was Ghent and Ypres that at first refused to submit to his rule.

Civil
 War

Then, in 1379, the keen rivalry of Ghent and Bruges came to a head in civil war, which soon swelled into a general uprising of the entire country, led by the Ghent captain of the White Caps, against the count. The people of Ghent held out stubbornly under Philip van Artevelde, who, however, was slain in battle against the French, November 27, 1382, at Roosbeke. Two years later Count Philip died, leaving an only daughter, married to Philip of Burgundy, with which duchy the history of Flanders became thenceforward intimately associated, until 1477, by the marriage of Mary of Burgundy to Maximilian of Austria, both states passed to the empire, Flanders becoming part of Austrian Netherlands. Against this arrangement France vainly protested; and in 1526 she was compelled finally to renounce her claims as suzerain. With the accession of Philip II to the throne of Spain, the history of Flanders becomes identical with that of the Spanish Netherlands.

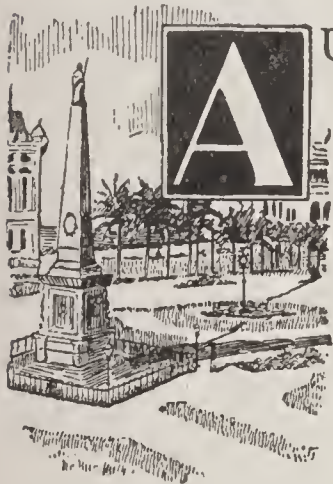
France
 Yields to
 Spain

By the Treaty of Westphalia, Dutch Flanders was transferred to the United Netherlands, while by the treaties of the Pyrenees (1659), Nimeguen (1678), and Utrecht (1713), Louis XIV succeeded in adding to France Artois and a large part of French Flanders. By this last treaty, and by that of Rastatt (1714), the rest of Flanders was assigned to Austria, and became known as the Austrian Netherlands. On the formation of the new kingdom of Belgium, in 1813, the provinces of East and West Flanders were incorporated with it.



THE HISTORY OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

[*Authorities:* Leger's *Histoire de l'Autriche-Hongrie* (Paris 1879; Eng. trans. 1888); Coxe's *History of the House of Austria*; Sayous, *Histoire des Hongrois* (Par. 1876), and works by Horváth, Szalay, Toldy; also Vanbéry, *Story of Hungary* (1886); Ray, (David), *Austria-Hungary*, London, 1880; Whitman (Sidney), *The Realm of the Hapsburgs*, 8, London, 1893; Worms (Baron Henry de), *The Austro-Hungarian Empire*, 8, London, 1877; Coldstream (J. P.), *The Institutions of Austria*, Westminster, 1895; Murray's *Handbook for South Germany and Austria*, two parts, 8, London; Felbermann (L.), *Hungary and its People*, London, 1892; Singer and Wolfner's *Handbook for Hungary and Budapest*, 8, London, 1896; Somogyi (E), Ludwig Kossuth, *Sein Leben und Werken*, 8, Leipsic, 1894.]



AUSTRIA-HUNGARY is a great European monarchy, which, since 1867, is composed of a union of two states under one emperor, but administratively distinct. The one is Austria, the other Hungary, and the lands of the Hungarian crown. The former comprises the western part of the empire, the latter the eastern and larger part. Hungary comprises the Transylvania, Croatia, Slavonia (nominally also Dalmatia), and Fiume.

Boundaries

It forms the realm of the crown of St. Stephen, which is a coequal factor with Austria in the empire kingdom, ruled over by the Hapsburg dynasty.

The two states form a union under one monarch for military, diplomatic, and customs purposes, but otherwise retain their distinct independence of each other.*

* Austria is a monarchy hereditary in the house of Hapsburg-Lorraine. In the case of the reigning family dying out, the states of Bohemia and of Hungary have the right of choosing a new king; but for the other crownlands, the last sovereign appoints his own successor. The reigning house must profess the Roman Catholic faith.

Government

Till 1848 Hungary and Transylvania had a constitution limiting the monarchy, which was absolute for the rest of the empire; though the several provinces had each its consultative council composed of clergy, nobles, and burghers. After the revolution of 1848,

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ANCIENT
AND
MODERNAUSTRIA-
HUNGARYBegin-
ning of
AustriaIncrease
in Power

AUSTRIA

The empire of Austria arose from the smallest beginnings at the end of the 8th century. In 796 a Margraviate, called the Eastern Mark (*i. e.*, March, or frontier land); was founded as an outpost of the empire of Charlemagne. The name Oestereich appears first in 996. In 1156 the mark was raised to a duchy; and after coming into the possession of the House of Hapsburg, in 1282, it rapidly rose to a powerful state. The princes of that house extended their dominion by marriage, by purchase, and otherwise, over a number of other states, and from 1438 held, almost without interruption, the throne of the German empire.

and the subsequent reaction, all marks of independence of the separate provinces disappeared. The imperial constitution granted March 4, 1849, as well as the provincial constitutions that followed, were abolished, and government was organized in the most absolute form by the imperial letters-patent of December 31, 1851. The different provinces of the monarchy were divided into circles, the chiefs of which were nominated by the central authority. All the machinery of a free and constitutional government was set aside. In order to support itself in this course, the government had to seek aid from the Catholic Church, with which it established the Concordat in 1855. By this agreement with Rome, Catholicism became a privileged religion, with control of education and of the censorship of books. Thus the reaction was complete. Of the reforms of 1848, there remained only one of importance, the abolition of serfdom.

Since the year 1867 a dual empire has existed, consisting of a German or "Cisleithan" monarchy, and a Magyar or "Transleithan" kingdom. Each of the two countries has its own laws, parliament, ministers, and government, and deals with the affairs exclusively relating to itself. The ministers for affairs common to the whole empire (foreign affairs, finance, army), are not responsible to either parliament but to the Delegations. The connecting link between the two portions of the empire is constituted by a body known as the Delegations. These form a parliament of 120 members; the one half is chosen by the legislature of Germanic Austria, which is represented by it, and the other half represents Hungary. The person of the sovereign is another link between the two members of the empire. The Magyars claim, under certain conditions, the right of freely electing their monarch. The Delegations have control of all matters affecting the common interests of the two countries, especially foreign affairs, war, and finance; and the ministries of these three departments are responsible for the discharge of their official functions to the Delegations, a committee of which sits permanently. The acts of the Delegations require to be confirmed by the representative assemblies of their respective countries; and in this manner it is attempted to leave the self-government of both Austria proper and Hungary free. These arrangements were determined by the famous *Ausgleich*, or agreement with Hungary in 1867. The government has frequently much difficulty in fixing its political and commercial policy so as to satisfy two parliaments with equal powers of control and different views; but the great influence of the crown generally suffices to prevent a deadlock.

The administration of Austria proper is divided among seven ministries: Public Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs, Agriculture, Finance, Interior, National Defense,

By the acquisition (1526) of the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary, Austria rose to the rank of a European monarchy. In 1804 Francis declared himself hereditary emperor of Austria, and in 1806 resigned the title of Emperor of Germany and King of the Holy Roman Empire, which then came to an end.

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 HUNGARY

In the earliest times, what is now Austria proper was inhabited by the Taurisci, a Celtic people; but their name subsequently disappeared before that of the Norici. After the conquest of the Norici by the Romans (14 B. C.), the country to the north of the Danube belonged to the kingdom of Marcomanni; on the south of the river lay the Roman provinces of Noricum and Pannonia, in which was the municipal city of Vindobona (Vienna). Tyrol formed part of Rhætia. All these boundaries were swept away by the irruption of the northern peoples; and the regions in question were occupied in succession, during the fifth and sixth centuries, by Boii, Vandals, Goths, Huns, Lombards, and Avars. After the Lombards had settled in Italy, the Enns, about 568, became the boundary between the Bavarians and the Avars. In 796 the armies of Charlemagne destroyed the Avars, and as a bulwark of his empire in that quarter, established the East Mark, which formed the nucleus of the Austrian empire, just as the Mark of Brandenburg grew into the modern Prussia. The East Mark was at first of small and varying dimensions. Early in the tenth century it was almost effaced by the Hungarians, then newly arrived in their present seats; but Otto I having defeated them in the battle of Augsburg (955), reunited the country to Germany.

Earliest
 Peoples

In 983 Otto appointed Leopold of Babenburg margrave of the reconquered province, whose dynasty ruled Austria for 260 years.

Commerce, and Justice. Formerly the ministry was merely the collective organ of the emperor, and was responsible to him alone. But a bill passed by the Reichsrath in 1867, and sanctioned by the emperor, renders it responsible to parliament.

The Reichsrath consists of an upper and a lower house. The upper house is composed of the princes of the imperial family who are of age, of upward of fifty nobles, ten archbishops, seven bishops, and 105 life-members, nominated by the emperor. The lower house numbers 353 members, elected by voters of each country, arranged in the four classes of great proprietors, towns, commerce, and rural districts. In the first three classes the voting is direct; in the last, indirect. To give validity to bills passed by the Reichsrath, the consent of both chambers is required, as well as the sanction of the emperor. Thus the government of Austria is both representative and constitutional. The executive of Austria is carried on in the name of "the king," by a responsible ministry.

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 HUNGARY
 Vienna
 Founded

Under Henry Jasomirgott (1141-77), the Mark above the Ens was annexed to the lower Mark, the united province raised to a duchy, and important privileges conferred on the newly named duke and his heirs. This Henry Jasomirgott took part in the second crusade; and he was one of the founders of Vienna. Under his successors, large additions (Styria, Carniola) were made to the possessions of the house. Leopold VI undertook numerous expeditions against the Hungarians and Mussulmans, and is reckoned the best of the Babenburg princes. The line became extinct with his successor, Frederick, who fell in battle with the Magyars (1246).

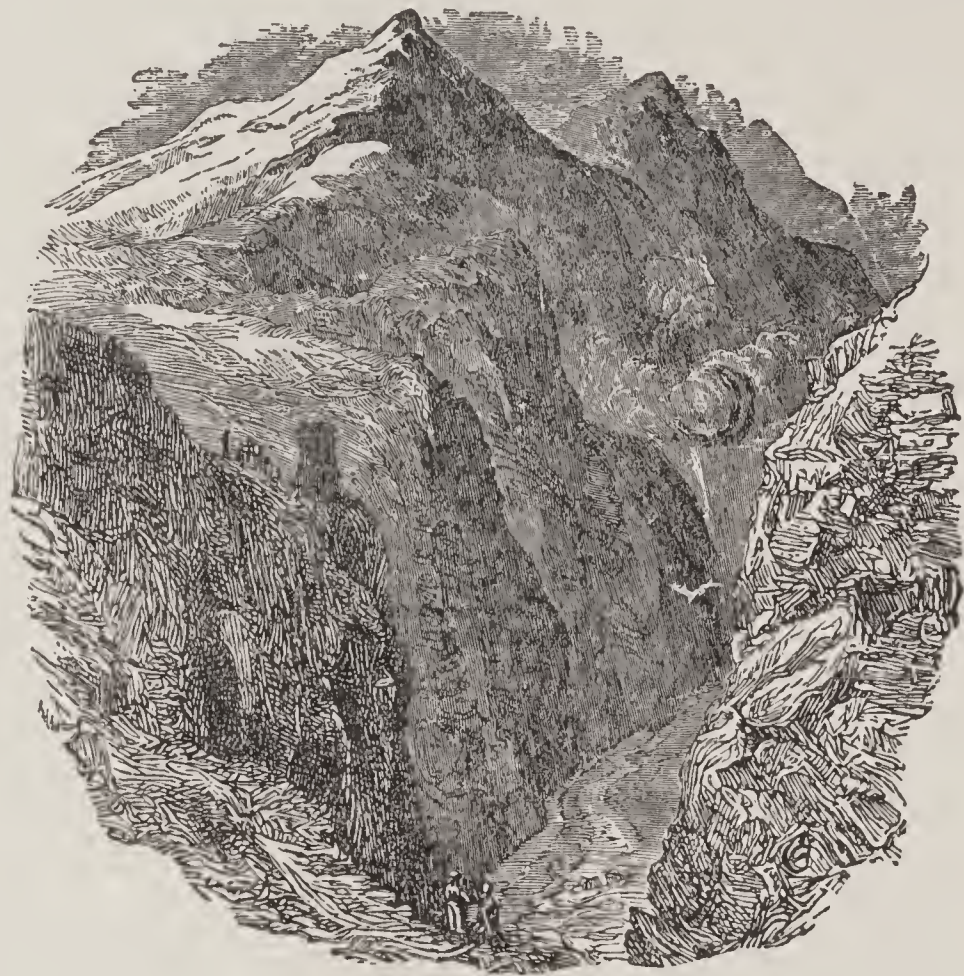
Empire
 Falls
 to the
 House of
 Haps-
 burg

Then followed an interregnum from 1246 to 1282. The emperor Frederick II at first treated the duchy as a lapsed fief of the empire; but in the distracted condition of affairs, the Estates of Austria and Styria chose Ottokar of Bohemia as duke, who made good his nomination about 1260. Ottokar, refusing to acknowledge Rudolf of Hapsburg as emperor, was defeated, and lost his life and possessions, in the great battle of the Marchfield (1278), and the emperor elect, as head of the Holy Roman Empire, shortly afterward (1282) bestowed the vacant fiefs of Austria, Styria, and Carinthia, on his sons Rudolf and Albert. These duchies were afterward united in the possession of Albert.

The King
 Slain by
 His
 Nephew

Since the year 1282 the house of Hapsburg has ruled Austria, and has been associated with all its subsequent greatness and vicissitudes. Albert, the first duke of the line, had many difficulties to contend with, especially among his subjects, who insisted on their old privileges, but he energetically asserted his authority. He was murdered in 1308 by his own nephew. Of his five sons, Frederick was chosen (1314) by a party to the imperial throne, but was defeated (1322) by his rival, Louis of Bavaria. Duke Leopold was defeated at Morgarten (1315) in his attempt to reduce the Swiss cantons that had thrown off their allegiance to Albert I. In 1330 Albert II, another of the sons of the first Albert, succeeded to the duchy, and considerably increased the possessions of the house. After his death (1358), two of his sons, Rudolf and Albert III, successively followed in the duchy of Austria. Another son, Leopold, held the other lands, but lost his life at Sempach, in seeking to regain the Hapsburg possessions in Switzerland. The posterity of Albert III and Leopold respectively formed the two

lines of Austria and Styria. During the reign of Albert III, Tyrol and other districts were ceded to Austria. After his death (1395) the dukedom was held by his son, Albert IV. Albert V, who succeeded his father in 1404, by marrying the daughter of the emperor Sigismund, succeeded (1438) to the throne of Hungary and Bohemia, and was at the same time raised to the dignity of German emperor, as Albert II. After his death in 1439, Bohemia and Hungary were lost to the house of Austria; but the imperial dignity was henceforth associated with it. With Ladislaw, Albert's son, the Austrian line of the house closed (1457), and their possessions went to the Styrian line. Of this line was the emperor Frederick III, who raised the dignity of the house by making Austria an archduchy. Through the death of the other members of the house, Frederick succeeded in uniting the domains of Austria, curtailed, however, by the loss of the family possessions in Switzerland. He was succeeded in 1493 by his son Maximilian I.



PASS OF THE BALKAN

The rise of Austria and of the House of Hapsburg to historical eminence may be said to date from the reign of Maximilian I (1493-1519). By marrying Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold (1477), he acquired possession of the Netherlands. Through the marriage of their son Philip with Joanna of Spain, the House of Austria and Spain were united. As Philip died in 1506, his elder son, the celebrated Charles V, became heir to the united monarchies, and was elected emperor of Germany in 1519. Thus by a succession of fortunate marriages the house of Hapsburg became

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Begin-
 ning of
 His-
 torical
 Emi-
 nence

Austria
 and
 Spain

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Turks
 Secure
 Part of
 Hungary

Partition
 of the
 Empire

the most powerful dynasty in the world. Charles V, however, resigned all his German territories to his younger brother, Ferdinand I, who was thus the continuation of the Austrian branch of the line. Under Ferdinand the power of Austria greatly increased, for circumstances were now to put her into the dangerous but honorable and finally powerful position of bulwark of Christian Europe against the Turks. Ferdinand had married the sister of Louis, king of Bohemia and Hungary, and when Louis fell in the disastrous battle of Mohacs (1526), he claimed both these kingdoms. His claim to Hungary was contested by John Zapolya, who secured the aid of the great Turkish sultan, Soliman, the victor of Mohacs. Soliman accordingly invaded Hungary with a powerful army, and crushing all resistance, marched as far as Vienna, but failed in his siege of the capital (1529). Only a small part of upper Hungary remained with Ferdinand, the rest of the country being subject to Turkey till near the close of the seventeenth century. Even the portion of Hungary that he held was a precarious possession, for which, in 1547, he promised to pay an annual tribute of 30,000 ducats. On the abdication of Charles V (1556), Ferdinand succeeded to the imperial dignity; he died in 1564 with the reputation of a good ruler, one strongly conservative of everything established, though he introduced the Jesuits. During his reign, however, the Reformation* had made wonderful progress in the Austrian states.

In the partition of the inheritance that took place among Ferdinand's three sons, the eldest, Maximilian II, received the imperial crown along with Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia; the second, Ferdinand, Tyrol and upper Austria; the third, Charles, got Styria, Carinthia, etc. Maximilian had his eldest son, Rudolf, crowned king of Hungary in 1572, and shortly after, of Bohemia, and also chosen king of the Romans. But his attempt to bring the crown of Poland into his house failed. Maximilian II was fond of peace, tolerant in religion, and a just ruler. He died in 1576; and of his five sons, the eldest, Rudolf II, became emperor. Under him, the possessions of Archduke Ferdinand of Tyrol, who had married Philipine Welser, the beautiful daughter of an Augsburg burgher, reverted to the other two lines, Ferdinand's children not being considered noble. Rudolf II was negligent, leaving everything to

* See Vol. III, p. 1084.

his ministers and the Jesuits. His war with the Porte and Transylvania brought him little credit; and the Protestants of Bohemia, oppressed by the Jesuits, extorted from him a charter of religious liberty. In 1608 he was obliged to cede Hungary, and, in 1611, Bohemia and Austria to his brother Matthias.

Matthias, who became emperor in 1612, ceded Bohemia and Hungary to his cousin Ferdinand, son of the Archduke Charles of Styria, third son of Maximilian II.

Bohemia refused to acknowledge Matthias' successor, Ferdinand II, to whom all the Austrian possessions had again reverted, and chose the elector Palatine, Frederick V, the head of the Protestant Union, as king. This election gave the signal for the Thirty Years' war, in which the house of Austria took the lead, both as the champion of Catholicism, and the head of a power which aimed at universal domination in Germany and in the Christian world. The battle of Prague (1620) subjected Bohemia to Ferdinand, who formally set about rooting out Protestantism in that country and in Moravia. The emperor also succeeded in extorting acknowledgment of his sovereignty from the states of Austria; and here, too, Protestantism, which had made great progress since the time of Luther, was mercilessly suppressed. Under Ferdinand's successor, the Emperor Ferdinand III (1637-1657), Austria continued to be a theater of war; and at the Peace of Westphalia (1648) had to cede Alsace to France. Ferdinand III's son and successor, Leopold I, provoked the Hungarians to rebellion by his severity. Tekeli received aid from the Porte, and Kara Mustapha besieged Vienna (1683), which was rescued only by an army of Poles and Germans under John Sobieski hastening to its assistance. After this great deliverance of Vienna, the Turkish power continually declined. In 1686 they lost Buda, after having occupied it for nearly one hundred and fifty years. Repeated defeats from the Austrian troops under Louis of Baden and the famous Prince Eugene compelled them to submit to the treaty of Carlowitz (1699), by which they were almost entirely cleared out of Hungary, Transylvania, and Croatia, and the Hapsburg dominions nearly advanced to their present frontiers. The struggle between Leopold and Louis XIV of France for the heirship to the king of Spain, led to the war of the Spanish Succession during which Leopold died in 1705.

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AND
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Years'
WarWar of
Spanish
Succession

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HUNGARY

His eldest son and successor, the enlightened Joseph I, continued the war. He died childless in 1711, and was succeeded by his brother, Charles VI. The peace of Rastadt, which concluded the war of the Spanish Succession in 1714, secured to Austria the Netherlands, Milan, Mantua, Naples, and Sicily. In the following years, its power on the Lower Danube was extended by the great victories of Prince Eugene, who completely defeated the Turks, took Belgrade, and compelled them to accept the disadvantageous peace of Passarowitz (1718). But these advantages were lost in a subsequent war, concluded by the Peace of Belgrade (1739) when that fortress and other conquests of Eugene were restored to Turkey.

With the death of Charles VI, in 1740, the male line of Hapsburgs became extinct, and his daughter, Maria Theresa, who was married to the Duke of Lorraine, assumed the government. For many years it had been the aim of Charles to secure the adhesion of the European powers to the Pragmatic Sanction, by which the possession of the Austrian crown should pass to Maria Theresa. These powers during his lifetime had promised to second his wishes, but he was no sooner in his grave than nearly all of them sought to profit by the accession of a female sovereign. A great war arose, in which England alone sided with Maria. Frederick II of Prussia conquered Silesia. The elector of Bavaria was crowned king of Bohemia, and elected emperor as Charles VII, in 1742. The Hungarians, however, stood by their heroic queen, who was soon able to wage a fairly successful war against her numerous foes. At the general Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, the powers of Austria remained unbroken, except that it had been obliged to give up Silesia to Prussia, and a few districts of northern Italy to her rivals there. At the death of Charles VII in 1745, the husband of Maria Theresa was elected emperor of Germany, as Francis I. The empress-queen, however, was not content with the loss of Silesia, and in 1756 entered into alliance with France, Russia, Saxony, and Sweden against Frederick. The result of the Seven Years' war, which now ensued, was to confirm Prussia in the possession of Silesia. At Francis' death (1765), his son, Joseph II, became German emperor, and joint-regent with his mother, of the hereditary states. Collateral branches of the house of Austria sprang from the younger sons of Maria Theresa, the

Seven
Years'
War

Archduke Leopold in Tuscany, and the Archduke Ferdinand. In the first partition of Poland (1772) Austria acquired Galicia and Lodomeria, and the Bukowina was ceded by the Porte in 1777. The administration of Maria Theresa was distinguished by unwonted unity and vigor, both in home and foreign affairs.

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Her successor, Joseph II, was an active reformer in the spirit of the enlightened despotism of the times, though often rash and violent in his mode of proceeding. He introduced economy into every department, relaxed the censorship of the press, granted liberties and rights to Protestants, abolished a great number of monasteries, and revised the school system. His protective system of duties gave a start to native manufactures. But his reforming zeal and passion for uniformity excited opposition; the Netherlands rose in insurrection, and other disturbances broke out, which hastened his end (1790).

Joseph II

He was succeeded in the government by his brother, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, as German emperor, Leopold II, who succeeded in pacifying the Netherlands and Hungary. The fate of his sister, Marie Antoinette, and her husband, Louis XVI, led Leopold to an alliance with Prussia against France; but he died in 1792 before the war broke out. War was declared by France on his son, Francis II, the same year. By the treaty of Campo Formio, 1797, Austria lost Lombardy and the Netherlands, receiving in lieu the Venetian territory. In 1795, at the second partition of Poland, it had been augmented by West Galicia. Francis, in alliance with Russia, renewed the war with France in 1799, which was ended by the peace of Luneville. It is needless to follow all the alterations of boundary that the Austrian dominions underwent during these wars. The most serious was at the Peace of Vienna (1809), which cost Austria 42,000 square miles of territory. It was in 1804, when Napoleon had been proclaimed emperor of France, that Francis declared himself hereditary emperor of Austria as Francis I. On the establishment of the Confederation of the Rhine, he laid down the dignity of German emperor, which his family had held for nearly four hundred years.

Leopold II

The humiliating Peace of Vienna was followed (1809) by the marriage of Napoleon with the Archduchess Maria Louisa; and in 1812 Austria figured as the ally of Napoleon in his great campaign against Russia, but she did not give much active assistance. In

Austria
 Unites
 with
 France
 Then
 Turned
 against
 Her

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August of the following year Austria joined the grand alliance against France; and the Austrian general, Schwarzenberg, was entrusted with the chief command of the allied forces which, at the battle of Leipsic and in the campaign of 1814, broke the power of Napoleon. The sacrifices and great services rendered by Austria in the gigantic struggle received full consideration at the Treaty of Vienna (1815). As recompense for the loss of the Netherlands, she received Venice and Dalmatia, which afforded an outlet for

her foreign trade.

After that time Austria exerted a powerful influence in European politics generally, and more especially in the German Confederation, of which her emperor was president; and that influence was uniformly hostile to constitutionalism. The death of Francis I, in 1835, made little alteration in the policy of Austria; Ferdinand I trod in his father's footsteps. The political alliance with Russia and Prussia was drawn closer by a personal conference of the emperor with Nicholas

Austria
 a Power
 in Europe



LEOPOLD II

I and Frederick William III at Teplitz in 1833. The wonted calm was interrupted in 1840 by the war against Ibrahim Pasha in Syria, in which Austria took part in union with England.

But during this long peace, the internal condition of the empire was coming to a crisis. The stifling bureaucratic system of government and police supervision had produced only irritation and discontent, and was powerless to compress the fermentation. A Polish insurrection in 1846 led to the incorporation of Cracow with the monarchy. But the opposition to Austrian rule in Italy, Hungary, and Bohemia became uncontrollable; even in Lower

Internal
 Strife

Austria the Estates were among the foremost to urge reform in the direction of constitutionalism. In Austria, the revolutionary period of 1848-49 was one of exceptional severity, the movement for constitutional freedom being complicated by the revival of the national spirit in Hungary, Italy, and Bohemia. The time was everywhere ripe for revolt, when the fall of Louis Philippe (February 24, 1848) gave the signal for the outbreak of the revolutionary elements all over Europe. Nowhere was the spirit of change stronger than in Vienna, which for many months became a scene of confusion. A period of addresses and petitions for liberal reform was followed in March by a popular movement in the capital, to which the government and military, after a feeble resistance, succumbed. The downfall of the old system was marked by the flight of Metternich, the Austrian premier, to England, by the arming of the citizens, by the granting of the freedom of the press, and other popular measures. At the same time, the opposition in Hungary had carried their demand for an independent ministry responsible to a national diet, and the emperor was not in a position to withstand it. The 22d of March saw the insurrection break out at Milan, and Radetzky, the military commander, forced to retire on Verona. Venice rose at the same time and drove out the Austrians. The Austrian power and system of government had in fact broken down.

The central power at Vienna was in a state of collapse, and the authority passed into the hands of the national guards and the students' legion (the Aula). Further troubles in the capital led to the flight of the court to Innsbruck. A Slavic insurrection broke out in Prague after Easter, which, however, was repressed with bloody severity by Prince Windischgratz. While the emperor was lingering at Innsbruck, leaving Vienna in the power of the populace, and the Hungarians were pursuing an independent course, it was in Italy that the power of Austria began to recover ground. Radetzky had at first been reduced to maintain a defensive position at Verona, against the revolutionary forces led by Charles Albert of Sardina. But in the course of the summer he took the offensive against the Sardinians, and defeated them at Custozza. The fruits of the victory were the dissolution of Charles Albert's army, and truce which again delivered Lombardy to Austria.

In the meantime, the army was more powerless than ever. The

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1848-49Austrian
Power
Broken

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emperor remained at Innsbruck, and a constituent diet was opened in July by the Archduke John, as his representative. But order was never permanently restored, and affairs were brought to a crisis by the proceedings in Hungary. Jellachich, Ban of Croatia, refused obedience to the Hungarian government, a course which, while openly condemned, was secretly encouraged by the Austrian court. The Archduke Palatin, Stephen, left Hungary, after a last attempt at conciliation; and the emperor, who had returned to Vienna after repeated invitations, named Count Lamberg commissioner, with the supreme command in Hungary. Lamberg, however, was murdered on the bridge of Pesth (September 28). Though the dissolution of the Hungarian parliament was now declared, it continued its sittings, and appointed Kossuth president of the committee of defense. The leaders of the popular movement in Vienna were in sympathy with Hungary, and when the imperial troops were ordered to suppress the national rising there, the citizens again rose in insurrection. The arsenal was stormed, and the war-minister, Latour, murdered; the court fled to Olmutz, a committee of safety was appointed, the armed populace organized, and the Polish general, Bem, put at the head of military affairs. In the meantime, the military forces had withdrawn from the capital, and joined Jellachich, in order to prevent the Hungarians coming to the aid of the Viennese. Windischgratz now laid siege to the capital, which surrendered at the end of October, after a resistance of eight days. The reaction was triumphant, and the leaders of revolt severely punished; but as Ferdinand had not shown sufficient vigor in the great crisis, he was persuaded to abdicate, and Francis Joseph was declared emperor at the age of eighteen. Thus restored, the central authority had now to assert itself in Hungary, and to complete the reconquest of northern Italy. In the former country the imperial troops had at first met with great success and retaken the capital, but they could not maintain themselves there. In Italy, Radetzky made his rapid and decisive campaign of 1849, and, by the victory of Novara, completed the overthrow of Sardinia. With the surrender of Venice, which took place in August, the subjugation of Italy was complete. At the same time Austria opposed a federation of states under the leadership of Prussia, and managed to thwart the conferring of the empire of Germany on the Prussian king.

Recon-
 quest of
 Northern
 Italy and
 Sardinia

In Hungary, the Magyars, though the Germans and Slavs within the country itself were hostile to them, began the campaign of

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FRANCIS JOSEPH I, EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA AND KING OF HUNGARY

1849, with decided success. Bem conquered Transylvania. These and other successes encouraged Kossuth to proclaim the deposition of the house of Hapsburg, and the re-establishment of Hun-

Hungary
 Declares
 Inde-
 pendence

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Hungary
 Con-
 quered

gary as a separate state. Buda was retaken from the imperial troops, which were driven back on Presburg. But the government had already solicited the aid of Russia, whose armies, entering Transylvania and Hungary, added to the imperial cause the irresistible weight of numbers. Surrounded on every side by superior forces, the Hungarians were completely beaten. It was in vain that Kossuth transferred the dictatorship to General Gorgei, who either in treachery or from necessity, as he himself averred, laid down his arms to the Russians at Villagos (August 13). The surrender of Komorn, in September, completed the subjugation of Hungary, which was treated as a conquered country.

The ten years which followed the revolutionary troubles in 1848 were a period of reaction and of absolutism. A constitution which had been granted in 1849 was soon annulled. The policy pursued was one of strong centralization under a bureaucratic government, by which the claims of nationality and of freedom were alike disregarded. Liberty of the press and trial by jury were set aside. A rigorous system of police was maintained. The aim was to Germanize the whole empire, and to crush the aspirations of both Slavs and Hungarians. As the Catholic church pronounced against national freedom, and supported the central authority, it received the greatest privileges by the Concordat of 1855. The result of all these proceedings was only to irritate the national feeling in Hungary, Italy, and Bohemia. The finances, too, notwithstanding vigorous measures for improving the material resources of the country, continued in a bad state, so that incessant loans were required to cover the current deficit.

Austria
 Prevails
 in Ger-
 man Con-
 federa-
 tion

On the confused arena of German politics, the struggle for ascendancy was kept up between Austria and Prussia. In 1850 the two powers were armed and ready to come to blows with reference to the affairs of Hesse-Cassel; but the bold and determined policy of Schwarzenberg prevailed, and Prussia gave way. For a few years longer the preponderance of Austria in the German Confederation was secured.

During the Crimean war, Austria had a very difficult part to play. It felt its indebtedness on the one hand to Russia for help in the great crisis of 1849, on the other it could not, without uneasiness, see the development of Russian power in the Balkan Peninsula. It occupied the Danubian principalities with the con-

sent of Turkey, but otherwise remained neutral in action. Yet its whole influence was thrown into the scale against Russia. The Crimean war was not brought to a termination without disclosing a power which was to break the Austrian domination in Italy. Under the leadership of Cavour, Sardinia had taken part in the war, and had again brought the Italian question to the front. The rule of Austria in Italy had always been unsatisfactory. From her own provinces in Venice and Lombardy she controlled the policy of the courts of Central and Southern Italy, and her influence tended invariably toward the suppression of national feeling and popular liberty. Sardinia was the only state that worthily represented the spirit of the Italian people. In the spring of 1859 it began to arm against Austrian supremacy. Austria demanded immediate disarmament on pain of war; but Sardinia refused. Austria accordingly commenced hostilities by crossing the Ticino, at the end of April, 1859. Sardinia, having secured the aid of France, the Austrians were defeated, and their emperor was fain to conclude an armistice with Napoleon. On the 12th of the same month, the two potentates met at Villafranca, and concluded a peace, the chief condition of which was the cession of Lombardy to Sardinia. Venice was all that remained of the Italian possessions in Austria.

The rivalry of Prussia and Austria for influence in the Germanic body of states dated from the rise of Prussia to be a leading power. The arrangement of Olmutz in 1850 had left a painful feeling of humiliation in the minds of the Prussian statesmen. The long rivalry was now to be brought to a decisive issue. In 1864 the combined Prussian and Austrian forces drove the Danes out of Sleswick-Holstein, but the two victors quarreled about the subsequent arrangements. War was declared, and in 1866 the Austrian armies in Bohemia were completely beaten by the Prussians, in a campaign of seven days, which closed with the great defeat of Königgrätz, or Sadowa. The middle states of Germany which supported Austria were occupied by Prussia. Sardinia, which had formed an alliance with Prussia, was, however, defeated at Custozza. The result of the conquest was to exclude Austria from Germany, and she had to hand over to Sardinia the Province of Venetia, a cession by which she was also excluded from Italy. Thus was Austria finally shut out from the scenes where for gene-

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Sardinia
 Rebels
 Success-
 fully

Rivalry
 of
 Prussia
 and
 Austria

Austria
 Shut Out
 of
 Germany
 and
 Italy

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rations she had not unsuccessfully striven to uphold her supremacy. The sphere of development remaining to her was to be found in her own circle of states, and in the East.

Since the great war of 1866, the history of Austria has been concerned chiefly with two important interests. In the first place, the government had to attempt an arrangement of the conflicting claims and rights of the peoples constituting the empire; in the second place it has had to establish working relations with the great neighboring powers, Germany and Russia, and especially with the latter on the "Eastern Question." After the collapse of 1866, the most enlightened Austrian statesmen saw that the true policy of the empire could no longer consist in repressing national claims and constitutional freedom. During the last war, the feeling in Hungary had been luke-warm, and even actively hostile to Austria. The Saxon Count, Beust, who was now called to be the head of the Austrian foreign office, advised that an understanding with Hungary was essential. The same policy found a firm and judicious advocate in Francis Deak, an influential Hungarian. The political independence of Hungary was recognized, and the emperor was crowned king of Pesth in accordance with the old historic rites (1867). Soon thereafter he sanctioned the decisions of the Hungarian Diet concerning the relations of the kingdom of Hungary with the other countries of the empire. Such was the famous *Augsleich*, or agreement between Hungary and Austria proper, which has since been in force, and on the whole has worked very well. It has at least been a great improvement on the previous condition of chronic ill-feeling on the part of Hungary. Within the territories of Austria proper there has been a large development of constitutional freedom. At the end of 1867, the first parliamentary ministry in Cisleithania was formed. The Concordat was set aside. Education was freed from the control of the Catholic Church. Marriage was placed under the jurisdiction of the civil power. The press laws were relaxed. Finally, the Prussian system of military organization was introduced. In Austria itself, however, there are national claims which have not, as in the case of Hungary, been satisfied. Bohemia especially has insisted on its old historic rights, but without success; for besides other reasons, the question is complicated by the presence of about two million Germans on Bohemian soil. The Slav element in Austro-Hungary which is so large,

Many
 Recent
 Reforms

which is partially discontented and more or less disposed to look toward Russia as the head or center of their race, is an admitted source of weakness and danger to the empire. Some of her statesmen have advocated a system of Federalism as the only method of reconciling the diverse national claims with the existence of the empire. The attempt to release it in 1871 failed, owing to the opposition of the Germans and Magyars.

In the foreign affairs of Austria, the chief aim has been to find a *modus vivendi* with Germany and Russia. Since 1861, an informal alliance has subsisted between the empire and Germany; and the participation of Russia constituted for a time an alliance of the three rulers. But the "Eastern Question" is a continual source of difficulty between Russia and Austria. In the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78, Austria's difficulties were aggravated by the strongly expressed sympathy of the Magyars with the Turks; and the development of Russian schemes in Bulgaria further strained relations. Bismarck gave Austria the support of Germany by a formal but secret alliance, concluded in October, 1879, which was published only in February, 1888, when military movements in Russia, with defensive measures in Germany and Austria, were pointing to the likelihood of war. The treaty bound Austria and Germany to regard an attack by Russia, on either state, as an attack on itself.

Since the exclusion of Austria from the Italian peninsula, her relations with the new kingdom have generally been harmonious. Her true sphere is now recognized to lie in the southeast, in the valley of the lower Danube, and in the Balkan peninsula. But for the efficient fulfilment of this great mission, she is not a little weakened by the conflicting claims and interests of the nationalities that exist within her borders. Till they are reconciled, the position of the Austro-Hungarian empire must be regarded as unstable and uncertain.

In 1893 Bohemia was the scene of riots caused by the demonstration of the Home Rule Party. The rioters were arrested and punished by the authorities. In 1894 religious questions caused a great deal of trouble in Austria-Hungary. The wrangling led to the adoption of a civil marriage bill, and also to the resignation of Dr. Wekerle, the Liberal chancellor. Anarchists caused disturbances in the same year, and several of the malcontents were

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The
 Eastern
 Question
 a Source
 of
 Trouble

DIVISION III brought to trial at Vienna. In the closing months of 1897 there was serious trouble between the Germans in Austria and the Bohemians, the latter people demanding the recognition of the

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EMPRESS ELIZABETH AMALIE EUGENIE

Czech as the official language of Bohemia. As this would render many Germans ineligible for political positions, great opposition was aroused among the Austrian Germans. The Reichsrath was in a turmoil during its entire session, and there were frequent riots at Prague.

September 10, 1898, at a time when the jubilee festivities in honor of the fiftieth anniversary of Emperor Francis Joseph's reign were being celebrated, the news came from Geneva of the assassination, by an Italian anarchist, of the Empress Elizabeth. In the fall of 1898 the relations existing between Austria and Germany were considerably strained, owing to the expulsion from Prussia of Austrian Slavs. Germany's ostensible reason was that the Slavs, while in Prussian territory, retained their allegiance to Austria and fostered a dangerous anti-German spirit.

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HUNGARY**Empress
Elizabeth
Assassi-
nated**

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St.
Stephen"Golden
Bull"

BUT little is known of the history of the Hungarians previous to their appearance in Europe in 884. They are generally believed to be the descendants of Scythians, and to have come from the regions about the Caspian Sea. They first settled along the Middle Volga, but, having been pressed westward, they in 889 crossed the Carpathian Mountains under Almos, and under the further leadership of his son Arpad, they conquered the ancient Pannonia and Dacia of the Romans; and this, their new country, was in the year 1000 formed into a regular kingdom by Stephen. For his merits in Christianizing his people, Stephen was afterward created a saint, and received from Pope Sylvester II the title of Apostolic King and a crown, both of which have been worn by all the kings of Hungary to the present day. The Hungarians were at first an extremely warlike and even savage tribe; and not content with subduing the various nationalities inhabiting the ancient Roman provinces, they made frequent expeditions into Germany and Italy, destroying the early results of Christian civilization. All this, however, ceased on and even before the accession of Stephen, who turned his attention solely to the consolidation of Christianity, interior order, and prosperity. Within two decades after his death (1038) two attempts were made to overthrow Christianity, and to re-establish paganism, but only with very slight and temporary success. Under Bela I (1061-63), Ladislaus the Saint (1077-95), and Coloman the Learned (1095-1114), the country made very marked progress. The reign of Andrew II is remarkable on account of the nobles having extorted from him in 1222 the "Golden Bull," or Hungarian Magna Charta, the privileges of which were in 1231 extended to the clergy and lower nobility. The "Golden Bull" conferred many personal and material advantages on the nobles, and also contained a guarantee for the annual convocation of the diet; it conceded the right of armed resistance to any illegal acts of the king. During the reign of Bela IV (1235-70) Hungary was devastated by a terrible Mongol invasion. To replace part of the population cruelly massacred by the Asiatic savages Bela introduced German colonists; hence the German-speaking communities in Hungary to the present day. By the death of Andrew III, in 1301, the house of Arpad became extinct, and the

throne of Hungary became an object of rivalry between various foreign potentates. After many vicissitudes, Hungary was fortunate enough to find a worthy king in the person of Charles Robert of Anjou (1308–42), who did much to place his adopted country on a level with more civilized Western nations. His son, Louis the Great, made Hungary the most powerful nation of the period in central Europe. After the death of Ladislaus Posthumus (1457), Matthias Corvinus, the son of Hunyady, the great anti-Turkish hero, and regent during that king's minority, was elected king. Under his reign Hungary attained to the pinnacle of fame, prosperity, civilization, and power. He waged successful wars against Bohemia, and got himself crowned king of Bohemia and Moravia. He also defeated the Turks at Kenyermezo, and reconquered the southern provinces held by them. In 1485 he even took Vienna, and made it the capital of his country, which at that time was more extended than ever before or after. But Matthias was not only a great general; he was also a great legislator, a munificent patron of art and sciences, and a great judge. His impartiality and love for the people were so generally recognized that to the present day there lives in Hungary the proverb: "King Matthias is dead; there is no more justice." Matthias having died without legitimate heirs, the throne of Hungary again became the object of fierce struggles between various pretenders, and the country underwent in consequence a period of rapid decay.

Under Vladislaus (1490–1516) Hungary was the scene of a sanguinary peasant insurrection, known as the Dozsa revolt, which was ultimately suppressed, and led to a system of abject serfdom. The reign of Louis II was still more disastrous. The Turks, under Soliman the Great, took advantage of the enfeebled condition of the country, invaded it with a gigantic army, annihilated the Hungarian forces at Mohacs, pillaged whole districts, including Buda with the world-famous Bibliotheca Corvina, and carried off some 30,000 Hungarians as slaves. Louis II himself lost his life in or after the battle of Mohacs, and the Hungarian throne became once more the prize of contention between two claimants. One was John Zapolya, Woiwode of Transylvania, whom one section of the nobles proclaimed king; the other was Ferdinand of Austria, brother-in-law of Louis II. Zopolya was supported by the Turks, Ferdinand by the majority of the Hungarian nobles. Eventually

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King
MatthiasPeasant
Insurrec-
tion

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Zapolya surrendered his claims to the whole kingdom, merely retaining Transylvania and the Transylvanian district of Hungary for life. Thus the Hapsburgs obtained at length a final footing in Hungary; and the country entered on a period of endless suffering and humiliations.

Persecu-
 tion of
 Protes-
 tants

The successors of Ferdinand,—Maximilian, Rudolf, Ferdinand II, Ferdinand III, and Leopold I,—when they were not engaged with the Turks, concentrated their energies on the suppression of Protestantism in Hungary. The Protestants won several victories



BUDAPEST

over the imperialists, as in 1604–6 under Stephen Bocskay, in 1620–21 under Bethlen Gabor, in 1644 under George Rakoczy, thus forcing the government to show more toleration toward the followers of the new religion; but the kings being under Jesuit influences, all treaties and promises were broken on the first opportunity. Especially ruinous was the long reign of Leopold I (1657–1705), who, with the most merciless determination, used all means at his disposal, as he himself said, to “impoverish, enslave, and recatholicize” Hungary. Some of his own highest office holders, although themselves Catholics, so much resented his terrible treat-

ment of the Protestants that they began a conspiracy for the separation of Hungary from the Hapsburg dominions; but the plot having been detected, the ringleaders were put to death. For many years the scaffolds were at work in suspected districts, and thousands of valiant families, mostly Protestants, were exterminated. A Protestant rising, under Count Emeric Tokoly, and supported by Kara Mustapha, proved very successful in 1683, and very nearly led to the capture of Vienna and the utter destruction of Austria; but at the last moment John Sobieski, king of Poland, saved Vienna and the Hapsburgs. After the retreat of the Turks from Vienna they gradually lost their hold on Hungary.

Leopold died in 1705 amid the anxieties entailed upon him by another Hungarian rising, led by a second Rakoczky, which did not end before 1711. Leopold succeeded in causing the Diet to declare the throne hereditary in the house of Hapsburg, and Charles VI (1711-40) received their adhesion to the Pragmatic Sanction, securing the right of succession in the female line. Nevertheless, his daughter Maria Theresa's claim to the throne was called in question by several German rulers and by France, her dominions invaded, and she saved them and herself only through the magnanimous self-sacrifice of the Hungarians. She was the first Hapsburg ruler who showed herself grateful to the Hungarians, and who proved herself to understand the duties of a sovereign. She made several concessions to the Protestants, improved the condition of the peasants, and established schools. Her son and successor, Joseph II (1780-90), does not strictly figure among Hungarian kings, as he had never himself been crowned in Hungary, but carried on his reign in violation of the Hungarian constitution as an autocratic emperor. He was an enlightened reformer, but did not reckon with national feelings, class idiosyncrasies, interests, and prejudices; he attempted to make Hungary part of the vast pan-Germanic bureaucracy; and many of his measures fostered the discontent to such a degree, that at his death-bed he saw himself compelled to recall all his illegal edicts, with the exception of one, that enjoining religious toleration. Leopold II at once convoked the Diet (the first for twenty-five years), and confirmed the rights and independence of the nation. His conciliatory reign lasted only two years, and he was succeeded by Francis I (1792-1835), whose ambition it was to follow the example of his least reputable

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**Hungarians
Save the
Throne to
Maria
Theresa**

**Joseph II
an Un-
crowned
King**

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predecessor. As long as the Napoleonic wars lasted, and the Hungarians supported him with money and troops, he played at constitutionalism; but as soon as the Napoleonic dangers were passed, he showed himself in his true character, discontinued the Diets, and levied troops and taxes at his pleasure till 1825, when he was driven by the general discontent and resistance to convoke the National Assembly.

The Diet marked the beginning of the new era in Hungary. The nation commenced to awaken to the consciousness of its many wants, intellectual and material; the desire for reforms was fast ripening. The majority of the delegates to the next Diet (1832) were already bearers of radical instructions. The desired reforms, however, were slow in coming, owing to the narrow-minded policy of Metternich and the whole court party. The more important reforms passed by the Diet of 1832 and the subsequent Diets of 1839 and 1843 were those regarding the official use of the Hungarian language, the eligibility of non-nobles to public offices, and the equal rights of Christian denominations. Outside parliament there was no less activity than inside. Kossuth's *Pesti Hirlap* (the first Hungarian political daily paper), which in enthusiastic language taught the masses how to demand their rights, rapidly spread all over the country. Kossuth advocated the abolition of serfdom, the equality of all citizens, the liability of nobles to taxation, and freedom of the press. He was returned to the Diet of 1848 as senior member for the county of Pest, and it was on his motion that the house resolved, in March, 1848, to send a deputation to Vienna to demand all these and various other reforms. Ferdinand V, a weak-minded man, who had reigned since 1835, yielded after some hesitation, and the first Hungarian responsible ministry, entrusted with the task of carrying the said measures, was appointed, Deak, minister of justice, and Kossuth, minister of finance. But the court party were secretly determined to frustrate all these reforms, which openly they did not dare to oppose. They therefore incited the Croats and other non-Hungarian nationalities to rise against Hungarian supremacy.

Kos-
suth's
Political
Paper

Revolts
against
Hungary

Accordingly Croatia, Slavonia, the Servian Banat, and eventually the Roumans of Transylvania, took up arms against Hungarian rule; and when the central government in Vienna was appealed to, it issued highly worded proclamations against the rebels, but gave

very scant help to subdue them. Secretly it supplied them with arms, ammunition, and money. The Hungarian government, so treacherously abandoned, proceeded to obtain from parliament the vote of a levy of two hundred thousand men and forty-two million florins of money, but to these measures, unanimously decreed by parliament, the crown withheld its assent. Later on, September 6, when a deputation of one hundred and twenty members waited on Ferdinand to urge him to oppose the Croatian invasion, the court again gave an evasive reply. But a few days later, having received good news respecting the army operating in Italy, the court threw aside the hypocritical mask hitherto worn, and declared open hostility to Hungary by ignoring the existing constitution and government, recalling the Palatine-Archduke Stephen, and appointing Count Lamberg governor-general and royal commissioner for Hungary. Parliament declared these acts illegal, and Count Lamberg was murdered on his arrival by the enraged populace of Budapest. The ministry now resigned, and a committee of national defense was appointed with Kossuth as president. A comparatively numerous army was rapidly equipped and sent to meet Jellachich, who was marching toward Budapest at the head of the Croats. He was completely beaten at Velence, and during an armistice of three days, which was granted him by the victorious Hungarians, he fled ignominiously toward Vienna. Notwithstanding this defeat he was appointed commander-in-chief of all the forces in Hungary, and all the decrees and resolutions of the Hungarian parliament were declared illegal.

On December 2, 1848, Ferdinand was compelled by a family council to abdicate in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph, who was then eighteen years of age. In his name the war began to be carried on bitterly against Hungary, all the more as the diet declared the succession unconstitutional. Up to the middle of January next fortune seemed to favor the Austrian arms; the Hungarians, though they fought valiantly and obtained some victories, had to retreat before the overwhelming numbers of the enemy; the whole trans-Danubian district of the north and south were lost to them; they had only the vast plains of the Alföld and Transylvania, where Bem entirely subdued the rebellious nationalities. Meanwhile the Russians were also coming to the aid of the Austrians, so that the Hungarians had fair reason to despair of

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their own position. It was only the inactivity of Windischgratz, the new Austrian generalissimo, that saved the Hungarians. His aimless stay at Budapest gave Kossuth time to perambulate the country, and by his stirring eloquence and boundless energy to create a splendid though irregular army, which under the various leadership of Dembinski, Vetter, Gorgei, Klapka, and others, won so many victories over the Austrians within the next three months that by the end of April the country was almost entirely free from the enemy. The many defeats of the Austrian regular forces by the Hungarian irregulars so exasperated the Vienna court that, on March 4, 1849, it promulgated a decree abolishing the Hungarian constitution; to which the Hungarian diet replied by the declaration of independence, and the dethronement of the Hapsburg dynasty on April 14. No final form of government was decided upon, but Kossuth was temporarily elected governor-president, and instead of the committee of national defense, a new ministry was formed under the presidency of Bartholomew Szemere. Had Gorgei not disregarded Kossuth's advice, had he forced his way to Vienna after so many victories, the whole war might have come to an end with glorious results for Hungary; but Gorgei decided to first retake Budapest, and thereby enabled the united Russian and Austrian armies to invade the country at various points. These combined armies consisted of no less than 275,000 men, with 600 batteries, while the Hungarians numbered barely 135,000 with no artillery to speak of.

**Hungary
 Declares
 Inde-
 pendence**

**Kossuth
 Made
 Gov-
 ernor-
 President**

**Gorgei
 Succeeds
 Kossuth
 and at
 Once
 Sur-
 renders
 to the
 Russians**

In these circumstances the Hungarians had little chance of defending themselves with any measure of success, but they continued to fight with the greatest determination. Fortune still smiled on them here and there, but on the whole, chances and events were against them. The decline of their fortunes was aggravated by the serious dissensions between Gorgei and Kossuth, which grew daily in intensity, till the latter thought it advisable, in order not to hamper the other's strategic activity, to abdicate in favor of Gorgei, in August 11, 1849. Once in the possession of the chief political and military power, Gorgei no longer thought of continuing the struggle, but immediately and unconditionally surrendered himself to the Russians. This act on his part was defended by him as one imposed by necessity and a saving of further bloodshed; but examined in the light of his further conduct, and of the fact that he

induced, by empty and futile promises for the safety of their persons and their troops, thirteen other generals to follow his example, it is generally considered by the majority of his countrymen an act of unpardonable treason. Kossuth and several other military and political leaders fled to Turkey, while the others who remained behind and were captured were either sentenced to long terms of imprisonment, or shot and hanged like mere criminals. Among the latter were Count Louis Batthanyi and the thirteen generals betrayed by Gorgei, including Count Charles Leiningen, a relative of the queen of England. Gorgei himself was sent to Klagenfurt, and kept there on a small pension. Hungary was incorporated into and governed as a hereditary province of Austria. Political prisoners were tortured, women publicly flogged, properties and rights confiscated. With the exception of the abolition of serfdom, all the acts of the Diet of 1848 were annulled, and Hungary was governed by a host of foreign officials, according to Austrian laws and institutions. The country displayed no active resistance, nevertheless all the efforts of this centralizing and Germanizing system so completely failed that by 1857 the Vienna government began to see its futility and to offer some concessions.

After the disastrous Italian war in 1859 the old Hungarian chancellery, as it existed previous to 1848, was re-established, but failed to satisfy the Hungarians, whose passive resistance threatened with a final breakdown the Austrian state machinery. At length in 1861 the Diet was once more convoked; but as it demanded the full restitution of the constitution of 1848, it was quickly dissolved. Gradually, however, better counsels prevailed at the court of Vienna. Parliament was again summoned in 1865, and the demands of the Hungarians, as formulated by Deak and his party, were complied with. Francis Joseph was crowned king of Hungary, June 7, 1867, and entered on the faithful discharge of his duties as constitutional monarch. There is still a numerous party in Hungary in favor of complete separation from Austria, but none are hostile to the sovereign. Whether an agreement consisting partly of contracts made for perpetuity and partly of treaties renewable every ten years will continue to work so well with the growth of the aspirations of the several nationalities is by no means certain.

Hungary made good use of the period of internal peace enjoyed

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Hungary
 Becomes
 Province
 of
 Austria

Hungary
 United
 with
 Austria

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 —

after the coronation, and made rapid strides in the path of civilization. It established an admirable system of elementary and higher education, built a magnificent net of railways (now largely in the hands of the state), improved its judicature, developed commerce and industry, and organized, in addition to the Austro-Hungarian common army, an effective system of national defense, the Honveds. Budapest, its capital, equaled by few, surpassed by none among the great cities of Europe, is watched with as much envy by the Austrians as the growing influence of the Hungarians in the common councils of the monarchy.

The various nationalities in Hungary (Servians, Wallachs, Ruthens, Slovaks, Germans) enjoy the same rights as the native Magyars, which are considerably greater than in Austria; there is therefore comparatively little discontent prevailing among them, even though panslavistic missionaries do their best to stir it up among the northern races. Much of Hungary's steady progress is due to the fact that since the new era there have been few changes in its government.*

*The parliament is summoned annually by the king at Budapest. The executive of the kingdom is in a responsible ministry, consisting of a president and nine departments.



THE HISTORY OF RUSSIA

INCLUDING SIBERIA AND POLAND

[*Authorities*: See works on Russia, the land and people, by Sir D. M. Wallace (1877; new ed. 1888), Sutherland Edwards (1879), Geddie (1881), Morfill (1882), A. J. C. Hare (1888), Stepniak (from the Nihilist point of view, 1885-88), and Tikhomirov (1887). For history, see the articles on the principal Russian sovereigns, notably those on Peter I, Catherine I and II, Paul, Alexander I and II, and Nicholas; also the articles on Bagration, Barclay de Tolly, Gortschakoff, Kutusoff, Orloff, Potemkin, Suvarof, etc., on Charles XII, of Sweden; and those on Nihilism, Pan Slavism, and Poland. And consult besides the Russian historians Karamzin, Soloviev, Kostomarov, Bestuzhef-Riumin, etc.; Rambaud, *History of Russia*, (1878; Eng. trans. 1879; 2d ed. 1887); the shorter history by Morfill (1890); Sutherland Edwards, *The Romanoffs* (1890), Howorth's *History of the Mongols* (1876-88); Hare, *Studies in Russia*, London, 1885; Kennan, *Siberia and the Exile System*, 4th ed., 2 vols., London, 1897; *Murray's Handbook for Russia*, 8, London; Stepniak, *King Log and King Stork*, a study of modern Russia, 2 vols., London, 1896; and Waliszewski, *Peter the Great* (Eng. trans.), 2 vols. London, 1897.]



RUSSIA is one of the most extensive empires of ancient or modern times, occupying the whole northern portion of the eastern hemisphere, from Bering Strait to Norway. The entire area of this vast territory is reckoned at 8,660,282 square miles.

At a very early date Russia appears to have been colonized by various Slavonic tribes, who were chiefly settled in the neighborhood of the upper waters of the Don, Dnieper, Dniester, and Bug, and whose principal towns were Kiev and Novgorod. In the sixth century from the birth of Christ, the Khozari, pressed upon by the Avari, entered the country between the Volga and the Don, and conquering the Crimea, established themselves in close contiguity to the Byzantine empire. These and numerous other tribes, migrating westward, forced the Huns into Pannonia, and occupied the plains between the Don and the Atlanta, while the northern districts were

Earliest
Colonists

Their
Manner
of Life

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colonized by a branch of the Finnic race, called the Tshudes. All these tribes were nomads, subsisting by pasture and the chase.

Beset by the Avari, the Khozari, the Tshudes, and other fierce and restless peoples, the Slavs of Novgorod, like the ancient Britons, sought help from abroad, and by so doing brought upon themselves the iron yoke of conquest. They despatched embassies, in 862, to the Varagi or Varangians (Scandinavians), inviting their chiefs to come to their aid. Three brothers, whom the old chroniclers name Rurik, Sonaj, and Truvor, accepted the invitation, and at the head of a body of warriors seized upon Novgorod, of which Rurik was soon afterward recognized as the grand-duke. His followers, mixing with, and being absorbed among, the old Slavs, their union established the modern Russian race.

Rurik died in 879, and was succeeded by his son Ighor, who conquered Kiev, made it the capital of his empire, and subdued the neighboring tribes. Thrice did these terrible barbarians attack Byzantium, and thrice were they repulsed. At least these achievements took place in his reign, but were virtually effected by his regent, Oleg. Ighor was succeeded by his widow Olga (945–957), a woman of powerful and masculine mind, who did much toward the consolidation of the new state, embraced Christianity, and was baptized in 955 by the patriarch of Constantinople. She abdicated (957) in favor of her son, Sviatoslav, a pagan, but a wise and politic ruler, who conquered Bulgaria, and menaced Byzantium, penetrating as far as Adrianople. He was driven back by John Zimiskes, and was slain in an ambushade by the Peshenegri in 972.

Early
 Con-
 quests

A brief period of intestine convulsion followed, through the quarrels of his three sons, but ultimately Vladimir, the youngest, became sole ruler. In the Russian chronicles he fills the niche that is occupied by Charles the Great in Frankish, and by Arthur in English history. Legends and poetic fictions have gathered round him, and invested his reign with a sunny atmosphere of fable. It seems certain, however, that he extended the boundaries of his empire to Lake Ilmen on the north, the mouths of the Oka and the Kkoper on the east, the Vistula sources on the west, and the falls of the Dnieper on the south. Having embraced Christianity with all his subjects, he received the name of Basilius, and wedded the Princess Anne, sister of the Greek emperor Basil II (988). Thenceforward Russia was regarded as belonging to the

patriarchate of Constantinople, and a Greek archbishopric was founded at Kiev. To this prince it is due that Russian is written in the ancient Greek alphabet, slightly modified to accommodate Slavonic sounds. Vladimir cultivated letters and the arts of peace, and his zealous exertions to promote the spread of the new creed he had embraced procured him the honorable appellation of the Saint.

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It is strange that so wise a ruler should have committed the error of dividing his dominions at his death among his four sons (1008). The natural result was a long and bitter civil war. Out of this (in 1036) Jaroslav, prince of Novgorod, emerged successful. He distinguished his reign by codifying the laws, founding schools, and ameliorating the condition of his subjects. He gained the title of the Great, and his court was in no wise inferior to those of his contemporaries, Edward the Confessor and Henry I of France, while his dominions far exceeded theirs in size. But he, too, at his decease (1054) split up his territory among his children, who established several small independent principalities, which singly were unable to cope with the Poles and other enemies, and suffered severely from frequent invasions, besides destroying the unity of the country for close upon two hundred years. These states were — Tver, Rostov, Vladimir, Seversk, Tchernigov, Riazan, Murom, Smolensk, Polotsk, Volhynia, Galicia, Novgorod, and Kiev, the latter exercising a nominal supremacy over the others. Novgorod, however, was virtually independent, chose its own dukes and prelates, and developed an extensive commerce, becoming in the thirteenth century one of the great depots of the Hanseatic League.

Dominion
 Divided
 among
 King's
 Four
 Sons and
 Reunited

Comparison
 with
 France
 and
 England

States
 Founded
 by
 Division
 of King-
 dom
 among
 Various
 Heirs

Returning to Kiev, we find Vladimir II, surnamed Monomachos, reigning as grand duke, from 1113 to 1155. He was recognized as czar by the Greek emperor, Alexios Komnenos, and was the first prince whose brow was adorned with the imperial crown of Russia. George Sevoloditz, who is said to have founded Moscow, succeeded his father, but after his death, in battle, nearly the whole of Russia fell into the hands of the Mongols (1223-37), who, led by Batu Khan, destroyed Riazan, Moscow, and other towns. They were unable, however, to pierce through the forests to Novgorod, and, turning to the southwest, swept with fire and sword over the southwestern provinces, defeated the Poles and

Moscow
 is
 Founded

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 —

Civiliza-
 tion
 Retarded

Govern-
 ment
 Removed
 to
 Moscow

Order
 Attained
 under
 Ivan I

Tempo-
 rary
 Defeat
 of the
 Mongols

They
 Return
 and
 Burn
 Moscow

the Hungarians, and finally established themselves on the Volga, taking the famous title of the Golden Horde (1242). These barbarians demanded and received tribute from the Russian chiefs, and for many generations their successors levied taxes over all Russia, exercising a fatally deteriorating influence on the Russian character, checking social progress, arresting the development of commerce, and retarding the growth of civilization, so that Russia fell behind the rest of Europe to an extent which the efforts of its modern rulers have been wholly unable to retrieve. New enemies meanwhile appeared on the western borders — the Livonians, the Teutonic knights, and the Swedes. Volhynia was annexed to the grand duchy of Lithuania, which gradually increased in power, embraced within itself, White Russia, Podolia, and the Ukraine, and in 1569 was joined to the then powerful kingdom of Poland. The Livonians, early in the thirteenth century, seized upon Livonia, Courland, Esthonia, and portions of Novgorod and Pokov; while the Swedes conquered Finland, and penetrated to the banks of the Neva. They were repulsed, however, in 1261, in a great battle on that river, by the grand duke of Kiev, Alexander (afterward canonized), who was named Nevski, in commemoration of his exploit. His youngest son, Daniel, succeeded him in 1247, but removing the seat of his rule to Moscow, assumed, in 1296, the title of grand duke of Moscow. To this prince is ascribed the foundation of the Kremlin, about the year 1300.

Russian annals remain a labyrinth of confusion, until the celebrated Ivan I, in 1328, educed order from chaos, raised Moscow to an indisputable pre-eminence, and made it the center of the national religion, legislation, and polity. To him must be ascribed the foundation of the modern empire of Russia, and from his time the course of Russian history flows without serious obstruction. His son and successor, Simeon the Proud (1340–53), imitated his father's example, and his legacies of wisdom and prudence were respected by the council of regency, which governed Russia during the reign of the incapable Ivan II (1353–59). Dimitri (1359–89) subdued Tver, and Riazan, and, rising indignant against the long-continued supremacy of the Mongols, defeated the Khan Mamai in a great battle on the banks of the Don. Hence, his favorite surname of Donskoi. His efforts, however, were only valuable so far as they nourished a longing for independence in the hearts of

his people, for the Mongol power was not yet broken, and an immense Tartar army, besieging Moscow, captured the holy city and reduced it to ashes (1383). In the reign of Vasili I (1389–1420), Russia was invaded by the renowned Timur, or Tamerlane (1395), by the Tartars, under Edijci, and also by the fierce Livonians. But Vasili carried his subjects triumphantly through this ordeal of fire, and increased his dominions by the annexation or conquest of Nijni-Novgorod, Rostov, and Muroms.

Passing over the troubled reign of Vasili II, or the Blind (1425–

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KAZAN

62), we arrive at another great epoch in Russian history, the accession of Ivan III, justly surnamed the Great, who reigned from 1462 to 1505, and by the exercise of high political wisdom, as well as by the display of a brilliant military capacity, succeeded in sweeping away the numerous minor states which had so long crippled the energies and exhausted the resources of Russia. Novgorod was added to his dominions in 1478. His next great achievement was the liberation of the monarchy from the Tartar yoke. Allying himself with Mengli-Gercai, the khan of the Crimean Horde, he completely defeated Achmet, the khan of the Golden Horde; and having thus consolidated his dominions, assumed the title of Czar of all the Russias. He married Sophia, a niece of Constantine

**Ivan III
 and his
 Military
 Strength**

**Tartar
 Yoke
 Thrown
 Off**

**New
 Title**

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Origin
 of Term
 "Czar"

Palæologos, in 1472, and introduced the arts of civilization by the employment of Greek engineers, architects, and artificers. He adorned Moscow with sumptuous edifices, codified the laws under the title of the Soudebink, and graced his court with all the splendor of the Byzantines. The great bell of the Golden Horde, emblem of Tartar freedom, was carried to Moscow and set up as a memorial. The title Tsar, which we corrupted into czar, is a Russian translation of the Oriental dignity of khan. In the ninth-century Slavonian Bible David and Saul are called tsars; and the same title is there used to express the Byzantine emperors. He was succeeded in 1505, by Vasili III, who captured Smolensk from the Lithuanians.

Ivan the
 Terrible

In 1533 Ivan IV, surnamed the Terrible, assumed the crown. His reign at first was brilliantly successful, though it followed a youth as wild as that of Henry V. He introduced printing; established a permanent military force, the Streltzi (or Strelitz); received at his court the English commercial envoy, Richard Chancellor (1554); patronized artists and men of letters; nursed the rising commerce of Russia; and conquered Kazan (1552) and Astrakhan (1554). He also drove the Livonian knights out of Livonia, and administered a severe check to the predatory Tartars of the Crimea. But after the death of his wife, Anastasia Romanov, an able and beautiful woman to whom he was passionately attached, his reason seems to have been shaken. He suddenly changed into a cruel and despotic tyrant. His ablest counselors were doomed to the scaffold, and a mad lust of blood glutted itself by the deaths of thousands in Tver, Novgorod, and Moscow. Even his eldest son fell a victim to his fury. His arms abroad now met with severe reverses; Livonia was wrested from him by Stephen Bathory, king of Poland, in 1583, and Moscow was stormed and burned by the Crimean Tartars. In this reign Siberia was discovered, and added to the Russian empire.

Monarch
 Becomes
 a Tyrant
 on his
 Wife's
 Death

His
 Victims

Siberia
 Dis-
 covered

Civil
 War

Ivan was succeeded by his son Fedor in 1584, who wisely entrusted the government to his able and energetic brother-in-law, Boris Godunov, who erected numerous towns and fortresses, extended the Russian power over Siberia, and asserted the independence of the Greek Church in Russia of the Constantinopolitan patriarch. Fedor was the last prince of the house of Rurik, which had ruled Russia for seven hundred years. After his death in

1598, a period of civil war succeeded. The death of Dimitri, brother of Fedor, in 1591, had been attended by several mysterious circumstances, of which half a dozen pretenders took advantage. During the brief usurpation of a pseudo-Dimitri, Sigismund, king of Poland, invaded Russia (1610), captured Moscow, and proclaimed his son Vladislav czar; but inflamed by the patriotic appeals of the clergy, and led by the heroic prince Pojarsky, the Russians rose against the Polish invaders, expelled them from the empire, and unanimously bestowed the Russian crown on Michael Feodoro-

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Polish
 Invaders
 Expelled



ASTRAKHAN, AT THE MOUTH OF THE VOLGA

vich Romanov (1613-45), who was descended, on the female side, from the royal house of Rurik.

The new czar, the first of the Romanovs who still rule Russia, directed his efforts to heal the wounds which had been inflicted by civil war, and to check the inroads of enemies who had been encouraged by the partial paralysis of the Russian power. He concluded treaties of peace with Sweden and Poland, reformed the courts of law and justice, and remodeled the internal organization of the empire.* Alexis (1645-70), who had been called the

Peace
 with
 Sweden
 and
 Poland

*The government of Russia is an absolute hereditary monarchy. The whole legislative, executive, and judicial power is united in the emperor, whose will alone is law. There are, however, certain rules of government which the sovereigns of the present reigning house have acknowledged as binding. The chief of these is the law of succession to the throne, which, according to a decree of the Emperor Paul, of the year 1797, is to be

Constitu-
 tion and
 Govern-
 ment

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“father of his country,” succeeded him. He reintroduced a silver currency, promoted internal trade, conquered Little Russia (hitherto in the power of the Cossacks), and defeated Poland and

that of regular descent, by the right of primogeniture, with preference of male over female heirs. This decree annulled a previous one, issued by Peter I, February 5, 1722, which ordered each sovereign to select his successor to the throne from among the members of the imperial family, irrespective of the claims of primogeniture. Another fundamental law of the realm proclaimed by Peter I is that every sovereign of Russia, with his consort and children, must be a member of the orthodox Greek Church. The princes and princesses of the imperial house, according to a decree of Alexander I, must obtain the consent of the emperor to any marriage they may contract; otherwise the issue of such union can not inherit the throne. By an ancient law of Russia, the heir-apparent is held to be of age at the end of the sixteenth year, and the other members of the reigning family with the completed twentieth year.

The administration of the empire is entrusted to four great boards, or councils, possessing separate functions. The first of these boards is the Council of the State, established in its present form by Alexander I, in the year 1810. It consists of a president—the Grand Duke Mikhail since 1882—and an unlimited number of members appointed by the emperor. In 1894 the council consisted of sixty-two members, exclusive of the ministers, who have a seat *ex officio*, and six princes of the imperial house. The council is divided into three departments; namely, of Legislation, of Civil and Church Administration, and of Finance. Each department has its own president, and a separate sphere of duties; but there are collective meetings of the three sections. The chief function of the council of the empire is that of examining into the projects of laws which are brought before it by the ministers, and of discussing the budget and all the expenditures to be made during the year. But the council has no power of proposing alterations and modifications of the laws of the realm; it is, properly speaking, a consultative institution in matters of legislation. A special department is entrusted with the discussion of the requests addressed to the emperor against the decisions of the senate.

The second of the great colleges or boards of government is the Ruling Senate or “*Pravitelstvuyushiy Senat*,” established by Peter I in the year 1711. The functions of the Senate are partly of a deliberative and partly of an executive character. To be valid a law must be promulgated by the senate. It is also the high court of justice for the empire. The senate is divided into nine departments or sections, which all sit at St. Petersburg, two of them being Courts of Cassation. Each department is authorized to decide in the last resort upon certain descriptions of cases. The senators are mostly persons of high rank, or who fill high stations; but a lawyer of eminence presides over each department, who represents the emperor, and without whose signature its decisions would have no force. In the *plenum*, or general meeting of several sections, the minister of justice takes the chair. Besides its superintendence over the courts of law, the senate examines into the state of the general administration of the empire, and has power to make remonstrances to the emperor. A special department consisting of seven members is entrusted with judgments in political offenses, and another (six members) with disciplinary judgments against officials of the crown.

The third college, established by Peter I in the year 1721, is the Holy Synod, and to it is committed the superintendence of the religious affairs of the empire. It is composed of the three metropolitans (St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Kieff), the archbishops of Georgia (Caucasus), and of Poland (Kholm and Warsaw), and several bishops sitting in turn. All its decisions run in the emperor’s name, and have no force till approved by him.

Turkey in several campaigns. He encouraged intercourse with foreign princes, and sent ambassadors, for the first time, to the courts of France and Spain. His minority had been checkered by much internal trouble, but the latter years of his reign were marked by prosperity and peace. He was succeeded by his son

Fedor (1676-82), who, after a pacific reign of scarcely seven years, nominated his half-brother Peter as his successor, to the exclusion of his elder brother Ivan, who was disqualified by mental weakness for the government of a powerful people. Their sister Sophia, however, a restless and ambitious woman, contrived to seize the reins of power as premier regent. She was compelled to retire into a convent, and Peter and Ivan reigned as joint-czars until the

death of the latter in 1689. The former became Peter the Great.

The reign of Peter the Great is, in many respects, the most glorious period of Russian history, while it is undoubtedly a remarkable illustration of what may be effected by a shrewd intellect and a powerful will. He established the maritime power of Russia, which had previously possessed neither a royal navy nor a commercial marine. By connecting the rivers Volga, Don, and Dwina

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PETER THE GREAT

Reign of
Peter the
Great

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St.
Peters-
burg
FoundedThe Czar
Learns
Ship-
buildingMany
Improve-
ments
Intro-
ducedPeter's
Efforts to
Obtain an
Educa-
tion

by canals, he opened up a water communication between the Baltic and the Black and Caspian Seas, thus diverting a great portion of the trade between Europe and Asia into Russian channels. By founding the city of St. Petersburg (1703) on the Neva, he brought the Russian metropolis into closer communication with the principal European capitals. By a series of laborious campaigns, in which, at first, he suffered many defeats, he accustomed his army to war, and trained it in the European fashion. By the victory of Poltava (July 8, 1709), he checked the conquering career of Charles XII, and so crippled the power of Sweden that thenceforth it could no longer make head against the schemes of Russian aggression. Traveling through various European states he made himself acquainted with the progress of modern civilization. At Amsterdam, and afterward at Deptford, he learned ship-building, contentedly laboring with hammer and chisel like a common artisan. What he learned he taught his subjects, and soon had the satisfaction of seeing Russian ships on the Baltic, the Black Sea, and the ocean. He encouraged letters, trade, commerce, and all the useful arts and sciences; introduced foreigners into positions of trust, where they might assist him in molding the infant empire; founded printing-presses, libraries, schools, colleges; organized a firm and far-reaching internal administration; and, in a word, developed the rude and degraded Slav-Mongol into the half-civilized, patient, and persevering Russian.

The career of Philip of Macedon resembles nearly that of the great Muscovite czar; but there is this important difference, that Philip, while young, had received in southern Greece the best education in all matters of peace and war that the ablest philosophers and generals of the age could bestow. Peter was brought up among barbarians, and in barbaric ignorance. He strove to remedy this, when a grown man, by leaving all the temptations which his court offered, and by seeking instruction abroad. He labored with his own hands as a common artisan in Holland and England, that he might return and teach his subjects how ships, commerce, and civilization could be acquired. There is a degree of heroism here superior to anything that we know of in the Macedonian king. In justice, however, to the ancient hero, it ought to be added that we find in the history of Philip no examples of that savage cruelty which deforms the character of Peter the Great.

Lamented by all his subjects, Peter died in 1725, and was succeeded by his wife, who had zealously co-operated with him in his grandest designs, the Empress Catharine I. She reigned but two years. The son of the unfortunate Alexis (the eldest son of Peter, whom his father had put to death in a frenzy of jealous suspicion), then came to the throne under the name and title of Peter II (1727-30), but the sovereign power really rested in the hands of his favorite, Prince Menzikov. He died, however, at the early age of fifteen, when the state-council conferred the imperial crown on Anne, duchess of Courland, niece of Peter the Great, and daughter of Ivan. Her reign was distinguished by no great event or marked improvement in the condition of the people. She filled her court with favorites, such as the notoriously cruel Biren, duke of Courland, and, in loading them with undeserved favors, neglected the true interests of her empire. Ivan VI, a grand-nephew of the late czarina, reigned but a few months (1740-41), and was dethroned by the Empress Elizabeth (1741-62), the daughter of Peter the Great, whose scepter she proved herself not unworthy to wield. She banished the detested Biren, secured Finland, and assisted Austria in the Seven Years' war, and, but for her death, might have given a very different termination to that momentous struggle. Her nephew and successor, Peter III (1762), withdrew all interference with European quarrels, and seemed bent upon a policy of internal reform and pacific progress, when he was dethroned by his unscrupulous consort, Sophia Augusta, of Anhalt-Zerbst, better known by the name she received at her baptism into the Greek Church, as the Empress Catharine II (1762-96). Her vices were so conspicuous by their openness and excess that she has been termed the Messalina of the North, and this side of her character has been vigorously painted by Byron in his "Don Juan." She was, however, a woman of extraordinary capacity and irresistible energy, and the material resources of the empire were greatly augmented by her successful policy. She fostered the growing commerce of Russia by wise provisions, encouraged the arts and sciences, reformed and ameliorated the laws, and divided the country into distinct governments, each of which had its separate administration in all matters of justice, social economy, and local policy. Her arms abroad were crowned with continual success. Her able general, Suvarov (or Suwarow), subdued Poland,

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and drove the Turks beyond the Dniester. In her new province of Crimea she founded the great military port of Sebastopol. By the third partition of Poland in 1795, she extended her power westward as far as the Vistula. She forced Sweden to sue for peace. Thus, when she closed her career, on November 17, 1796, she bequeathed to her son and successor, Paul I (1796-1801), an empire which extended from the shores of the Baltic to Bering Strait.

Paul I
 Succeeds
 Catharine

Paul I began his reign by an act of justice: he liberated the Polish hero Kosciusko. In 1799 he joined the European confederacy against revolutionary France, and despatched the veteran Suvarov with a large army to the assistance of the allies in Italy. At first Suvarov met with his wonted success, but eventually his good fortune deserted him, or he met with more formidable opponents. Disaster followed close upon disaster, and it was with difficulty that he saved the remnant of his forces by a skilful retreat from the victorious armies of Massena and Moreau. These reverses had a singular effect upon the wayward mind of Paul, who, from being a bitter opponent of Napoleon Bonaparte, suddenly became his most fervent admirer and enthusiastic ally. He was preparing to co-operate in the ambitious projects of the French conqueror, when his nobles, disgusted by his cruelties and the freaks of his insanity, formed a conspiracy against him, and strangled him in his private apartments on March 23, 1801. It is generally believed that his sons were cognizant of the plot, and connived at it from a well-founded apprehension that they might fall victims to his jealous cruelty.

He
 Becomes
 Insane
 and is
 Strangled

Defeated
 by
 Napoleon

Alexander I (1801-25), on succeeding to the throne, held himself aloof from the great war that raged over all Europe, but alarmed at the preponderant military power of France, and disgusted by the murder of the Duc d'Enghien, he joined the European coalition in April, 1805. His army, with that of Austria, was defeated by Napoleon on the memorable field of Austerlitz on December 2, 1805, and both at the bloody battle of Eylau, on February 8, 1807, and at that of Friedland, on June 6, the Russian forces experienced terrible losses. Alexander now accepted the overtures which had previously been pressed upon him by the French emperor, and after an interview between them, held on a

raft moored about midway in the river Niemen, peace was concluded by the Treaty of Tilsit on July 8, 1807. A second interview took place at Erfurth early in 1808, which apparently cemented the new alliance, and converted Russia into an enemy of Great Britain. Alexander, however, bided his time. The French emperor was soon sensible that he could expect but little real assistance from him, and addressed warm remonstrances to the Russian court, which met with polite evasion and lukewarm courtesy. The coldness between the two emperors daily increased; and at length Napoleon

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**Invasion
by the
French
and
Retreat**



VLADIMIR

resolved on an invasion of Russia (June, 1812). Alexander made vast preparations to meet him, but aware of his inferiority in the open field, resolved on gradually retiring before the French. As Napoleon advanced, the Russians, under Kutusov, retired, burning every town they passed through, and carrying off all provisions and forage. After the sanguinary battle of Borodino on September 7, 1812, where victory cost the French more than defeat entailed upon the Russians, Napoleon entered Moscow; not, however, as he had hoped, to receive ambassadors from Alexander in quest of peace, but to find the city almost deserted by its inhabitants. Scarcely had the French soldiers entered within its gates than vivid columns of flame and dense clouds of smoke, rising simultaneously from various quarters of the capital, showed that its citizens had

**Napo-
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Loss
Exceeds
Russia's**

**Third
Burning
of
Moscow**

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set it on fire. The French were only partially successful in checking the devouring course of the conflagration, and found themselves encamped amid a waste of smoking ruins, pressed hard by cold and famine, thinned by battle and disease, and separated by hundreds of miles of ice and snow from their base of operations. There was nothing for it but to retreat with the utmost speed. On the 19th of October they evacuated Moscow, and commenced a retrograde march whose horrors have never been paralleled in the history of war. Hundreds perished in the snow; hundreds died of hunger and exhaustion. The once splendid host of Napoleon melted away into a scanty and disorganized band of gaunt, famine-stricken wretches. It is estimated that not 50,000 soldiers out of the 500,000 who had formed so superb an army on the banks of the Niemen ever returned to France. At the same time Wellington and the British, after driving the French armies before them, hovered on the frontiers of Spain. The knell of the French empire had rung. Prussia and Austria sent forth their armies to join the victorious cohorts of Russia, and though Napoleon made incredible efforts to hold his ground against this coalition, he was forced to retire before the overwhelming strength of the allies. At Leipsic, from the 16th to the 18th of October, 1813, his army was almost annihilated. Early in the following January the Emperor Alexander, at the head of the allied forces, crossed the French frontier, and in March entered Paris. Napoleon abdicated, and retired to the island of Elba. In the great events of the Hundred Days, and in the victory of Waterloo, June 15, 1815, the Russians had no part, having previously retired.

The remainder of Alexander's reign was devoted to the consolidation of his empire and to internal improvements. He effected great reforms; but he did not sufficiently recognize the growth of a new and more liberal spirit among the higher classes, nor make provision for its contentment. As long as Alexander lived, they remained quiet, but when, on his death in 1825, he was succeeded by his younger son, Nicholas I, whose ability they respected, but whose despotic character they dreaded, they broke out into open insurrection. By the energy and courage of the new czar, however, it was speedily checked, and he entered upon that warlike and oppressive career which was suddenly checked by the Crimean war. He wrested provinces from Persia and Turkey, seized the

protectorate of the Danubian principalities, claimed the free navigation of the Black Sea, the Dardanelles, and the Danube, converted Poland into a Russian province, assisted Austria in stifling the Magyar insurrection, waged a relentless war against the Caucasian mountaineers, and pushed forward the frontiers of the empire toward Central Asia. His aggressions upon Turkey at length roused Great Britain and France to action, and provoked the Crimean war. His armies were defeated at the battles of Alma, Balaclava, and Inkerman, and broken by these unexpected reverses, his haughty spirit suddenly gave way. He died on the 2d of March, 1855. Sebastopol, the great southern arsenal and naval depot of Russia, was captured by the allies on the 9th of July in the same year.

Alexander II, who had succeeded his father, Nicholas, on the throne, soon afterward concluded peace with Great Britain and France, and addressed himself to the task of internal organization. He accomplished many important reforms, but none more important or more valuable than the emancipation of the serfs (March, 1861). An insurrection in Poland, in 1863-64, was crushed after a severe struggle, and by a subsequent edict that unfortunate country was declared an autonomic part of the Russian empire. The Caucasian war was brought to a satisfactory conclusion, and Russia probably never enjoyed greater prosperity than at this time. In the Franco-German war of 1870 Russia took no part, but the sympathies of her rulers were undoubtedly German, and they would probably have been manifested in an active form had any power assisted France. In November, 1870, Prince Gortschakov issued a circular repudiating those clauses of the Treaty of 1856 securing the neutralization of the Black Sea, and at one time there was great danger of a war between Britain and Russia on the subject; but the matter was settled amicably at a conference held in London in 1871, at which Russia obtained to a great extent what she wished. In 1874 the Duke of Edinburgh, second son of Queen Victoria, was married to the Grand-duchess Marie, only daughter of the czar; and the same year Alexander visited England.

In the meantime events were transpiring in Turkey which were destined to lead to another conflict between Russia and that country. In 1874 a long-smoldering insurrection broke out in Bosnia and the Herzegovina, the apparent inability of Turkey to suppress

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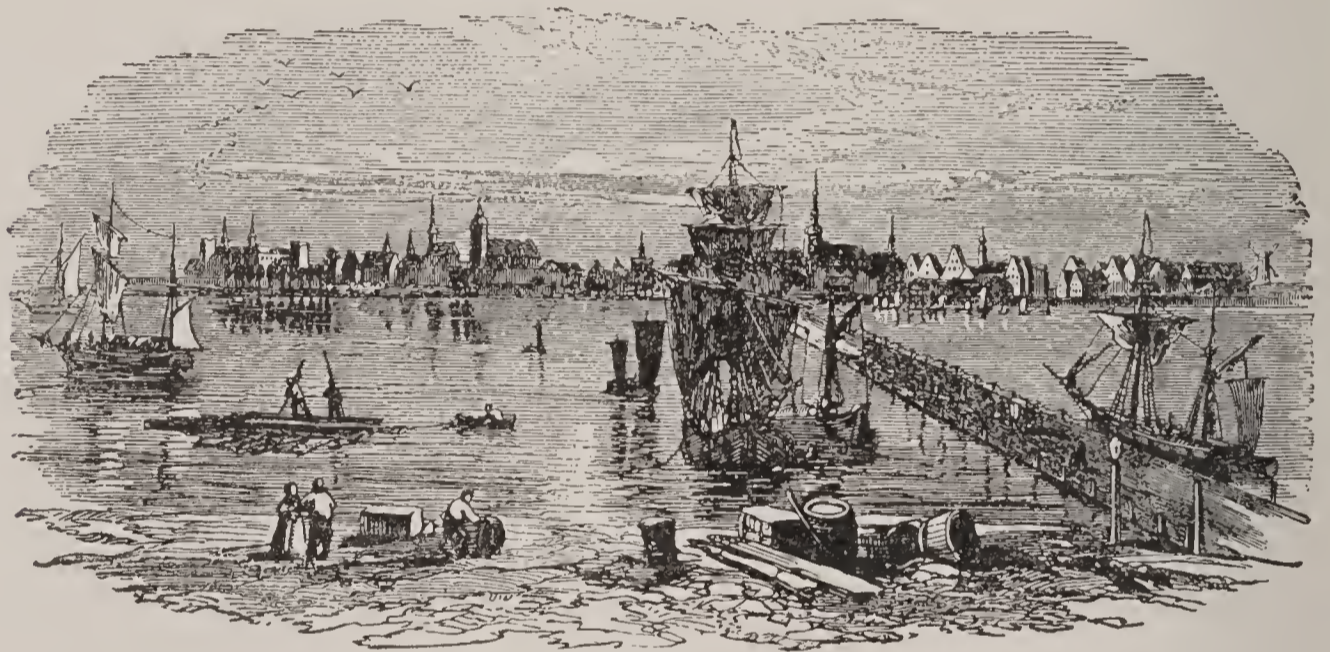
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which drew forth, early in 1876, the "Andrassy Note," by which the Powers indicated the reforms they considered necessary to conciliate the insurgent provinces. The insurrection, however, continued, and Serbia seemed disposed to take part in the struggle. In May, 1876, the murder of the French and German consuls at Salonica caused Germany, Austria, and Russia to unite in proposing to send to Turkey the "Berlin Memorandum," which was a threat of active intervention if steps were not at once taken by the sultan to grant an armistice to the insurgents, and to carry out certain reforms under the supervision of a delegation of con-



RIGA

suls. England declining to join in the memorandum, it fell through, and Serbia, alleging that this failure made all hope of a peaceful settlement impossible, declared war, in conjunction with Montenegro, at the beginning of July. A feeling of extreme indignation against Turkey had now arisen, on account of the cruel massacres of thousands of Bulgarian men, women, and children in May, on pretense of suppressing an alleged intended insurrection. Fired with this feeling against the Moslem butcheries, large numbers of Russians poured into Serbia to assist in the struggle there against the suzerain power. The Turks, however, were victorious, and in November would probably have overrun the principality, but for an ultimatum from Russia demanding an armistice. This was granted, and soon afterward Russia and Austria announced their acceptance of the plan proposed by Lord Derby for holding a conference for the settlement of questions in Turkey involving

Inter-
ference in
Turkish
Massacre
of Bul-
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the peace of Europe. The conference met in Constantinople toward the end of 1876, and continued its efforts till January 20, 1877, when it was dissolved, and, to mark their dissatisfaction at the insincere course pursued by Turkey, the several Powers withdrew their ambassadors from Constantinople. The Turks refused an ultimatum swiftly issued by Prince Gortschakov in the name of Russia, and on the 24th of April, 1877, the emperor declared war, and at once directed his armies to cross the frontier both in Europe and Asia.

In Asia the Russians were victorious for a time, and by May 22 Kars was invested; but in Europe it was the 30th of June before the Danube was crossed by the main body of the Russian army. General Gourko made a raid through the Balkans, and seized the Shipka Pass at its southern end, which he held against desperate assaults of the Turks. In the meantime Osman Pasha moved up from Widin, and gathering up strong forces on his way, threw them into the open town of Plevna, from which, on the 18th of July, he repulsed the Russians, who had blundered into the town in ignorance of the presence of the Turks. Osman Pasha at once commenced fortifying the place, and, aided by the immense natural facilities for defense which the position afforded, he soon turned the open town into an impregnable fortress. The Russians proved this to their serious cost on July 30, when a renewed endeavor to take the place by assault was repulsed with great slaughter. So disastrous was their defeat, indeed, that they were glad to accept the offers of Prince Frederick Charles of Roumania to join them in the war, and a strong force of Roumanian troops was hurried up to the aid of the sorely pressed Muscovites around Plevna. The Russian Imperial guard and a host of other new troops were now brought up, and a process of strict investment of Plevna was commenced. His supplies thus cut off, Osman Pasha held his enemies at bay until December 10, when, after a heroic but ineffectual attempt to break away, he surrendered with his whole army. The formidable host of Russians, now released from Plevna, swarmed by several passes through the Balkans, took in succession Sophia, Philipopolis, and Adrianople, and commenced an advance in force toward Constantinople. So imminent was the peril that British troops were sent to Gallipoli, and the fleet was held in readiness to save the sultan's capital. In Asia the Russias,

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**Russia
Declares
War****Turkish
Gains****Russia's
Ultimate
Triumph**

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 Peace
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greatly re-enforced, had again advanced, utterly defeated Mukhtar Pasha, taken Kars, and now menaced Erzeroum. Seeing the utter collapse of their armies, and their capital endangered, the Turks sued for peace, and after considerable delay, the Treaty of San Stefano was signed on March 3, 1878. By this the Turks ceded to Russia about nine thousand square miles in Asia, including Ardahan, Kars, and Batoum, agreed to pay an indemnity, to recognize the independence of Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro, and to the establishment of very large semi-independent states of north and south Bulgaria. Great Britain, however, and other Powers, as signatories of the Treaty of Paris, asserted their right to a voice in the new arrangement of Turkish territory; and by the Congress of Berlin, in July, 1878, the San Stefano treaty was considerably modified. Russia obtained from Roumania the strip of Bessarabia taken from her in 1855 — her whole gain of territory in Europe. Only one part of Bulgaria received autonomy, the other, as eastern Roumelia, being restored to the sultan. Freed from European necessities, Russia now turned with fresh vigor to her policy of aggression in central Asia. In 1872 General Kaufmann, in continuing previous raids by General Tchernaiiev, found himself at last able to occupy the capital of the Khan of Khiva, and although a peace with that prince replaced him on the throne, it was under a strict Russian protectorship. In 1875 the neighboring Khan of Khokand was reduced to the same dependent condition. In the same year an insurrection gave General Skobelev the opportunity formally to conquer the khanate, and it became a part of Russia in March, 1876. This conquest was immediately followed by that of the Kara Khirgiz tribes. Then the European war tied Russia's hands for a time. In 1879 she recommenced, this time attacking the Turkoman Tekkes, but not with great success. General Skobelev was sent again to lead the advance, with the result that in May, 1881, the Tekkes were subjected by being half-exterminated.

Nihilistic
 Attempt
 to As-
 sassinate
 Alex-
 ander II

A grave calamity now overtook Russia. Much of her undoubted advance in civilization was due to Alexander II, the liberator of the serfs; and, indeed, it was not so much in a personally hostile spirit as in undying hostility to the imperial principle that the wide-spread revolutionary conspiracies, embraced under the head of nihilism, continually sought to kill him. By making the office of czar a deadly one, they sought, as they explain, to frighten

any successor of Alexander II into reforms long denied. Many attempts failed; that of April 14, 1879, came very near success, when a large part of the great palace was wrecked; and that of the following December, still nearer, when the railway over which the czar's train should have been passing was blown up by a mine. Finally, on March 13, 1881, the unfortunate monarch was killed by an explosive bomb, thrown at him as he passed along the streets. The action, if it had any result, worked against the nihilists; and the new czar, Alexander III, though too much alarmed to show himself often in public,—for instance, waiting more than a year before being crowned,—adopted firm and severe measures, without panic, and was supported very generally, even by many who would otherwise have sympathized with efforts at reform.

Alexander III continued the Asian policy of his father's reign. In 1884 Merv was formally annexed to Russia, and the advance crept on, until, in March, 1885, Penjeh, a village on the borders of Afghanistan, was occupied. This brought Russia face to face with England, as the protector of the Ameer of Afghanistan; Penjeh was claimed by the latter, and it was necessary at once to come to a strict understanding as to the Russo-Afghan frontier, which, in the long ages during which the half-settled nations of central Asia had been the nearest neighbors of Afghanistan, had been left very vaguely defined. A commission had already been investigating the matter, and relations became very strained through the seizure of Penjeh. Diplomacy was successful in averting a rupture, however, and the commission, reconstituted, continued its labors. At last, by the year 1887, it was able to withdraw, the entire frontier having been marked off to the satisfaction of all three Powers.

In September, 1885, a revolution broke out in eastern Roumelia, which resulted in its junction with Bulgaria, then under the energetic rule of Prince Alexander (of Battenberg). This revolution, carried out entirely without Russian aid, was very distasteful to Russia, who wished her influence in Bulgaria to be predominant. Accordingly, though Russia agreed to the peace between Servia, Bulgaria, and Turkey, in March, 1886, she favored many attempts at conspiracy against the prince of Bulgaria, and at last he was seized and banished to Russian territory, in August. He returned, and was triumphantly restored in a few weeks; but finding that

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Bulgaria

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his remaining on the Bulgarian throne would endanger the liberty of his adopted country, now that Russia had openly declared herself dissatisfied with his rule, he magnanimously withdrew from Bulgaria, in September, 1886, although the circumstances had clearly shown his power and popularity among his people. Sev-



NICHOLAS II OF RUSSIA

eral unsuitable candidates for the vacant throne were proposed. In July, 1887, Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg was elected by the Sobranje to the vacant throne. Having accepted the offer, he, on August 14, took the constitutional oath at Tirnova. He was not, however, recognized by the signatory Powers to the Treaty of Berlin, in consequence of the opposiiton of Russia. In

Death of
Alex-
ander III

November, 1894, the Czar Alexander III died, and was buried with the greatest pomp, no less than thirty-one royal personages being present at the ceremony. He was succeeded by his son, Nicholas II.

Nicholas II was formally crowned czar on May 26, 1896, in the Kremlin at Moscow. In honor of his coronation, the incoming czar by proclamation remitted the fines, arrears of taxes, and punishment for minor offenses; a continued round of fêtes was kept up for two weeks. On May 30, a terrible catastrophe on Khodynski plain marked the festivities. Nearly five hundred thousand people had gathered opposite the Petrofsky palace, and a panic ensued, which resulted in the death of 1,429 persons. The czar appointed a special committee to ascertain the names of the victims, and to distribute relief to their families; about \$200,000 was distributed in this way. In 1891 the plan for a railroad which should connect St. Petersburg with Vladivostok on the Pacific coast was undertaken. Of the total distance, about six thousand miles, there existed at this time an almost continuous railway from St. Petersburg to Tcheliavinsk on the Siberian side of the Ural Mountains, a distance of thirteen hundred miles. The present plan is to have the entire distance completed by 1905. About the middle of December, 1898, the trans-Caspian railroad from Merv to Kushk in Afghanistan was completed. The completion of this line is one more step in Russia's ambitious task of overcoming the difficulties presented by the unorganized and almost illimitable areas of Russia.

In addition to the impetus given to railway construction, is the increase planned for the navy. An imperial ukase was issued in March, 1898, providing for the expenditure of about \$68,000,000 for the construction of war-ships. August 28, 1898, Czar Nicholas II unveiled a monument in Moscow, which had been erected in honor of his grandfather, the Czar Alexander II. The erection of this monument was done in commemoration of the emancipation of over twenty-one million serfs, in February, 1861. On October 29, 1897, it was officially announced that Russia, Japan, and the United States had come to an agreement on the question of the pelagic sealing, and on November 6, of the same year, the treaty definitely deciding the point was signed in Washington.

Since the formation of the idea of a trans-Siberian railway, the

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Corona-
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Utiliza-
tion of
Port
Arthur

Russian plans have been changed slightly. In consequence, the road will be constructed in its latter part through Manchuria, and will terminate at Port Arthur on the Yellow Sea. Considerable international opposition was aroused to China's leasing this important port to Russia, on the ground that it would disturb the balance of power in China. Russia, however, announced to the world that it would keep the ports of China open to foreign trade under Russian laws. At the same time, she declared that she was not annexing Port Arthur, she was only utilizing it, all China's sovereign rights should remain intact. To every Power is allowed the privilege of sending its war-ships into the harbor.

During a visit of Francis Joseph of Austria to St. Petersburg in April, 1897, a temporary treaty respecting the Balkan peninsula was signed by the Russian and Austrian emperors. This agreement regulated the part each government was to take in the control of that part of southeastern Europe. On the 5th of June, 1898, it was officially announced that Japan and Russia had signed a protocol guaranteeing the independence of Korea.

Korea's
Inde-
pendence
Acknowl-
edged

In December, 1897, Russia nominated for governor of Crete Prince George of Greece, and this nomination was approved by the Powers.

On August 24, 1898, Count Muravieff, Russian foreign minister, handed to the foreign diplomats at St. Petersburg, a note*

Disarma-
ment of
Europe

* "The maintenance of general peace and the possible reduction of the excessive armaments which weigh upon all nations present themselves in existing conditions to the whole world as an ideal toward which the endeavors of all governments should be directed. The humanitarian and magnanimous ideas of his majesty the emperor, my august master, have been won over to this view in the conviction that this lofty aim is in conformity with the most essential interests and legitimate views of all the powers; and the imperial government thinks the present moment would be very favorable to seeking the means. International discussion is the most effectual means of insuring all peoples' benefit — a real, durable peace, above all putting an end to the progressive development of the present armaments. In the course of the last twenty years the longing for general appeasement has grown especially pronounced in the consciences of civilized nations, and the preservation of peace has been put forward as an object of international policy. It is in its name that great states have concluded between themselves powerful alliances.

"It is the better to guarantee peace that they have developed in proportions hitherto unprecedented their military forces, and still continue to increase them without shrinking from any sacrifice. Nevertheless all these efforts have not been able to bring about the beneficent result desired — pacification. The financial charges following the upward march strike at the very root of public prosperity. The intellectual and physical strength of the nations' labor and capital are mostly diverted from their natural application and are unproductively consumed. Hundreds of millions are devoted to acquiring terrible

from Nicholas II. The document declared that the maintenance of peace and the reduction of the excessive armaments supported by the nations of the world to be the ideal for which all governments ought to strive, and proposing that a universally representative Peace Conference should be held. The conference, it was suggested, should formulate possible plans for the reduction of the immense war footing which the "armed peace" of Europe rendered necessary. By October it was announced that all the governments invited would send three delegates each to the conference. The time set was May, 1899, and the place appointed was The Hague.

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Peace
 Con-
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engines of destruction, which, though to-day regarded as the last word of science, are destined to-morrow to lose all their value in consequence of some fresh discovery in the same field. National culture, economic progress, and the production of wealth are either paralyzed or checked in development. Moreover, in proportion as the armaments of each power increase they less and less fulfil the object the governments have set before themselves.

"The economic crisis, due in great part to the system of armaments *à outrance*, and the continual danger which lies in this massing of war material, are transforming the armed peace of our days into a crushing burden which the peoples have more and more difficulty in bearing. It appears evident that, if this state of things were to be prolonged, it would inevitably lead to the very cataclysm it is desired to avert and the horrors whereof make every thinking being shudder in advance. To put an end to these incessant armaments and to seek the means of warding off the calamities which are threatening the whole world — such is the supreme duty to-day imposed upon all states. Filled with this idea, his majesty has been pleased to command me to propose to all governments whose representatives are accredited to the imperial court the assembling of a conference which shall occupy itself with this grave problem.

"This conference will be, by the help of God, a happy presage for the century which is about to open. It would converge into one powerful focus the effort of all states sincerely seeking to make the great conception of universal peace triumph over the elements of trouble and discord, and it would at the same time cement their agreement by a corporate consecration of the principles of equity and right wherein rest the security of states and the welfare of peoples."

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SIBERIA

SIBERIA

SIBERIA, originally the name of a Tartar fort on the Irtysh, is now applied to the immense territory belonging to Russia in northern Asia. The area is about 4,833,500 square miles. The earliest history of Siberia is still imperfectly known, and the numberless tumuli scattered over its surface only begin to be scientifically explored. The earliest inhabitants seem to have belonged to a stock different from the Ural-Altaians, and are described by Radloff as Yeniseians. They were followed by the Ugro-Samoyedes, whose bronze ornaments buried in the tumuli testify to a high pitch of artistic skill. They were subdued in the eleventh century by Turkish invaders, who themselves were conquered, two centuries later, by the Mongols. The latter swept away the previous civilization. The Russians, who vaguely knew Siberia since the eleventh century through the Novgorodian merchants, began the conquest of the territory in 1580, when a band of Cossack robbers under Yermak subdued the Tartars on the Tobol River. New bands of Cossacks, supported by Russia, and followed by dissenters flying from religious persecution, and peasants escaping from serfdom, poured into Siberia during the next two centuries. The Cossacks took possession of the country, and reached the sea of Okhotsk within the first eighty years after Yermak's expedition. In 1643-50 they also took possession of the Amur, but were compelled by the Chinese to abandon their settlements and forts (1689). The estuary of the Amur was discovered in 1849, and a military post established at the mouth of the river in 1851. The left bank of the Amur and the right bank of the Usuri were annexed in 1853-57; a chain of villages was built along both rivers, and the "accomplished fact" was recognized by China in 1857 and 1860. The Bering Strait was discovered in 1648 by the Cossack Dejneff, who sailed that year around the northeastern extremity of Asia; but the fact remained unknown, and the scientific discovery of the passage between Asia and America belongs to Bering. The first circumnavigation of Asia was, however, not accomplished till 1878-79, when Nordenskiöld, on board the *Vega* sailed through the Arctic Ocean, wintered on the Siberian coast, entered next spring the Bering Strait, and returned to Sweden via the Japanese and Chinese Seas, the Indian Ocean, and the Suez Canal.

Bering
Strait
Discover-
ed

POLAND

DIVISION III

EUROPE

ANCIENT
AND
MODERN

POLAND

Earliest
History

POLAND, a former kingdom of Europe, had, immediately previous to its dismemberment, an area of about 282,000 square miles. The Poles are ethnologically a branch of the Slavs. The name appears first in history as the designation of a tribe, the Poliani, who dwelt between the Oder and the Vistula, surrounded by the kindred tribes of the Masovii, Kujavii, Chrobates, Silesians, Obotrites, and others. In course of time the name Poliani became predominant. There is no real Polish history till the reign of Mieczyslaw (962–992); up to the period of this sovereign we have only fables. He became a convert to Christianity, and Poland took rank as one of the political powers of Europe. Mieczyslaw acknowledged himself to be the feudatory of Otho of Germany. In his time the first Polish bishopric was founded at Posen. He was succeeded by his son, Boleslas I (992–1025), who extended his kingdom beyond the Oder, the Carpathians, and the Dniester. He was recognized as king by the German emperors. After a period of anarchy he was succeeded by his son, Casimir (1040–58), whose reign, and that of his warlike son, Boleslas II (1058–1101), although brilliant, were of little real profit to the country. The latter monarch having murdered the Bishop of Cracow with his own hand, Poland was laid under the papal interdict, and the people absolved from their allegiance, whereupon Boleslas fled to Hungary. For two hundred years from this time Poland was only a duchy. Boleslas III, surnamed the “Wry-mouthed” (1102–39), an energetic monarch, annexed Pomerania.

In the time of Casimir II (1177–94) the senate was established, which was formed from the bishops, palatinates, and castellans. His death was the signal for a contest among the various claimants for the throne, which was speedily followed, as usual, by a division of the country, and during this disturbance Pomerania emancipated itself from Polish rule. In 1226 the Teutonic knights were summoned by the Duke of Masovia to aid him against the pagan Prussians; but they soon became as formidable enemies to Poland as the Prussians, and conquered a large part of Podlachia and Lithuania. The Mongols swept over the country in 1241, committing great devastations, and defeating the Poles in a battle at Liegnitz. Many districts of the country were now colonized by Germans, and

DIVISION III
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ANCIENT AND MODERN
POLAND
First Polish Diet

numbers of Jews took refuge in Poland. The Germans obtained great privileges from the Polish king, and were governed by the Jus Magdeburgicum. The reign (1305–33) of Ladislaus Lokietek (“the Short”) is important because in his reign the first Polish Diet (1331) was summoned at Checiny. In conjunction with Gedymin, grand duke of Lithuania, a vigorous war was carried on against the Teutonic knights. His son, Casimir the Great (1333–70), increased the prosperity of Poland. Commerce was active, and Danzig and Cracow joined the league of the Hansa. In 1347 was enacted the celebrated Statute of Wislica, the foundation of Polish law; in this reign also Galicia was united to Poland.

With Casimir the dynasty of the Piasts became extinct, after a rule of five hundred and ten years, according to the old Polish chronicles. His nephew, Louis, king of Hungary, succeeded him by the will of the deceased monarch and the election of the Diet. On his death without male heirs the succession fell to his daughter, Jadviga or Hedwig, who was induced by the Diet to marry Jagiello, grand duke of Lithuania, who founded the dynasty of the Jagellons (1386–1572), and first united Lithuania and Poland, thus doubling the extent, though not the population of the kingdom. In 1410 the Teutonic knights were defeated at the battle of Grunwald. His son, Ladislaus, who was also chosen king of Hungary, fell at the battle of Varna in 1444 fighting against the Turks. Casimir, who succeeded, recovered West Prussia from the Teutonic knights, and compelled them to do homage for East Prussia. In 1454 was held the Diet of Nieszawa, at which the celebrated statute was enacted which conferred great privileges upon the Polish nobility. The brief reigns of Casimir’s two sons were marked only by the increased power of the Diet, which had by this time absorbed all but the symbols of supreme authority, and had turned Poland from a monarchy into an oligarchy. The king thus possessed but little power beyond what his personal influence gave him.

Period of Prosperity

Sigismund I (1506–48), also son of Casimir IV, had a long and prosperous reign, Poland being at that time the dominant power of eastern Europe. Very different opinions have been held about this monarch, some Polish historians praising his government, while Bobrzynski and others consider him to have been a weak

man. His court was filled with factions fomented by his wife, Bona Sforza, daughter of the duke of Milan, a malignant and avaricious woman. The doctrines of the Reformation* penetrated to Poland, and were a source of fresh discontents. In a war with Basil, the grand duke of Russia, Sigismund lost Smolensk, but he was partly compensated by obtaining lordship over Moldavia. In 1529 Sigismund issued a legal code for Lithuania in the White-Russian language, which forms an important monument of Polish law. In 1537 occurred the first *rokosz*, or rebellion of the nobility against the kingly authority. Sigismund was about to set out to Wallachia, and was obliged to make several concessions before they would accompany him. In 1548, the king died at the advanced age of eighty-two.

He was succeeded by his son, Sigismund II (1548-72), otherwise called Sigismund Augustus, but this prince was not elected till a debate had taken place about his marriage. He had secretly espoused as a widower, a widow of the great house of Radziwill, and the nobles required the union to be annulled, because they fancied that the country would gain more by a foreign alliance. Sigismund, however, carried his point, and his wife was crowned in 1550, but died soon after, not without suspicions of having been poisoned by her mother-in-law, Bona, who in this reign left Poland for her native country, carrying with her a vast amount of treasure. The quarrels between Protestants and Romanists now raged fiercely, and the Reformed faith spread rapidly in Poland. We hear of persons being burned to death for their adherence to it. Sigismund showed great indecision in the matter. In 1569, by the diet of Lublin, Lithuania was finally joined indissolubly to Poland, and from this time there was but one Diet for the united realm, and Warsaw, for greater convenience, became the capital. Poland also gained Livonia. In 1572 the king died. In the Diet half a year after, at Warsaw, it was enacted that there should be toleration for all religious opinions, but the nobles were still to have power over their serfs in spiritual matters.

The population almost doubled itself, but the nobles became every year more impatient of restraint, and the crown was now virtually elective. The members of the Diet, consisting of the palatines and the *posly*, or deputies of the lesser nobility, together

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 POLAND
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**The
 Reforma-
 tion**

Debate
 Concern-
 ing
 King's
 Marriage

Religious
 Persecu-
 tions

* See Vol. III, p. 1084.

DIVISION III
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 EUROPE
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 ANCIENT
 AND
 MODERN
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 POLAND
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with the higher nobility, sat in one chamber. The king had the right of summoning the Diet, which only lasted for six weeks, and its decisions were required at a later stage, as we shall see, to be unanimous. This idea of unanimity in voting is thoroughly Slavonic, and is to be found in the old Russian folknotes. The right of forbidding the passing of any measure was called in Poland the *liberum veto* and brought all legislation to a standstill. It was employed by many of the corrupt Polish nobles to avoid the detection of their malpractices or to gratify their private malice, and hastened the ruin of the country.

Success-
 ful War
 with
 Russia

The
 Poles
 Take
 Moscow

The Diet of 1573 elected Henry of Valois (III of France), a worthless man, who fled in the most ludicrous fashion from the country after a reign of about five months, and was succeeded by Stephen Batory (1575–86), voivode of Transylvania, one of Poland's best kings, who carried on war successfully against the Russians, and compelled Ivan IV to sue for peace; he also organized the Cossacks of the Ukraine into regiments of frontier soldiers. Batory, who had no heirs, was succeeded by Sigismund III (1586–1632), the son of Catharine, sister of Sigismund II, who had married John Vasa, king of Sweden. He signed the *pacta conventa*, as the agreement between the Poles and their king was named, and an alliance offensive and defensive was made between Poland and Sweden. Constant disputes took place between the King and the Diet, and he was a great persecutor of the Dissidents, as the Protestants were called. Sigismund assisted the claims of the false Demetrius, who was assassinated at Moscow in 1606, and we find the Poles afterward taking that city and causing Ladislaus, the son of Sigismund, to be crowned czar; but he was soon obliged to resign, and ultimately the family of the Romanovs ascended the throne in the person of Michael. Nor was Sigismund successful in his attempts to get the crown of Sweden. He died in 1632, and was followed by his sons Ladislaus IV (1632–48) and John Casimir (1648–68).

During the reign of this dynasty Wallachia and Moldavia were taken by the Turks from the Polish protectorate, Livonia was conquered (1605–21) by Sweden, and Brandenburg established itself in complete independence (1657). In 1652 Sicinski, the deputy for Upita, first put an end to the Diet by the *liberum veto*. The Cossacks had been goaded into rebellion by oppression and relig-

ious persecution, as they were members of the Greek Church, and finally went over to Russia in 1654. This occurred in the unfortunate days of John Casimir; and during the same reign Poland was attacked simultaneously by Russia, Sweden, Brandenburg, and the Cossacks; the country was entirely overrun, Warsaw, Wilno, and Lemberg taken, and the king compelled to flee into Silesia. Many of the Polish nobles behaved with great treachery, but the invaders were finally driven out. In 1660 Livonia was ceded to Sweden. In 1667, by the treaty of Andruszowo, the territory beyond the Dnieper was ceded to Russia. John Casimir abdicated in 1668, and retired to France, where he died in 1672.

Michael Wusniowiecki (1668–74), son of a famous general, but a weak and very insignificant man, was elected king, it is said, almost against his own will. He was a mere puppet in the hands of his subjects. A war with Turkey was concluded by the ignominious peace of Buczacz in 1672, by which the town of Kamieniec remained in the hands of the Ottomans. But the senate rejected the treaty; the Polish army was re-enforced, and the command given to the celebrated John Sobieski, who routed the Turks at Chocim the following year. Michael died suddenly in 1674. After some dissensions concerning the election of a successor, John Sobieski (1674–96) was chosen, but his reign, although adorned by the splendid triumph at Vienna (1685), was productive of little good to his country, chiefly through the continual dissensions of the nobles. As Sobieski's successor the Prince of Conti was legally elected and proclaimed king; but Augustus II, of Saxony, whose cause was supported by the House of Austria, entered Poland at the head of a Saxon army, and succeeded in obtaining the throne. Augustus showed little sympathy with his Polish subjects; he promised to reconquer for Poland her lost provinces, but this promise was chiefly made as an excuse for keeping his Saxon army in the country, in violation of the *pacta conventa*. His war with the Turks restored to Poland part of the Ukraine and the fortress of Kamieniec; but that with Charles XII brought nothing but misfortune. Cracow was taken in 1702; Augustus was deposed, and Stanislaus Leszczyński, palatine of Posen, elected in his place. All the courts of Europe acknowledged Stanislaus, except that of Peter the Great; and when the latter defeated Charles at the battle of Pultowa in 1709, Leszczyński was compelled to leave the country, and

DIVISION III
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 EUROPE
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 ANCIENT
 AND
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 —
 POLAND
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**General
 Invasion
 of Poland**

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**Saxon
 King
 Obtains
 the
 Throne**

DIVISION III
 EUROPE
 ANCIENT
 AND
 MODERN
 POLAND

Augustus returned. In this reign Poland lost Courland, one of its fiefs, which was given by the Empress Anna to Biron, her favorite. Religious fanaticism was also rampant. The Dissidents were very much persecuted, and a riot having taken place in 1724 at Thorn, several of the leading citizens, including the burgomaster, were put to death. In 1733 a law was passed excluding them from all public offices.

Weak
 Condition
 of the
 Country

This same year the contemptible Augustus died. At the instigation of some of his supporters, Stanislaus Leszczyński, who was then residing in Lorraine, was induced to return to Poland, and was elected king; but his election was opposed by Austria and Russia, and in his place was chosen Augustus III (son of the last sovereign), a weak and incapable man. The condition of the country was now deplorable. Toward the end of his reign the more enlightened Poles, seeing the radical defects of the constitution, the want of a strong government, and the dangers of the liberum veto, entered into a league for the establishment of a well-organized hereditary monarchy. The Conservative party, however, was strong, and relied on Russian influence, while the reformers supported the Jesuits in their exclusion of dissenters from public offices. In 1764 Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski was elected king, chiefly through the intrigues of the Empress Catharine. Although a man of refined manners, he was weak, and not fitted to serve the country at such a crisis. The reforming, or Czartoryski party (so called because it was headed by a member of this celebrated family) had succeeded in abolishing the liberum veto, and effecting many other improvements; but they at the same time more severely oppressed the Dissidents, whom the Russians pretended to protect.

Partial
 Division
 of Poland

The Confederation of Bar (so called from Bar in Podolia) was now (1768) formed by a few patriots, an army of about 8,000 men was assembled, and war declared against Russia. But they were not successful, and a bold attempt to carry off the king also failed. Frederick the Great, of Prussia, who had formerly gained the consent of Austria to a partition of Poland, made the same proposal to Russia in 1770, and in 1772 the first partition was effected. The territories seized by the three powers, were as follows:—

	SQUARE MILES.	POPULATION.	DIVISION III
Russia	42,000	1,800,000	— EUROPE
Prussia.....	13,000	416,000	— ANCIENT
Austria.....	27,000	2,700,000	AND MODERN — POLAND

The whole country was now aroused to a sense of its danger; and the Diet of the diminished kingdom labored to amend the constitution. In 1788 a remarkable Diet was opened, which lasted four years. Many changes were introduced. The liberum veto was formally suppressed, and the throne was declared hereditary. The burghers were to send deputies to the Diet on the same terms as the nobles; the peasants were not set free, but their condition was improved; and the Dissidents were granted complete toleration, although the Roman Catholic was declared to be the dominant religion. In this, they were encouraged by Prussia, whose king, Frederick William, swore to defend them against Russia. The new constitution was promulgated May 2, 1791. But some of the nobles were discontented at the loss of their privileges by the new order of things, and formed, in 1792, the Confederation of Tarfovica, and, at their instigation, Russian troops invaded Poland and Lithuania. Prussia now joined the Russians, and a second fruitless resistance to the united troops of Prussia and Russia, which was headed by Joseph Poniatowski and Kosciusko, was followed by a second partition (1793) between those two countries, as follows:—

**Toleration
Granted**

**Second
Division**

	SQUARE MILES.	POPULATION.
Russia	96,000	3,000,000
Prussia.....	22,000	1,100,000

This partition the Diet was forced to sanction at the point of the bayonet. The Poles now became desperate; a general rising took place (1794); the Prussians were compelled to retreat to their own country, and the Russians were several times routed. But Austria now appeared on the scene; her army advanced, and fresh Russian troops also arrived. Kosciusko was defeated at the battle of Maciejowice, and taken prisoner. Suvorov (Suwarrow), the Russian general, took Warsaw, and the Polish monarchy was at an end. The third and last partition (1795) distributed the remainder of the country, as follows:—

**Brave
Fight for
Liberty
but Final
Defeat**

**Polish
Mon-
archy
Ended**

**Final
Partition**

	SQUARE MILES.	POPULATION.
Russia	43,000	1,200,000
Prussia.....	21,000	1,000,000
Austria.....	18,000	1,000,000

DIVISION III King Stanislaus resigned his crown, and died at St. Petersburg in 1798. He lies buried in the Roman Catholic church there.

EUROPE
ANCIENT
AND
MODERN
POLAND
Causes of
Fall

The main causes of the fall of Poland appear to have been, (1) the want of patriotism and cohesion among the nobles, each pursuing his own interests, and the country thus being divided among a number of petty tyrants; (2) the want of a national middle class, the trade of the country being almost entirely in the hands of Jews and Germans; (3) the intolerance of the Jesuits, who persecuted on the one hand the Dissidents, which caused them to sympathize with Prussia, and on the other persecuted also the Orthodox inhabitants of the eastern provinces, and the Cossacks, who thus looked to Russia; (4) in a less degree than the first three causes, the weakness of character of the kings—though with such a turbulent nobility it must be confessed that they had no fair play; (5) the want of natural frontiers.

Napoleon's
Unfulfilled
Promises

The subsequent success of the French against the Russians, and the promises of Napoleon to reconstitute Poland, rallied round him the Poles, who distinguished themselves in several campaigns against their old enemies; but all that Napoleon accomplished in fulfilment of his promise was the establishment, by the Treaty of Tilsit (1807), of the duchy of Warsaw, chiefly out of the Prussian share of Poland, with a liberal constitution and the elector of Saxony at its head. In 1809, western Galicia was taken from Austria and added to the duchy, but the advance of the allied army in 1813, put an end to his existence. After the cessions by Austria in 1809, the duchy contained 58,290 English square miles, with a population of about four million. Danzig was also declared a republic, but given back to Prussia (February 3, 1814).

The division of Poland was rearranged by the Congress of Vienna in 1815; the original shares of Prussia and Austria were diminished, and that part of the duchy of Warsaw which was not restored to Prussia and Austria was united as the kingdom of Poland to the Russian empire, but merely by the bond of a personal union (the same monarch being the sovereign of each), and the two states being wholly independent of each other. The remaining parts of Poland were incorporated with the kingdoms which had seized them. The partition of Poland as thus finally arranged was as follows:—

Final
Partition
Arranged

Cracow, with a small surrounding territory, was declared inde-

pendent under the protection of Austria. Alexander I gave the Poles a constitution, including biennial Diets, a responsible ministry, a separate army, and liberty of the press. General Zajacek was appointed viceroy, and the grand duke Constantine took command of the army. For some time matters seemed to go on smoothly, but a spirit of discontent soon developed itself. Complaints were made that the freedom of the press was interfered with, and secret societies were formed. An insurrection broke out in November, 1830; the grand duke was obliged to quit the city, and General Chlopicki was appointed dictator. Early in 1831, a large Russian army, under Diebitsch, entered the country. Chlopicki resigned his dictatorship, and Prince Czartoryski was appointed president of the provisional government. From January, 1831, till September 8 of the same year, a series of sanguinary engagements took place, in which the Poles were at first successful. On the 8th of September, however, Paspevitch, who had succeeded Diebitsch, took Warsaw, and the insurrection was virtually at an end. The Poles had not succeeded in obtaining any assistance from foreign powers.

From this time the independence of Poland was suppressed, and in 1832 it was declared an integral part of the Russian empire, with a separate administration, headed by a viceroy chosen by the czar; the constitution was annulled, and a strict censorship of the press was established. Many of the literary treasures were carried off to the public library of St. Petersburg. Slight outbreaks occurred in 1846, which were severely repressed. Simultaneous disturbances in the Prussian and Austrian portions of Poland met with the same fate. Their leaders in Prussia were imprisoned, but released by the revolution of 1848 at Berlin. In no part of the lost provinces has the work of denationalization been more complete than in Prussian Poland.

After the accession of Alexander II in 1855 the condition of the Poles was considerably ameliorated. An amnesty brought back many of those who had been expatriated, and various other reforms were hoped for. On the 29th of November, on the thirtieth anniversary of the insurrection, many political manifestations took place, both in the churches and elsewhere. On these occasions riots took place, and some persons were killed. Warsaw was now declared in a state of siege. In June, 1862, an

DIVISION III

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POLAND

Unsuccessful
InsurrectionConstitution
Annulled
and
Press RestrictedInsurrections and
Riots

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 —
 Russian
 Conces-
 sions
 Futile

attempt was made to assassinate General Luders, the governor, who was succeeded by the grand duke Constantine, the brother of the emperor, the Marquis Wielopolski being appointed chief minister. Meanwhile Alexander II had made great concessions; the public offices of the country were to be filled by Poles; the Polish language was to be the official one, and municipal institutions were granted to Warsaw and the chief cities. The people, however, received these overtures sullenly, and on the night of January 15, 1863, a secret conscription was held, and those suspected of disaffection to the government were seized in their beds to be enlisted. Attempts were made to assassinate the grand duke and other Russian officials, and Lithuania and Volhynia were also declared in a state of siege. The committee of the national government issued its first proclamation in February, 1863; and a week afterward Mieroslowski raised the standard of insurrection in the northeast, on the frontier of Posen. The committee (Rzad) had secret sessions, and was for a long time able to defy the Russian government; its emissaries, called stiletcziki, put to death many obnoxious persons and Russian spies. It also issued proclamations from time to time; and many districts of Augustovo, Radom, Lublin, Volhynia, and Lithuania were speedily in insurrection. It was a mere guerrilla war, and no great or decisive conflicts took place; but the sympathy of Europe was largely enlisted on behalf of the Poles. Incendiarism and murder were rampant; and at last, with the assistance of Prussia and the secret support of Austria, the czar's troops succeeded in trampling out (1864) the last embers of insurrection. Langiewicz, one of the leaders who had directed the struggle, held out for some time, but at length made his escape into Galicia. From the time of the suppression the kingdom of Poland has disappeared from all official documents.

Oppo-
 sition
 Finally
 Obliter-
 ated

Russian
 Poland

Russian Poland.— The so-called "Kingdom of Poland," united to Russia in 1815, had its own constitution till 1830, and a separate government till 1864, when, after the suppression of the revolt, the last visible remnant of independence was taken away. The administration was at first given to eight military governors, and then to a commission sitting in St. Petersburg. Finally, in 1868, the Polish province was absolutely incorporated with Russia, and the ten governments into which it was divided are grouped with the governments of Russia proper.



THE HISTORY OF TURKEY

INCLUDING BULGARIA, SERVIA, AND RUMANIA

[*Authorities* : Von Hammer-Purgstall's *Geschichte des Osmanischen Reiches* (1834-35) is the standard history of Turkey which has been largely used in Sir E. Creasy's accurate *History of the Ottoman Turks* (1854), and in the *Turkey* ("Story of the Nations" series, 1888). Another reliable book is the *History of Modern Europe* by Richard Lodge, M. A. Among other writers treating of special periods may be mentioned Finlay, Chesney, H. von Moltke, Kinglake, Freeman, and the diplomatic papers of Gentz, Metternich, and Lord Stratford de Redcliffe. See also works by Rev. H. F. Tozer (2 vols., 1869), Col. James Baker (1877), "A Consul's Daughter" (1878), E. L. Clark (New York, 1883), Southerland Menzies (3d ed. 1883), Rudler and Chisholm (1885), E. de Laveleye (Eng. trans. 1887), Lucy Garnett (1891-92), and D. Georgiades (*La Turquie actuelle*, 1892); also, for Asiatic Turkey, by Geary (1878), Davis (1879), W. M. Ramsay (1890), and Cuinet (Paris, 1891); Statesman's Year-Book (1899).



THE Turkish, or Ottoman, empire, comprising all the countries in which Turkish supremacy is directly or indirectly recognized, includes some of the fairest portions of the world, and several of its earliest and most celebrated seats of civilization. It is not so much a continuous dominion as it is an aggregate of governments, often widely separated both by position and interest, and only united by having been the subjects of a common conquest. Its vast territories consisting partly of mainland and partly of islands scattered over the bosom or along the shores of inland seas are situated in three different quarters of the globe; viz., in the southeast of Europe, the west of Asia, and the northeast of Africa. The Turkish supremacy extends over 1,609,240 square miles, with a population of about 40,000,000 people. The Turkish dominions in Africa consist of an immense tract of country, facing the Mediterranean from the frontiers of Tunis, and extending along the western shore of the

Location
of Terri-
tory

DIVISION III Red Sea to the frontier of Abyssinia inland, its boundaries are thus
EUROPE Tripoli, Fezzan, Barca, and Egypt. Tunis, though nominally
ANCIENT AND MODERN subject to Turkey, is now a French dependency. A large part of
TURKEY the country is composed of sandy deserts, in the partial occupa-
Dominions in Africa tion of wandering Arabs, though there are some regions which
strikingly contrast with the general barrenness. The Turkish
dominions in Africa are treated in the chapters on Egypt, Barca,
Fezzan, and Tripoli.

Turkey in Asia Turkey in Asia, in its widest sense, includes within its geographical
limits the long belt of Arabia which lines the eastern shore of the
Red Sea. Its northern boundary is formed by the Black Sea, the
Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmora, and the Hellespont; the western
boundary is the Archipelago of the Mediterranean; southern
boundary, Arabia; and the eastern, the Persian Gulf, Persia, and
Transcaucasian Russia. This territory includes about 730,000
square miles, and has a population estimated at about 16,000,000.

Earliest Grant of Land In the early part of the thirteenth century the little Turkish
tribe which in due course was to found the Turkish empire fled
before the Mongols from its original home in Central Asia, and,
passing through Persia, entered Armenia, under the leadership of
Suleiman Shah, its hereditary chief. Er-Toghrul, his son, who
succeeded him as head of the tribe, when wandering about the
country with his warriors, came one day upon two armies engaged
in a furious battle. Er-Toghrul at once rode to the assistance of
the weaker party, who were on the point of giving way, but who,
through the timely aid thus rendered, not only regained what they
had lost, but totally defeated their enemies. The army thus saved
proved to be that of the Seljuk* sultan of Asia Minor, and their
adversaries to be a horde of marauding Mongols. By way of

Origin of Dynasty *Seljuks, a dynasty originally Tartar, and descended from a chieftain named Seljuk.
They settled first in Bokhara, whence they made their way into Khorassan; and afterward,
under the name of the Iranian, Kermanian, and Rumi dynasties, governed great part of
the south of Asia. Seljuk was the son of Dekak, one of the bravest and most trusted
officers of Bigu, chief or khan of the Hoi — the Tartars, who inhabited the plain north of
the Caspian. This prince brought up Seljuk from his boyhood; but afterward, for some
offense, banished him from his territories; and Seljuk in consequence settled in the neigh-
borhood of Samarkand and Bokhara, where he laid the foundation of a small state. He
also embraced Mohammedanism, and is said to have been killed, at the age of 107, in a
skirmish with the pagan Tartars on the frontiers of the Mohammedan empire. Seljuk
left three or, according to others, four sons; but the most influential members of his
family were his two grandsons, Mohammed or Togrul Beg, and Daoud or Giafar Beg.

recompense for this service Er-Toghrul was granted a tract of land on the Byzantine frontier, including the towns of Sugut and Eshi Shehr. Osman, the son of Er-Toghrul, and the prince from whom the race derives its name of Osmanli, corrupted by Europeans into Ottoman, was born in Sugut in 1258. While still young, Osman won from the Greeks Karaja Hisar and some other towns, on which account he received from his suzerain, the Seljuk sultan of Konya, the title of beg, or prince.

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 ANCIENT
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In 1300 the Seljuk empire fell to pieces under the onslaught of the Mongols, who were, however, powerless to replace it by any government of their own. Thereupon ten separate Turkish dynasties arose from its ruins. The principalities which they occupied were all eventually merged in that of the Osmanlis, once the least among them, and the inhabitants assumed the name of Ottoman. Hence by far the greater portion of the people called Ottomans owe their name to a series of political events. On the collapse of the Seljuk power the Greeks retained hardly any possessions in Asia except Bithynia and Trebizond. Armenia was abandoned for a time to roving Tartar on Turkoman tribes, till some sixty or seventy years later on one or two petty dynasties sprang up and founded short-lived states.

Name of
 "Ottoman"
 Taken

The year 1301, in which Osman, who shortly before had succeeded his father, first coined money, and caused the Khutba, or public prayer for the reigning monarch, to be read in his name,—the two prerogatives of an independent sovereign in the east—may be regarded as the birth-year of the Ottoman empire; and it was about this time that his followers and subjects began to call themselves Osmanlis. Having thoroughly established his authority, Osman began to wrest from the Greeks many of the neighbor-

Birth
 of the
 Ottoman
 Empire

Oriental historians differ as to the passage of the Seljuk family into Khorassan, some of them placing this event in the reign of Mahmoud, of Ghiznee, and others in that of his son Massoud. It appears certain, however, that Abu Taleb Mohammed Roeneddin, named also Togrul Beg, was crowned at Nishapur, A. D. 1038, being the first of the Iranian dynasty of the Seljukids. The conquest of Nishapur was followed by that of Herat and Merv, and shortly after of nearly the whole of Khorassan. The whole of the reign of Togrul Beg (twenty-six years) was occupied in wars with the sultans of the Gaznevid dynasty, and in successive conquests of the provinces of Persia; and on his death, and that of his brother Giafar Beg, the sovereignty devolved upon the son of the latter, Alp Arsian, 1063. About the year 1226 the Seljukids became tributary to the Mongols, who summoned them to do the most servile homage, deposed and set them up, and even put them to death at their pleasure.

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ing towns and strongholds. He then turned his attention to the administration of his state, and such was the feeling of security he succeeded in establishing that large numbers of people from the surrounding districts flocked into his dominion and became his subjects. Ghazan, the khan of the Mongols, who had entered into an alliance with the emperor of Constantinople, sent to all the Turkish princes an arrogantly worded message forbidding them to do any hurt to the Byzantine territories. Thereupon Osman



PALACE OF BELISARIUS, CONSTANTINOPLE

assembled an army forthwith, marched to Nicæa, and thence to the Bosphorus, laying waste the country as he went, and taking possession of a number of towns and villages. The Ottoman chiefs next resolved to acquire Brusa, the natural capital of these territories. They built around it a series of towers, in which they placed garrisons, with the view of intercepting communications and eventually starving the city into submission. They were successful in the attempt, and in 1326 the town fell.

Orkhan, who succeeded his father Osman, continued the war against the Greeks, and captured many of their towns. Hitherto

the Ottomans had not interfered with the other Turkish states; but now Orkhan, granting a short respite to the Byzantines, took advantage of a dispute regarding succession to the throne in one of the principalities, and annexed it to the Ottoman dominions. To his son Suleyman the Ottomans owe their first establishment in Europe; one night that prince, accompanied by a few companions, crossed the Hellespont on a raft, and surprised the town of Gallipoli. The next day he brought over a number of Turkish troops, and captured many of the neighboring towns and villages. Orkhan, who died in 1359, is celebrated for the number of mosques, colleges, and other public institutions that he founded. During his reign the Ottoman army was thoroughly organized, and a body of regular paid soldiers was raised, which formed the nucleus of the military power of the state, though the old irregular militia was still called out whenever a campaign was to be undertaken. The famous corps of the Janissaries* (meaning new troops) was instituted at this time. It consisted of the children of Christian subjects, who were educated as Mussulmans, and brought up to a military life.

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 First
 Estab-
 lishment
 in
 Europe

Murad I, the son and successor of Orkhan, found himself free to extend his possessions across the Hellespont, since the city of Angora had been taken from certain territorial lords who had attacked the Ottoman dominions. He succeeded to the throne in 1360, and in one year had reached Adrianople which then, and for a century after was the Ottoman capital in Europe. He fell by assassination on the battle-field of Kossova in 1389, but before the commander expired, the field was won and with it Servia, Wallachia, and nearly all Bulgaria. It was, in fact, their last struggle

Adria-
 nople the
 European
 Capital

* Osman began the long history of his people by instituting the tribute of children and the murder of dangerous relatives near the throne. In his case it was his uncle whom he assassinated, and ever since it has been an established Ottoman custom to secure the throne by this awful means. The tribute of flesh and blood was a commentary of Osman's upon that law of the Prophet which permits unbelievers to continue in their own faith upon the payment of a money tribute. Osman demanded children as well, and thus began that famous force recruited by Moslemized Christian children, which was known as the Janissaries, and which in after time was to imperil the rule of his successors. But never while this force lasted did the subject nations revolt against their Ottoman masters, for in the ranks of the first troops they would have encountered were their own children, though individually unknown to them. As for the Janissaries, brought up apart from all human ties, they were the fiercest and most merciless soldiery which ever existed, adding to the ferocity of the savage the terrible might of discipline.

Janis-
 saries

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for life, and was embittered by the fact that Christian regiments fought in the Ottoman ranks, for Murad systematically made each enslaved people serve to enslave the rest. In our happy times the process is precisely reversed, and each liberated nation incites its neighbor to pass through the intermediate tributary condition to the full joy of absolute freedom from the stranger rule which it has so long endured.

Title of
 Sultan
 First
 Taken

It was the well-known Bayazid, or Bajazet, who succeeded Murad; and his rapidity of military movement soon earned him the sobriquet of "the Thunderbolt," or "the Lightning." Of his career it is sufficient to say that he was the first Ottoman chief to take formally the title of sultan, which he forced the Caliph of Cairo to give him — sultan meaning or implying the supremacy in civil, as caliph in spiritual power, that he was the first to besiege Constantinople (1393), and to conquer the Peloponnesus (1397), and that notwithstanding his power he fell utterly before the irresistible Tamerlane when the great Tartar inroad burst upon him in 1401. Bayazid, as the tale goes, was shut up in a cage of iron bars, and so drawn about in the wake of Timur's army till he died, two years later. Though much doubt has been lately thrown on the story, it has not as yet been disproved. If Bayazid had not been so utterly cruel himself, had not murdered his brother, for instance, to make sure of his own succession, one could almost pity the poor bedraggled and insulted Thunderbolt in his cage.

Bayazid
 Caged

Moham-
 med I

A brief period of division during the time that Tamerlane's empire held together was followed by the reunion of the Ottomans under Mohammed I, one of the Thunderbolt's sons. Under him the position was hardly more than regained; but under his able son, Murad II (Amurath II), who ruled from 1421 to 1451, the dominions of the Greek empire were contracted to a narrow strip around Constantinople and some possessions in the Peloponnesus, while in 1444 the flower of the Hungarian chivalry fell before the Ottomans at Varna.

Murad abdicated, and sought the retirement of Magnesia; but once again he had to take up the reins of government. This time the Janissaries and Sipahis, accustomed to the firm rule of the victor of Varna, had refused obedience to the young Mohammed. The sultan remained at the head of the state until his death, which occurred in 1451.

Mohammed II, who now ascended the throne for the third time, determined to accomplish the long-cherished design of his house, and make Constantinople the capital of the Osmanli empire. He easily found a pretext for declaring war against Constantine Palæologus and in the spring of 1453 led an immense army to besiege the city. His troops covered the ground before the landward walls between the Sea of Marmora and the Golden Horn; but he found that even his monster cannon could do but little against the massive fortifications. At length he resolved to assail the city from its weakest side, that facing the Golden Horn. But the Greeks, having foreseen the likelihood of an attack from this quarter, had thrown a great chain across the entrance to the harbor, thereby blocking the passage against the hostile ships. The Ottomans, however, constructed a road of planks, five miles long, across the piece of ground between the Bosphorus, where their own fleet lay, and the upper part of the Golden Horn. Along this road they hauled a number of their galleys, with sails set to receive the aid of the favoring wind, and launched them safely in the harbor, whence they cannonaded with more effect the weaker defenses of the city. This compelled the Greek emperor to withdraw a portion of his little garrison from the point where the more serious attack was being made, to repair the destruction wrought in this new quarter. At dawn on May 29, the Ottomans advanced to storm the city. The Christians offered a desperate resistance but in vain. The emperor died fighting in the forefront of the battle, and at noon Mohammed rode in triumph into his new capital and went straight to the cathedral of St. Sophia; there, before the high altar, where the preceding night Constantine had received the Holy Sacrament, he prostrated himself in the Moslem act of worship. The capture of Constantinople is not the only exploit to which Mohammed owes his surname of Fatih, or the Conqueror; he also reduced Servia and Bosnia, overthrew and annexed the Greek empire of Trebizond and the Turkish principality of Karaman, acquired the suzerainty of the Crimea, and won many of the islands of the Greek archipelago from the Venetians and Genoese. But before Belgrade, which he had besieged as the first step to an attack upon the northern kingdoms, he suffered a serious defeat, being driven, wounded, from the field by Hunyady and John Capistran, with the loss of three hundred cannon and 25,000 men.

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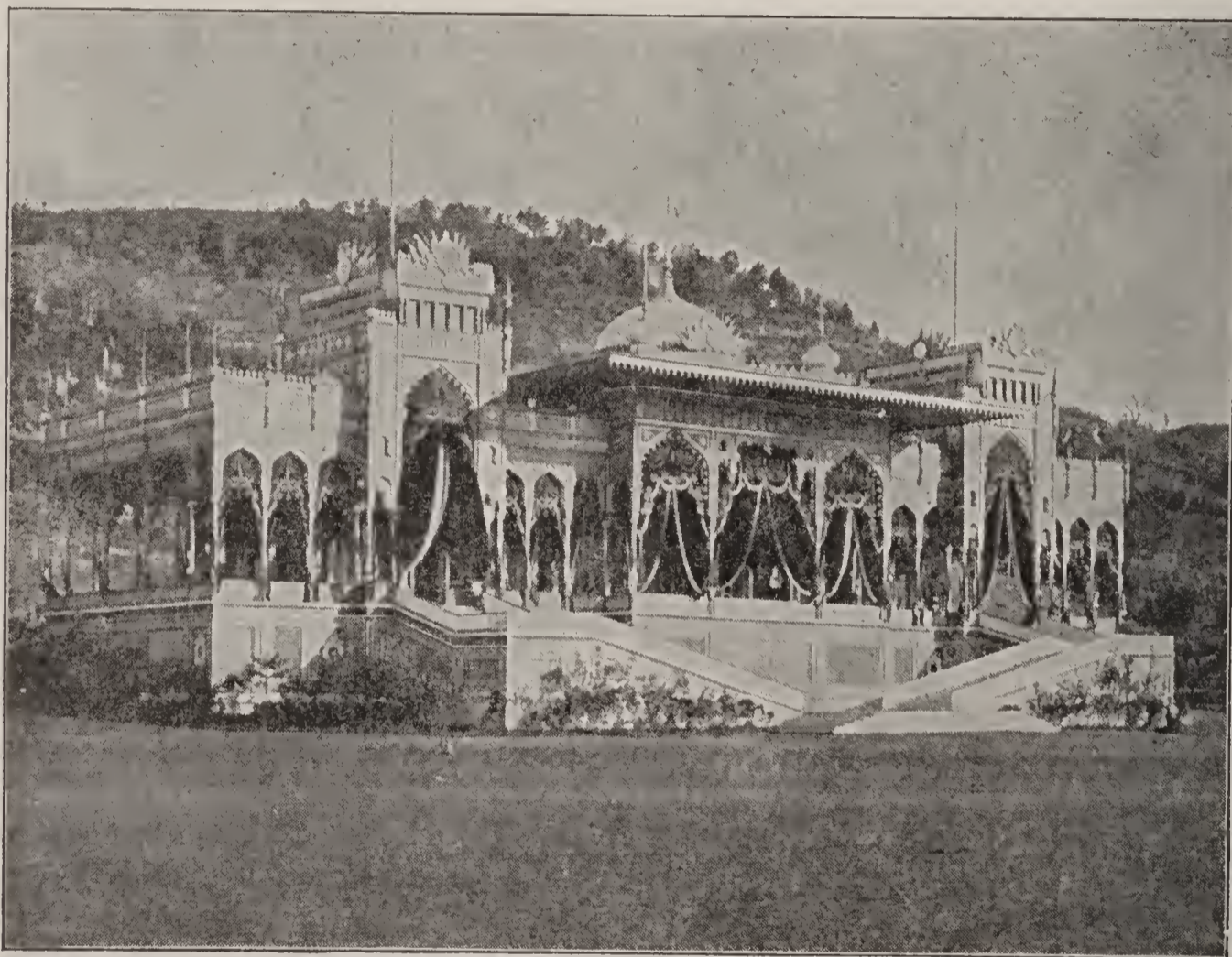
ANCIENT
AND
MODERN

TURKEY

**Deter-
mination
to Make
Constantinople
the
Capital****Shrewd
Attack****Constantinople
Taken****Moslem
Worship
in Cathed-
ral of
St.
Sophia****Other
Con-
quests**

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Rhodes, whither an Ottoman force was despatched, was the scene of another failure; here the knights of St. John gallantly and successfully withstood their Mohammedan foes, and compelled them to retire from the island. In Albania a long and, for a time, successful resistance was offered to the Turkish arms by the famous George Castriot, the Iskender Beg of the Turks. This chieftain had been in his youth in the service of Murad II, and was by him appointed governor of his native Albania, whereupon he revolted,



KIOSH OF THE REVIEWS, CONSTANTINOPLE

Sultan's
 Designs
 on Rome

and tried to restore the independence of his country. Among the favorite designs of Mohammed were the subjugation of Italy and the establishment of the Mussulman dominion in the capital of western Christendom. A Turkish army crossed the Adriatic and stormed the city of Otranto; but its further progress was stopped, and forever, by the death of the Conqueror, which occurred a few months later, in 1481. The Mohammedan soldiers besieged in Otranto, being unsupported from Turkey, after a long and brave defense, were forced to surrender.

His son, Bayazid II (1481-1512), had not the power of his

father, though the extent of his dominions was maintained. The Janissaries began to murmur at his degeneracy, disorders arose, and finally he was murdered by his son and successor, Selim I (1512–1520). Selim drove back the advancing Persians to the banks of the Euphrates and the Tigris, defeated the Mamelukes, and in 1517 subjugated Egypt, Syria, and Palestine. Then the last representative of the Saracen caliphs, deriving his title directly from the uncle of the Prophet, and wielding a shadowy authority among the Mameluke princes of Egypt, fell into the hands of Selim. By what arts we know not the unhappy man was compelled to nominate Selim his successor in the caliphate, and as soon as this had been publicly done, he vanished forever from men's sight. Thus an Ottoman Turk sat in the seat of the Prophet.

But the greatest splendor of the Ottoman empire was attained under Soliman I (1520–66), called the Magnificent. In his reign the guns of the Ottoman fleet were heard around the shores of Sicily, and the Crescent flaunted defiance to the Christian Cross in the bay of Naples. In 1522 he captured the island of Rhodes, after a desperate siege, from the knights of St. John, and in 1526 subdued half of Hungary on the field of Mohacs. He exacted a tribute from Moldavia, and in Asia laid the Turkish yoke upon Bagdad, Mesopotamia, and Georgia. While the nations of the West were wasting their strength in fruitless internecine convulsions, his armies crossed the Danube, and threatened the existence of Austria, and his triumphant progress was only arrested under the walls of Vienna by the desperate heroism of its inhabitants (1529). His navies, led by the corsair *Barbarossa*, converted the Mediterranean into a Turkish lake, and his hordes devastated with sword and flame the fair islands of Corfu, Minorca, and Sicily. The knights of St. John had retired to Malta from Rhodes, and here they endured a second siege at the hands of the Ottomans. After heroic struggles the latter were beaten off, but there is no knowing what would have been the result had Soliman himself taken the field, as he now intended to do. But in the next year death frustrated his designs. When he died, the power of the Crescent had reached its culminating point; and our forefathers may be forgiven for the terror with which they contemplated a progress so swift and apparently so irresistible. Had Rome possessed her ancient vigor, there can be no doubt that she would

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**The
Knights
of St.
John
Defeated
at
Rhodes**

**Second
Conflict
at Malta**

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Degen-
 eracy
 of the
 Othman
 Race

have proclaimed a crusade against these dangerous enemies of Christianity and freedom. Yet Francis of France did not hesitate to ally himself with them, and several campaigns in Italy saw the Lilies and the Crescent side by side. As it was, the deliverance of western Europe from the peril that threatened it seems to have been due to the imbecility of the Turkish princes, rather than to any heroic exertions of the Christian sovereigns. After Soliman the Magnificent, the race of Othman gradually degenerated. Most of his successors ascended the throne from a prison, and wasted life amid the enervating pleasures of the harem, until their career was terminated by poison or the bowstring.

Cyprus
 Con-
 quered
 and
 Annexed

Europe
 Freed
 from
 Turkish
 Aggres-
 sion

Selim II (1566-74), the successor of Soliman, was a miserable voluptuary, and, indeed, he earned the name of Selim the Sot. Fortunately for him, he had a very able vizier, Mohammed Sokolli, who redeemed the incapacity of his master. He made peace with Austria, extorting, however, a yearly tribute of 30,000 ducats as a lien upon Hungary. Desirous of connecting the Don and the Volga by a canal, which would place the Black Sea in direct communication with the Caspian, he attacked Astrakhan as a point of strategical importance, but was opposed by the Russians, a people previously unknown in southern Europe, and was compelled to retire. In 1570 the Turkish navy was able to conquer and annex Cyprus, the last addition of any importance the Ottoman empire ever received; but in 1571 the maritime power of the Turks received a crushing blow by the victory of Don Juan of Austria, at Lepanto. This was one of the decisive battles of the world, for it completely freed Europe from further apprehension of Turkish aggression. Don Juan had, under his command, the combined fleets of Venice, Spain, Genoa, Malta, and Pius V, and almost annihilated the Turkish forces.

Military
 Insubor-
 dination

Murad III, who now succeeded to the Ottoman throne, was no improvement upon his father; he ruled in name only, all real power being in the hands of worthless favorites. As a natural consequence, the empire began rapidly to decay; corruption affected all ranks of official society, the sultan himself selling his favors for bribes; while the other great curse of old Turkey, military insubordination, showed itself in a more threatening aspect than ever. The Janissaries mutinied on several occasions, and each time compelled the weak Murad to accede to their demand.

Notwithstanding this wretched state of affairs, some extensive and important, though not permanent, additions were made to the empire. These, consisting of Azerbaijan and Georgia — the latter had been in alliance with Persia — were the result of a campaign against the last-named country, the internal condition of which was then even worse than that of Turkey. Transylvania, Moldavia, and Wallachia rose in revolt, encouraged by the war which broke out in 1593 between Turkey and Austria. In 1594 hostilities with Persia were resumed; and early in the following year Murad died, leaving the empire to his eldest son, Mohammed III.

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 EUROPE
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 AND
 MODERN
 ———
 TURKEY
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Things had been going very badly in the war with Austria, when, in June, 1596, the grand vizier and the mufti, joining their voices with that of Sa'd-ud-Din, the historian, prevailed upon the new sultan, whose character resembled only too closely that of his father, to place himself at the head of the Ottoman army, which was about to march into Hungary. Four months later Mohammed met the imperialists under the Archduke Maximilian, and the Transylvanians, led by Prince Sigismund, on the marshy plain of Keresztes, where a battle, lasting three days, took place. Although at one time things looked so hopeless for the Turks that the sultan would have fled but for the entreaties and remonstrances of Sa'd-ud-Din, the Osmanlis gained a complete and decisive victory. But nothing came of it; for Mohammed, instead of following up his success, hastened back to Constantinople to receive the congratulations of his courtiers, and to resume his indolent and voluptuous life. Nothing else worthy of note occurred during his inglorious reign. He died in 1603.

Mohammed III

Victory
 Won, but
 Nothing
 Gained

Mohammed III was the last heir to the Ottoman throne who was entrusted with the government of a province during his father's lifetime; henceforth all the sons of the sultan were kept secluded in a pavilion called the Kafes, or cage, in the seraglio gardens. This new system, which was necessarily very prejudicial to the character of the future rulers, had its origin in the same dread of rivals that caused a sultan in those times to put all his brothers to death immediately on his accession.

Dread of
 Rivals

The reign of Ahmed I is not marked by any event of importance. The peace of Sitavorok (Szitvatorok) between Turkey and Austria, 1606, made no change of any moment in the territorial possessions of either power, but it is interesting as being the first treaty in

First
 Treaty
 with
 Christian
 Power on
 Equality

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which an Ottoman sultan condescended to meet a Christian prince on a footing of equality. Hitherto the Turkish monarchs had affected to grant merely short truces to their European enemies. But this peace was to be permanent; the annual payment or tribute of thirty thousand ducats by Austria was to be discontinued; and the ambassadors sent from the Porte were now to be officials of rank, and not, as formerly, menials of the palace or camp.

Peculiar
 Turkish
 Law of
 Succession

Ahmed died in 1617, and was succeeded by his brother Mustafa I. Up to this time the succession had been regularly from father to son; but, as Mustafa's life had been spared by his brother on his accession, that prince now ascended the throne in preference to Osman, the eldest son of Ahmed I. This arose from the peculiar nature of the Turkish law of succession, which gives the throne to the eldest male relative of the deceased sovereign. Mustafa was, however, imbecile; so after a reign of three months he was deposed, and his nephew Osman, though only fourteen years of age, seated on the throne in his stead.

Revolt
 of the
 Janissaries

An unsuccessful war with Persia, which had been going on for some time, was now brought to an end by a treaty which restored to the shah all the territories conquered since the days of Selim II. In 1621 the sultan led his troops against Poland, partially with the view of weakening the Janissaries, whom he justly regarded as the most deadly enemies of his empire. This expedition was not attended by any important results, neither Turks nor Poles gaining a decisive advantage. On his return Osman formed another plan for freeing himself from his tyrannical soldiery; he gave out that he was going to make the pilgrimage to Mecca, but his real intention was to proceed only as far as Damascus, there place himself at the head of an Asiatic army, and march against the Janissaries and Sipahis in Constantinople. But the Janissaries heard of this design, and rose in revolt. Incited by a vizier whom Osman had deposed, they seized their sovereign, and dragged him to the state prison of the Seven Towers, where shortly afterward he was foully murdered by a traitor minister, in 1622. The wretched Mustafa was again raised to the throne, only to be deposed fifteen months afterward in favor of Murad, the eldest surviving brother of Osman.

In Murad IV, who succeeded to the supreme power in 1623, when a child of eleven years, Turkey had once more a sultan of

the old Osmanli type. Since the death of Soliman the empire had been cursed with a succession of *rois fainéants*, under whom it had rapidly fallen to decay. The vigor and courage of the new sultan stayed it for a while upon its downward course, and restored it to something of its former glory. While still quite young, Murad had been compelled by the mutinous Janissaries to deliver into their hands his favorite vizier, Hafiz Pasha. This embittered him against that corps, and, when soon afterward the soldiers began openly to discuss his deposition, Murad swiftly and suddenly cut off the ringleaders and all others whom he suspected of disloyalty; this struck fear into the hearts of the disaffected soldiers, who, finding themselves without any one to organize or direct them, returned to their allegiance. Murad next turned his attention to checking the intolerable corruption and abuses which pervaded every department of the state. He had but one simple, though terribly drastic method of reform—the execution of every official whom he even suspected of any malpractise. Having restored some sort of order to his capital, Murad marched against Persia, and recaptured the city and district of Erivan. In 1638 he undertook a second and more important campaign against the same power. His object was the recovery of Bagdad, which had been taken by the shah's troops some sixteen years before. The Persians resisted long and gallantly, but at length the Turks carried the city by storm, when Murad disgraced himself by the slaughter of a vast number of inhabitants. By the peace which followed Turkey restored Erivan to Persia, but retained Bagdad, which has been in its hands ever since. Murad, on his return, entered Constantinople in triumph. This sultan died in 1640; his death is said to have been hastened by habits of intemperance, which he had contracted toward the close of his life.

Ibrahim, the brother of the late sultan, now mounted the Ottoman throne. He was another of those wretched princes who gave themselves up to the indulgence of their own follies and vices without bestowing a thought upon the welfare of their people or the prosperity of their country. All the evils that had been curbed for a time by the stern hand of Murad broke out afresh and in worse form than before. The sultan himself was the most venal of the venal. Shut up in the seraglio, he thought of nothing but the gratification of his own and his favorites' caprices; gem-

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**Murad's
Vigorous
Sup-
pression
Policy****Extreme
Selfish-
ness
of his
Succes-
sor**

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 TURKEY

encrusted coaches and pleasure-boats, and carpets and hangings of richest sable for his rooms, were among the objects for which he plundered his people, and sold every office to the highest bidder. This went on for eight years, till at length his subjects, weary of his exactions and tyranny, deposed him, and made his son Mohammed, then only seven years of age, sultan in his stead. The only events of note that occurred during Ibrahim's tenure of power are the capture of Azoff from the Cossacks and the occupation of Crete. This island, which was then in the hands of Venice, was soon overrun, but it was not till well on in the next reign, after a siege of twenty years, that the Ottomans succeeded in taking Candia, the capital.

Mohammed IV (1648–87) was raised to the throne when only seven years of age, and during his minority the sovereign power remained in the hands of that pampered body of privileged soldiery of evil fame under the title of Janissaries. The Janissaries were no longer the same body which had so powerfully contributed to the rise of the Ottoman dominions, living for the sultan alone, and blindly following his commands. One sultan had allowed them wives, another had admitted Ottoman children as well as Christian to their ranks; so that the force, once a foreign one, without national interest or sympathies, was now encumbered by all the hopes and claims of kindred and faction. Already ten outbreaks were counted in the reign of Murad III, and soon their power rose to the point of deposing no less than three sovereigns in thirty years; namely, Mustafa I, whom they twice dethroned; Othman II, whom they strangled; and Ibrahim.

Here we must notice a serious reason for the decay of the ability once manifested in the Ottoman Turks. The custom of the murder of princes by the sultans on their accession had extended itself to a new form, the jealousy of their own children. If a child showed talent, fear painted him as dangerous; the earlier sultans had used their sons as viceroys and generals, but their successors confined them to the society of the eunuchs and women of the harem. They were brought up in indolence and ignorance, and the less capable a prince was, the better chance he had of living to succeed to the throne. Therefore we see sultan after sultan, without capacity or vigor, knowledge or virtue, until the existence of such a rotten state becomes a standing miracle.

Power
of the
Janis-
saries

Causes
for the
Decline
of the
Empire

Fortunately for the Turks, there rose to the head of affairs at this critical conjuncture one Mohammed Kiuprili, whose military capacity was equaled by his administrative skill. At his decease in 1661 his son Ahmed, not less distinguished for genius and energy, succeeded him in the viziership. The losses of the previous reigns were almost entirely recovered by the efforts of these two eminent men; and the Ottomans might have established themselves securely in their conquered territories but for the ambition of their successor, the vizier Kara Mustafa, who invaded Austria, laid siege to Vienna, and was totally defeated by the Germans and Poles, under King John Sobieski, and Duke Charles of Lorraine, 1683.

In 1687 Mohammed was deposed, and succeeded by Soliman II, in whose reign the genius of a third Kiuprili (Mustafa) secured for the Turkish arms a series of triumphs. Austria was several times defeated, and the war was protracted through the reigns of Ahmed II (1691-95), and Mustafa II (1695-1703), until, after the death of Kiuprili at Salankament in 1691, the Cross once more rose triumphant over the Crescent, and Turkey was forced to conclude a disastrous peace at Carlowitz in 1699. It was in the later campaigns terminated by this treaty that Prince Eugene first displayed his military genius. Mustafa was now deposed.

In the reign of his brother and successor, Ahmed III (1703-30), the Morea (Peloponnesus) was recaptured from the Venetians, but this advantage was more than counterbalanced by the loss of Hungary. Charles XII of Sweden, whom Ahmed generously protected after the battle of Pultowa, involved himself in a war with Russia. In the course of this war the czar, although surrounded with his whole army, and completely in the power of the Turks, was allowed to escape, through the address of the czarina Catharine and the imbecility of the Turkish vizier. The peace of the Pruth was concluded, and the only gain to the Turks, who might have stayed for centuries the flood of Russian aggression, was the comparatively unimportant town of Azov, which the Russians had held since 1696. War with Austria followed, and Prince Eugene inflicted defeat after defeat upon the Turks, until his victories of Peterwaradein (1716) and Belgrade (1717) compelled them to sign the Treaty of Passarowitz, by which they lost Temesvar, Belgrade, and part of Servia and Wallachia.

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Power

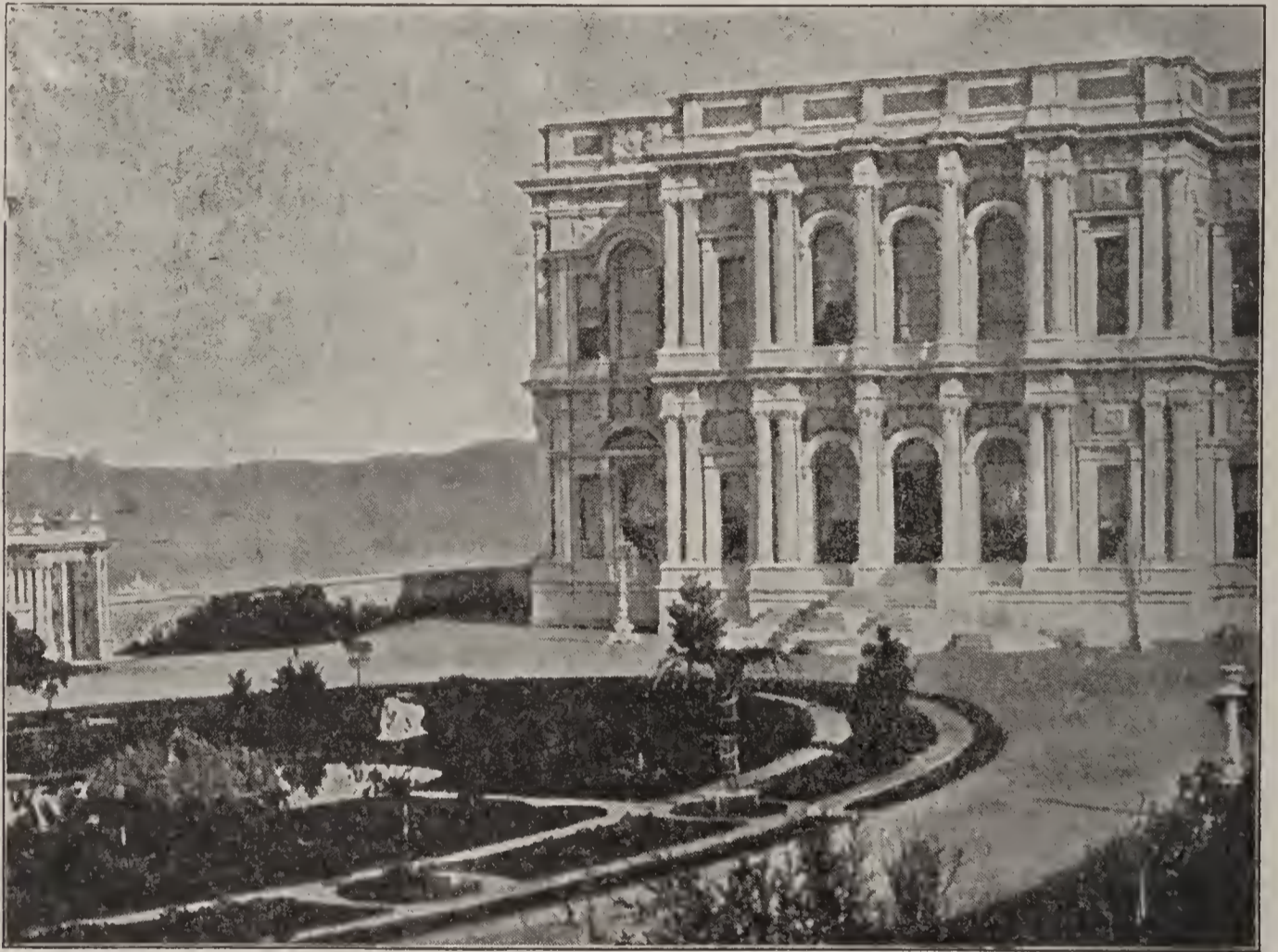
Re-

covered

Loss of
HungaryWar
with
Austria
and
Other
Losses

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With the Treaty of Passarowitz the Venetian republic disappears from the scene of Turkish warfare. Russia gradually becomes a more formidable enemy than Austria; and the subject of Christian races imperceptibly enters on the first stages of national consolidation and revival. After the long and resultless war with Persia, hostilities again broke out with Russia in 1736. Marshal Munnich stormed the lines of Perekop and devastated the Crimea; but he was unable to maintain his army there, and retreated with greatly



IMPERIAL PALACE OF TCHERIGAN, CONSTANTINOPLE

Succeed-
 ing
 Conflicts

diminished forces. Azoff was taken by General Lascy; and in the following year Otchakoff fell into the hands of Munnich, while the Crimea was again invaded and ravaged. Austria now joined Russia, and the Porte had to sustain a war in Servia and Bosnia, as well as on the coasts of the Black Sea. The double combat was carried on with very different results. While the Russians won victory after victory, and finally penetrated into the heart of Moldavia, the Austrians were defeated, and driven across the Danube. On their advancing from Belgrade in the summer of 1739, they were defeated with great loss at Krotzka, and compelled to sue for

peace. The treaty of Belgrade, which was signed on September 1, 1739, restored to the Porte Belgrade and Orsova, with the portions of Servia, Bosnia, and Wallachia, which it had ceded to Austria at the peace of Passarowitz. Russia, unable to continue the war with a victorious Turkish army ready to fall upon its flank, had to conclude peace on very moderate terms. It received Azoff, but under a stipulation that the fortifications should be razed, and that no Russian vessels of war should be kept either on the Black Sea or on the Sea of Azoff. The peace was the last advantageous one made by the Porte without allies; and the succeeding thirty years were, on the whole, a period of respite from misfortune.

After this followed the wars with the Empress Catharine, before whose genius and resources it seemed as if Turkey must inevitably sink into nothingness. The first contest was provoked by the armed intervention of the empress in Polish affairs and her well-known intrigues with rebellious subjects of the Porte. War was rashly declared by Mustafa III, in October, 1768. In 1769 the Russians entered Moldavia, and captured the fortress of Choczin (Chotim); in the following year their armies made good the conquest of Moldavia and Wallachia, while a fleet from the Baltic entered the Greek Archipelago and landed troops in the Morea. The Greeks of the Morea rose in insurrection; they were, however, overpowered, and the small Russian force withdrew, leaving the Greeks to the vengeance of their conquerors. At sea the Turks suffered a severe defeat near Chios, and their fleet was subsequently blockaded and set on fire in the Bay of Tehesme, the principal officers in the Russian navy being Englishmen. Assistance was, moreover, given by the Russians to Ali Bey, a Mameluke chieftain, who was in rebellion against the Porte in Egypt, and to Tahir, a sheikh who had made himself independent at Acre. In 1771 the Russians invaded and conquered the Crimea.

Austria now took alarm, and signed a convention with the Porte preparatory to armed intervention. But the partition of Poland reunited the three neighboring Christian powers, and prevented a general war. An armistice was agreed upon between Russia and the Porte, and negotiations followed. These were broken off in 1773. The Russians crossed the Danube, and, though unsuccessful in their attempts upon Sillistria and Varna, so completely defeated the Turkish forces in the field that on July 21, 1774, the

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Treaty of
Belgrade

Wars
with
Russia

Crimea
Con-
quered
by
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Russian
 Church
 in Con-
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 nople

The
 Porte's
 Promises

Porte concluded peace at Kutchuk-Kainardji under conditions more unfavorable than those which it had rejected the previous year. The Tartar territory of the Crimea, with Kuban and the adjoining districts, were made into an independent state, Russia retaining Azoff, Kertch, and Kinburn ; Moldavia and Wallachia were restored, but on the condition that, as occasion might require, the Russian minister at Constantinople might remonstrate in their favor. Russia, in fact, was given a species of protectorate over these provinces. Permission was given to Russia to erect a church in Constantinople, and the following engagement was made : " The Porte promises to protect the Christian religion and its churches ; and it also allows the court of Russia to make upon all occasions representations as well in favor of the new church at Constantinople as on behalf of its ministers, promising to take such representations into consideration." Out of this clause arose the claim of Russia to the right of protection over all the Christian subjects of the Porte, though the specific right of intervention was clearly attached only to a single church and its ministers. By other clauses in the treaty the obligations restraining Russia from making fortifications and placing ships of war on the Black Sea were annulled. It received the right of free navigation for its merchant ships on all Turkish waters, and the right of placing consuls at all Turkish ports. These last two conditions were of great historical importance through their effect upon Greece. The consuls appointed were usually Greek traders, and permission to carry the Russian flag was indiscriminately given to Greek vessels. Hence there followed that great development of Greek commerce, and of the Greek merchant navy, which in half a century made the insurgent Greeks more than a match for the Turks at sea.

Russia
 Plans
 Over-
 throw of
 Turkey
 in
 Europe

The stipulation that the Crimea and adjoining districts should be made into an independent state was, of course, not intended by Russia to be anything more than a veil for annexation ; and, in 1783, Catharine united this territory to her dominions. She had now definitely formed the plan of extinguishing Turkish sovereignty in Europe, and placing her younger grandson on the throne of a restored Greek kingdom. The boy was named Constantine, his whole education was Greek, and such as to fit him for the throne of Constantinople. Joseph II of Austria threw himself eagerly into the plan for a partition of the Ottoman empire, and

in 1788 followed Russia into war. While the Russians besieged Otchakoff, Joseph invaded Bosnia; but he was unsuccessful, and retired ingloriously into Hungary. Otchakoff was stormed by Sutwaroff, on December 16, 1788. In the following year the Turkish armies were overthrown by Suwaroff, in Moldavia, and by the Austrian Laudon on the south of the Danube.

The fate of the Ottoman empire seemed to tremble in the balance; it was, however, saved by the convulsions into which Joseph's reckless autocracy had thrown his own dominions, and by the triple alliance of England, Prussia, and Holland, now formed by Pitt for the preservation of the balance of power in Europe. Joseph died in 1790; his successor, Leopold II, entered into negotiations, and concluded peace at Sistova, in August, 1791, relinquishing all his conquests except a small district in Croatia. Catharine continued the war alone. Ismail was captured by Suwaroff with fearful slaughter, and the Russian armies pushed on south of the Danube. Pitt, with the triple alliance, attempted to impose his mediation on the Empress Catharine, and to induce her to restore all her conquests. She refused, and both Prussia and England armed for war; but public opinion declared so strongly against the minister in England that it was impossible for him to pursue his plan. Catharine, nevertheless, found it to her interest to terminate the war with the Porte. Poland claimed her immediate attention; and, adjourning to a more convenient season her designs upon Constantinople, she concluded the treaty of Jassy, in January, 1792, by which she added to her empire, Otchakoff, with the seaboard as far as the Dniester. The protectorate of Russia over Tiflis and Kartalinia was recognized.

Catharine's successor, Paul (1796-1801), made it his business to reverse his mother's policy by abandoning the attack on Turkey. Bonaparte's invasion of Egypt and the destruction of the French fleet by Nelson at the battle of the Nile, led the Porte to join the second coalition against France. Bonaparte, invading Syria, was checked and turned back at Acre, where Jezzar Pasha was assisted in his strenuous defense by an English squadron under Sir Sidney Smith. A Turkish army was meanwhile transported from Rhodes to the Egyptian coast. This army was destroyed by Bonaparte on his return to Egypt at the battle of Aboukir, July 25, 1799, after which Bonaparte set sail for France, leaving the Egyptian com-

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Saved by
 the
 Triple
 Alliance

Prussia
 and
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 Prepare
 to Inter-
 fere

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Turkish
Defeat at
Heliop-
olis

mand to Kleber. Kleber, cut off from all communication with France, and threatened by superior Turkish forces, entered into a convention at El-Arish for the evacuation of Egypt. This convention, however, was annulled by Lord Keith, the English Admiral, and Kleber replied by giving battle to the Turks and defeating them at Heliopolis on March 20, 1800. Egypt was finally wrested from the French by the English expedition under Abercromby, and restored to the sultan. The Ionian islands, which France had taken from Venice at the time of the Treaty of Campo-Formio, were conquered by a combined Russian and Turkish force, and were established as a republic, at first under the joint protectorate of Russia and the Porte, afterward under the sole protectorate of Russia. The former Venetian ports on the mainland of Epirus and Albania were given up to Turkey. Somewhat later, under pressure from St. Petersburg, the sultan agreed to remove the hospodars, or governors, of Wallachia and Moldavia only on consulting Russia, and to allow no Turks except merchants and traders to enter those territories.

Perilous
Con-
dition of
the
Ottoman
Empire

On the restoration of peace France reassumed its ancient position as the friend and ally of the Porte. The sultan now on the throne was Selim III (1789–1807). Though the results of the war of the second coalition had been favorable to Turkey, the Ottoman empire was in a most perilous condition. Everywhere the provincial governors were making themselves independent of the sultan's authority; a new fanatical sect, the Wahhabees, had arisen in Arabia, and seized upon the holy places; the Janissaries were rebellious and more formidable to their sovereign than to a foreign enemy; and the Christian races were beginning to aspire to independence. It had seemed for a while as if the first to rise against the Porte would be the Greeks, among whom the revolutionary influences of 1789 and the songs of the poet Rhegas, put to death by the Turks in 1798, stirred deep feelings of hatred against their oppressors. Circumstances, however, postponed the Greek revolt and accelerated that of the Servians. In the country immediately south of the Danube the sultan's authority was defied by the Janissaries settled about Belgrade and by the Passwan Oglu, ruler of Widdin in Bulgaria. The pasha of Servia, hard pressed by these rebels, called upon the rayas to take up arms in defense of the sultan. They did so, and in 1804 the Janissaries answered

Massacre
of the
Servians

by a series of massacres in the Servian villages. The Servians now rose as a nation against the Janissaries. Kara George became their chief, and in combination with the pasha of Bosnia, acting under the sultan's orders, exterminated the Janissaries or drove them out of the country. Victorious over one oppressor, the Servians refused to submit to another. They carried on the war against the sultan himself, and at the suggestion of Russia sent envoys to Constantinople demanding that for the future the fortresses of Servia should be garrisoned only by Servian troops.

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When the third European coalition against France was in course of formation, Russian and French influences were in rivalry at Constantinople. The victories of Napoleon in 1805 gave him the ascendancy, and his envoy prevailed upon the sultan to dismiss, without consulting Russia, the hospodars of Wallachia and Moldavia, who were considered to be agents of the court of St. Petersburg. This was a breach of the engagement made by the sultan in 1802, and it was followed by the entrance of Russian troops into the principalities. England, as the ally of Russia, sent a fleet under Admiral Duckworth through the Dardanelles to threaten Constantinople. While the admiral wasted time in negotiations, the French ambassador, General Sebastiani, taught the Turks how to fortify their capital. The English admiral found that he could do nothing, and repassed the Dardanelles, suffering some loss on the passage. The war on the Danube was not carried on with much vigor on either side. Alexander was occupied with the struggle against Napoleon on the Vistula; Selim III was face to face with mutiny in Constantinople, having brought upon himself the bitter hatred of the Janissaries by attempting to form them into a body of troops drilled and disciplined after the methods of modern armies.

Turkish
 Promises
 Violated
 under
 French
 Advice

Constan-
 tinople
 Threat-
 ened

While the military art in Europe had been progressing for centuries, Turkey had made no other changes in its military system than those which belonged to general decay. Its troops were a mere horde, capable, indeed, of a vigorous assault and of a stubborn defense, but utterly untrained in exercises and maneuvers, and almost ignorant of the meaning of discipline. Selim was a reformer in government and administration as well as in military affairs. He broke from the traditions of his palace, and began a new epoch in Turkish history; but the influences opposed to him

Lack of
 Disci-
 pline
 Among
 Turkish
 Troops

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were too strong, and a mutiny of the Janissaries at Constantinople deprived him of his crown. He was allowed to live, but as a prisoner, while the puppet of the Janissaries, Mustafa IV, was placed on the throne in May, 1807.

Constantinople
 Taken

A few weeks after this event the treaty of Tilsit ended the war between France and Russia, and provided for the nominal mediation of Napoleon between Russia and the Porte. A truce followed between the armies on the Danube. Among the Turkish generals who had understood the necessity of Selim's reforms, and who were prepared to support him against the Janissaries, was Bairaktar, commander at Rustchuk. As soon as the truce gave him freedom of action, Bairaktar marched upon Constantinople. Leading his troops against the palace, he demanded the restoration of Selim. As the palace gates were closed, Bairaktar ordered an assault; but at the moment when his troops were entering Selim was put to death. Besides Mustafa there was only one member of the house of Osman remaining, his brother Mahmud, who concealed himself in the furnace of a bath until the palace was in the hands of Bairaktar's soldiers. He was then placed on the throne, July, 1808. For a while Bairaktar governed as grand vizier. He was rash enough, however, to dismiss a part of his own soldiers from Constantinople. The Janissaries attacked him in his palace. A tower in which he defended himself was blown up, and after a battle in the streets of Constantinople between the Janissaries and the remainder of Bairaktar's troops, during which the dethroned sultan Mustafa was put to death, the Janissaries remained conquerors, and Mahmud was forced to submit to the demands. The innovations of the late reign were abolished, and for a while Mahmud seemed content to reign as servant of the reaction.

Napoleon's
 Plan
 to Divide
 the Ottoman
 Empire

It is well known that plans for the partition of the Ottoman empire occupied Napoleon and Alexander at Tilsit. Austria, though unwilling to see Russia aggrandized, was prepared in the last resort to combine with the dismembering powers, if all attempts to prevent the execution of the plan by diplomatic means should fail. But after a few years the alliance declined, and a war between France and Russia was seen to be inevitable. Meanwhile the conflict on the Danube had been resumed, and the Servians were still in arms. The Russians advanced into Bulgaria, and captured Silistria. England, which had made peace with Turkey

in 1809, sought to reconcile the belligerents, in order that the czar might be free to employ his whole force against Napoleon. In May, 1812, a treaty was signed at Bucharest, by which Bessarabia was ceded to Russia, the river Pruth becoming the boundary of the two empires. The Porte in this treaty promised to grant an amnesty to the Servians, to leave to them the management of their internal affairs, and to impose upon them only moderate taxes. These promises, however, were neither accepted by the Servians as a sufficient concession, nor were they observed by the Porte. The Servians continued to fight, and ultimately secured their autonomy about 1817 without help from Russia.

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Servian
 Auton-
 omy
 Secured

The vigorous conduct of the Turkish war in 1829, the establishment of an independent kingdom of Greece under Otho I, and the suppression of the Polish insurrection of 1830, combined to give Russia a commanding position in eastern Europe. In the East Russia had acted, while the other powers had debated. The ascendancy of Russia was accompanied by the rise of a wholly new policy in Europe with regard to the "Eastern Question."

"Eastern
 Question"

The old feeling that the Turk was the common enemy of Christendom, that every victory over the crescent, no matter by what power it was gained, was a subject for general triumph, completely disappeared. On the contrary, the Turkish power was to be maintained, because Russia was dreaded. To satisfy public opinion the Porte was to reform its administration, or at least to promise reform, but whether reformed or not, the power of the infidel in Europe was to be preserved from dissolution. The Powers overlooked the fact that they really played into the hands of Russia, by making that state the champion of the Christian provinces of Turkey. The new policy was no sudden creation, but its genesis may be clearly traced in the twenty years which followed 1830.

Turkish
 Power
 Main-
 tained

The first disturbance in the East after the treaty of Adrianople was caused by the ambition of Mehemet Ali of Egypt. Mehemet had received the island of Crete as the reward for the assistance he had given to the Porte in Greece, but he endeavored to take advantage of Turkish weakness to make further acquisitions. In 1831 he picked a quarrel with the Pasha of Acre, and seized the opportunity to conquer Syria. Mahmud II sent a large army against the Egyptian adventurer, but the Turks were completely defeated at Konieh, the ancient Iconium (December 21, 1832).

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—

Secret
Treaty
with
Russia

Constantinople itself was now threatened, and the sultan applied for aid to the European powers. The czar at once responded to this appeal, but England and France refused to sanction Russian intervention and threatened to support the Egyptians. Mahmud was compelled to sign the treaty of Kutaieh, which confirmed Mehemet Ali in the possession of Crete, and ceded Syria to him as a fief of the Porte. Disgusted with the attitude of the Western Powers, the sultan concluded the treaty of Unkiar Skelessi with the czar (July 8, 1833), and in a secret article agreed to close the Dardanelles to all but Russian vessels.

In 1839 Mahmud II made an attempt to recover Syria, but his army was routed at Nisib, a village on the Euphrates, by Ibrahim, Mehemet's son (June 24). Four days later the aged sultan died, leaving his empire to his son, Abdul Medjid, a feeble and dissolute youth of seventeen. Mehemet Ali now conceived the bold idea of supplanting the house of Othman on the throne. The Turkish fleet was carried to Alexandria, and placed at his disposal by the admiral, Achmet Fevzy. But Russia was not prepared to see an able and vigorous ruler at the head of the Ottoman Empire, and England had been alienated by Mehemet Ali's rule in Egypt. For once the two powers pursued a common policy in the East. France, on the other hand, remembering the part it had once played under Napoleon, was eager to establish a protectorate over Egypt, and became the ardent champion of Mehemet. European diplomacy undertook to settle the question, and a conference met in London. To the intense disgust of France, a treaty was arranged by England, Russia, Austria, and Prussia (July 15, 1840), by which the integrity of Turkey was guaranteed, and Syria and Crete were to be restored. Mehemet Ali refused to accept these terms, and force had to be employed. English and Austrian troops defeated Ibrahim in Syria, while the English fleet bombarded Beyrout and Acre. Finding resistance to the European Powers impossible, Mehemet Ali accepted the Treaty of London (November 27), on condition that the Pashalic of Egypt should be confirmed to himself and his direct descendants, the Porte receiving one fourth of the revenues as tribute. Russia had to sacrifice the secret article of Unkiar Skelessi as the price of English support. By a convention of July 13, 1841, the five great Powers — France was this time included — recognized the absolute right of the sultan to

Turkey
Guaran-
teed

control the navigation of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, and the passage of foreign ships of war was prohibited. This was a defeat for Nicholas, but he was consoled by the humiliation inflicted on the government of Louis Philippe, which he cordially detested as the outgrowth of revolution.

For the next twelve years the East enjoyed a period of comparative tranquillity. Mehemet Ali abdicated in 1844, and the government of Egypt passed to his son Ibrahim. Abdul Medjid attempted to reform the administration of Turkey on the European model. But all his schemes were frustrated by the weakness of the sultan and the inveterate habits of his officials, and the old misrule continued.

In 1852 an old dispute about the custody of the Holy Places in Jerusalem was revived. Napoleon, then president of the French republic, put himself forward as the champion of the Latin Christians, and obtained for them from the Porte the right of free entry to the sepulcher, which had been contested by the Greek monks. Nicolas, at the head of the Greek church, considered himself aggrieved by this decision. The weakness of Turkey seemed to offer a convenient opportunity for carrying out those aggressive designs which the czar had never ceased to cherish even when he joined England in supporting the Porte against Mehemet Ali. The opposition of England might be bought off. In January, 1853, Nicolas disclosed his plans in two important interviews with Sir Hamilton Seymour, the English ambassador. Without circumlocution, he suggested that the two powers should divide between them the territories of the "sick man." The Danubian principalities, Servia and Bulgaria, were to be formed into independent states under Russian protection; England might annex Egypt, so important for the route to India, and also Crete. England declined the proposal, and excited the czar's indignation by publishing Seymour's despatches.

In March, Prince Menschikoff appeared in Constantinople, and arrogantly demanded from the Porte the recognition of a Russian protectorate over all Turkish subjects belonging to the Greek Church. Abdul Medjid replied by offering to secure the rights of the Greek Christians by charter, but refused to do so by treaty. Menschikoff withdrew after presenting an ultimatum, and the Russian army under Gortschakoff crossed the Pruth (July 3, 1853), to

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Trouble
Over
JerusalemProposition
to
Divide
Turkish
ProvincesTurkey
Declares
War
against
Russia

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 —

occupy Moldavia and Wallachia as a guarantee for the fulfilment of Russian demands. The Porte treated this as an act of hostility, and declared war against Russia (October 1). Omar Pasha, a Servian renegade in the Turkish service, won a conspicuous victory at Oltenitza (November 4). Napoleon III seized the opportunity to secure his recently established empire by embarking in a great war, and by obtaining the countenance and support of England. The two Western Powers concluded a treaty with the Porte (November 27), and promised their assistance if Russia would not accept peace on moderate terms. The destruction of the Turkish fleet at Sinope by Admiral Nakhimof destroyed the last chance of terminating the contest by diplomacy. The French and English fleets entered the Black Sea, and the Russian admiral had to retire to Sebastopol.

France
 and
 England
 against
 Russia

In 1854 France and England declared war against Russia. Austria and Prussia remained neutral, but agreed to oppose the Russians if they attacked Austria or crossed the Balkans. The czar found himself completely isolated in Europe, the result, in a great measure of the haughty attitude which he had assumed in recent years. By sea, the allies had an overwhelming superiority, but it proved of little use to them. In the Black Sea they blockaded Odessa, but in the Baltic they found Cronstadt too strong to be attacked, and had to content themselves with the capture of Bomarsund. It was obvious that Russia could only be seriously attacked by land. In April, the Russians, under the veteran Paskiewitsch, had laid siege to Silistria, but all attempts to storm the fortress were foiled. In July the siege was raised, the principalities were evacuated, and Austria undertook their occupation by a convention with the Porte. Meanwhile, the French and English armies, under St. Arnaud and Lord Raglan, had landed at Gallipoli, and proceeded to Varna. Finding the war in the principalities settled without their intervention, the allies determined to transfer the scene of hostilities to the Crimea, and to attack Sebastopol. They landed, without opposition, at Eupatoria (September 14), and the battle of the Alma (September 20) opened the way to the great fortress. A vigorous pursuit of the Russians might have taken Sebastopol at once, but the delay enabled Menschikoff to make elaborate preparations for defense. The siege lasted for more than twelve months, and absorbed the inter-

Siege of
 Sebas-
 topol

ested attention of Europe. The allies suffered terribly from the severity of the climate and the defective organization of the commissariat. At the same time they had to resist the constant efforts of the Russian field-army to interrupt the siege operations. At Balaclava (October 25) and Inkermann (November 5) the Russian attack was only repulsed after hard fighting and serious loss on both sides. In January, 1855, the allied forces were strengthened by the arrival of 18,000 Sardinian troops, under La Marmora.

The disasters of 1854 were a bitter humiliation to Nicholas, and probably hastened his death, which occurred on March 3, 1855. His successor, Alexander II, was more pacifically disposed, and it was hoped that his accession might lead to the conclusion of peace. But the military honor of the allies could only be satisfied by the capture of Sebastopol, and hostilities were soon renewed. A grand assault, in which the English attacked the Redan and the French the Malakoff, was repulsed with great loss (June 18). Although the French and English armies supported each other with creditable loyalty, there can be no doubt that the dual command was a great obstacle to the success of the besiegers. On August 16 a Russian attack was repulsed with great loss on the Tschernaya, a battle in which the Sardinian contingent distinguished itself. The allies had at last succeeded in bringing a superior force of artillery to bear upon the fortress, and on the 17th the final bombardment was commenced. For twenty-three days the batteries kept up an almost incessant fire, which inflicted terrible damage. On September 8, a general assault was ordered. The French stormed the Malakoff, but the English, after carrying the Redan, were compelled to retreat for want of support. The Russian position, however, was no longer tenable, and on the 10th Gortschakoff evacuated Sebastopol, and retired to the north side of the harbor. The success of the allies was by no means complete, the Russians still occupied a very strong position, and the war might have been indefinitely prolonged if the people had not begun to murmur at the heavy burdens imposed upon them. The fall of the Asiatic fortress of Kars (November 28, 1855) was a salve to the military vanity of Russia. Austria undertook to mediate; the bases of a pacification were agreed upon in January, 1856, and an armistice was concluded. A conference met at Paris, where

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Sebas-
topol
Evacua-
ted

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the final treaty was signed on March 30. The Russian protectorate over the Danubian principalities was abolished; the free navigation of the Danube was to be secured by the appointment of an international commission; the Black Sea was neutralized, and all ships of war, including those of Turkey and Russia, were to be excluded, except a small number of light vessels to protect the coasts; the sultan undertook to confirm the privileges of his Christian subjects, but the Powers agreed not to use this as a pretext for interfering with his domestic administration; the convention of 1841 about the straits was confirmed; and the Porte was to be admitted to all the advantages of public law and the European concert. Russia agreed to restore Kars, and to retire from the Danube by ceding a strip of Bessarabia to Roumania, while the allies were to evacuate Sebastopol and all other conquests in the Crimea. These terms were accepted by France, Austria, Great Britain, Prussia, Russia, and Sardinia. A fortnight later France, Austria, and Great Britain concluded a separate agreement to guarantee the independence and integrity of the Turkish empire.

The kingdom of Greece had never thriven as its ardent admirers had expected. This was due partly to the defects of the Greeks themselves, partly to the errors of king Otho and his Bavarian advisers, but mainly to the attitude of the great Powers. Neither Russia nor England really wished Greece to become a powerful state. Russia dreaded a possible rival in the headship of the Greek Church. Hence the defective frontier which was given to the new kingdom, and the constant snubs that it received from the European states. Otho, who was only seventeen years old when the crown was given to him, assumed the personal control of the government in 1837. Possessed of no ability, experience, or energy, but eager to exercise an absolute authority for which he was unfitted, he alienated his subjects before they had acquired the habits of loyalty. A revolution in 1843 compelled him to dismiss his Bavarian followers, and to grant a constitution. When the Crimean war broke out, the Greeks eagerly seized the opportunity to attempt the annexation of Thessaly and Epirus. The king offered no opposition to the national movement, which was probably prompted by Russian influence. Regardless that by a breach of the treaties the support of England and France would be forfeited, the government openly took part in the war, which had

Greece
Makes
Trouble

already been commenced by an insurrection in the two provinces. The Turks had no difficulty in repulsing the invaders, whose rapacity and disorder did much to conciliate the inhabitants to Turkish rule. In May, 1854, English and French troops landed at the Piræus, and compelled the king to abandoned the Russian alliance.

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Abdul Medjid died in 1861, and was succeeded by Abdul Aziz. The promises which the Sultan had made in the Treaty of Paris shared the fate of most Turkish promises. The fact was that the despotism of the sultan no longer existed except in name. Turkey was practically ruled by an official oligarchy,* and the personal will of the nominal ruler counted for very little when it clashed with the interests of the dominant class. A series of revolts in the Christian provinces attested the continuance of Turkish oppression and of the discontent which it could hardly fail to provoke. The most important of these revolts before 1875 was that of Crete (1866-68), which was almost openly countenanced by the Greek government. Diplomatic relations between Constantinople and Athens were broken off, and war would probably have ensued if the European powers had not stepped in to compel Greece to observe a strict neutrality. The insurrection was put down in 1868, and Crete, with some nominal concessions, returned to its former servitude.

Crete
 Revolts

* The fundamental laws of the empire are based on the precepts of the Koran. The will of the sultan is absolute, in so far as it is not in opposition to the accepted truths of the Mohammedan religion as laid down in the sacred book of the Prophet. Next to the Koran, the laws of the "Multeka," a code formed of the supposed sayings and opinions of Mohammed, and the sentences and decisions of his immediate successors, are binding upon the sovereign as well as his subjects. Another code of laws, the "Cahon nameh," formed by sultan Soliman the Magnificent, from a collection of "hatti-sheriffs," or decrees, issued by him and his predecessors, is held in general obedience, but merely as an emanation of human authority.

Constitu-
 tion and
 Govern-
 ment

The legislative and executive authority is exercised, under the supreme direction of the sultan, by two high dignitaries, the Sadr-azam, or Grand Vizier, the head of the temporal government, and the Sheik-ul-Islam, the head of the church. Both are appointed by the sovereign, the latter with the nominal concurrence of the Ulema, a body comprising the clergy and chief functionaries of the law, over which the Sheik-ul-Islam presides, although he himself does not exercise priestly functions. Connected with the Ulema are the Mufti, the interpreters of the Koran. The Ulema comprises all the great judges, theologians, and jurists, and the great teachers of literature and science who may be summoned by the Mufti. The principal civic functionaries bear the titles of Effendi, Bey, or Pasha. Forms of constitution, after the model of the west European states, were drawn up at various periods by successive Ottoman governments, the first of them embodied in

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Eastern
Question
Promi-
nent for
Three
Years

In 1875 an insurrection in Herzegovina and Bosnia raised a storm in the whole of Turkey, and made the Eastern Question for three years the center of European politics. Volunteers from Montenegro and Serbia came to the assistance of the insurgents. Austria with its large Slav population, was at first inclined to sympathize with the movement, and took the lead in procuring diplomatic intervention on its behalf. Count Andrassy, the foreign minister of Austria-Hungary, drew up a note in December in which he enumerated the concessions which the Porte ought to make to its Christian subjects. The "Andrassy Note" was accepted by Russia, Austria, France, Italy, and after some hesitation by England, and it was presented to the Porte on January 31, 1876. The Turkish ministry undertook to make the proposed reforms, but the insurgents refused to accept them unless the European powers offered a practical guarantee for their execution. The note thus failed of its purpose, and the zeal of Austria perceptibly cooled as the Hungarians, who had never forgotten the conduct of Russia in 1849, showed unmistakable hostility to the cause of the Slavs. A more energetic document the "Berlin Memorandum," was now drawn up, and threatened active coercion unless the concessions

the Hatti-Humayoun of sultan Abdul-Medjid, proclaimed February 18, 1856, and the most recent in a decree of sultan Abdul-Hamid II, of November, 1876. But the carrying out of these projects of reform appears entirely impossible in the present condition of the Ottoman empire. The Grand Vizier, as head of the government and representative of the sovereign, is assisted by the Medjliss-i-Hass, or Privy Council, which corresponds to a cabinet.

The whole of the empire is divided into thirty vilayets, or governments, and subdivided into sanjaks, or provinces, kazas, or districts, nahies, or subdistricts, and kariés, or communities. A vali, or governor-general, who is held to represent the sultan, and is assisted by a provincial council, is placed at the head of each vilayet. The provinces, districts, etc., are subjected to inferior authorities (mutesarifs, caimakams, mudirs, and muktars) under the superintendence of the principal governor. The division of the country into vilayets has been frequently modified of late for political reasons. For similar reasons six of the sanjaks of the empire are governed by mutesarifs appointed directly by the sultan, and are known as mutessarifats. All subjects, however humble their origin, are eligible to, and may fill, the highest offices in the state. Under the capitulations foreigners residing in Turkey are under the laws of their respective countries, and are amenable for trial (in cases in which Turkish subjects are not concerned) to a tribunal presided over by their consul. Foreigners who own real property are amenable to the Ottoman civil courts in questions relative to their landed property. Cases between foreign and Turkish subjects are tried in the Ottoman courts, a dragoman of the foreign consulate being present to see that the trial be according to the law; the carrying out of the sentence, if against the foreigner, to be through his consulate. Cases between two foreign subjects of different nationalities are tried in the court of the defendant.

were made within two months. But England, where Lord Beaconsfield's ministry was returning to the attitude of the Crimean war, refused to accept the Memorandum, which thus became futile. Meanwhile matters in the East were daily becoming more serious.

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ABDUL-HAMID II, SULTAN OF TURKEY

Bulgaria joined the insurrection, but the Bulgarians were not a warlike race, and their rising was suppressed by Turkish irregular troops with a wanton barbarity that raised a storm of indignation in Europe. In Constantinople Abdul Aziz was deposed on May 30,

**Bulgaria
 Joins In-
 surrection**

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and was murdered a few days later. His successor, Amurath V, was a hopeless idiot, and was deposed on August 31, in favor of his brother Abdul Hamid II. Serbia and Montenegro had already declared war against the Porte (July 1 and 2). Against the hardy mountaineers of Montenegro the Turks failed to gain any successes, but the Servians were completely defeated at Alexinatz (October 31). An armistice was now concluded to give a new opening for the efforts of diplomacy.

Russia
 Takes a
 Hand

It was impossible for the son of Nicholas to look quietly on while the Slavs of Serbia, Bosnia, and Herzegovina were crushed by Turkey. Alexander II was compelled by the excited feeling of the Russian people to return to his father's policy which had been so long deserted. The alliance of the three emperors seemed to secure him against opposition from Germany and Austria, in spite of the Hungarian agitation in the latter country. France and Italy were eager for a Russian alliance, the one to get its revenge upon Germany, the other in the hope of annexing the Trentino. The English ministry was hostile to Russia, but the agitation about the "Bulgarian atrocities" during the parliamentary recess had made a great impression on public opinion, and a reaction in favor of the Liberals would secure the czar in that quarter. In October Alexander threatened the Porte with immediate war unless a truce of two months was concluded. Hostilities now ceased, and a conference of ministers met at Constantinople (December 23, 1876). Midhat Pasha, the leader of the reforming party, had been in power since the deposition of Abdul Aziz, and it was hoped that he would meet the wishes of the Powers half-way. The conference drew up a number of reforms, and demanded that the Powers should supervise their execution, and should have a voice in the appointment of provincial governors. The Porte refused to make such a sacrifice of its independence, and the conference broke up (January 20, 1877). Midhat Pasha was driven from office and banished.

Russia at
 War
 with
 Turkey

In face of the obstinacy of the Turkish government, Russia had no difficulty in obtaining assurances of neutrality from the other Powers, and at once prepared for war. In April, Alexander II joined his army in person, and issued a manifesto announcing his intention to obtain "such securities for his fellow Christians on Turkish soil as were absolutely necessary for their future welfare."

A convention with Rumania secured the Russians free passage through that province. Prince Charles seized the opportunity to declare his independence of Turkish suzerainty (May 22), and joined the czar at the head of the Rumanian army. Without meeting with serious opposition, the Russians crossed the Danube at two points, near Galacz and at Sistowa (June 21-28), and the general expectation prevailed that the campaign would be brought to a speedy conclusion. But the Turkish soldiers showed that they had not lost the military prowess which had once made them the terror of Europe. Osman Pasha repulsed two attacks of vastly superior forces upon the fortress of Plevna (July 30 and September 11). The siege was now turned into a blockade, but it was not till November 10 that the heroic garrison was starved into surrender, after a desperate attempt to cut their way through the besieging forces. In Asia, the fortress of Kars was taken on November 18. Servia and Montenegro had followed the example of Rumania in declaring their independence. The Russians were masters of Bulgaria, and prepared to follow up their success by crossing the Balkans. A force of 30,000 men blocked the Schipka Pass, but the Russians found another passage, took the Turks in the rear, and compelled them to capitulate (January 10, 1878). A few days later, General Gourko defeated Suleiman Pasha in Roumelia. The Russian vanguard, under the czar's brother Nicholas, entered Adrianople without opposition on January 19.

The advance of the Russians to the neighborhood of Constantinople alarmed the English ministers, and Admiral Hornby was ordered to take the English fleet to the Dardanelles. But it was too late to exert much influence on the course of events. A truce had been concluded at Adrianople on January 31, and the preliminary treaty of San Stefano was accepted by Turkey on March 3. Rumania, Servia, and Montenegro were to be recognized as independent, and to receive an increase of territory. Bulgaria, with boundaries reaching from the Black Sea to the Ægean, was to be formed into an autonomous but tributary state. Turkey was to pay an indemnity of fourteen million roubles, but ten millions were to be compounded for by cessions in Asia, which included Batoum, Erzeroum, and Kars. Russia was to recover the strip of Bessarabia that had been ceded by the Treaty of Paris, and Rumania was to be compensated with the Dobrudscha.

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Russian
 Success

Treaty of
 Peace

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Congress
on the
Treaty

The Treaty of San Stefano was regarded with grave misgivings by England, and the government demanded that it should be submitted to a European Congress. Russia consented to this as regards those articles which concerned the general interests of Europe, but refused to allow the discussion of the whole treaty. On this point negotiations came to a standstill, and both countries prepared seriously for war. But the exertions of Count Schouwaloff, the Russian ambassador in London, at last succeeded in effecting a compromise. A written agreement was drawn up as to the main points which were to be submitted to the Congress, which met at Berlin on June 13 under the presidency of Prince Bismarck.

Treaty
Modified
in Favor
of
Turkey

Austria was represented by Andrassy, Russia by Gortschakoff and Schouwaloff, and England by Lords Beaconsfield and Salisbury. The preliminary agreement helped to smooth matters, and the Treaty of Berlin was signed on July 13. Its chief result was to soften down those articles of the Treaty of San Stefano which bore most hardly on the Porte. The independence of Rumania, Servia, and Montenegro was confirmed, but the proposed increase of their territories was diminished. The exchange of the Dobrudscha for the strip of Bessarabia was confirmed, to the great disgust of Rumania, which had rendered loyal service to Russia in the war. The high province of "Bulgaria" which the Treaty of San Stefano proposed to create, was divided into two parts. Bulgaria proper was to form an autonomous but tributary state, under a prince to be elected by a national assembly, and approved by the Powers. Eastern Roumelia, on the other hand, was to remain subject to Turkey, with a certain amount of administrative autonomy, and was to be ruled by a Christian governor, nominated every five years by the sultan, and confirmed by the Powers. Bosnia and Herzegovina, which had been left untouched by the Treaty of San Stefano out of regard for Austria, were now handed over to Austrian occupation until they could receive a reformed administration under the guarantee of the Powers. The free navigation of the Danube was confirmed, and the fortresses on its banks were to be razed, the existing arrangements about the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus were left unaltered. In Asia Russia resigned Erzeroum, but kept Batoum and Kars. The Porte undertook to introduce reforms under the superintendence

of the Powers, and to grant complete political equality to all its subjects, without any regard to their religion, but no support was given to Russia's claim of a special protectorate over the Greek Christians. All other articles of the San Stefano Treaty, including that of the indemnity, were left to be settled in a new agreement between Russia and Turkey. The question of Greece was brought before the Congress, but no very definite conclusion was reached. The Powers recommended the Porte to grant Greece a rectified frontier, and reserved their right of future mediation on the subject. A convention was now made public which had been concluded between England and Turkey on June 4, ten days before the meeting of the Congress. In order to reconcile the Porte to the cession of Batoum and Kars, England undertook to guarantee the remaining possessions of Turkey in Asia. The sultan, on his part, undertook to introduce such reforms as should be agreed upon, and handed over the island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by England.

In 1881 a treaty was concluded between Greece and Turkey. This was executed under pressure of the European Powers, and by its terms Turkey ceded to Greece almost the whole of Thessaly and a strip of Epirus. In 1885 the government of eastern Roumelia was overthrown, and that state allied itself with Bulgaria. Strained relations were engendered between Turkey and Great Britain by the latter's naval demonstration at Sigri, near the entrance to the Dardanelles in the autumn of 1891, but nothing of importance resulted.

In June and August, 1892, two attacks were made upon foreign missionaries, for which compensation was made by the Porte. On May 30, 1895, attacks were made upon the various consulates at Jiddah, an Arabian seaport, and the British consul was killed. The fleets of the Powers assembled, and the Turkish government was compelled to make prompt apology and reparation. In 1894 Constantinople was visited by a series of earthquakes in which hundreds of people were killed.

Much interest and sympathy have been aroused in Britain and America during the last decade by the numerous revolts in Turkey, chief among which is the Armenian trouble. Massacre after massacre have followed one another, which, with the acts of resistance, have been characterized by great cruelty. The reason why the

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Powers have not more actively interfered in these affairs can be readily traced to the Treaty of Berlin. To do so would be to destroy the "peace of Europe." All the powers of diplomacy have been used to put this evil day off as long as possible. The Porte understands this, and thus laughs at the threats of individual representatives of other countries.

Uprising in Crete

Early in 1896 international apprehension was turned from the Armenian difficulties to a revolt in the island of Crete. The Cretans had for many years been desiring to throw off the Turkish yoke so that they might become annexed to Greece. The immediate incident which led to the outbreak was the recall of a Christian governor, and the substitution of a Mussulman in his place. The new governor soon showed that he was hostile to the Christians, and the people at once took up arms. It was expected as in the case of Armenia that the Powers would come to the assistance of the rebels, and Russia did convey a most emphatic protest to the Porte, who under this pressure recalled the governor, and appointed a Christian in his stead. This act was followed by a proclamation offering complete amnesty to the insurgents if they would lay down their arms, but this was refused unless reforms were granted to be guaranteed by the European Powers. Fighting continued, secret assistance being given the Cretians by Greece, actuated by a desire to see Crete free and annexed to her own domain.* Popular sympathy with the Cretan cause made the work of coercing Greece by the Powers very difficult.

Action Taken by Greece

Visit of German Emperor

In the autumn of 1898 the emperor of Germany with the empress paid a visit to the sultan which elicited considerable criticism from other countries. The Kaiser reviewed the Turkish troops at the invitation of the sultan, and it was said that a closer friendship between the two sovereigns was the result. The royal party also visited Jerusalem under the protection of Turkish troops.

British and American Protests

Toward the end of November the sultan ordered the closing of an orphanage at Zeitung which sheltered sixty homeless victims of the Armenian massacres. It was under the management of American missionaries, and both the British ambassador and the American minister protested against the action. Later several important officials were dismissed for suggesting governmental reforms.

* See Vol. III, p. 1127.

BULGARIA

BULGARIA is a principality in the Balkan peninsula, lying between the Danube and the Balkan. It was created by the Treaty of Berlin, July 13, 1878. The area of Bulgaria is 24,699 square miles; that of eastern Roumelia, 13,861.

Eastern Roumelia, now incorporated with Bulgaria, is, in many respects, in advance of the sister-country; it has much longer been open to European influences, connected as it is with Constantinople and the South by the valley of the Maritza. Eastern Roumelia obtained administrative autonomy by the Treaty of Berlin. In the first two years of autonomy, the nationalities, as might have been expected, were in constant conflict, but the Bulgarians had no difficulty in obtaining the upper hand. Both parties of the government equally desired the union of the two Bulgarias; but it was the Unionists (Nationalists) who, in the summer of 1884, organized the petition for incorporation with the principality.

The country now known as Bulgaria was originally inhabited by Thracians, and under the Romans formed the province of Moesia. Wasted by Goths and Huns, it was afterward overrun and occupied by the Slavonic Slovenians. The Bulgarians were originally a Ural-Altaic people. Coming from the banks of the Volga (where Bulgary was their capital), they first crossed the Danube in the sixth century, and occupied the eastern portion of the peninsula. Though probably fewer in number, they rapidly subjected their Slav predecessors, adopted their language and customs, and, at once absorbing and being absorbed, became a great Slav power. In 864 their prince, Boris, was baptized, and the Bulgarians became dependent on the Patriarchate of Constantinople. During the ninth and tenth centuries the Bulgarians were victorious in their wars against the Magyars in the north and the Greeks in the south, and had reached the height of their power. Their prince, Simeon, assumed the title of "Autocrat or Czar of all the Bulgarians and of the Greeks." They dominated the greater part of the peninsula, including Macedonia, Thessaly, Epirus, and Albania.

The Bulgarian archbishop was made an independent patriarch, and the Serbs and even the Byzantines paid Simeon tribute. It is interesting to note in reference to the Bulgarian ascendancy that,

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already in 976, their czar, Shishman, whose power ranged over the whole peninsula, conceived the idea of a state founded on the unity of race, and caused himself to be styled "Emperor of the Slavs." In 963 the western part of Bulgaria broke loose from the eastern to form a new kingdom, and so weakened the Bulgarians in their constant rivalry with the Byzantine emperors.

The bloody wars continued; in the end of the tenth century part of eastern Bulgaria was incorporated with the Byzantine empire, and in 1018 the western Bulgarian kingdom became a Byzantine province. A third Bulgarian kingdom was formed in 1186 by a successful rebellion, and maintained itself against the emperors of Constantinople, until the arrival of the Osmanli Turks. The Greeks, who feared and hated them, attributed such shameful vices to their persistent enemies that the name of Bulgarian came in most European tongues to be the most odious of epithets.

Greek
 Hatred

In 1356 Bulgaria and her ally, Servia, pressed to the walls of Constantinople, and only failed in the establishment of a great Slav state by reason of the defectiveness of their administrative organization. The Servians finally succumbed at the decisive battle of Kossovo in 1389, and Tirnova, the Bulgarian capital, was taken four years later by the son of Bajazet. From that time the Ottoman power commenced to dominate. Bulgaria, under the influence of Byzantium and of Christianity, had attained in the Middle Ages a degree of civilization equal to that of western nations; but the invasions, first of the Tartars, and subsequently by the Osmanli, entirely destroyed it, and the ancient warlike character of the race seemed to have been lost forever, though rebellions took place from time to time. The first national awakening dates from the year 1762, when the monk Paysios, then at Mount Athos, wrote the national chronicles, and revived memories of ancient glory. A new national literature began; the first Bulgarian school was opened in 1835, and was followed by others. A newspaper appeared in 1844. The Crimean war stirred up Slavonic sympathies which Russia had sedulously and naturally cherished. In 1872 the Bulgarian church and archbishop became again independent of the hated supremacy of the Greek patriarch.

Loss of
 Power

Modern
 Institu-
 tions

During the troubles in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1875, excitement in Bulgaria began, but two or three ill-organized local risings in 1876 were swiftly suppressed by Turkish troops. The uncon-

cealed aspirations of the Christians provoked the suspicions and fears of the Moslems, and the Turkish inhabitants of Bulgaria rose against their unarmed Christian neighbors, assisted by the notorious Bashi-Bazouks, or irregular troops. In the provinces of Philipopolis and Tirnova fifty-eight villages had by June 1876 been destroyed, and twelve thousand men, women, and children cruelly slain. The "Bulgarian atrocities" awakened horror throughout

Europe, especially in England; and a conference at Constantinople proposed to the Porte the organization of two autonomous provinces. The Porte refused to make concessions. Russia, in its assumed capacity as guardian of the Slavic races of Turkey, declared war in 1877. By the Treaty of San Stefano, the victorious Russians (March, 1878) proposed to constitute a Bulgarian state within the limits of the old kingdom, extending from the Danube across Macedonia to the Ægean. But the dis-

satisfaction of Austria and Britain with the proposed arrangement led to the Berlin Congress; and the Berlin Treaty (July 13, 1878) constituted an autonomous, though tributary, Bulgaria north of the Balkans, while to the mainly Bulgarian province south of them, that of eastern Roumelia, it granted administrative autonomy.

The prince of Bulgaria, freely elected by the people, must be confirmed by the Porte with the consent of the Powers. The first choice of the Bulgarians was Prince Alexander of Battenberg, a cousin of the grand duke of Hesse, who in 1879 became Alexan-

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 garian
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FERDINAND, PRINCE OF BULGARIA

First
 Prince

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der I of Bulgaria. In the autumn of 1885, the outbreak of a revolution in Eastern Roumelia, and Prince Alexander's acceptance of its union to Bulgaria, provoked the jealousy of Servia, and on November 14, King Milan invaded Bulgaria, anticipating an easy march to Sofia. In the fourteen days' war which ensued, the Bulgarians suffered temporary defeat, till, by his gallantry and generalship at Slivitzna, Prince Alexander turned the tide of fortune, and, driving the Servians back through the Dragoman Pass, entered Servian territory at the head of 50,000 men, and captured Pirot. In March, 1886, peace was concluded between Servia and Bulgaria; and Prince Alexander was ultimately recognized by the Porte as governor-general of Eastern Roumelia. The prince, originally regarded as too Russian in his sympathies, had become the center of Bulgarian national aspirations, and the pride of the people. At the same time he fell more and more into disfavor with Russia and the czar. In the summer of 1886 he was kidnapped by Russian partizans, and carried into Russia. Returning immediately, he received an enthusiastic reception; but owing to the hostility of Russia, he felt himself compelled to abdicate. A provisional government was formed, and firmly maintained the national cause in defiance of very strong Russian pressure. In the summer of 1887 Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg, against the will of the great Powers (especially of Russia), accepted an invitation by the regency to fill the vacant throne.

The
 Prince
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 napped
 by
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Prince
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SERVIA

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SERVIA

SERVIA is a kingdom of the Balkan peninsula, lying between the Danube on the north, the Drin River on the west, Turkey on the south, and Bulgaria and Rumania on the east. The area is 18,754 square miles.*

The original inhabitants of Servia were chiefly Thracians. Conquered by the Romans during the early period of the empire, Servia formed part of Illyricum under the name of Moesia Superior. During the great migration of nations it was overrun by the Huns, Ostrogoths, and other barbarians, and subsequently was under Byzantine rule from the middle of the sixth till early in the seventh

Original
Inhabit-
ants

*Servia has been an independent state since 1878. Formerly it acknowledged the supremacy of the Porte, and paid an annual tribute, but was practically independent. The form of the government is a hereditary monarchy. In 1889 it was enacted that the executive power be vested in the king and a council of eight members, who are each to be held responsible to the nation. The legislative authority is exercised by the king along with the National Assembly or Narodna-Skupstina. The State Council, or Senate, consists of sixteen members. The Ordinary National Assembly is elected every three years, and is composed of deputies elected by the people. Every male twenty-one years of age and paying yearly two dollars and ninety-two cents in direct taxes is entitled to a vote, and every male above thirty years of age paying five dollars and eighty-five cents is eligible to be returned to the Ordinary National Assembly. The Great National Assembly meets when found necessary, the number of its representatives being double that of the Ordinary Assembly. Personal and religious liberty and the freedom of the press are allowed. The legal constitution of the country was abrogated in 1894 by the king, that of 1869 provisionally substituted, and a special commission of the leading members of the various political sections was called upon to draft a new constitution in accordance with the desires of the people. The inhabitants consist almost entirely of Serbs, who are of Slavonic extraction, speak what is considered the softest of all the Slavonic dialects, and have good physical forms. The religion is the Greek orthodox.

Govern-
ment

The Servians belong to the most advanced and gifted branch of the Slavonic family, and possess a rich national literature, but the country is still in a very backward condition. The water-mills, ox-carts, ox-goads, and plows, are what they were in the time of the Romans; the men wear the bracæ with leather bandages and shapeless leather foot-coverings of the Gauls and Britons; some of the huts are enclosures of unseasoned logs with the bark on them, thatch at the top, and a hole in the roof for the smoke to go through, and at the doors of these huts women sit spinning flax from distaffs. The Turk has disappeared from the villages. As mementos of his long rule he has left the fez, which most villagers wear, some roadside fountains of good water, — for the Turk was always particular about his water, — and occasional orchards. Another memento of the Turk is seen in the slothful habits of the population. Accustomed to have their money wrung from them, the peasants worked just as much as was necessary to support them and pay the tax collector his strict dues, but no more. They abide by this system still, but work less than before, because the tax collector is less exacting, and they can luxuriate in idleness in token of their freedom.

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SERVIA

Driven
Out
by the
Serbs

century, when it was devastated by the Avars. The latter were driven out by the Serbs, a Slavic people who had been living north of the Carpathians, and whose aid the Emperor Heraklios (died 641) had invoked. He allotted to them the depopulated regions, and introduced Christianity. Servia remained a vassal state of the emperors of the East; but a spirit of liberty was fostered by powerful and well-organized local governments, whose chiefs (zhupans) repeatedly attempted to make themselves altogether independent. But the imperial authority was fully restored in the latter part of the ninth century by Basil I, surnamed the Macedonian. Subsequently the Bulgarians held the ascendancy in Servia for a long period, but their power was broken by John Zimiskes, and finally destroyed by Basil II in 1018.

Stephen Bogiskas was the first Serb to found an independent principality, about 1043; his son Michael (1050–80) styled himself king (kral), and was recognized by the Roman see. Stephen's grandson Bodin (1080–90) extended his dominions, but was captured by the Byzantines, with whom his successor, Vulkan or Vuk, made peace in 1094. Urosh I joined (1127–29) the Hungarians against the Greek emperors, laying the foundation of repeated alliances with Hungary; and the contests with Constantinople continued under his successors. Stephen Nemanja, grandson of Urosh II, founded a new dynasty in 1165. He conquered Bosnia and other territories, and made Eassa (now Novibazar) his capital, from which his realm was called the Rascian, but could not cope with the emperors of Constantinople. His son, Stephen I, was crowned in 1217 as king of Servia, and his successors acquired much additional territory. The most illustrious of them was Stephen Dushan (1336–56), who had himself crowned czar. He conquered nearly all Macedonia, Albania, Thessaly, northern Greece, and Bulgaria, and greatly improved the laws, learning, and trade. But conflicts among the governors of his provinces undid his work, and most of his conquests were lost by his son, King Urosh V, whose assassination in 1367 closed this dynasty.

New
Dynasty
Founded

He was succeeded by the waywode (governor) Vukashin, who fought with the Greeks against the Turks, and conquered Salonika in 1369; but was defeated and fell in battle in 1371. Lazarus I in 1374 established a new dynasty by conquering most of the Servian dominions. In 1389 he was defeated by Amurath I on the high

plains of Kossovo, and executed by order of the sultan, who had received a mortal wound from the hands of a brother-in-law of Lazarus. His son and successor, Stephen, first as a vassal, and then, in conjunction with the Hungarians, an adversary of Turkey, died in 1427 without issue, and was succeeded by his nephew, George Brankovich. He combated his son-in-law Amurath II, together with John Hunyady, who, after repeated victories, was vanquished in October, 1448, also on the plains of Kossovo. The Sultan Mohammed II completed the conquest of Servia in 1454, but in 1456 was compelled by Hunyady to raise the siege of Belgrade, a year before the death of Prince George of Servia. The latter's son Lazarus II obtained the succession by poisoning his mother and expelling his two brothers. He died in 1458.

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 Wars
 and Con-
 quests

In 1459 Mohammed II incorporated Servia with Turkey, excepting Belgrade, which was held by the Hungarians until taken by Soliman the Magnificent in 1521. The Turks resented the heroic resistance of Servia by sending 200,000 of her citizens into captivity, and by exterminating whole families, while others emigrated to Hungary; and rapacious pashas ruled abominably for several centuries, and reduced the country almost to a wilderness. Austria received Belgrade and most of northern Servia at the close of her war with Turkey in 1718, but the peace of Belgrade (1739) restored the Turkish domination, and the Serbs were again subjected to dire calamities, especially by the excesses of the Janissaries.

Captivity
 and Ruin

Their repeated applications for redress remaining unheeded at Constantinople, the Servians, in 1804, availing themselves of the revolt of Passwan Oglo, pasha of Widdin, rose in arms throughout the country against the Porte. They chose for their leader George Petrowitsch, surnamed Kara, or the Black. In January, 1806, two numerous Turkish armies, one from Bosnia under Bekir Pasha, and the other under Ibrahim, pasha of Scutari, entered Servia. Kara George had no more than 10,000 men, but they were determined, and knew well the country and the intricacies of its forests. He kept in check both armies, and in the month of August defeated the pasha of Bosnia, and drove him back across the Drin with great loss. He then turned rapidly against the pasha of Scutari, who proposed a truce. But the truce not being ratified by the Porte, George surprised and took Belgrade, except the citadel, which surrendered in 1807.

Freed
 from
 Turkish
 Rule

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SERVIA

Servia was now free from the Turks. A sort of military government was formed, consisting of the waywodes, or chief proprietors of the various districts, each of whom was at the head of a body of cavalry, formed of his tenants and friends. Mutual jealousies and dissensions soon broke out between the principal waywodes and Kara George, but the latter continued to possess supreme power in the country till 1813, when he was driven into Austria, and died there. Universal discouragement followed; the Turks occupied the whole country, entered Belgrade, and Servia became again a pashalic. The waywode Milosch Obronovitch alone kept up the insurrection about Jagodina; and by a succession of exploits, marked by courage and magnanimity, he succeeded in obtaining a pasha, approved by the people. Belgrade and the other fortresses were to remain in the hands of the Turks, but the Servians retained the administration of the country and their senate, and also the sole right of taxation. Milosch was made Prince of Servia in 1815, and restored, with some modification, the constitution established by Kara George. He ruled with partial success till 1839, when he was forced to abdicate, owing partly, it is said, to Russian influence. He was, however, reinstated in 1858, and the office he held was made hereditary in his family. He died in 1860, and was succeeded by his son, Prince Michael III, who was assassinated while walking in the park near his palace, June 10, 1868. His son, Milan Obrenovitch IV, succeeded him in 1872—a regency having been appointed to govern until he came of age.

Turkish
Soldiers
With-
drawn

By the Treaty of Paris, in 1856, Servia was acknowledged as a semi-independent state, and placed under the protection of the three great European Powers. Till 1867 Turkish soldiers were permanently stationed in the seven principal fortresses, but in that year the government of the Porte allowed their troops to be replaced by Servian garrisons. To understand more recent events in and around Servia, it must be remembered that the inhabitants of Servia, and the Serbs around her frontier, the Bosnians, Herzegovinians, and Montenegrins, are scarcely described with propriety as kindred, but more closely as one nation, identical in race, history, and language. They formed, in the Middle Ages, one civilized kingdom, and in spite of the illiterate barbarism to which the people had been reduced by their conquerors, the traditions of this

kingdom were remembered and sung in heroic song by the poorest cottager.

Since 1815, when Serbia achieved her independence, her fortunes had been to some extent separated from those of the Bosnians and Herzegovinians, but in 1875 the latter made a vigorous attempt to throw off the Turkish yoke. Its success, however, appeared doubtful, and the Servians, remembering what the Turkish yoke was, and hoping to bring the fortunes of the day to their brethren, at last entered the arena. They, together with the Montenegrins, declared war in July, 1876, the chief command of the Servian army being assumed by General Tchernayeff, a Russian officer, who had already achieved some distinction in central Asia. He boldly crossed the frontier, but finding himself threatened by superior forces almost immediately retired back into Servian territory. The Turkish government, roused to the imminence of its danger, concentrated large numbers of well-disciplined troops, who, although the Servians were re-enforced by numerous Russian volunteers, succeeded in gaining victory after victory, until an armistice was proposed, the completion of which was hastened by an ultimatum from Russia. A kind of peace was in course of time patched up between the vanquished Servians and Turkey; but Russia herself declared war against Turkey in May, 1877, and after the fall of Plevna, in the following December, Serbia also again declared war, and succeeded in obtaining several victories over the scanty Turkish forces on the frontier.

The independence of the country was fully recognized by the Treaty of Berlin, and Serbia also received the greater part of the basin of the Upper Mprava, or Sandjak of Nisch. This, however, although a valuable acquisition, was not nearly so much as was transferred to her by the San Stefano Treaty between Turkey and Russia. Upon the announcement of the union of the two Bulgarias in 1885, Serbia mobilized her army, placed it on the frontiers of Bulgaria, and claimed compensation in Macedonia for the increase in the power of Bulgaria, from whom she also claimed the district of Widdin; and she at the same time addressed a note to the Powers, complaining of the violation of her frontiers by robber bands from Bulgaria. Prince Alexander paying no attention to the claim, Serbia concentrated her army at Pirot and the Widdin frontier in October, 1885. On November 14, King Milan declared

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War
Declared
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Serbia
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Peace

war, and on the same day crossed the Bulgarian frontier and occupied Tirn. On the 16th he stormed the Dragoman Pass, after a stout resistance, and drove back the Bulgarians nearly to Sofia; a division also defeated the Bulgarians at Kula, and advanced upon Widdin, which was bombarded on the 23d. Very severe fighting took place between the two armies, in the course of which Prince Alexander and his troops displayed the greatest bravery; and eventually, after a conflict of five days' duration, the Servians were defeated with great loss, and the Dragoman Pass recovered. On the 23d, the Bulgarians advanced in their turn, drove the Servians over the frontier, and on the 16th severely defeated them, and occupied Pirot. An armistice was then granted, upon an intimation that if Prince Alexander advanced farther into Serbia he would have to deal with Austrian troops. Negotiations took place between the Powers, and peace was ultimately agreed to, on the basis of both Powers retaining the territory they possessed before the war. In 1889 King Milan divorced his consort, Queen Natalie, and afterward abdicated the throne in favor of his son, Alexander I, a youth of thirteen.

RUMANIA

RUMANIA is a kingdom in the southeast of Europe. The kingdom presents the form of an irregular, blunted crescent. The early Greek historians mention a Thracian tribe, the Getae, from whom were descended the Dacians, a brave race, who occupied the northern side of the Ister, or Danube, and flourished as a free people down to about the first century of our era. Before that time the Dacians had come into conflict with both Greeks and Romans, but in the year 101 A. D., the Emperor Trajan undertook the first of two expeditions against their king, Decebalus, which terminated in the complete sujagation of the country. Traces of the Roman invasion and conquest are still to be found in the military road constructed by Trajan along the banks of the Danube, including a commemorative tablet, and in the piers of a bridge across the river Orsova. Pressed by the barbarian races, who eventually compassed the downfall of the Roman empire, Dacia, which had been constituted a Roman colony, was evacuated by the Romans in the reign of Aurelian (about 274 A. D.), and for about a thousand years the banks of the Danube served as halting-places for the first-named wandering tribes, among whom the most conspicuous were the Goths, the Huns, under Attila; the Lombards, under Alboil; the Bulgari, who afterward settled on the plains south of the Danube, and founded Bulgaria; the Ungri, a savage race who settled in Hungary; and the Wallachs, from whom Wallachia has derived its name.*

For a considerable period both banks of the Danube were gov-

*Rumanian (or Wallachian) is one of the Romance Languages, a daughter of the Latin; but, though the language is unmistakably Romance in type, the vocabulary is mixed, the number of Latin roots being variously estimated at more or less than half of the total, the next greatest element being Slavonic words (amounting, according to some authorities, to even more than the Latin roots), with some hundreds of Turkish, Greek, and Albanian words. Most Rumanians speak what is practically the same language—the Daco-Rumanian—throughout the kingdom, in Transylvania, in the Banat, and other parts of Hungary, Bukowina, and Bessarabia. The Macedo-Rumanian, south of the Danube and among the Balkans and Pindus, is largely modified by Greek; and the Istro-Rumanian, spoken by 2,000 or 3,000 in Istria and Croatia, has been much Slavonized. Rumanian literature may be said to date from the seventeenth century, though the first Rumanian book, a psalter, was printed in 1577. The chronicles of the seventeenth century are the earliest specimens of national literature, the most interesting part of it being the songs. Of these, Alexandri, himself the most notable of native Rumanian poets made a full collection in 1866.

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erned by the sovereigns of which is known as the Wallachian-Bulgarian dynasty, which was brought to a close by a Tartar invasion about the year 1250, A. D. After that there gradually arose, out of a number of smaller states, an independent realm in Wallachia, with its traditions of heroes and chiefs, Mireea the Old, Michael the Brave (whose memory is perpetuated by a beautiful equestrian statue, at Bucharest), and others; while the neighboring state of Moldavia had also its heroes in Stephen the Great, etc. These rulers, for a long time, resisted the Mussulman advance, but were eventually reduced to vassalage by the victorious Turks, and were compelled to sign what are known as the "Capitulations," and to pay an annual tribute to the sultan. The first treaty with Wallachia, known by that name, was signed as far back as 1393; but that with Moldavia, which country was supported by the king of Poland, followed as late as 1513.

Although Wallachia and Moldavia thus became states tributary to the Porte, they retained sufficient independence to be in a sense autonomous; but in course of time their princes, or waywodes, as they were called, were Turkish nominees, whose tenure of office may be judged by the fact that, in the course of ninety years (from 1723 to 1812) the government of Wallachia passed through the hands of no less than forty of those rulers. They were mostly Greeks, known generally as Phanariotes, who, during their brief tenure of power, practised the most scandalous extortions upon the people, in order to enrich themselves and remit the annual tribute to Constantinople. The great majority of these Phanariot waywodes were either assassinated or were disgraced through the intrigues of their rivals at the Sublime Porte; and some of them did not scruple to appeal during their brief tenure of power for the support of Russia, which country was constantly at war with their suzerain.

Russian
 Invasions

The Muscovites began to make inroads into the Danubian principalities as early as the year 1709, under Peter the Great, and continued to invade them at intervals, especially in the reign of the Empress Anne in 1765, and in that of Catharine IV in 1768. In the first instance the Czar Peter was invited to enter the states by the waywodes Brancovano of Wallachia, and Cantemir of Moldavia, who desired to secure their independence under his protection; but no such inducement was afterward requisite; and

although the Russian invasions and occupations were always undertaken on the pretext of liberating the Christians from the Mussulman yoke, the real object has been to advance, step by step, to Constantinople, and to secure possession of the whole Balkan peninsula. At different times the Russians exercised absolute sway in the principalities, notably from 1789 to 1792, and from 1806 to 1812, when the princes under their protection were called Hospodars, a slavonic word. In 1848 they helped to suppress the national rising there, as they did in Hungary, but in 1853, before the Crimean war, their power began to wane. At the termination of that war they were compelled by the allied Powers to cede Bessarabia to the principalities.

In the year 1859 both principalities elected Prince Couza (born at Galatz, 1820) as their ruler, and he reigned in Rumania, as the united provinces were then called, until 1866, when he was deposed on account of his extortions and gross immorality, and was succeeded by Prince Charles of Hohenzollern. This revolution was mainly led by two able statesmen, Bratiano and Rosetti, who may be said to have been jointly the counterpart of the Italian Cavour, and who for many years enjoyed great popularity as the chief ministers of state. On the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish war in 1877, the Rumanians espoused the Russian cause. Prince Charles was actually appointed commander-in-chief of the allied armies, the Russian Cesarewitch serving under him; and the Rumanians captured the first redoubt, the Grivitza, at Plevna, thereby enabling the Russians to reduce that stronghold, and bring the war to a triumphant close. The conquerors, however, deprived their allies of part of their territory, Bessarabia, giving them in exchange the Dobrudcha, which they exacted from the Porte — an exchange laid down in the Treaty of San Stefano, and subsequently confirmed by the Berlin Conference (June, 1878), when Rumania was recognized as a completely independent Power. The effect of that exchange has, however, been unfortunate for Russia in two respects: it has caused a permanent estrangement between the Rumanians and their guardian allies, and the Dobrudcha has served as a barrier against Russian aggression in Bulgaria. In 1881 Prince Charles was invested with the kingly dignity with the acquiescence of the European Powers, and since that time, although there have been ministerial crises, and although the Russians have continued to

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carry on secret intrigues, not only in Rumania, but from thence in Bulgaria, the Rumanians have practically freed themselves from Russian as well as Turkish influence, and have taken their place among the independent nationalities of Europe.*

The various conquerors who have at one time or another occupied Rumania have left their traces in her language and customs. The social condition of the middle and upper classes bears traces of the libertinage of their barbarian conquerors of the Mussulman as well as of the Christian faith. The peasantry are a hardy and thrifty race, and in the highest circles of society the influence of Queen Carmen Sylva has been throughout beneficent. As her marriage left no heir, the succession to the throne passed to Prince Ferdinand of Hohenzollern (born in 1865), the nephew of the king.

Government

* The government of Rumania is a hereditary limited monarchy, and the constitution provides for an irresponsible king, who must belong to the Orthodox Greek Church; a council of ministers; a senate and a chamber of deputies. The members of both houses are indirectly chosen mainly by "colleges" of voters; but the large towns elect directly. Senators are elected for eight years, one half retiring every four years. Members of the lower house sit four years, but either chamber may be dissolved separately. The income of a senator must be at least \$1,900 per annum.



A GENERAL VIEW OF AFRICA

[*Authorities* : H. Barth's *Travels and Discoveries in North and Central Africa*, London, 1890 ; Johnston's *History of the Colonization of Africa*, Cambridge, 1899 ; J. Scott Keltie, *The Partition of Africa*, 2d ed., London, 1895 ; Nachtigal, *Saharâ und Sûdân*, Vol. II, 2 vols., Berlin, 1879-81 ; Reclus, *Universal Geography*, Vol. XII ; White, *The Development of Africa*, London, 1890 ; and the works on Africa by Keith, Hartman, and others, also *The Statesman's Year-Book*, 1899.]



AFRICA is a continent of the eastern hemisphere, forming a southwestern extension of Asia, to which it is attached by the narrow isthmus of Suez, now pierced by a canal ninety miles long. Africa is thus constituted an insular mass of irregular triangular shape, with base on the Mediterranean, and apex at the junction of the Indian and Atlantic waters, which bathe its eastern and western shores respectively. From Cape Blanco at Bizerta, Tunis, to Cape Agulhas in Cape Colony, it stretches across 72° of latitude or about 5,000 miles, disposed nearly equally on both sides of the equator. The extreme eastern and western points are Capes Guardafui on the Indian Ocean, and Verde on the Atlantic, a distance of about 4,500 miles. But owing to the sudden contraction of the land at the Gulf of Guinea, whence, like both Americas, India, and other peninsular masses, it tapers continuously southward, the total area is considerably less than would seem to be indicated by these extreme distances. Including Madagascar and all adjacent insular groups, it can not be estimated at much more than 11,950,000 square miles, or some 4,000,000 less than Asia or America.

Extent of
Africa

Of all the continents except Australia, Africa is the most uniform, heavy, and monotonous in its general outlines, unbroken by any bold projections seaward except the abortive Somali peninsula, unrelieved by broad estuaries, bights, or inlets of any kind

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penetrating far inland, diversified only by the Gulfs of Cabes and Sidra (the Great and Little Syrtes) on the Mediterranean, by the Bight of Biafra at the head of the Gulf of Guinea on the Atlantic, and by the Gulf of Aden, Red Sea, and Gulf of Suez, separating it on the east side from the Asiatic mainland. In treating the various states and colonies in Africa we shall begin with the Barbary states and follow with the Independent states, then giving the colonial possessions of each of the European Powers. The history of Egypt has been treated in Division I, "Earliest Civilization," Vol. III, p. 905.

Changes

The political map of Africa, during the past few years, has undergone considerable modifications, due partly to wars and revolts in the extreme south and northeast, but mainly to the rapid progress of explorations, which has reawakened the interests of European nations in this continent. A fresh stimulus was thus given to the desire of appropriating the territory still unoccupied in this region, with the result that at present nearly three fourths of Africa is under the direct or indirect control of seven European states—Great Britain, France, Portugal, Spain, Germany, Italy, and Turkey. The rest is either comprised in more or less clearly defined independent empires and kingdoms, and held by unruly hordes, or by savage peoples still in the tribal states.

Following are the possessions held by the European nations:—

Colonial Possessions in Africa

GREAT BRITAIN.—Basutoland, Bechuanaland (protectorate), Cape of Good Hope, British Central Africa (Northern Rhodesia), British Central Africa (protectorate), British East Africa (including the East Africa Protectorate and the Uganda Protectorate), together with the Islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, self-governed through their Arab sovereign; Natal, Niger Coast Protectorate, the Niger Territories, British South Africa (Southern Rhodesia), West African Colonies (the Gold Coast, Gambia, Lagos, and Sierra Leone).

FRANCE.—Algeria, French Sudan, French Congo and Gaboon, Obock and Somali Coast (protectorate), Dahomey, Senegal, Guinea, Ivory Coast, and Tunis (protectorate).

GERMANY.—Cameroon, East Africa, Southwest Africa, Togoland.

PORTUGAL.—Angola, Guinea, East Africa.

ITALY.—Somaliland.

SPAIN.—Rio de Oro.

TURKEY.—Egypt and Egyptian Sudan.

The following are the independent, and quasi-independent states: Morocco in the extreme northwest; the Abyssinian empire; Wadai, Fulah, including the empire of Sokoto, with Adamawa and the kingdoms of Gando and Massina, Dahomey, the sultanate of Zanzibar, Uganda, Urna, U-Landa, the two Bandu states in the central regions between the Congo and Zambesi basins; Matabela, a state of comparatively recent Zulu foundation lying between the Limpopo and Zambesi; the Transvaal, or South African Republic; and the Orange Free State, Congo Free State, and Liberia.

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Independent and Quasi-Independent States of Africa

The term "Africa," originally the name of a small tract on the north coast, was extended under Roman influences to the whole of the "dark continent," just as the "Asia" of the Cayster Valley in Ionia, under Greek influences had been extended to the whole of the eastern world. It was the *Ethiopia* of Homeric, and the *Libya* of later Hellenic times, terms vaguely applied to the region stretching away to the setting sun, and with undefined southern limits. But neither Greeks nor Romans ever extended their knowledge much beyond the northern verge of the Sahara, and although the Nile valley was the earliest seat of human culture, with stupendous monuments dating back 4,000 years before the Christian era, Africa is still the least-known division of the globe. Its explorations may be said to have begun with the expedition sent by Sankhara of the eleventh (Theban) dynasty to the land of Punt (Somaliland), as recorded on the Wady Hammamat inscription (2400 B. C.), and after a lapse of over 4,200 years, this work of exploration was still far from complete. After the circumnavigation attributed by Herodotus to Necho (620 B. C.), and the naval expedition of the Carthaginian Hanno round the northwest coast, perhaps to the equator (300 B. C.?), little was done for the seaboard till the fourteenth century, A. D., when the Dieppe mariners claim to have founded "Little Dieppe" on the Guinea coast (1364), and colonized the Canaries, and when Italian navigators had coasted the northwest side as far as Bojador.

Ancient View of Africa

Little Dieppe Founded

Our general knowledge of the periphery was nearly completed toward the close of the next century, when Vasco de Gama doubled the cape, and skirted the east coast northward to Magadosho in 2° N. latitude (1497-98). But long before this, the spread of Islam in the seventh century, followed in the eleventh

Navigation around the Cape of Good Hope

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Pioneer
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century (1050-78) by the tremendous irruption of nomad hordes from southwestern Asia, had converted the greater part of the northern plains into an Arab domain, which was revealed to science by the Arab writers of the next ensuing centuries. Thus a fair knowledge was acquired of the geographical, political, and ethnological relations in the three physical zones of Maghreb (Mauritania), the Sahara, and Sudan by the works of Edrisi (twelfth century), Yakut, Abu'l-Hassan, and Ibn-Said (thirteenth century), Abu'l-Feda, and Ibn-Batuta (fourteenth century), Makrizi, Leo Africanus, and Ibn-Khaldun (fifteenth century), the true pioneers of African explorations. Then followed three hundred years of comparative inactivity, marked by no serious attempt to penetrate far into the interior, and noted chiefly by the occupation of various points on the coast by the Portuguese, Dutch, and English. The Portuguese established relations with the powerful Bantu states of Congo on the west, and Monomotopa on the southeast side; the Dutch obtained a firm footing in the Hottentot country, in the extreme south, while the English were attracted more especially to Guinea and Senegambia.

But the modern epoch of geographical research, apart from political or commercial considerations, begins properly with James Bruce, who discovered the Abai source of the Blue Nile in 1770, and whose adventures in Abyssinia stimulated the foundation of the African Association (1788), which before the close of the eighteenth century had already sent out Ledyard, Lucas, Houghton, and Mungo Park to explore the Niger basin.

In the nineteenth century, the most various motives have cooperated in favor of an extended knowledge of this vast continent. The captains of cruisers employed to suppress the slave-trade have supplied some valuable information; the governors of the colonies and private merchants have contributed their share; and enterprising travelers from all sides of the coast have endeavored to strike out paths to the interior. In 1802-5, Lichtenstein traveled in the district north of the Cape of Good Hope, and first furnished information regarding the Bechuana tribe. In 1809 Burckhardt was sent out by the African Society, and his explorations, rich in manifold results, occupied the years 1812-16.

To the French we are indebted for much valuable information concerning Morocco, Algeria, and the neighboring parts of Sahara.

The labors of Oudney, Clapperton, Denham, and Lander, in the Sahara and Sudan, are memorable by the discovery of Lake T Chad and the course of the Niger. Since about 1840, our knowledge of South Africa has received many important additions from the missionaries stationed there, especially Moffat; while David Livingstone, who from 1843 to 1873 was engaged in trying to open the countries north of the Cape of Good Hope, penetrated in 1849 as far as Lake Ngami, in 20 degrees S. latitude; and in 1853, ascending the Leeambye (Zambesi) northward for several hundred miles, succeeded in crossing the continent to Loanda on the west coast. Having retraced his steps to the point of the Zambesi from which he had started, the adventurous traveler next followed that stream till he reached the east coast, as Quilimane, in 1856. From 1859 to 1863 was spent in various explorations of Lake Nyassa and the neighboring regions. Again setting out in 1866, he found, in the region south of Lake Tanganyika, the river Chambezi. This river, which is specially known by this name ere it falls into Lake Bemba or Bangweolo, is known between that lake and Lake Moero as the Luapula, and farther on in its course as the Lualaba; and was by Livingstone traced through these lakes and as far as 4 degrees S. latitude.

Livingstone's belief was that this basin, now known to be the Upper Congo, contained the head waters of the Nile. In 1871, along with Stanley, he found the river Rusizi flowing into the north of Lake Tanganyika. After some farther exploration of these regions, and new efforts to find the Nile sources, he died at Ilala, beyond Lake Bemba, in May, 1873. Burton and Speke, crossing the Border Mountains from Zanzibar, in 1857, discovered Lake Tanganyika; and the former then journeying to the northeast, discovered the southern part of the Great Victoria Nyanza, which he supposed to be the head reservoir of the Nile. A second expedition, undertaken by Speke and Grant in the end of 1860, penetrated as far north as Gondokoro on the White Nile, and added vastly to our knowledge of the eastern equatorial regions of Africa. At Gondokoro, Speke and Grant were met by Baker, who, accompanied by his heroic wife, pushed on to the south, and discovered in 1864, west of the Victoria, another great lake, which he called the Albert Nyanza. He returned in September, 1873, from a second expedition — of a military character — under-

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Living-
stone's
Explora-
tions and
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Stanley
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taken in 1869, at the expense of the pasha of Egypt, to suppress slavery in the upper regions of the Nile.

The researches of Dr. Barth and his companions (1850-55) and Dr. Gustav Nachtigal (1869-74)—investigating the same central division of the continent as Clapperton and Denham—and Dr. Schweinfurth's travels (1868-71) in unexplored regions, have enriched our store of knowledge regarding this land of mystery. In 1874-75 Lieutenant Cameron surveyed the lower half of Lake Tanganyika, and walked across tropical Africa from east to west; while H. M. Stanley, after exploring the Shimiya, farthest southern head stream of the Nile, circumnavigated Victoria Nyanza, and discovered the Mwutan Nzigé, which he took for Baker's Albert Nyanza, but which is now known to be a distinct basin draining possibly to Tanganyika (1875-76).

Later
Explora-
tions and
Dis-
coveries

Then striking the Lualaba at Nyangwe in the end of 1876, he forced his way down the stream; and arriving at the mouth of the Congo in autumn, 1877, demonstrated that the Lualaba and the Congo are identical. In 1877-79 Serpa Pinto crossed from Benguela to Durban in Natal. In 1880 Joseph Thomson explored the route between Nyassa and Tanganyika; and in 1884 he made his memorable journey from Mombasa by Kilimanjaro and Kenia across Masai Land to the Victoria Nyanza. Dr. G. A. Fischer, in his attempt to relieve Emin Pasha, reached north to Lake Baringo (1885-86). In 1885 Grenfell discovered the U-banghi, the great northern tributary of the Congo, which he navigated to within two hundred miles of the farthest point reached by Dr. Junker (22° 40' E. long.), penetrating westward down the Welle-Makua (1886).

In 1887 Emin Pasha reported by letter repeated exploration of the Albert Nyanza. Meanwhile Stanley's expedition was on its way up the Congo to rescue him. The intricate water system south of the Middle Congo has also been unraveled, especially by Pogge, Wissmann, and Ludwig Wolf (1881-86), who have made it evident that the Kwango, Kassai, Sankuru, and Lake Leopold all belong to one magnificent hydrographic system flowing through the Kwa to the Congo at Kwamouth, and including Livingstone's Kassabi (1854).

The
Pigmy
Batwas
Dis-
covered

It was on the Sankuru that Dr. Wolf made the acquaintance of the pigmy Batwas, the smallest known race of mankind. The Ogoway system, first discovered by Du Chailu (1850), ascended

by Walker to Lope (1873), and surveyed by Compiègne and Marche to Ivindo (1874), has been completely elucidated by De Brazza, Mizon, and Rouvier during various expeditions between 1877-86. The Alima, supposed to be one of its head streams, has been followed to the right bank of the Congo; and the Ogoway itself, reported to be one of the great continental basins, proves to be a coast stream of secondary importance. After visiting it in 1874, Dr. Oscar Lenz transferred the scene of his operations to the north, crossing from Morocco to Timbuctu in 1880, and doing excellent surveying work on the route across the Western Sahara. The same route had been followed by Chaillié in 1828, himself preceded (1826) by Laing from Tripolitana, and followed by Barth (1853), these, besides Mungo Park, being the only European travelers that have reached the "Queen of the Desert" during the present century. Again moving southward, Lenz ascended the Congo to Nyangwe, and crossed the continent from the mouth of that river to the Zambesi delta in seventeen months (1885-86). He had been preceded altogether by nine others — Livingstone, Loanda to Quilimane, 1854-56; Cameron, Zanzibar to Benguela, 1873-75; Stanley, Zanzibar to Congo mouth, 1874-77; Serpa Pinto, Benguela to Natal, 1877-79; Matteucci and Massari, Suakin to Niger delta, 1880-81; Wissmann, Loanda to Zanzibar coast, 1881-82; Arnot, Natal to Benguela, 1881-84; Capello and Ivens, Mossamedes to Zambesi delta, 1884-85.

These have all been routes from east to west or west to east, no one having yet succeeded in crossing the continent along the line of the meridian from north to south. In 1886 Dr. Holub attempted the route from the Cape northward, and in 1887 had penetrated farthest in this direction, having advanced some distance beyond the Zambesi. Meantime, although still numerous, and in some places extensive, the blank spaces on the map of Africa are being rapidly filled up, thanks partly to private enterprise, partly to the activity displayed by the officers in the service of the Congo Free State. The French are making explorations in the central Sudan region, one expedition under Major Marchand reaching Fashoda on the Upper Nile in the summer of 1898. The English are pushing south from Egypt, and in fact all the European countries that have any claim to African territory are not only protecting what they have, but are pushing out in every direction for more.

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Direction
Taken by
Ex-
plorers



Barbary States

THE HISTORY OF THE BARBARY STATES

INCLUDING MOROCCO, ALGERIA, TUNIS, TRIPOLI, AND BARCA

[Authorities: Renan, *La Société Berbère*; René Basset, *Contes Berbères*; Lane-Poole, *Barbary Corsairs*; Beaulieu *L'Algérie et la Tunisie*, 2d ed. Paris, 1897; Bridgman, *Winters in Algeria*, 8, New York, 1890; Dessoliers, *Organization Politique de l'Algérie*, 8, Paris, 1894; Robert, *Voyage à travers l'Algérie*, Paris, 1891; Barth, *Travels in Central Africa*, Vol. I, London, 1857; Nachtigal, *Sahara und Sudan*, Vol. I, Berlin, 1879; Bonsal, *Morocco as it is*, with an Account of Sir Charles Euan Smith's Mission to Fez, London, 1892; Erckmann, *Le Maroc moderne*, Paris, Frisch, *Le Maroc*, Paris, 1895; Harris, *The Land of an African Sultan; Travels in Morocco*, 1887-89, 8, London, 1889; Hooker, *Journal of a Tour in Morocco*, 8, London, 1878; Keane, *Africa*, Vol. I, North Africa, London, 1894; *The Piratical States of Barbary* (anonymous); Broadley's *Tunis Past and Present*; Banning's *Le Partage Politique de l'Afrique*; Arènes's *Vingt Jours en Tunisie*; Mayet's *Voyage dans le Sud de la Tunisie*; Lanessau's *La Tunisie*; Norman's *Colonial France*; Graham and Ashbee's *Travel's in Tunisia* (with full bibliography, 1887; the *Bibliography* continued by Ashbee in 1890), Silva White's *Development of Africa* (1890); and Poire, *La Tunisie Française* (1892).]



THE Barbary states include the countries known in modern times under the names of Morocco, Algeria, Tunis, Tripoli, Barca, and Fezzan. In ancient times these territories were known as Mauritania, Numidia, Lybia, and Cyrenaica. The territory stretches from Egypt to the Atlantic Ocean, and from the Mediterranean to the Desert of Sahara. The history of the country is a record of successive conquests by the Romans, Vandals, Arabs, Turks, and French.

Modern
and
Ancient
Names

The Romans obtained possession of Barbary in the time of Julius Cæsar, and remained masters of it till A. D. 428. At that time Bonifacius, the Roman governor, revolted, and called in to his assistance Genseric, king of the Vandals, who had been some time settled in Spain. They agreed to divide the country between them; Genseric was to have two thirds, and Bonifacius one

Roman
Owner-
ship

third. Genseric set sail in May the same year, with an army of eighty thousand men, together with their wives, children, and effects. Genseric had no sooner effected his landing, and secured a part of the country, than he turned his arms against Bonifacius, defeated him, and obliged him to shelter himself in Hippo, which place he besieged in May, 430, but was under the necessity of retiring from famine. The Romans sent an army into Africa, under the conduct of the celebrated Aspar, from Constantinople; a dreadful battle ensued, and Genseric became the victor. The Vandals were by this victory rendered masters of Africa. Cirtha and Carthage were the only strong places possessed by the Romans.

DIVISION IV
 —
 AFRICA
 —
 BARBARY STATES
 —
 Taken by the Vandals

In 435, peace was concluded between the Romans and the Vandals. The former gave up part of Numidia, the province of Procon Salariz and Byzancene, for which a yearly sum was to be paid to the emperor of the East. However, in 439, the Romans being engaged in a war with the Goths of Gaul, Genseric took this advantage to seize Carthage, by which he considerably enlarged his African dominions. On the taking of Carthage, Genseric made it the seat of his empire; and, in 440, made a descent on the island of Sicily, plundered it, and returned to Africa. Being now become formidable to both empires, Theodosius, emperor of the East, resolved to assist Valentinian against so powerful an enemy. Accordingly, he fitted out a fleet of eleven hundred ships, filled with the flower of his army, under Arcovindus. Genseric, now pretending a desire to be at peace with both empires, amused the Roman general with pacific proposals, till the season for action was over. Theodosius being obliged to recall his forces to oppose the Huns, Valentinian found it necessary to conclude a peace with the Vandals, yielding them quiet possession of the countries they had seized. Genseric was now become so powerful, or rather so low was the power of the Roman empire reduced, that, in 455, he took the city of Rome, and plundered it; and after his return to Africa made himself master of all the remaining countries held by the Romans in that part of the world.

Peace between the Romans and Vandals

Rome Taken by Genseric

The kingdom of the Vandals in Africa was now fully established; and Genseric made himself master of Sicily, as well as all the other islands between Italy and Africa, without opposition from the Western emperors, who were now too feeble to resist

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BARBARY
STATESGenseric
Succeeded
by his
Son
Hunneric

him, A. D. 466. Genseric made his dominions a scene of blood, and died in 477, after a reign of forty-seven years. He was succeeded by his son Hunneric, who proved a greater tyrant than his father, persecuting the Christians with the utmost fury; and during his short reign of seven years and a half, he destroyed more of them than Genseric had done during the whole of his life. The successors of Hunneric were Thrasamund, and Hilderic, of whom we know very little, except that the latter was deposed, in the seventh year of his reign, by Gelimer, a prince of the blood-royal, who proved a greater tyrant than any that had gone before him, and was held in abhorrence, when the Emperor Justinian proposed an invasion of Africa. Accordingly, he sent a powerful fleet and army against Gelimer, under the command of the celebrated Belisarius. Gelimer committed the management of his army to his brothers, Gundimir and Gelimund; they attacked the Romans; the engagement was long and bloody, but at length the Vandals were defeated, and the two princes slain. Gelimer headed a fresh army, which was also defeated, and the loss of Carthage followed. Another defeat followed close upon the former. Gelimer fled into Numidia, and an end was put to the Vandal power in Barbary. Gelimer was afterward brought in gold chains before Justinian, whom he besought in the most submissive manner to spare his life. This was readily granted by the emperor; and a handsome yearly pension was also allowed him.

Vandals
Defeated
by
RomansCarthage
TakenReduced
by the
Saracens

Barbary remained under the Roman power until the caliphate of Omar, when it was reduced by the Saracens. It continued subject to the caliph till the reign of Haroun al Raschid, when Ebu Aglab, the governor, assumed independence. The house of Aglab was driven out by Al Mohdi, the first Fatimite caliph. Al Mohdi reigned twenty-four years, and was succeeded by his son, Abul Kasem, who took the name of Al Kayem Mohdi. During this reign we read of nothing remarkable, except the rebellion of Yesod. He was succeeded by his son Ishmael, who took upon himself the title of Al Mansur. Al Mansur was succeeded by his son, Abu Zammin Moad, who assumed the surname of Al Moez Ledenillah. This caliph conquered Egypt, and removed the caliphate to that country.

MOROCCO

MOROCCO is an empire or sultanate which, though at one time comprising a portion of Algeria in one direction, and exercising in the other a modified jurisdiction as far as Timbuctu, is now confined to that part of northwest Africa bounded on the east by Algeria, and on the south by Cape Nun and the Wad Draa, though both here and on the Sahara side of the Atlas Mountains the limits of the empire are rather indeterminate. Political Morocco comprises at present the old kingdom of Fez and Morocco, and the territories of Taflet and Sus; but the two latter are almost independent, recognizing the sultan only as the Prince of True Believers, an office which he holds as the most powerful of the descendants of Mohammed. These four principal governments are divided into seventeen primary provinces, each of which is presided over by the Kaid, who again has under him various minor officials, dictating the affairs of the smaller districts. Many of the Arabs and most of the mountain tribes are practically independent, never being troubled by the officers, and paying taxes only when an army enters their country.

After being for more than four centuries a part of the Roman Empire, and in the latter period of its sway veneered with a corrupt Christianity, Mauritania Tingitana fell (429 A. D.) into the hand of the Vandals, who held it until 533, when, Belisarius having defeated them, it became subject once more to the eastern empire. But in the year 680 the Arab invasion began, and with little intermission the Arabs have ever since been possessors of the country, and the entire population are now the most fanatical adherents of Mohammedanism.

At first, with Spain, part of the caliphate of Bagdad, it became divided into several independent monarchies, and during this period the country enjoyed a prosperity to which it has ever since been a stranger. After seeing the successive dynasties of the Edrisite (789 A. D.), Mahhditi, Zeiridi, Almoravidi, Almphadi, Beni Marini, Uatasi, Shereefi-Elhhoseini and Shereefi El-Fileli (or Alides), and almost unbroken civil and foreign wars and revolutions, Muley (*Muláï* — “ My Lord ”) Ismaïl (1692–1727) united the entire country under his sway, and as one empire it has, with occasional rebellions, continued ever since. Morocco, though now

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

MOROCCO

Present
Boundaries
and Gov-
ernment

Inde-
pendence
of Many
Tribes

Religion

Wars
and
Revolu-
tions

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AFRICA

MOROCCO

Opposition to
ImprovementsPresent
Slavery

more contracted than formerly, has at present, with the exception of the Spanish *presidios*, no foreign strongholds on its coast, as there were up to the year 1769, when the Portuguese evacuated Mazagan; and since the unsuccessful war with Spain in 1859–60, the country has not been disturbed by foreign hostilities. But it is still very backward. A passive resistance is offered to every improvement, and, though Christian slavery and piracy by government vessels have been abolished since 1817–22, and foreign traders have nominally had access to all parts of the empire, the interior is not much different from what it was a thousand years ago, and many cities and districts are still dangerous or impossible to visit. The slave-trade is as brisk as ever, negroes being openly hawked about the streets of the ports, and systematically offered for sale in the markets of the larger towns of the interior.

ALGERIA

ALGERIA, which in ancient times was regarded as the most powerful of the Barbary States, was for a long time the subject of indignation for its piratical practises, and the ignominious slavery to which all Christians who fell into its power were irrevocably doomed.

Original
InhabitantsCon-
nection with
Rome

There is a variety of opinions respecting the original inhabitants; some contending that they were the Sabeans, who plundered the patriarch Job; others that they were Canaanites, who were driven out of their country by Joshua. Be this as it may, the Algerine kingdom formerly made a considerable part of Moratania, which Julius Cæsar reduced to a Roman province. The Algerines shared in the fortunes of Rome; for, at the decline of its empire, they fell to the Vandals, who in turn were expelled by the Saracens about the middle of the seventh century. From that period they were subject to the Arabs, till the year 1051, when Abubeker ben Omar, by the agency of his marabouts, or saints, assembled a large force of malcontents in Numidia and Libya. His followers were called Moabites, and the kingdom which he founded is distinguished by that appellation. Religious frenzy seems to have imparted resolution and strength, the sinews of victory, to these combatants, while a variety of favorable circumstances, arising from the absence of the most powerful of the constituted authorities, enabled Abubeker to banish the several sheiks who opposed, and at length reduce the whole of Tingitania under his sway.

His successor, Yusef, or Joseph, founded Morocco as the capital of the Moabitish kingdom. An event which at first seemed to threaten his project with annihilation, turned out to the increase of his power and the consolidation of his empire. In order to strengthen his new dynasty, he sent ambassadors to a powerful sect of the Mohammedans, called Zeniti, whom he wished to bring back to what he called the true faith, who not only murdered his emissaries, but, with a large army, invaded his kingdom. Fearful and terrible was the retribution he exacted from them. He ravaged their land with fire and sword; and, assisted by the inhabitants of Fez, who refused the Zeneti the succor they had expected from them when they retreated upon their city, he almost annihilated the whole tribe, to the amount of nearly a million of souls, including women and children. Their desolated country was soon re peopled by colonies from Fez; and Joseph, forgetful of the efficient support he had received from the Fezzans, attacked and subdued both them and the remaining Arab sheiks, who, relying upon their supposed impregnable fortresses, had not yet submitted to his authority. The dynasty of the Moabites, founded by the influence of the marabouts, fell before the power of Mohavedin, a marabout, in the middle of the twelfth century, whose priestly tribe was expelled by Abdular, governor of Fez. Thus did the conquered become conquerors, only to fall before the renovated power of the descendants of those very princes whom Abubeker, in the eleventh century, had stripped of their power. Their descendants divided their new conquests into several kingdoms, or provinces, dividing the present kingdom of Algeria into Tremecen, Tenez, Algeria proper, and Bujeyah. The alliance of these four kingdoms was so well cemented, that mutual amity reigned among them for nearly three centuries. It was interrupted by the aggressions of the king of Tremecen, who was, in consequence, attacked and subjected by the potentate of Tenez, Abul Farez. He left his power divided among his sons, which occasioned discords, and afforded the Spaniards an opportunity of attacking them. Ferdinand of Spain, having driven the Saracens from Europe, followed them into Africa, and, in 1504 and 1509, took possession of Oran, Bujeyah, Algiers, and other places.

The successes of the Count of Navarre struck such terror into the Algerines that they sought the protection of Selim Eutemi, an

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AFRICA

ALGERIA

**Ambassadors
Sent
to the
Mohammedans
Slain**

**Terrible
Retribution**

**Fezzans
Con-
quered**

**Kingdom
Divided**

**Invasion
by Span-
iards**

DIVISION IV Arabian prince. This alliance, however, though actively exerted, did not save them from becoming tributary to their European invaders, who raised a strong fort on a small island opposite the city, in order to deter the maraudings of the corsairs.

AFRICA

ALGERIA

Barbarossa's Cupidity and Treachery

Self-Appointed Title

The People Accept Him as King in Terror

Unsuccessful Stroke for Liberty

Great Victory with Fire-arms

The death of Ferdinand, 1516, seemed the signal of their liberty; for they solicited, with larger offers, the succor of Ameh Barbarossa, whose valor and success had rendered him the most redoubtable captain of that period. Barbarossa readily answered their call, and marched with a powerful army to Algiers, having first reduced, and then treacherously murdered, Hassan, another celebrated corsair, whose followers, consisting of Turks, he compelled to follow in his ranks. The whole populace of Algeria, with the prince Selim Eutemi at their head, received this accomplished butcher with every demonstration of gratitude and honor; which he repaid by causing the prince to be murdered, and himself to be saluted by his licentious followers with "Long live king Ameh Barbarossa, the invincible king of Algeria, the chosen of God to deliver the people from the oppression of the Christians." This part of the acclamation might have been acceptable enough to the Algerines in respect of the object for which they had sought his friendship; but the concluding words, "destruction to all who shall oppose or refuse to own him as their lawful sovereign," struck such terror into them that they acknowledged his pretensions and received him as their king. His treachery to Selim was followed by brutal insults to Zaphira, his widow, who having vainly attempted to stab the tyrant, poisoned herself.

The reign of Barbarossa, begun in treachery and usurpation, was continued by havoc and bloodshed. The signal barbarity he exercised over some conspirators whom he had detected, effectually repressed all similar plots against him by those who disliked his authority, while his unbounded liberality to those who followed him obtained the favor of others who sought their own private advantage in preference to their country's liberty. An attempt to overthrow him, fomented by Selim, a son of the prince whom Barbarossa had murdered, proved abortive, although backed by ten thousand Spaniards under the command of Don Diego de Vera. The king of Tunis also, at the head of ten thousand Moors, was defeated by the Algerine autocrat with only one thousand Turkish musketeers and five hundred Granada Moors, his capital taken

and pillaged, himself deposed, and Barbarossa made sovereign in his stead. This victory, which he owed to the use of firearms, which had now begun to lend their terrible assistance to the deadliness of war, was followed by an embassy from Tremecen, in which place also he was chosen king. His tyranny in Tremecen led to his destruction, for the expelled royal family having obtained the assistance of the Spaniards, and being joined by the refugee Algerines, under the guidance of Prince Selim, pressed the monarch so closely, that in his attempt to escape he was overtaken, and after a resistance distinguished by the most uncompromising valor of his followers, was slain by his pursuers, in the forty-fourth year of his age, A. D. 1520.

The death of Barbarossa did not deliver the Algerines from the Turkish authority; for Hayradin, his brother, was appointed king. To strengthen his power he sought the protection of the Grand Seigneur, from whom he received a confirmation of his office, and such re-enforcements that he both compelled the acquiescence of the Moors and the Arabs to his sway, and was enabled also greatly to annoy the Europeans by sea. He captured the Spanish fort of Calan, and by employing thirty thousand Christian slaves on the work without intermission for three years, he built a strong mole, as a protection for his shipping. And not only did he provide this defense for himself, but by repairing and strengthening the captured Spanish fort, he effectually kept out all foreign vessels. He strengthened, by the assistance of the Ottoman sultan, all the weak places of his kingdom, and was at length rewarded by him with the dignity of bashaw of the empire; while Algeria, now completely tributary to the Porte, received Hassan Aga, a Sardinian renegade, as the Turkish deputy.

From this period the history of Algeria for about a hundred years is one bloody series of piracy abroad, and sanguinary commotions at home. Hassan gave the Spaniards no respite. He ravaged not only their coasts, but even those of the papal states, and other parts of Italy. A most formidable armament was fitted out against him by the emperor, Charles V, at the instigation of Paul III, the pope of Rome. This expedition was, in some respects, like the armada which threatened England with Spanish bigotry in the reign of Elizabeth, and was attended with similar success. Confident in his numbers and equipment, Charles pushed

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AFRICA

ALGERIA

Bar-
barossa
Defeated
and SlainHis
Brother
Succeeds
Him with
Added
PowerAssist-
ance
from
Sultan of
TurkeySpanish
Invasion

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ALGERIA

Ruin
Befalls
the
SpaniardsGreatest
Algerian
VictoryAssassi-
nations
and De-
positionsFounda-
tion Laid
for Inde-
pendence

his projects with every probability of success, while Hassan, dispirited by the weakness of his fortifications and the paucity of his garrison, was on the point of surrender, when the predictions of a mad prophet, named Yusef, encouraged him to a more desperate resistance. The predictions of the approaching ruin of the Spaniards were soon verified. The war of elements—storms of wind, hail, rain, a general darkness, and violent earthquakes—combined to wreck the proud hopes of the Spanish monarch. His army, the finest, perhaps, Europe has seen for many an age, was scattered, destroyed, or taken captive; his navy in a few minutes was swallowed up, and the great deep closed over the relics, and arms, and human beings, with which it was amply furnished; and he himself with difficulty escaped from the general destruction which pursued his ill-fated attempt. This extraordinary event took place on the 28th of October, 1541. The Spaniards never recovered from this loss, and their attempts to annoy the Algerines were henceforth inconsiderable. This may be considered as the most splendid victory which this freebooting state ever acquired.

In 1555, the Algerines under Pelha-Rais, the successor of Hassan, captured Bujeyah, which had been in possession of the Spaniards for fifty years. A period now occurs thickly clustered by the names of those who were bashaws for brief periods, among which we find Hassan Corsa, who was murdered to make room for Tekeli, who in turn was assassinated by Yusef Calabres, and he was bashaw for only six days. Then came Hassan, the son of Hayradin, who defeated another attempt of the Spaniards with the loss of twelve thousand men. This Hassan was deposed by the aga of the Janissaries; * then reinstated, again deposed by Achmet; and a third time made bashaw, when he undertook the siege of Marsalquiver, near Oran, with a powerful army, but which he was compelled to raise on the approach of the celebrated Doria. He was again recalled from his government. and died at Constantinople, A. D. 1567.

His successor, Mohammed, showed prudence, and by his wise regulations laid the foundations of Algerine independence. He was deposed by the notorious renegade Ochali, who reduced Tunis to the subjection of Algeria, only that it might be made a pashalic of the Porte in 1586. In the preceding year the enterprising spirit of

* Vol. IV, p. 1617 (foot-note).

these pirates carried them through the straits of Gibraltar as far as the Canary Islands, which they plundered. In the beginning of the following century the Algerines affected one leading step toward independence in obtaining from the Porte permission to appoint a dey of their own; but the sultan still retained a bashaw, whose office was confined to watching that the interests of his master did not suffer. Their power, augmented by an influx of the Moors, who were expelled from Spain in 1609, was now formidable; and the states of Europe, with the exception of the Dutch, quailed before them. Alliances were formed against them; and to the honor of France be it said that her new navy was the first which dared openly to avenge the cause of insulted Europe and suffering humanity. In 1617 the arms of Gaul fell with violence on the insolence of the pirates.

In 1623 Algeria declared herself independent of the Porte, and for the next thirty years pillaged without distinction whatever vessels of the Europeans fell in their way; then another collision took place between them and the French navy; and soon after a large fleet under Hali Pinchinin, after carrying off immense booty from the Italian coast, was defeated by the Venetians under Capello, with very considerable loss, which greatly crippled their power. This relapse was but for two years; when, as it were, renovated by the misfortune, they scoured the whole sea with a fleet of sixty-five sail, and compelled the French, Dutch, and English to court their favor. Louis XIV at last, in the year 1681, provoked by some outrages which the pirates had committed on his coast, ordered a powerful fleet and armament to be fitted out, with which he destroyed several of the vessels in the Isle of Scio. In the following year he bombarded Algiers, and but for a sudden change of wind would have destroyed it. The return of the year saw the French admiral Du Quesne again before Algiers, who desisted not from his attack till he had completely humbled the Algerine audacity, by reducing their city to a heap of ruins. They sued for peace, which was granted, and all Christian captives set at liberty. Taught a lesson by this humiliation, the Algerines paid some respect to other nations, and the English in particular were admitted into a treaty with them; who further enforced respect from the pirates by the capture of Gibraltar and Port Mahon. The eighteenth century presents little that is interesting in the

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AFRICA

ALGERIA

Feared
by
Europe

France
the First
to Punish
the
Pirates

Inde-
pendence
Declared

Con-
tinued
Piracy
Checked
by the
French

Du
Quesne
Destroys
Algiers

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history of this piratical state, except the union of the office of the Algerine dey and Turkish viceroy, in 1710; the capture of Oran in 1708; and its recapture in 1737.

Navy
 Des-
 troyed by
 the
 British

On the 18th of August, 1816, Lord Exmouth, with a fleet of four ships of war, four frigates, and several vessels, bombs, etc., appeared before Algiers, to exact punishment for the barbarous massacre of a number of Europeans at Bona, on May 23, by two thousand of the Algerine infantry and cavalry. On the 27th of August Exmouth commenced an attack, which was completely successful. The whole of the Algerine navy was destroyed, and half the town demolished. Like the defeat received from DuQuesne one hundred and twenty-three years before, this disposed them to accept the terms offered by the British admiral. Christian slavery was abolished, and full reparation made; and on the 1st of September was beheld the proud and gratifying sight of the fulfilment of the conditions. Algeria disgorged its Christian slaves, and a large payment of money for the use of the several states which had suffered by its depredations. This was one of the most honorable triumphs achieved by the British flag. Since that time the dey has been embroiled with the Austrian states; but its most signal chastisement was left for the French to inflict.

French
 Consul
 Assaulted
 by the
 Dey

During a conversation that took place between the dey and the French consul at Algiers, the former had the ill-mannered temerity to offer the Frenchman an insult, and even struck him. Redress was, of course, demanded; but so far from complying with the demand, the dey displayed a hostile feeling, and demolished the French post at La Calle. This being tantamount to a declaration of war, France fitted out a powerful armament, including a land force of thirty-eight thousand men, with a formidable train of artillery, under the command of General Bourmont. On the 14th of June, 1830, the French troops effected a landing, and after a feeble resistance, Algiers capitulated on the 5th of July. The French found in the treasury of the dey, gold and silver to the amount of nearly fifty millions of francs, besides abundant supplies of stores of various kinds. The towns of Oran and Bona soon after submitted.

French
 Suprem-
 acy
 Recog-
 nized

But the French subsequently met with considerable resistance from the bey of Oran, who, however, after a series of contests and negotiations, submitted, in 1837, and agreed to abandon the maritime parts of the province, and recognize the supremacy of the French

in Africa. The occupation of the Algiers (or, as it is now generally termed, Algeria) has been a work of more difficulty than its Gallic conquerors anticipated, and thousands of Europeans have annually perished by sickness and the sword since the territory has been wrested from the fierce Arabs in whose possession it had so long remained unmolested.

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AFRICA

ALGERIA

TUNIS

TUNIS is a French protectorate of north Africa, bounded on the north and east by the Mediterranean Sea, on the west by Algeria, on the south by the Sahara, and on the southeast by Tripoli. The population is mostly Bedouin Arabs and Kabyles. Tunis occupies nearly the same site as did ancient Carthage. When European powers first began to recognize the utility, if not necessity, of occupying foreign shores with the view of commanding freedom in the transport of troops and merchandise, Tunis, from the facilities which its numerous bays and ports gave to movements in the Mediterranean, seems to have particularly engaged the attention of France, and in 1270 Louis IX invaded the country, being assisted by the king of Navarre. Although his landing was unopposed, the troops suffered much from sickness, the king and his son falling early victims to the disease. Notwithstanding the invaders managed to bring their enterprise to a successful issue. In 1575 Sinan Pasha brought the country completely under the Ottoman power, giving it a new constitution. The government was invested in a Turkish pasha as governor, with a council composed of the principal officers of the Turkish troops and the commander of the Janisaries. But in a few years a military mutiny overturned matters, and a dey, with military authority, was raised to power, the chief executive functions being retained by the council, a bey being put at the head of the revenue and taxation departments. By slow degrees this officer so extended his influence and authority that at last Murad Bey succeeded in raising himself to the hereditary sovereignty, and his family governed Tunis for a century, enlarging their borders by a conquest on land, and greatly increasing their own and the country's opulence by piracy, directed against the Christian powers, by sea. In the eighteenth century, after a series of reverses, Tunis became tributary to Algeria; but in the beginning of the nineteenth century, the country, under Hamuda

French
InvasionPiracy
Followed

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TUNIS

Signing
of Treaty
Important to
France

Pasha, became again virtually independent. Under its later sovereigns, generally men of an enlightened and wisely reforming spirit, Tunis made great progress. In 1881 France invaded Tunis, under pretext of chastising the Kroumir tribes, which had been making incursions into Algeria; this invasion resulted in the signing of a treaty, placing the country practically under French protection, under which it has made satisfactory progress. This occupation is the most important to France of any that she has undertaken in late years, as it gives her to a large extent the command of the Mediterranean and important coast line, the use of many and secure harbors, and makes her the mistress of north Africa, besides, to a certain degree, lessening the strategic importance of Gibraltar and Malta.

TRIPOLI

TRIPOLI is a province of the Ottoman empire, and the easternmost of the Barbary states of North Africa, stretching along the whole extent of both the greater and lesser Syrtes (the gulfs of Cades and Sidra). It is bounded on the west by Tunis, on the south (very vaguely) by the Libyan Desert and Fezzan, on the east by Egypt, and on the north by the Mediterranean Sea.

Divisions

Tripoli is subdivided into four provinces—Tripoli, Benghazi (Berenice), Mesurata, and Gadames. The governor-general has the title, rank, and authority of a pasha of the Ottoman empire. He is appointed by the sultan and in his turn appoints the beys, or subordinate governors, of the provinces; but many of the chief officers of state are nominated from Constantinople. The natives pay to the Turkish government, by way of tribute, a tenth of all the products of the soil; and there are besides the onerous special taxes on date-trees, common to Mohammedan countries.

Taxes

From the Phœnicians Tripoli passed into the hands of the rulers of Cyrenaica (Barca), from whom it was wrested by the Carthaginians. It next belonged to the Romans, who included it within the province of Africa, and gave it the name of Regio Syrtica. About the beginning of the third century A. D. it became known as the Regio Tripolitana (on account of its three principal cities, Cæa, Sabrata, and Leptis which were leagued together), and was probably raised to the rank of a separate province by Septimius Severus, who was a native of Leptis. Like the rest of north Africa,

it was conquered by the Arabs early in the eighth century, and the feeble Christianity of the natives was supplanted by a vigorous and fanatical Mohammedanism. In 1510 it was taken by Don Pedro Navarro for Spain, and in 1523 it was assigned to the knights of St. John, who had lately been expelled by the Ottoman Turks from their stronghold in the island of Rhodes. The knights kept it with some trouble till 1551 when they were compelled to surrender to the Turkish admiral Sinan, and Tripoli henceforth joined in the general piracy which made the Barbary states the terror of maritime Christendom. In 1714 the ruling pasha, Ahmad Karamanli, assumed the title of bey, and asserted a sort of semi-independence of the sultan, and this order of things continued under the rule of his descendants, accompanied by the most brazen piracy and blackmailing, until 1835, when the Porte took advantage of an intestinal war in Tripoli to reassert his authority. A new Turkish pasha, with viceregal powers, was appointed, and the state was made a vilayet of the Ottoman empire, which it still remains. Several anti-Turkish rebellions have since taken place (notable in 1842 and 1844), but they have always been suppressed. The religious movement set on foot by the prophet Senusi in the middle of the nineteenth century is the most remarkable feature in the recent history of Tripoli. The first Senusi died in 1860, and was succeeded by his son, who calls himself the Mahdi, and commands the devotion of a large following in northern Africa, much as did the better known Mahdi in the Sudan.

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AFRICA

TRIPOLI

Planting
of
Moham-
medan-
ismModern
Events

FEZZAN

FEZZAN is a province of the Turkish empire, politically attached to Tripoli, to the south of which country it lies, extending some 390 miles north and south, and some 300 east and west. Fezzan belongs to the desert region of north Africa. It consists of a huge depression, fenced in on all sides, except the west, by low ranges of hills, and traversed by barren, stony, shelterless plateaus, between which lie long, shallow valleys, containing numerous fertile oases.

Location

The inhabitants are a mixed race, embracing Tuareg, Tibbu, Bornu, Haussa, and Arab elements, grafted on the original nomadic stock. They are frivolous, pleasure-loving, and idle, but noted for their honesty and good nature, as well as notorious for their

Inhabit-
ants

DIVISION IV
 AFRICA
 FEZZAN

immorality. In their manners and social customs they have borrowed largely from Arab originals; in religion, they are Mohammedans of the Sunnite creed.

Fezzan is the ancient Phazania, or the land of the Garamantes, whose capital was Garama, and who were conquered by the Roman Balbus in 20 B. C. In the middle of the seventh century the country was invaded and subdued by a lieutenant of 'Amribn el-Asi, the Moslem conqueror of Egypt. From the tenth century onward, with the exception of about one hundred years (the thirteenth century), when it was held by the kings of Kawem from the south, Fezzan was ruled by native, or Arab, dynasties. From the sixteenth century its history may be epitomized as a series of struggles against Tripoli, until in 1842 it finally lost its independence, and became a Turkish province and part of the governor-generalship of Tripoli; but it has now a separate governor, who acts almost wholly independently of the governor of Tripoli.

A Turkish Province

BARCA

BARCA is a country extending along the northern coast of Africa, between the Great Syrtis (now called the Gulf of Sidra) and Egypt. Bounded on the west by Tripoli, and on the south by the Libyan Desert, it is separated from Egypt on the east by no definite line. It nearly corresponds with the ancient Cyrenaica, whose capital was Cyrene. This city was founded in 631, B. C., by a colony of Spartans under Battus, whose dynasty ruled for nearly two centuries, and was replaced by a republic, which was far from prosperous, until the Roman rule at length gave it rest from party conflicts. During its prosperity Cyrene carried on a great commerce with Greece and Egypt, and to a less extent with Carthage. Its extensive ruins still attest its former magnificence. It is repeatedly mentioned in the New Testament. Here were born the philosophers Aristippus, Anniceris, and Carneades, the poet Callimachus, the astronomer Eratosthenes, and the Christian rhetorician and bishop, Synesius.

Founded by the Spartans

New Testament Mention

Other early cities in Cyrenaica were Teuchira and Hesperis, then Barca, a colony from Cyrene; and these, with Cyrene itself, and its port Appolonia, formed the original Libyan *Pentapolis*. Subsequently Hesperis became Berenice; Teuchira, Arsinoë; while

Barca was eclipsed by its port, which became a city with the name of Ptolemaïs. Cyrenaica at length became Roman, and under Constantine was constituted into a province as Libya Superior.

As early as the time of Cyrus, Barca became a state which proved dangerous to the neighboring state of Cyrene; but within a single century it sank, and became subject to Egypt. In the Roman period its inhabitants were noted for their predatory incursions. It declared its independence of Greece, but was invaded and conquered by Arabia in 641. The present inhabitants consist of Arabs and Berbers. Barca was formerly a department of Tripoli; but in 1879 it was raised to the rank of an independent province, governed directly from Constantinople. The capital is Bengazi.

DIVISION IV

AFRICABARCA**Present
Condi-
tion**

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

ABYSSINIA

INDEPENDENT AFRICAN STATES

THE following African states, besides Morocco, which is treated as one of the Barbary states, are independent or quasi-independent: Abyssinia, Bornu, Waday, Congo Free State, Transvaal, Orange Free State, and Liberia.

ABYSSINIA

ABYSSINIA is a part of eastern Africa, having Nubia on the northwest, the Red Sea on the northeast, the river Hawash on the southeast, and the Blue Nile on the southwest. The mountainous part of this tract forms the kingdom of Abyssinia; the chief divisions being Tigré in the north, Amhara in the center, and Shoa in the south. Between the highlands and the Red Sea lies a low arid tract, which is inhabited by tribes distinct from the Abyssinians, and long claimed as a part of Egypt.

The native annals of Abyssinia, tracing their kings from Menelek, the son of Solomon by the queen of Sheba, down to recent times, are manifestly fabulous. The real history begins with the kingdom of Axum. Christianity* was introduced in the fourth century.

Under the Axumite rulers, Abyssinia attained its greatest extent and prosperity in the sixth century, when it embraced Yemen in Arabia. But by the conquests of the Mohammedans in the following century, the frontiers were driven back to the limits of the tableland, and the Abyssinians were cut off from intercourse with the rest of the world. During these struggles the capital was removed from Axum to Gondar, where the monarchs dignified themselves with the title (assumed about the end of the thirteenth century) of Negusa Nagast za-Itjopja (king of kings of Ethiopia.)

Galla
Tribes

With the sixteenth century began the irruptions of the warlike Galla tribes from the interior of the continent, who committed

Religion

*The religion of the Abyssinians proper is a debased Christianity; but the Gallas and other alien tribes are mostly Mohammedan, and partly also pagan. Abyssinian Christianity consists entirely in external observances; the people are abjectly superstitious and excessively lax in their morals. They observe many of the rights of Judaism, such as circumcision and the distinction of animals into clean and unclean. The marriage tie is very loose, and polygamy is not uncommon. Few except the priests are taught to read. Christianity was introduced in the fourth century by Frumentius, who was consecrated bishop of Abyssinia by the Patriarch of Alexandria. The Bible was early translated into the Geez. They have no other literature except some legends of saints. The general ignorance does not exclude religious controversy, and fierce dissensions prevail.

fearful devastations. The search for the kingdom of Prester John brought the Portuguese in contact with Abyssinia in the end of the fifteenth century.

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

ABYSSINIA

The monarchs lost all control over the great chiefs, who set up as independent rulers in their several provinces. At length Michel Sohul, the ruler of Tigré, put the reigning monarch Joas to death (1769); and setting up a member of the royal family as nominal sovereign, exercised at Gondar the powers of sovereignty under the name of *Ras*, or prime minister. Ras Michel was soon driven from power by a Galla chief, who acquired the dominion of Amhara and the control of the titular sovereign, and transmitted his power to his son and grandson.

The latter, Ras Ali, held sway in Amhara as vicegerent of the empire, when, about 1850, the adventurer Kasa or Kassai, afterward known as Theodore, began to excite attention. Kassai was a native (born 1816) of Kuara, a province in the west of Amhara, of which his uncle was governor. After the uncle's death, Kassai, defeating the armies of the Ras, compelled his recognition as governor, and became Ali's son-in-law. In 1853 he crushed the Ras, and two years later, after completely defeating the prince of Tigré, he had himself crowned by the Albuna as Negus of Abyssinia, with the name of Theodore. He then subdued the Wollo Gallas; and having next conquered Shoa, he was now master of the whole of Abyssinia, and with greater power than was ever wielded by a Negus. This was the acme of his fortunes, which henceforth began to decline. One province after another rose in rebellion, unable to bear the exactions; and these insurrections were suppressed with unheard-of rigor.

Kassai
Appears

Theodore had made several attempts to procure the active alliance of England and France against the Mussulman powers; and as all his efforts had failed, he now began to entertain hatred toward Europeans. The British government in 1864, however, sent envoys to Theodore with a royal letter and presents, but the envoys were put in irons, and shut up in the fortress of Magdala. A British military expedition was now resolved upon. The place of landing was Annesley Bay, and on April 9, 1867, they reached Magdala. They had met with no obstruction from the inhabitants, who rather welcomed them as deliverers from the common enemy. The results of the expedition were disastrous to the Abys-

British
Cam-
paign

DIVISION IV
 AFRICA
 ABYSSINIA

sinians and Theodore sued for peace, and released the prisoners; but as he declined to surrender, the fort was stormed and taken on the 13th. Theodore was found dead—he had shot himself. The fort being demolished, the British forces were withdrawn.

The departure of the British was the signal for a renewed struggle among the Abyssinian chieftains for the supremacy. Prince Kassai of Tigré, who had been of great service to the British, vanquished his most powerful rival, and had himself crowned emperor of Abyssinia in 1872, assuming the name of John; but failed to establish his rule over the whole country. He made repeated but vain attempts to get European help against the Egyptians, with whom Abyssinia had been at enmity since 1860. In 1875 the Khedive sent a small force; but they fell into an ambuscade, and were all massacred. In the same year, a second expedition of 1,600 men was sent against the Abyssinians, and a short sanguinary campaign followed, in which both parties lost so heavily that each was compelled to retire, and the frontier difficulties continued until the Sudan was evacuated by Egypt in 1882.

Italians
 are
 Defeated

In 1885 the Italians occupied Massowah, but they did not succeed in establishing friendly relations with the Abyssinians. On the 26th of January, 1887, three companies of Italian soldiers were attacked by the Abyssinians, and, notwithstanding their gallant resistance, all were slaughtered, with the exception of ninety wounded, who managed to make their way back to Massowah.

Menelek II, king of Shoa, became the supreme ruler of Abyssinia in 1889. By the Treaty of Uchali, May 12, 1889, as interpreted by the Italians, Abyssinia became an Italian Protectorate. King Menelek denounced this treaty in 1893, and by the convention of Adis Abeba, October 26, 1896, the independence of Abyssinia was unreservedly recognized.



90° Longitude West 20° from Greenwich.

NORTH

ATLANTIC OCEAN

MOROCCO

ALGERIA

LIBYAN DESERT

GREAT DESERT

UDANDA

WEST AFRICA

GULF OF GUINEA

EQUATOR

SOUTH

ATLANTIC OCEAN

Tropic of Capricorn

ANGOLA

CAPE COLONY

CAPE TOWN

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE

70° Longitude West

0° Longitude

FRANCE

ITALY

EGYPT

SYRIA

ARABIAN DESERT

ETHIOPIA

SUDAN

INDIA

INDIAN OCEAN

AFRICA

INDIAN OCEAN

AFRICA

AFRICA

AFRICA

AFRICA

AFRICA

AFRICA

20° Longitude East

60° Longitude East

AUSTRIA

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

PERSIAN EMPIRE

IRAN

INDIA

INDIA

INDIA

INDIA

INDIA

INDIA

INDIA

INDIA

INDIA

INDIA

INDIA

INDIA

INDIA

60° Longitude East

Long. W. 25° of Greenwich.

ATLANTIC OCEAN

CAPE VERDE ISLANDS

SCALE OF MILES.

100 0 100 200

15°

45°

55° Long. E. of Greenwich. 60°

INDIAN OCEAN

MASCARENNE ISLANDS

SCALE OF MILES.

100 0 100 200

20°

55°

AFRICA.

SCALE OF MILES.

100 50 0 100 200 300 400 500 600 700 800

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CENTRAL SUDAN STATES

DIVISION IV
 AFRICA
 BORNU

THERE still remain certain independent and quasi-independent states in central Africa about which we shall give such information as is obtainable with respect to their political condition. These are, besides Abyssinia, the history of which is given in the foregoing pages, the Central Sudan states—Bornu and Waday (on which Kawem and Bagirmi are dependent); although as a matter of fact Bornu may be regarded as partly within the British and partly within the German spheres of influence.

BORNU

BORNU, “The Land of Noah,” if not the largest is the most populous Mohammedan state in Central Sudan. It occupies the western and southern sides of Lake Tchad, being conterminous on the southeast with Bagirmi, from which it is separated by the Shari River, and stretches thence westward to the empire of Sokoto. The inhabitants who call themselves Ka-Nuri, that is, “People of Light,” are of mixed Negro and Dasa (southern Tibu) descent, and speak a Tibu dialect that has been reduced to written form by missionaries. There are also elements of Berbers in the north, Arabs in the southeast, Makari and Marghi Negroes in the south, and some pagan tribes in the east. In the center are the Magomi, who claim kinship with the royal dynasty, which for centuries ruled over the united Bornu and Kawem states. These, with the Kanuri, are regarded as the most cultured people in Central Africa, and their woven fabrics, pottery, and metal ware are highly prized throughout the Sudan.

Inhabitants

By the Anglo-French agreement of 1890 and the Anglo-German agreement of 1893, Bornu is excluded from the sphere of France and Germany. Kuka is the capital of Bornu, and lies on the west side of Lake Tchad. It has a population of about 60,000, and is one of the great centers of trade in the Sudan. There are several other towns of over 10,000 inhabitants. The coast lands are exposed to the incursions of the Kuri and Yedina pirates who inhabit the archipelagoes in Lake Tchad.

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

WADAY—
KAWEM

WADAY—KAWEM

Lan-
guage

THE sultanate of Waday, at present the most powerful state in Central Sudan, occupies, with the tributary states, the whole region between Dar Foor and Lake Tchad, and extends from the southern verge of the Sahara southward nearly to the divide between the Tchad and Congo basins. The Arabs, here collectively called Aramka, have been settled within the confines of this country for over five hundred years. Their traders send caravans south to Bagirmi and west to Bornu. The political power belongs to the Mohammedan Mabas, a negro people, who occupy the northeast part of Waday proper, and whose language forms the chief medium of intercourse throughout the state. Like the Arabs, the Mabas are fanatical followers of the prophet.

Abu-Said, who was proclaimed sultan in January, 1889, has absolute power, limited by custom and the precepts of the Koran, but who rules directly only over the northeast of Waday proper, which is divided into provinces named from the cardinal points and administered by the viceroys, who have the power of life and death. The sultan himself is assisted by a council, while the law, that is, the Koran, is interpreted by the College of Fakihs, or Ulemas. There is an army of about 7,000 men, which is chiefly employed by levying tributes upon the provinces and vassal states. The capital of the state is Abeshr.

Kawem

Of the vassal states the most important is Kawem, between Waday and Lake Tchad. This state occupies the eastern and northern shores of Lake Tchad and stretches north to the verge of the Sahara. The inhabitants are considered the fiercest marauders in the whole of North Africa. It is dependent upon Waday.

CONGO FREE STATE

Develop-
ment of
Congo
Area

THE CONGO FREE STATE has succeeded to the Congo International Association founded in 1883 by Leopold II, king of Belgium. This territory stretches by a narrow neck of land to the river's mouth, but expands inland so as to cover an immense area mainly lying south of the Congo River. The obvious advantages of the Congo as a water-way in the opening up of the continent of Africa, led to the formation at Brussels in 1878 of a "Society for the

Exploration of the Upper Congo," under the patronage of Leopold II, having as its aim the development of the Congo area. Under its auspices Stanley returned in 1879 to open up the river and form a free state under European auspices. The Congo International Association obtained the recognition of its sovereignty by treaties in 1884 and 1885 with most of the European nations and the United States of America. These treaties established freedom of trade in the basin of the Congo, and declared absolutely free the navigation of the Congo, its tributaries and the lakes and canals connected with it. They established rules for the protection of the natives and the suppression of the slave-trade, and imposed on the powers which signed the treaties the obligation of accepting the mediation of one or more friendly governments, should any serious dispute occur concerning the territories and the conventional basin of the Congo. An international conference at Brussels in 1890 authorized the government of the independent state to levy certain duties on imports.

The state was placed under the sovereignty of Leopold II, king of Belgium, on the basis of personal union with Belgium, but it has declared itself perpetually neutral by a will dated August 2, 1889. The king has bequeathed to Belgium all his sovereign rights in the state. On July 1 of the following year, the territories of the state were declared inalienable, and the convention in the same year between Belgium and the independent state reserved to the former the right of annexing the latter for a period of ten years.

The central government at Brussels consists of the king of Belgium, who has under his orders the secretary of state, who is chief of the department of foreign affairs, finances, and the interior. A governor-general represents the king at Boma, and administers the affairs of the state in accordance with the king's orders. The precise boundaries of the independent state were divided by treaties with the various European powers. The state includes the small region on the north bank of the river from its mouth to Manyanga; French territory intervening between this last station and the mouth of the Ubangi, whence the state extends northward to the Ubangi River, and the Bomu northeast to the water-shed of the Congo basin, eastward to Lake Tanganyika, and southeast to Lake Bangweolo, a southern water-shed, and the Congo basin to Lake Dilolo, southwest to the course of the Cassai, thence to the

DIVISION IV
 AFRICA
 CONGO FREE STATE

State
 under
 King of
 Belgium

Extent of
 Terri-
 tory

DIVISION IV
AFRICA
CONGO FREE STATE

river Kwilu (8 degrees south latitude), the river Kwango and the parallel of Nokki.

The territory is divided into fifteen administrative districts; at the head of each is a commissioner. In 1898 there were nineteen post-offices in the state, which is included in the postal union. The legal money is that of Belgium.

TRANSVAAL — SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC

THE TRANSVAAL, or the South African Republic, is a country in the highlands of southeast Africa, bounded on the north by the territories of Great Britain now administered by the British South Africa Company; on the east by Portuguese East Africa, Swaziland, and Zululand; on the southeast by Natal; on the south by the Orange Free State; and on the west by British Bechuanaland. The length of the country from the Vaal River, its southern boundary, to the Limpopo River, which marks its northern limit, is over four hundred miles, while a line between the extreme southern and eastern points reaches seven hundred miles.

Un-
known in
1830

Previous to 1830 the land was a *terra incognita* so far as European knowledge or influence went, and was inhabited by several clans of the Bantu race, speaking dialects of the Bantu tongue. These clans were ruled by a branch of the Zulu race under the paramount chief, Umziligase. In the valleys and well-timbered savannahs of the low country large game, consisting of the giraffe, elephant, buffalo, lion, and leopard abounded, causing many parts to be dangerous for human habitation. The large rivers were full of alligators, hippopotami, and fowl.

Starting
the
Colony

The fifth decade of the nineteenth century saw the first concerted intrusion of Europeans on this wild scene. A few Cape Colony farmers, offended by some regulations promulgated by certain crown officials, sacrificed their land and belongings, harnessed their cattle to their long, lumbering wagons, and taking with them their families and the most rudimentary necessities of life (as well as a good supply of lead and powder and a tried musket), struck for the north, preferring the chances of death by wild animals or wild men to the irritating exactions of petty officialdom.

The pastoral wealth of the country was such that during the subsequent years, on to 1870, the stream of Boer *voortrekkers*

(pioneers) fitfully continued to enter, fight for, and possess the land. They had a number of sanguinary battles with Umziligase and his paramount clan. After great slaughter of both sexes and all ages on both sides, the black chief and his people were forced to migrate over the Limpopo, where they peopled the territory of Matabeleland now occupied by their descendants. The other native clans lived on with the Boers, and were gradually subdued or driven out. Native wars were of frequent occurrence and little progress was made in the development of the country. The Boers had none of the trader's instinct, and they did not till the soil to any great extent. Their land rights being scattered far and wide over a country without communications and with no markets to speak of, consumption of soil products was limited to the wants of the individual producer.

DIVISION IV
AFRICA
TRANSVAAL

The Boers

In 1877, owing to an exhausted public treasury and accumulated debts, brought about by chronic native wars, the republic was on the eve of dissolution, and the country about to relapse into barbarism. The British government, taking advantage of this state of affairs, took forcible possession of the country. The promises to the Boers, however, on the subject of self-governing institutions, made at the time the country was annexed, were not carried out. Arbitrary officials and military martinets were appointed to rule on behalf of the British. By reason of their lack of tact, as well as of irritating regulations and the non-fulfilment of political engagements, friction was created between the governing and the governed—the English and the Boers. The spark which caused the explosion that had its final and humiliating episode in Majuba, was an ill-timed enforcement of a petty tax. The English officials called out the queen's troops in ignorance of the fact that the whole state felt sympathetic with a now common cause. Then followed the Transvaal war, the death of General Colley, and the signing of terms of peace.

British Seek to Gain Control

English Defeated

The system of law is Roman Dutch, and is administered in the high and circuit courts by judges, and in the lower courts by landdrosts (stipendiary magistrates). The gold laws are administered by special executive and judicial officers, with appeals to the supreme court. The official language is Dutch, but English is that of every-day life, and is fast becoming that of the state.

System of Law

According to the treaty ratified October 26, 1881, self-govern-

DIVISION IV
 AFRICA
 TRANSVAAL

ment was restricted to the Transvaal so far as regards internal affairs, the control and management of external affairs being reserved to the crown of Great Britain as suzerain. In 1884 another convention was signed in London, by which the state is to be known as the *South African Republic*, and the British suzerainty restricted to the control of foreign relations.

Government

The constitution has been frequently amended down to January, 1897. The supreme legislative authority is vested in a parliament of two chambers, each of twenty-seven members chosen by the districts. The executive is vested in the president elected for five years, assisted by a council consisting of a secretary of state, a commandant-general, superintendent of natives, and the minute-keeper. The president is S. J. Paulus Krüger, elected for the fourth time in February, 1898.

Kruger
 President

Jameson
 Raid

What is known as the Jameson Raid occurred late in 1895. The discovery of rich gold fields in the Transvaal led to a great influx of miscellaneous population. These various elements were named by the Boers Uitlanders (meaning "outlanders," or foreigners). The Uitlanders discovered and worked the mines, paid the taxes, peopled the towns, and settled on the land. These people were denied the rights of citizenship, with the result that they became discontented, which led to a condition of affairs that induced the ill-advised and premature act of Dr. L. S. Jameson, administrator of Bechuanaland for the South African Chartered Company, who was invited to provide a nucleus for an armed force for the malcontents, and invade the Transvaal. The expedition crossed the frontier in December, 1895, and marched toward Johannesburg. The Boers were fully advised of the movement of the invaders, who were easily defeated, and Dr. Jameson and his men surrendered, January 2, 1896. The British government repudiated the Jameson raid, as did also the South African Company. The members of the Jameson force were turned over to the British authorities, sent to England, and arraigned on the charge of having violated the foreign enlistment act in engaging in a military expedition against a friendly state. Dr. Jameson was sentenced to fifteen months imprisonment, and the other members of the force were sentenced for three months. This affair came very near causing a complication between Germany and Great Britain because of the action of Emperor William II of Germany in sending a telegram to the

president, Paulus Krüger, of the Transvaal, congratulating him on the defeat of the raiders.

The little state is in constant diplomatic trouble with the British, and it is only due to the bold statesmanship of President Krüger that the surrounding English colonies have not forcibly incorporated it within their dominions.

DIVISION IV
AFRICA
TRANSVAAL
Struggle
for
Exist-
ence
against
Great
Britain

ORANGE FREE STATE

ORANGE FREE STATE is separated from the Cape Colony by the Orange River. British Basutoland and Natal bound it on the east, the Transvaal on the north, and the Transvaal and Griqualand West on the west. It was founded in 1835-36 by Dutch settlers from Cape Colony, next by Great Britain in 1848, and declared its independence on February 23, 1854. A constitution was proclaimed April 10, 1854, and revised in 1866, 1879, and 1898.

The legislative authority is vested in a popular assembly, *Volksraad*, of sixty members. The executive is vested in a president chosen for five years by the registered voters, who is assisted by an executive council.

Legisla-
tive and
Execu-
tive
Author-
ity

The present president of the republic is M. T. Steyn, who was elected February 19, 1896. Diamonds and other precious stones have been found in paying quantities, and the state is said to abound in other mineral wealth. Gold was discovered in 1897.

LIBERIA

LIBERIA is a Negro republic on the Pepper Coast (Guinea) of West Africa, extending north and east of Cape Palmas. The coast-line measures about five hundred miles. The boundaries in the interior are not determined, but the republic is considered to extend inland for a distance of two hundred miles. The coast-region consists of mangrove swamps, lying behind a belt of sand-dunes, and is traversed by numerous rivers, and interrupted by projecting headlands of rock. The population amounts to 1,068,000, of whom 18,000 are liberated American slaves and their descendants; the remainder are indigenous negroes, including the Kroomen.

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

LIBERIA

Origin
of the
State

Liberia owes its origin to the American Colonizing Society, which in 1821 bought land on this coast and settled a small body of freed African slaves. The colony grew and prospered; newcomers arrived in large numbers from the United States, and fresh lands continued to be bought. In 1847 the free and independent republic of Liberia was constituted; and it has enlarged its boundaries at least four times since then, being joined ten years later by the Negro republic of Maryland (founded as a colony in 1821, as a republic in 1854), to the east of Cape Palmas.

Constitu-
tion

The constitution of the republic of Liberia is on the model of that of the United States of America. The executive is vested in a president, and the legislative power in a congress of two houses, called the senate and the house of representatives. The president and the members of the house of representatives are elected for two years, and the members of the senate for four years. There are thirteen representatives and eight senators. The president must be thirty-five years of age, and have real property to the value of \$600. The president is assisted in his executive functions by six ministers—secretary of state, secretary of treasury, secretary of interior, attorney-general, and postmaster-general, and war and navy. The president of Liberia is W. D. Coleman.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

DIVISION IV
 AFRICA
 BRITISH
 POSSESSIONS

GREAT BRITAIN controls the following possessions in Africa: Basutoland, Bechuanaland (protectorate), Cape of Good Hope, British Central Africa (Northern Rhodesia), British Central Africa (protectorate), British East Africa (including the East Africa protectorate and the Uganda protectorate), together with the Islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, self-governed through their Arab sovereign, Natal, Niger Coast Protectorate, the Niger Territories, British South Africa (Southern Rhodesia), West African Colonies (the Gold Coast, Lagos, Gambia, and Sierra Leone).

 BASUTOLAND

BASUTOLAND forms an irregular oval on the northeast of the Cape Colony. Orange Free State, Natal, and the Cape Colony form its boundaries. This territory was annexed to the Cape in August, 1871; but it was placed directly under the authority of Great Britain from March 13, 1884. The territory is now governed by a resident commissioner under the direction of the High Commissioner for South Africa, the latter possessing legislative authority, which is exercised by proclamation. For physical and other purposes the country is divided into seven districts, each of which is divided into wards, presided over by hereditary chiefs. European settlement is prohibited, therefore the white population is more or less limited to the few engaged in trade, government and missionary work. Maseru is the capital and largest town, having a population of about nine hundred.

Government

 BECHUANALAND

BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE comprises the territory lying between the Molopo River on the south and the Zambesi on the north, and extending from the boundaries of the South Africa Republic, Matabeleland on the east to the confines of German Southwest Africa.

The most important tribes within the territory are the Bamagwato, the Bakhatla, the Bakwena, the Bangwaketse, and the Bamaliti. In November, 1895, on the annexation to the colony

Tribes
 within
 the
 Territory

DIVISION IV
 AFRICA
 BECHUANA-
 LAND
 Improve-
 ments

of Cape Colony new arrangements were made by Great Britain for the administration of the protectorate, and special arrangements were made in view of the extension of the railway northward from Mafeking. Each of the chiefs of the various tribes rules his own people as formerly, under the direction of the British, who are represented by a resident commissioner with assistants acting under the high commissioner. There is a railway in operation within the boundaries, also a telegraph line.

BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA

(NORTHERN RHODESIA)

British
 South
 Africa
 Company

BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA comprises the territory north of the Zambesi, bounded on the east and west by the Portuguese possessions, and on the north by German East Africa and the Congo Independent State. The whole of this tract of country, with the exception of the Central Africa Protectorate to the south and west of Lake Nyassa, is (under the name of Northern Rhodesia) included in the field of operations of the British South Africa Company. The region lying between the Lakes Nyassa, Tanganyika, Mweru, and Bangweolo is divided into five districts. Each of the districts contains one or more stations for collectors and police where arms and ammunitions are kept. These are under the charge of the British Central Africa Protectorate.

BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA PROTECTORATE

Armed
 Force

THE BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA PROTECTORATE, constituted as such on May 14, 1891, lies along the southern and western shores of Lake Nyassa, and extends toward the Zambesi. The Protectorate is divided into twelve districts, each of which has two or more administrative officials, the whole being administered under the British Foreign Office by a commissioner. The seat of administration is at Zomba. The armed force necessary to maintain order and to check the slave-trade consists of a corps of one hundred and eighty-five Sikhs from the Indian army, and eight hundred native trained troops. There is also a naval force on the Zambesi and Shiré Rivers and on Lake Nyassa consisting of five gunboats,

and communication with the coast is kept up by the gunboats and by river steamers.

In June, 1898, a joint Anglo-German delimitation commission assembled on Lake Nyassa and proceeded to definitely mark out the boundaries between the British and German spheres from the mouth of the Songwe on Lake Nyassa to the entrance of the Kilambo River on Tanganyika.

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

BRITISH
CENTRAL
AFRICA
PROTECTOR-
ATEBounda-
ries

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE

(CAPE COLONY)

THE CAPE COLONY was originally founded by the Dutch, under Van Riebeeck, about the year 1652. When it was taken by the English in 1796 the colony had extended east to the Great Fish River. In 1803 it was ceded back to the Netherlands, but was again occupied by the British troops three years later. In August, 1814, this colony was formally ceded to Great Britain for the sum of thirty million dollars. Since that time the country has been gradually enlarged by the annexation of adjoining districts. The form of government of the colony of the Cape of Good Hope was originally established in March, 1853. It was amended in 1865 and again in 1872, and the constitution formed under these various acts vests the executive in a governor and executive council composed of certain office-holders appointed by Great Britain. The legislative power rests with a council of twenty-three members elected for seven years, presided over *ex-officio* by the chief justice; and a house of assembly of seventy-nine members elected for five years, representing country districts and the towns of the colony. The administration is carried on, under the governor, by a ministry composed of a prime minister and colonial secretary, a treasurer, attorney-general, commissioner of public works, and secretary of agriculture. The present governor is Sir Alfred Milner.

Founded
by the
DutchGovern-
ment

BRITISH EAST AFRICA

BRITISH EAST AFRICA consists of a large area on the mainland (including the East Africa Protectorate and the Uganda Protectorate), under the immediate control of the British Foreign Office,

DIVISION IV together with the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, still governed through their Arab sultan.

AFRICA

BRITISH
EAST
AFRICA

Extent of
British
Influence

By the Anglo-German agreements of 1886 and 1890, the southern boundary of the territory extends in a northwest direction from the north bank of the mouth of the Umba River, going round by the north of Kilimanjaro, to where the first parallel of south latitude cuts Lake Victoria. Thence across the lake and westward to the same parallel to the boundary of the Congo Free State. To the north and east, the British sphere (which merges indefinitely with the old Sudan provinces of Egypt) is bounded by the Juba River up to 6 degrees north latitude; by that parallel as far as 35 degrees east longitude; and by that meridian northward as far as the Blue Nile. It is conterminous with the Italian sphere of influence and with Abyssinia as far as the confines of Egypt. To the west it is bounded by the Congo Free State. Treaties have been made with almost all the native chiefs between the coast of the Albert Nyanza and with the Somali tribes occupying the interior between the Juba and Tana, whereby commercial access to the Galla country is now opened.

BRITISH EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE

THE EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE, which extends from the Umba to the Juba River, and inland as far as the borders of Uganda, is placed under the control of a commissioner and consul-general. It is divided for purposes of administration into four provinces, each under a sub-commissioner. A large proportion of the Protectorate, however, is still unorganized.

The
Uganda
Protect-
orate

In July, 1896, the Uganda Protectorate was extended so as to include in addition to Uganda proper, Unyoro and other countries to the west as far as the boundary of the British sphere, as well as Usoga to the east. The Protectorate is administered by a commissioner, but the infant son of King Mwanga nominally reigns in Uganda proper.

NATAL

THE COLONY OF NATAL, formerly an integral part of the Cape of Good Hope settlement, was erected in 1856 into a separate colony under the British crown, now represented by a governor. A

charter of constitution was granted in 1856, and modified in 1875, 1879, and 1893. The executive authority is vested in a body of not more than six ministers each of whom must be, or must within four months become, a member of one of the legislative bodies. The British government is represented by a governor whose assent is required to all bills before they become law. The governor appoints the ministers, and with their advice, the members of the legislative council. The legislative council consists of eleven members each of whom must be at least thirty years of age. Members hold their seats for ten years. The president is appointed by the governor. The legislative assembly consists of thirty-seven members chosen by the electors. It meets annually or oftener.

DIVISION IV
 AFRICA
 NATAL
 Govern-
 ment

In December, 1897, Zululand including British Amatongaland was incorporated with the colony of Natal. This province is divided into twelve magisterial districts.

THE NIGER TERRITORIES

(BRITISH)

THE NIGER TERRITORIES are governed by the Royal Niger Company* under charter issued July 10, 1886. Its foundation dates from 1882, when it was formed under the name of The National African Company, Limited, with the object of obtaining this region for Great Britain. This was effected in 1884-86 by means of about three hundred treaties with native states and tribes including the territories of Sokoto and Borgu. Since then two hundred further treaties have been made, completely filling up the gaps.

Royal
 Niger
 Company

According to the Anglo-French agreement of August 5, 1890, the limit between the British and French spheres on the Niger is a line from Say on the Niger, to Barrawa on Lake Tchad. In accordance with the Anglo-German agreements of 1886 and 1893 and the above Anglo-French agreement, Great Britain secured a large western portion of the important kingdom of Bornu. A readjustment of the frontier on the west and north was made by an agreement between Great Britain and France, June 14, 1898.

* Arrangements are in progress for the transference of the Niger Territories from the Royal Niger Company to the British government to be administered under the Colonial Office.

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

THE NIGER
TERRI-
TORIESEmpire of
Sokoto

The Fulah empire of Sokoto is the most populous and extensive in the whole of the Sudan. The king of Gando in the middle Niger Valley, as well as all the other Fulah chiefs, recognizes the suzerainty of the sultan, who has conferred on the Royal Niger Company sovereign power throughout a large part of his dominion and jurisdiction over non-natives throughout the remainder. The sultan of Sokoto exercises direct jurisdiction over only a comparatively small portion of his dominions, most of which are ruled by tributary vassal kings and chiefs. The Niger Company has forestalled any questions as to title of sovereignty by making alternative treaties with these vassal kings. Islam is the religion of the dominant class, but paganism still prevails largely throughout the empire.

Borgu

Borgu, which is attached to the company by treaties similar to that with Sokoto, occupies a considerable portion of the right bank of the middle Niger to the south of the Sokoto empire. Borgu forms the northern boundary of Dahomey. Both the government and people are pagan.

The present capital of the Niger Territories is at Asaba, where the chief justice of the supreme court resides, and where are also the central prison, civil and military hospitals, and other public buildings. The headquarters of the company's military force are at Lokoja. The government is conducted by the council in London.

NIGER COAST PROTECTORATE

THE NIGER COAST PROTECTORATE, which was placed under British protectorate in 1884, occupies the whole of the coast line between Lagos and Cameroon excepting that between the Forcados and Brass Rivers, which falls within the Niger Territories. The country between the German Cameroon and the Niger Coast Protectorate proceeds from the head of the Rio del Rey estuary to the rapids of the Cross River, and thence to a point to the east of Yola on the Benue River. In February, 1897, the Benin country formerly governed by the kings of Benin and Addo was included within the Protectorate. In 1891 the government was entrusted to an imperial commissioner, and consul-general, with administrative and judicial powers, and the power of imposing taxation. Since then consular administration has been established and con-

British
Control

sular courts constituted. In each of the eleven districts there is a native council consisting of the leading chiefs. The majority of the merchants trade in the Protectorate amalgamated in 1889 into the African Association, Limited, of Liverpool.

DIVISION IV
 AFRICA
 NIGER
 COAST
 PROTECT-
 ORATE

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA

(SOUTHERN RHODESIA)

UNDER the title of Rhodesia is included the whole of the region lying between the north and west of the South African republic, and the 22d degree south latitude and the southern boundaries of the Congo Free State, and having as its eastern and western boundaries the Portuguese and German territories. The Zambesi River divides it into two portions called Southern Rhodesia and Northern Rhodesia (the latter being treated briefly under the title "British Central Africa"). In 1888 the portion of the southern region which includes Matabeleland and Mashonaland was declared to be within the British sphere of influence, and in October of the following year a royal charter was granted to the British South Africa Company conferring upon it powers of administration to carry out the object for which it was formed, the principles being to extend northward the railway and telegraph systems of the Cape Colony and Bechuanaland, to encourage emigration and colonization, to promote trade and commerce, and to develop and work mineral and other concessions.

British
 South
 Africa
 Company

The administrative system of the company was prescribed in 1891 and 1894, and a new scheme was promulgated in 1898. This plan invests the high commissioner at Cape Town with more direct authority than it formerly possessed, but leaves the general administration to the company in accordance with the charter. The British South Africa Company has extended the Cape government railway system as far as Vryburg, and the line has been continued northward by the Bechuanaland Railway Company. It is proposed to extend the railway from Bulawayo to the Zambesi and eventually to Tanganyikas. Telegraph and telephone systems are being established throughout the territory. These lines will ultimately be connected with the telegraph from Cairo to Khartum.

DIVISION IV

—
AFRICA—
BRITISH
WEST
AFRICAN
COLONIES
—

BRITISH WEST AFRICAN COLONIES

(GOLD COAST, LAGOS, GAMBIA, AND SIERRA LEONE)

Gold
Coast

THE GOLD COAST stretches for 350 miles along the Gulf of Guinea. In 1895-96 a military expedition proceeded from the Gold Coast to Kumasi, the capital of Ashanti, the king of which made his submission to the British representative, and is now, with his chiefs, a prisoner at Sierra Leone. There is now a British resident at Kumasi.

Lagos

LAGOS is an island on the Slave Coast to the east of the Gold Coast, the protectorate extending along the coast, and for some distance inland.

Gambia

GAMBIA lies at the mouth of the Gambia River. It formerly formed part of the West African settlement, but in December, 1888, was erected into an independent colony.

Sierra
Leone

SIERRA LEONE includes the island of Sherbro and much adjoining territory. It extends from the Scarcies River to the north, to the border of Liberia in the south, 180 miles. The chief town is Freetown, which is the greatest seaport in West Africa.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA.

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

FRENCH
POSSESSIONS

WITH the exception of the British Niger territories, Portuguese Guinea, and Liberia, France claims the whole of West Africa from Cape Blanco to Togoland, and inland to the Upper and Middle Niger, and considerable areas to the east of the Upper Niger, including the kingdom of Kong and neighboring territories. By the Anglo-French agreement of 1890, Great Britain recognized as within the French sphere of influence the whole region to the south of Tunis and Algeria north of a line from Say, on the Middle Niger, to Barrawa on Lake Tchad, including all the territories which belong to Sokoto. This was modified by the agreement of 1898, by which 150,000 square miles was acquired by France from the British Niger territories. The French Sahara embraces about one and one-half millions of square miles, mostly desert. The following states and territories are included with the district described: Algeria (history given under "Barbary States"), Tunis (protectorate—history given under "Barbary States"), French Sudan, French Congo and Gaboon, and the Obock and Somali protectorates.

FRENCH SUDAN

THE FRENCH SUDAN includes the Upper Senegal and all the countries on the Upper and Middle Niger, and the states which extend inland from Senegal and Rivieres du Sud. It is divided into annexed territories and protectorates. The administration of the French Sudan is entrusted to a military commandant, who resides at Kayes, in the Senegal, under the authority of the governor of Senegal.

FRENCH CONGO AND GABOON

THE FRENCH CONGO AND GABOON region is one continuous and connected territory. The right bank of the Congo from Brazzaville to the mouth of the Mobangi is French, and north to four degrees north latitude, and along the north bank of the Mobangi to the boundary of the British territory. According to the agreement with Germany in 1894, French territory runs northward behind the Cameroons and along the east of the Shari River

DIVISION IV
 AFRICA
 FRENCH
 CONGO AND
 GABOON

to Lake Tchad, and to the water parting between the Nile and the Congo. An almost straight line to the coast along the second degree north latitude embraces the Gaboon.

The territories are under a commissioner-general, who, assisted by two lieutenant-governors, has charge both of the civil and military administration. There are twenty-seven stations established in this region on the coast, the Congo, and other places.

Bagirmi

By the Franco-German agreement of February, 1896, the region to the east of the Shari, which includes Bagirmi, was reserved to the French sphere of influence. In 1897, a treaty was made on behalf of the French government with the sultan of Bagirmi, and a French resident was appointed to Massenia, the capital of the region. Since then they have been greatly reduced by the wars with Waday, famines, and epidemics. In September, 1898, they were dying of starvation by thousands in consequence of the ravages of the usurping sultan of Bornu.

DAHOMEY

Pure
 Negro
 Stock

DAHOMEY stretches from the coast between German Togoland and the British Lagos and Niger territories to a distance inland not yet finally determined. A preliminary agreement was reached between the French and British governments in June, 1898, and the time set for ratification was June 14, 1899. Abomey, the capital, is about seventy miles inland. The natives are of pure Negro stock, and are fetish-worshippers. They have called themselves *Dauma* or *Dahomé* since the foundation of the kingdom early in the seventeenth century.

SENEGAL

SENEGAL proper (the colony) includes several stations on the river as far as Matam, with a certain area of land around each, and the coast from the north of Cape Verd to Gambia in the south. There is a governor-general in Senegal, assisted by a colonial council. The chief town is St. Louis. The colony is represented by one deputy.

 OBOCK AND SOMALI COAST PROTECTORATE

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

 OBOCK AND
SOMALI
COAST
PROTECTOR-
ATE

OBOCK, with the French Somali coast dependencies on the sea-coast of Africa, the Gulf of Aden, and the Bay of Tajurah, has an area of 8,640 square miles. There is a trade with Shoa and other countries in the interior.

FRENCH GUINEA

FRENCH GUINEA extends from 11 degrees to nearly 9 degrees north latitude along the coast, and inland along and between the rivers as far as the Fouta Djallon. It was detached from Senegal on January 1, 1890, and formed into a separate colony under the name of Rivières du Sud, with Conakry on the isle of Tombo for its capital.

 Became
Separate
Colony

IVORY COAST

THE FRENCH COLONY of the Ivory Coast extends from Liberia eastward to the British Gold Coast Colony, and inland toward the bend of the Niger. The governor of the Ivory Coast controls the state of Kong and other territories on the northeast, but Samory's kingdom and Tieba's kingdom are under the governor of the French Sudan. The settlements of the coast comprise Grand Bassam, Assinie, Grand-Lahou, and Jakeville.

TUNIS

TUNIS is a protectorate of France, and the history of it is treated under the Barbary States, page 1693.

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

GERMAN POSSESSIONS

GERMAN POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

THE German Empire claims the following possessions in the continent of Africa: Cameroon, German East Africa, German South Africa, and Togoland.

CAMEROON

Bantu
and
Sudan
Negroes

THE Cameroon region, with a coast line of 199 miles on the Bight of Biafra between the Campo River and the Rio del Rey, is bounded on the northwest by a line running northeast to about thirty miles east of Yola on the Upper Benue, whence a further line of demarcation has been drawn to the southern shore of Lake Tchad. On the south the boundary line runs inland due east from the mouth of the Campo River for a distance of about four hundred miles. The native population consists of Bantu Negroes near the coast, and Sudan Negroes inland. It became a German Protectorate in 1884, and is under an imperial governor, assisted by a chancellor, two secretaries, and a local council of three merchants.

GERMAN EAST AFRICA

THE German sphere of influence in East Africa, with a coast line of about 620 miles and an estimated area of 384,000 square miles, is bounded on the north by a treaty line running northwest from the Umbe River, by the north of Kilimanjaro to the east shore of Lake Victoria Nyanza, and to the west of this lake following the parallel of 1 degree south latitude to the boundary of the Congo Free State. On the west it is bounded by Lake Tanganyika, and on the south by a line joining the south end of that lake with the north end of Lake Nyassa, and running to the north of the Stephenson road, and by the Rovuma River.

Rights
Bought
by
Germany

The narrow strip of territory on the coast was leased by the sultan of Zanzibar to the Germans for fifty years from April, 1888, with its harbors and customs, but the sultan's rights were acquired by Germany in 1890 for a cash consideration. Germany is represented in the protectorate by an imperial governor.

Karagwe, one of the large Central African States, formed after the dissolution of the former empire of Kitwara, lies mainly within the German sphere of influence.

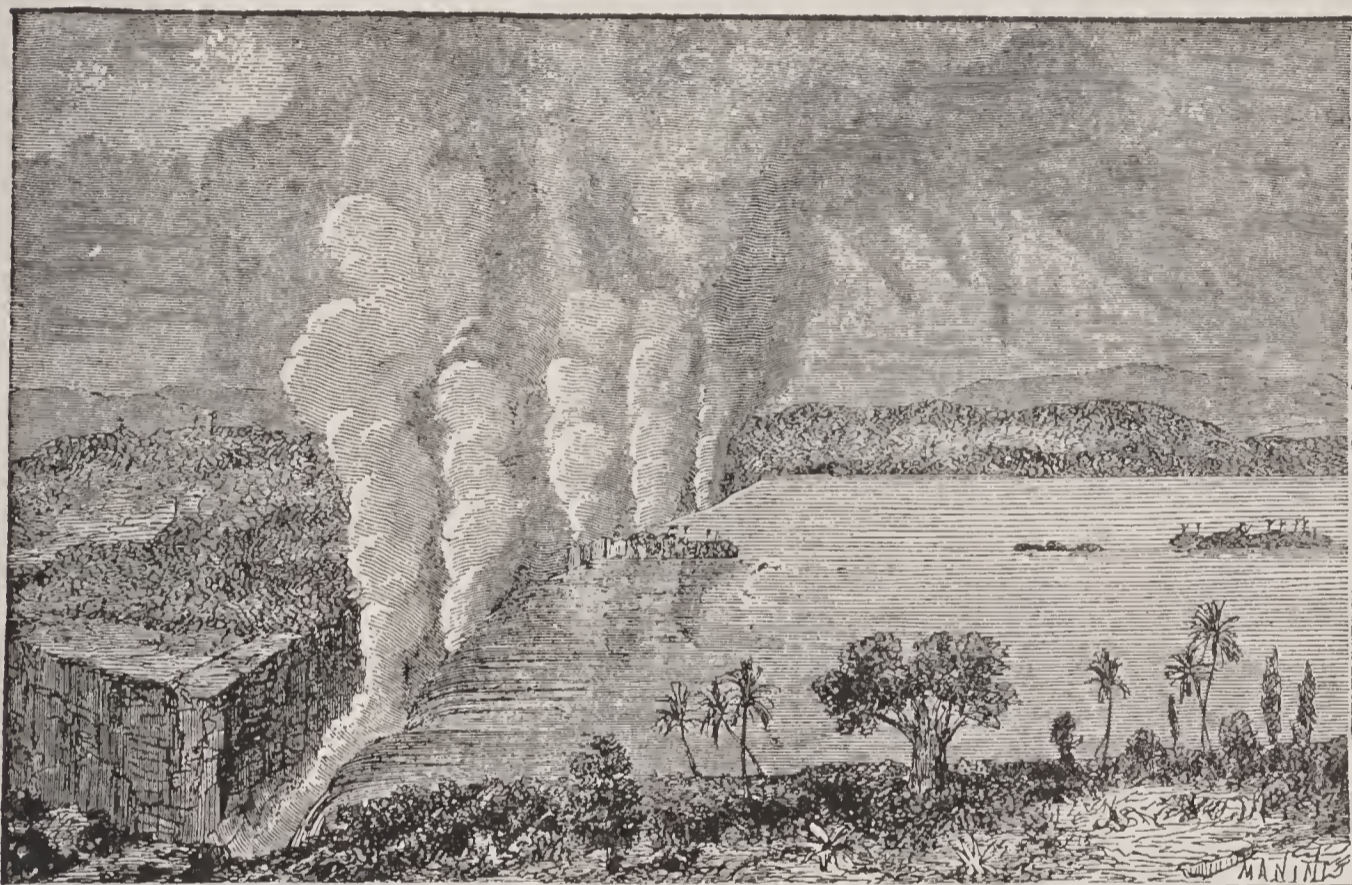
GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

GERMAN
SOUTHWEST
AFRICA

GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA extends along the western coast of the continent for about 930 miles, exclusive of Walwich Bay, which is British. The Orange River forms the south boundary to longitude 20 degrees east; the east boundary goes north along the 20th degree till it meets the 22d degree south latitude; it then turns east till it meets longitude 21 degrees east, which it follows north to the 18th parallel; it then goes east to the Chobe River,



VICTORIA FALLS, ZAMBESI RIVER

which it follows to the Zambesi. The northern boundary is formed by the Cunene River as far as the Humbe cataracts; then east to the Cubango and the Katima rapids of the Zambesi. The population belongs to the Hottentots and the Bushmen, the Bantu and the Damara races. The coast lands are held by the "Deutsche Kolonial Gesellschaft für Südwest Africa." The Anglo-German Company obtained in 1892 a concession of the northern part of the territory from the German government. The seat of administration is at Great Windhock, about 180 miles inland from Walwich Bay.

Hotten-
tots and
Bushmen

DIVISION IV

AFRICA

TOGOLAND

TOGOLAND

TOGOLAND is situated on the Slave Coast in Upper Guinea, between the Gold Coast Colony on the west and the French colony of Dahomey on the east. The length of the coast line is about thirty-two miles; but inland the territory, which lies between the rivers Volta and Mona, widens to three or four times that breadth.

Govern-
ment

The territory was declared a German protectorate in 1884, and is under an imperial commissioner, assisted by a secretary, an inspector of customs, and a local council of representatives of the merchants. Lome, the chief port, is the capital.

SPANISH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

THE Spanish possessions in Africa include a strip of territory on the west coast, which is bounded on the north by Morocco, on the east by the Sahara, and on the south by the French possessions. Rio de Oro and Adrar, the two provinces, are under the governorship of the Canary Islands, with a sub-governor at Rio de Oro. The country on the banks of the rivers Muni and Campo is claimed by Spain but disputed by France.

TURKISH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

EGYPT, which is tributary to Turkey, is treated in Division I, Vol. III, p. 905. TRIPOLI, FEZZAN, and BARCA are also African provinces belonging to Turkey. Their history is given under "Barbary States," Vol. IV, pp. 1694, 1695, and 1696.

ITALIAN POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA
(SOMALILAND)

DIVISION IV
—
AFRICA
—
ITALIAN
POSSESSIONS
—
SOMALILAND
—

THE dominion of Italy in Africa extends on the coast of the Red Sea from Cape Kasar to the southern limit of the sultanate of Raheita on the strait of Bab-el-Mandeb. The length of coast is about 670 miles. Massowah is the seat of government. By various decrees between 1890 and 1894 the Italian possessions on the Red Sea are constituted as the Colony of Eritrea with an autonomous administration and the management of its own finances.

By the Treaty of Uchali, May 2, 1897, and a supplementary convention of February 6, 1891, King Menelek of Abyssinia surrendered Hamasen, all the districts to the north of it, and the coast, to the Italians. Kassala was occupied by them in 1895 and was held in trust for Egypt; and in 1895, as a result of the war with the king of Abyssinia, the province of Tigrè was annexed. These successes, however, were of short duration. On March 1, 1896, an Italian army met with a crushing defeat to the east of the Adowa, and in the Treaty of Adis Abeba, October, 1896, the whole of the country to the south of the Mareb, the Belesa, and Muna rivers was restored to Abyssinia, which, moreover, is recognized as an absolutely independent power. In December, 1897, Kassala was restored to the Egyptian government.

Treaty of
Uchali

In the Italian dependencies the central government is represented by a civil governor, who is nominated by the king, and is under the direction of the minister for foreign affairs.

In February, 1889, the sultan of Obbia on the Somali coast put his sultanate under the protection of Italy. In April of the same year the protectorate was extended to the north by treaty with the sultan of the Mijertain Somalis, who agreed not to conclude any treaty with any foreign power regarding the remainder of his territory. In August, 1892, the Somali coast, from the sultanate of Obbia to the mouth of the Juba, was ceded to Italy by the sultan of Zanibar, and the administration of the region was assumed in 1893. In 1896 the Italian Commercial Company made an agreement with the government for rights over Benadir for the term of fifty years. By a treaty with Great Britain the boundary between the sphere of influence of Italy and British East Africa, settled

Obbia
on the
Somali
Coast

DIVISION IV
 AFRICA
 SOMALILAND

finally in May, 1894, the boundary ascends the channel of the Juba from its mouth to 6 degrees north; thence it follows the parallel of 6 degrees north as far as 35 degrees east, whence it goes north to the Blue Nile. By the Treaty of Adis Abeba, 1896, the Italian dominion in Somaliland is confined to a strip of coast one hundred and eighty miles in width, but includes Logh on the Juba.

PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

THE PORTUGUESE possessions in Africa include Angola, Portuguese Guinea, and Portuguese East Africa.

ANGOLA

ANGOLA lies on the west coast of Africa, and is bounded on the north by the Congo Free State, on the east by British South Africa, and on the south by German Southwest Africa. The territory is divided into five districts. The capital is St. Paul de Loanda.

PORTUGUESE GUINEA

PORTUGUESE GUINEA, on the coast of Senegal, is entirely enclosed on the land side by French possessions. It includes the adjacent archipelago of Bijagoz, with the island of Bolama, in which the capital of the same name is situated.

PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA

Three
 Districts

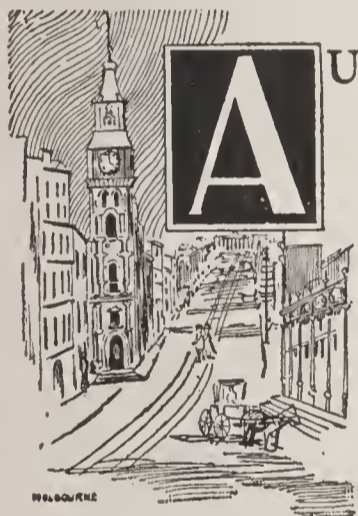
PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA lies on the eastern coast of the continent opposite the Mozambique Channel. Its western boundary is formed by British Central Africa and the South African Republic. Its northern boundary is formed by German East Africa. The whole possession is divided into three districts: Mozambique, Zambezia, and Lourenco Marques, to which have been added the districts of Inhambane and Gasa, which has been temporarily constituted as a military district. The central district of Manica and Sofala are administered by the Mozambique Company, which has a royal charter grant, and sovereign rights for fifty years from 1891. The Nyassa Company, with a royal charter, administers the region to the east of Lake Nyassa.



THE HISTORY OF AUSTRALIA

INCLUDING TASMANIA AND NEW ZEALAND

[*Authorities* : The *Australian Handbook*, the *Year-Book of Australia*, and Silver's *Handbook*; A. Trollope, *Australia and New Zealand* (1873); Heaton, *Australian Dictionary of Dates* (1879); Dawson, *The Australian Aborigines* (1881); Bonwick, *First Twenty Years of Australia* (1882); histories by Rusden (1883) and Allen (Melbourne, 1882); Jung, *Australia* (London 1884); Froude's *Oceana* (1886); G. A. Sala's work on Australia (1887); the *Picturesque Atlas of Australasia* (1888); and the bibliography in *Notes and Queries*, November, 1885, p. 436; *Statesman's Year-Book* (1889).]



AUSTRALIA is the largest island in the world, a sea-girt continent lying between the Indian and Pacific Oceans, southeast of Asia. It is occupied by five British colonies; namely, New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland, in the east, South Australia in the middle stretching from sea to sea, and Western Australia in the west. To the north of Australia lies New Guinea which is separated from Australia by

Location
and
Divisions

Torres Strait. To the South is the island of Tasmania, separated by Bass Strait. The colony of New Zealand lies 1,200 miles opposite the southeast coast.

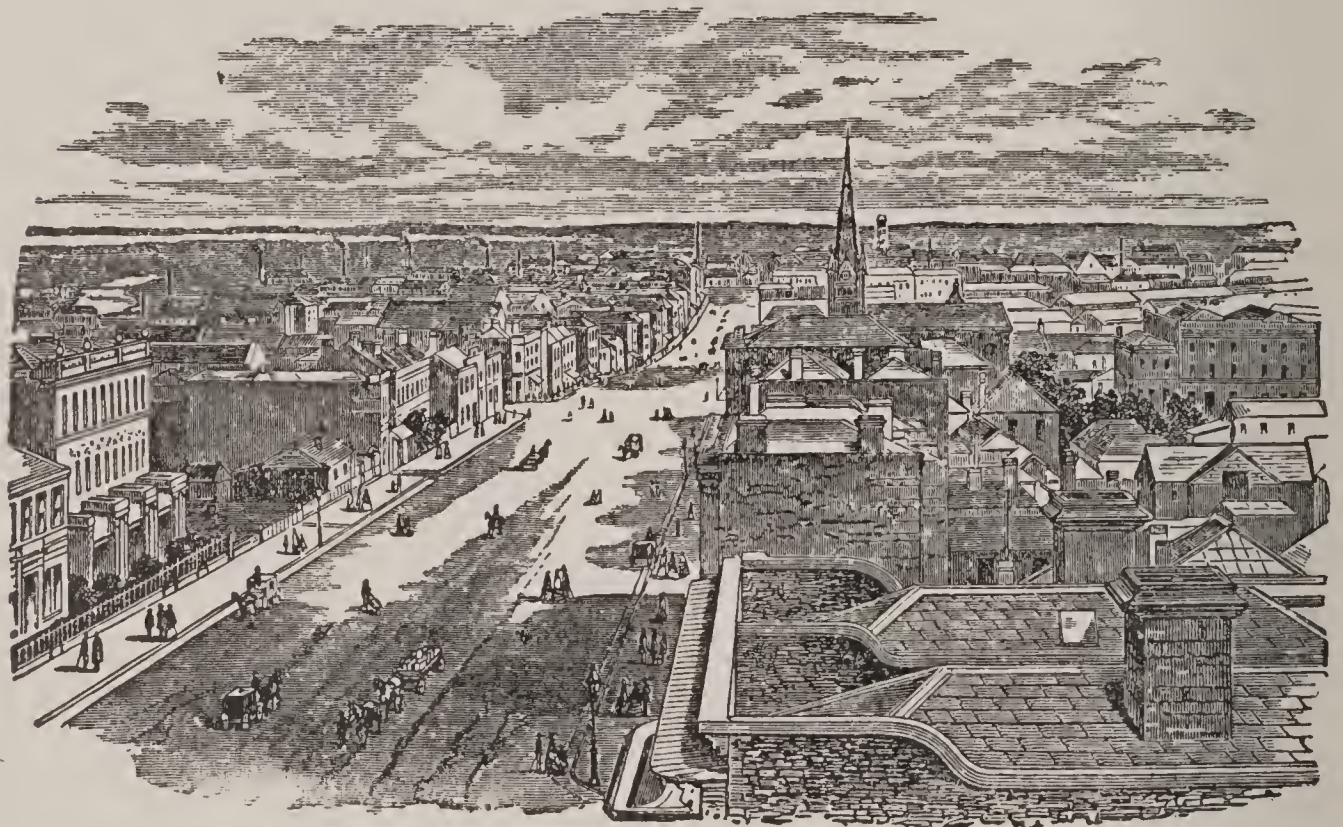
The ancients were impressed with the idea of a *Terra Australis* which was one day to be revealed. The Phœnician mariners had pushed through the outlet of the Red Sea to eastern Africa, the Persian Gulf, and the coasts of India and Sumatra. But the geographer, Ptolemy, in the second century, still conceived the Indian Ocean to be an inland sea, bounded on the south by an unknown land, which connected the *Chersonesus Aurea* (Malay peninsula) with the promontory of Prasum in eastern Africa. This erroneous notion prevailed in medieval Europe, although some travelers like Marco Polo heard rumors in China of large insular countries to the southeast.

Ancient
Geog-
raphy

DIVISION V
 AUSTRALIA

Dutch
 Explorations

It was in 1606 that Torres, with a ship commissioned by the Spanish government of Peru, parted from his companion Quiros (after their discovery of Espiritu Santo and the New Hebrides), and sailed from east to west through the strait which bears his name; while in the same year the peninsula of Cape York was touched by a vessel called the *Duyfhen*, or *Dove*, from the Dutch colony of Bantam in Java, but this was understood at the time to form a part of the neighboring island of New Guinea. The Dutch continued their attempts to explore the unknown land, sending out in 1616 the ship *Endraght*, commanded by Dirk Hartog, which



MELBOURNE

sailed along the west coast of Australia from lat. $26^{\circ} 30'$ to 23° S. This expedition left on an islet near Shark's Bay a record of its visit engraved on a tin plate, which was found there in 1801.

Dis-
 covery
 of Tas-
 mania

An important era of discovery began with Tasman's voyage of 1642. He, too, sailed from Batavia; but, first crossing the Indian Ocean, to the Mauritius, he descended to the 44th parallel of south latitude, recrossing that ocean to the east. By taking this latter course he reached the island which now bears his name, but which he called Van Diemen's Land, after the Dutch governor of Batavia.

The English made their appearance on the Australian coast in 1688, when the northwest shores were visited by the famous buc-



caner Captain William Dampier, who spent five weeks ashore near Roebuck Bay. A few years later (1697) the Dutch organized another expedition under Vlamingh, who, first touching at Swan River on the west coast, sailed northward to Shark's Bay, where Hartog had been in 1616.

DIVISION V
AUSTRALIA
English
Appear-
ance

It was Captain Cook, in his voyages from 1769 to 1777, who communicated the most important discoveries, and first opened to European enterprise and settlement the Australian coasts. In command of the bark *Endeavour*, Cook visited both New Zealand and New South Wales. He came upon the Australian mainland in April, 1770, at a point on the shore of Gipps' Land, Victoria. From this point, in a coasting voyage not without peril when entangled in the barrier reefs of coral, the little vessel made its way up the whole length of the eastern side of Australia, rounding Cape York, and crossing Torres Strait to New Guinea.

Captain
Cook's
Voyages

Next to Cook, twenty or thirty years after his time, the names of Bass and Flinders are justly honored for continuing the work of maritime discovery he had so well begun. To their courageous and persevering efforts, begun at private risks, is due the correct determination of the shape both of Tasmania and the neighboring continent.

Bass and
Flinders

The shores of what is now the province of Victoria were explored in 1800 by Captain Grant, and in 1802 by Lieutenant Murray, when the spacious land-locked bay of Port Phillip was discovered. West Australia had long remained neglected, but in 1837, after the settlement at Swan River, a series of coast surveys was commenced by the British ship *Beagle*. These were continued from 1839 to 1843, and furnished an exact knowledge of the western, northwestern, and northern shores, including four large rivers.

West
Australia
Surveyed

The first British settlement having been made in 1788 at Port Jackson (on which Sydney now stands), inland explorations necessarily followed; but for the first twenty-five years these were confined inside the Blue Mountains, to a district of some fifty miles inland. In 1813, however, that barrier was passed, and the valley of the Fish River and Bathurst Plains were for the first time brought within the limits of civilization. Two years later (1815) the Lachlan River (tributary of the Murrumbidgee) was lighted on, and traced three hundred miles in a southwesterly direction to a marsh. Next the Macquarie (tributary of the Dar-

Inland
Explora-
tions

DIVISION V
AUSTRALIA

ling) was discovered, and followed likewise to a marsh — experiences which suggested the theory of a sea in the interior of Australia. Mr. Oxley pushed explorations through New South Wales into Queensland, laying open the Brisbane River. In 1819 Hamilton Hume reached the Murrumbidgee; and in 1824 traveled overland from Sydney to Port Phillip, crossing the Upper Murray en route. In 1828 he followed the Macquarie to its junction with the Darling.

First
Crossing
of the
Conti-
nent

Tele-
graph
Route

Explorers
Starve to
Death

Colonial
History

Tas-
mania

One of the greatest and most successful of all Australian explorations was the passage across the whole continent, from south to north, from Adelaide to a point west of Chambers Bay, in 1862, by J. M' Douall Stuart; opening up the Albert River, the Finke River, the Macdonnell Ranges, and the Ashburton Ranges, altogether a quite practicable route across the continent through a fairly continuous if narrow belt of upland and stream, a route utilized in 1872 for a telegraph line, with fixed stations. Nearly contemporaneous with this fortunate expedition was the most tragic one of Burke and Wills. Starting from Melbourne, these two explorers reached Cooper's Creek, the lower course of the Barcoo River. There, leaving the larger portion of their cumbrous cavalcade, Burke and Wills pushed on, passing the M'Kinlay Mountains, and reaching the Gulf of Carpentaria near the mouth of the Flinders, the first passage made across the continent. On their return journey they perished of starvation at Cooper's Creek. M'Kinlay, sent in search of the lost party, traversed the whole continent to Albert River on the Gulf of Carpentaria, thence eastward to Burdekin River and Port Denison in Queensland.

Of the five Australian colonies, that of New South Wales may be reckoned the oldest. In 1788, eighteen years after Captain Cook explored the east coast, Fort Jackson was founded as a penal station for criminals from England; and the settlement retained that character, more or less, during the subsequent fifty years, transportations being virtually suspended in 1839. The colony, however, in 1821 had made a fair start in free industrial progress.

By this time, too, several of the other provinces had come into existence. Van Diemen's Land, now called Tasmania, had been occupied as early as 1803. It was an auxiliary penal station under New South Wales, till in 1825 it became a separate province. From this island, ten year's later, parties crossed Bass's straits to

Port Phillip, where a new settlement was shortly established, forming, till 1851, a part of New South Wales, but now the richer and more prosperous colony of Victoria. In 1827 and 1829, an English company endeavored to plant a settlement at the Swan River, and this, added to a small convict station established in 1825 at King George's Sound, constituted Western Australia. On the shores of the Gulf St. Vincent, again, from 1835 to 1837, South Australia was created by another joint-stock company, as an experiment in the Wakefield scheme of colonization.

DIVISION V
AUSTRALIA
Victoria

**Western
 Australia**

Such were the political component parts of British Australia up to 1839. The earlier history, therefore, of New South Wales, is peculiar to itself. Unlike the other mainland provinces, it was at first held and used chiefly for the reception of British convicts. When that system was abolished, the social conditions of New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia became more equal. Previous to the gold discoveries of 1851 they may be included, from 1839, in a general summary view.

The first British governors at Sydney, from 1788, ruled with despotic power. They were naval or military officers in command of the garrison, the convicts, and the few free settlers. The duty was performed by such men as Captain Arthur Phillip, Captain Hunter, and others. In the twelve years' rule of General Macquarie, closing with 1821, the colony made a substantial advance. By means of convict labor roads and bridges were constructed, and a route opened into the interior beyond the Blue Mountains. A population of 30,000, three fourths of them convicts, formed the infant commonwealth, whose attention was soon directed to the profitable trade of rearing fine-wool sheep.

**First
 British
 Gov-
 ernors**

During the next ten years, 1821-31, the colony increased and eventually succeeded in obtaining the advantages of a representative institution by means of a legislative council. New South Wales became prosperous and attractive to emigrants with capital. Its enterprising ambition was encouraged by taking additional country north and south.

**New
 South
 Wales**

The general advancement of Australia, to the era of the gold-mining, had been satisfactory in spite of a severe commercial crisis, from 1841 to 1843, caused by extravagant land speculations and inflated prices. Victoria produced already more wool than New South Wales. South Australia, between 1842 and 1852,

**General
 Advance-
 ment
 Good**

DIVISION V
 AUSTRALIA

opened most valuable mines of copper. The population of New South Wales in 1851 was one hundred and ninety thousand; that of Victoria, seventy-seven thousand; and that of South Australia about the same.

Gold Dis-
 covered

At Summerhill Creek, twenty miles north of Bathurst, in the Macquarie plains, gold was discovered in February, 1851, by Hargraves, a gold-miner from California. The intelligence was made known in April or May, and then began a rush of thousands, — men leaving their former employments in the bush or in the town, to search for the ore so greatly coveted in all ages. In August it was found at Anderson's Creek, near Melbourne; a few weeks later the great Ballarat gold-field, eighty miles west of the city, was opened; and after that, Bendigo, now called Sandhurst, to the north. Not only in these lucky provinces, New South Wales and Victoria, where the auriferous deposits were revealed, but in every British colony of Australia, all ordinary industry was left for the one exciting pursuit. The copper mines of South Australia were for the time deserted, while Tasmania and New Zealand lost many inhabitants, who emigrated to the more promising country. The disturbance of social, industrial, and commercial affairs, during the first two or three years of the gold era, was very great. Immigrants from Europe, and to some extent from North America and China, poured into Melbourne, where the arrivals in 1852 averaged two thousand persons in a week. The population of Victoria was doubled in the first year of the gold fever, and the value of imports and exports was multiplied tenfold between 1851 and 1853.

Rush of
 Gold
 Seekers

The colony of Victoria was constituted a separate province in July, 1851. The more rapid increase of Victoria since that time, in wealth and number of inhabitants, has gained it a pre-eminence in the esteem of emigrants, but the varied resources of New South Wales, and its greater extent of territory, may in some degree tend to redress the balance, if not to restore the character of superior importance to the older colony.

Victoria
 Becomes
 Separate
 Province

Queens-
 land

The separation of the northern part of eastern Australia, under the name of Queensland, from the original province of New South Wales, took place in 1859. At that time the district contained about 25,000 inhabitants; and in the first six years its population was quadrupled and its trade trebled.

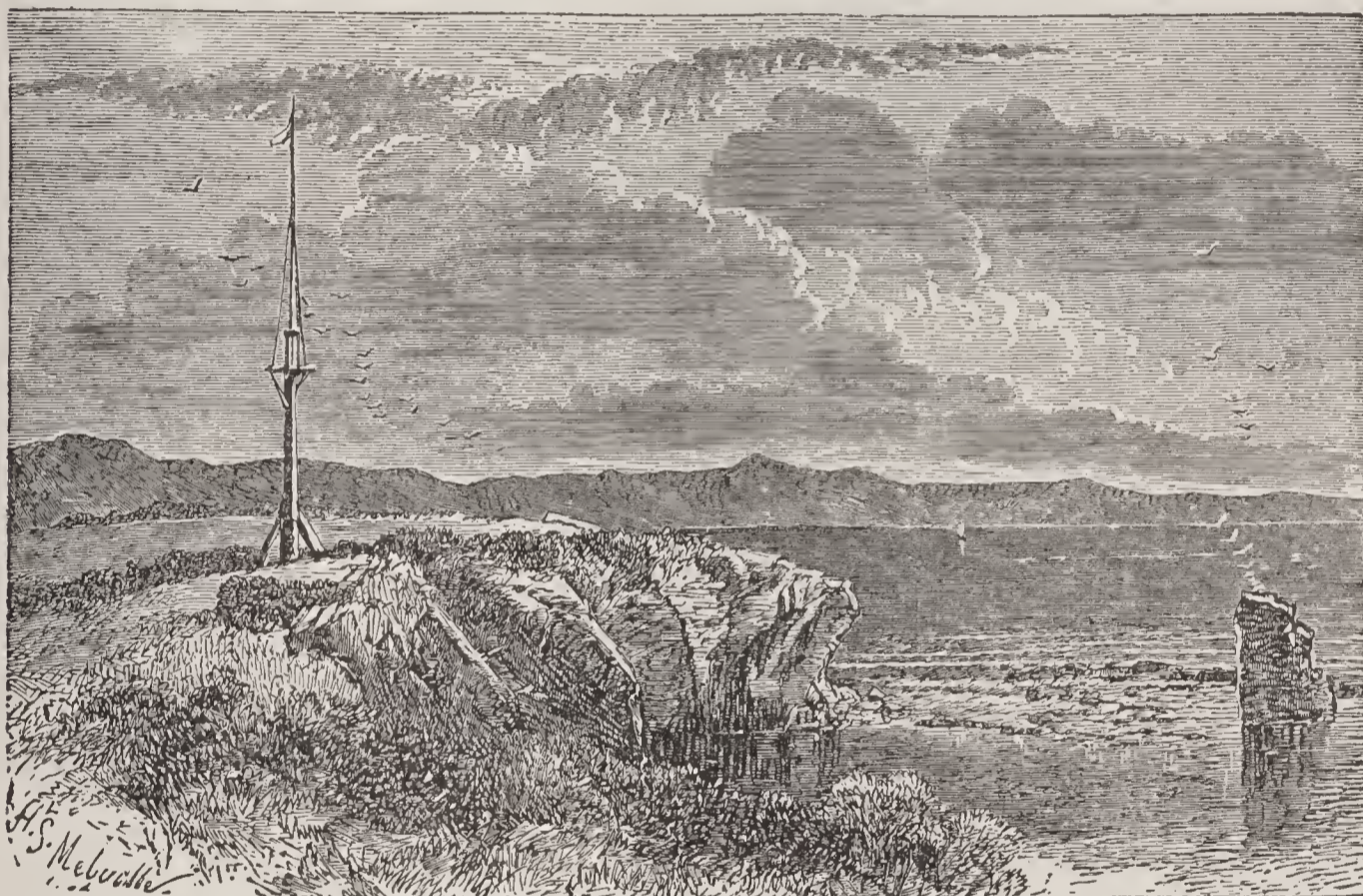
NEW SOUTH WALES

DIVISION V

AUSTRALIA

NEW SOUTH
WALESA Penal
Colony

THE oldest of the Australian colonies, New South Wales, is governed under a constitution established by an act of the British parliament in 1855. Its earliest history is that of a penal settlement, or distant prison maintained at the imperial cost. As the number of free settlers increased, a demand for the cessation of this transportation of convicts was made by the colony. The agitation on this question has been the only serious conflict with the mother country. It was ended by the transportation being reluctantly abolished in 1853.



COAST NEAR ILLAWARRA, NEW SOUTH WALES

The legislative power is vested in a parliament of two houses, the first called the legislative council, and the second the legislative assembly. The council consists of not less than twenty-one members (fifty-eight in August, 1898) appointed by the crown for life, and the assembly at present has one hundred and twenty-five members. Every male subject, twenty-one years of age, having resided one year in the colony and three months in his electoral district, is qualified as an elector. The duration of a parliament is not more than three years. Sydney, the capital of the colony, is a first-class naval station, the headquarters of the British fleet in Australia.

Govern-
ment

Sydney

DIVISION V
 AUSTRALIA
 QUEENS-
 LAND

QUEENSLAND

THE colony of Queensland occupies the northeastern portion of Australia, situated between New South Wales and Torres Strait. A desire to form new penal colonies led to the discovery of Brisbane River in December, 1823, and the proclamation of a penal settlement there in 1826. The convict population was, however, gradually withdrawn to Sydney, and the place declared open to free persons only in 1842. The first land sale was in August, 1843.

Government

The form of government of the colony was established in 1859, on its separation from New South Wales. The power of making laws and imposing taxes is vested in a parliament of two houses — the legislative council and the legislative assembly. The former consists of forty-one members nominated by the crown for life. The Assembly comprises seventy-two members, elected for three years.

Defense

The defense of the colony was provided for by an act passed in 1884, by which, in addition to fully paid militia and volunteer corps to be maintained by the government, every man (with a very few exceptions) between the ages of eighteen and sixty is liable for military service.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Present
 Bounda-
 ries

SOUTH AUSTRALIA, as its name indicates, originally was a colony in the southern part of the island, or continent, between Victoria and New South Wales on the east, and Western Australia on the west; but by the addition of the northern territory, or Alexandria Land, its northern borders were carried to the Indian Ocean. Being much more northern and less southern than the neighboring colony of Victoria, its present designation is incorrect in point of fact.

In 1835 an act was passed for the erection of a colony, under commissioners appointed by the Crown, who would be responsible for their acts to the British government. It was arranged that a local government should be established when the settlement had 50,000 people. The colony was proclaimed December 28, 1836. The South Australian Company purchased large tracts from the commissioners at \$3 per acre and sold it for \$5. A general specu-

lative spirit arrested progress for some time. These difficulties led to the suspension of the charter in 1841.

The present constitution was enacted October 24, 1856. It vests the legislative power in a parliament of two houses, both elected by the people. The executive is vested in a governor appointed by the crown, and an executive council consisting of six responsible ministers. By the constitutional amendment act of 1894 the franchise was extended to women.

DIVISION V
 AUSTRALIA
 SOUTH AUSTRALIA
 Present Constitution



VOLCANIC LAKES AND MOUNTAINS, SOUTH AUSTRALIA

VICTORIA

VICTORIA is a colony occupying the southeastern corner of Australia, having a coast line of about eight hundred miles. The earliest attempt to colonize this part of Australia was in 1803, when a small company of convicts were located at the entrance to the bay; Scarcity of food led to their early removal to Tasmania. In 1835 two rival pastoral companies came from Tasmania. The number of immigrants increased till in 1851 there were 97,000 persons in the colony. This same year the discovery of gold completely changed the prospects of Victoria. In the year (1854) there were 90,000 arrivals in the country, and in 1861 the inhabitants were six times as numerous as they were ten years before.

Earliest Colony

Gold Discovered

DIVISION V

AUSTRALIA

VICTORIA

Govern-
ment

The constitution of the colony was established by an act passed by the local legislature in 1854, to which the assent of the crown was given by an act of the imperial parliament of the mother country. Almost absolute autonomy is enjoyed. The practical government of the country rests with the parliament, consisting of two houses. The legislative council contains forty-two members, elected by fourteen electoral provinces. Each member holds his seat for six years, a third of them retiring every two years, but being eligible for re-election. To be eligible for election a candidate must be over thirty years old, and be possessed of an estate with an annual value of five hundred dollars. No property qualification is required for graduates of British universities, matriculated students of the Melbourne University, ministers of religion of any denomination, certified schoolmasters, lawyers, medical practitioners, and officers of the army and navy not in active service.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA

WESTERN AUSTRALIA includes all that portion of the continent that lies to the west of 129° east longitude, forming considerably more than one third of the whole.

Govern-
ment

This was the last of the colonies in Australia to obtain responsible government. In 1890 the administration, which had before been vested in a governor, assisted by a legislative council, partly nominated and partly elective, was vested in the governor, a legislative council, and a legislative assembly. The legislative council was in the first instance nominated by the governor, but it was provided that in the event of the population of the colony reaching 60,000, it should be elective. On July 18, 1893, the limit of population was reached, and the colonial parliament soon afterward passed an act amending the constitution.

Present
Govern-
ment

The legislative council now consists of twenty-four members, representing eight electoral provinces, and holding their seats for six years. The legislative assembly consists of forty-four members, each representing one electorate, and elected for four years. Power is reserved to the crown to divide the colony as may from time to time be thought fit.

TASMANIA

DIVISION V

AUSTRALIA

TASMANIA

TASMANIA, formerly Van Diemen's Land, is a compact island, forming a British colony, which lies to the south of Australia in the Southern Ocean. Its size is about one third that of Ireland. It was discovered by the Dutch navigator Tasman, in 1642.

Dis-
covery

The constitution of Tasmania was established by an act passed by Great Britain in 1886. By its terms a parliament composed of two houses is provided for, very similar to the arrangement in Western Australia. The executive is vested in a governor appointed by the crown.

Govern-
ment

The question of the federation of the Australian colonies is by no means new. About the year 1852 a proposal was made for the establishment of a general assembly to make laws in relation to intercolonial questions. Various conferences were held to consider the matter, and in 1891, at a convention which met at Sydney, resolutions approving of a federal constitution were passed, and a draft bill to constitute the Commonwealth of Australia was adopted, but it failed to satisfy the several colonies.

Austra-
lian Fed-
eration

Later other conferences were held, and in March, 1898, a draft bill was finally adopted for submission to the separate local governments. This bill provides for the federation of the colonies under the crown, with the designation of the commonwealth of Australia. In the month of June, 1898, the bill was submitted to the people of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania. In the three last-named colonies the bill was adopted by large majorities; while in the case of New South Wales there was a majority of 5,367 for the bill, but as the affirmative vote only reached 71,595, the bill was regarded as rejected. It was not submitted to the people in Western Australia, as the enabling act of that colony provided that Western Australia should only join a federation of which New South Wales formed a part. The other colonies also, although legally empowered to federate without New South Wales, tacitly admit that the adhesion of the mother colony must be secured before the final steps are taken. At a conference held in Melbourne in January, 1899, an agreement was reached on all disputed matters, and early in February it was announced that a unanimous agreement had been finally reached.

Agree-
ment
Reached

DIVISION V

AUSTRALIA

NEW
ZEALAND

NEW ZEALAND

Cannibal-
ism a
Terror to
SailorsPresent
Govern-
ment

NEW ZEALAND consists of two large divisions, the North Island, and the South Island, another much smaller one named Stewart Island, and of the islets around the coast. Tasman, the Dutch explorer, discovered the islands in 1642, but he did not land there. Captain Cook, in 1769, was the first European to set foot on the shores, and he took possession of the country for King George III. From the time of his departure till 1814 but little is known of the country, except that it was a terror to sailors, owing to the ferocity and cannibalism of the aborigines. From this time on missionaries entered the islands, and paved the way for colonists.

The present form of government for New Zealand was established in 1852. Each colony was divided into six provinces, afterward increased to nine, each governed by a superintendent and a provincial council, elected by the inhabitants according to a franchise practically amounting to household suffrage. By a subsequent act of the imperial parliament passed in 1875, the provincial system of government was abolished, and the powers previously exercised by superintendents and provincial officers were ordered to be exercised by the governor or by the local boards. The legislative council consists at present of forty-eight members, who before September 17, 1891, were appointed for life, but those appointed subsequent to that date hold their seats for seven years only, though they are eligible for reappointment.



A GENERAL VIEW OF AMERICA

INCLUDING NORTH, SOUTH, AND CENTRAL AMERICA, AND THE
WEST INDIES

(The History of the United States is treated in the following Six Volumes.)



AMERICA is the largest of the great divisions of the globe except Asia. It is washed on the west by the Pacific, on the east by the Atlantic, on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the south it tapers to a point. On the northwest it approaches within about fifty miles of Asia, while on the northeast the island of Greenland approaches within three hundred and seventy miles of Iceland.

America as a whole forms the two triangular continents of North and South America, united by the narrow Isthmus of Panama, and having an entire length of about 10,000 miles; a maximum breadth (in North America) of 3,500 miles; a coast line of 44,000 miles; and a total area, including the islands, of nearly 16,000,000 sq. mi., of which North America contains about 9,000,000 sq. mi. South America is more compact in form than North America, in this respect resembling Africa. Between the two on the east side is the great basin which comprises the Gulf of Mexico, the Caribbean Sea, and the West India Islands.

We shall treat, first, the nations of South America, second, the States of Central America, third, the West Indies, and fourth, North America (excepting the *United States*, which is treated in Volumes V to X).

Columbus first touched the continent at the mouth of the Orinoco in 1498. The next navigator to explore this continent was

Dis-
covery

DIVISION VI
AMERICA

Hojeda, a Spaniard, who touched the continent near the equator and passed up the coast of Venezuela. He was accompanied by Amerigo Vespucci. Vespucci was an experienced mariner, and in 1500, after his return, published an account of the voyage, and on account of this the new world was called *America*. Spain and Portugal had almost entire control of the continent until the beginning of the nineteenth century. The Spanish colonies declared their independence in 1810, and after a ten years' war established a number of republics. In 1823 Brazil became independent of Portugal, and retained a monarchical form of government, which lasted until 1889, when it was changed to a republic. The only foreign possessions on the continent at the present time are those of British, French, and Dutch Guiana.

**Central
America**

Central America extends from the Isthmus of Panama to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. Its entire length is about eight hundred miles, with a breadth varying from twenty-five to three hundred and fifty miles. Its area is about 190,000 square miles. The political divisions of Central America are Guatemala, Honduras, San Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and British Honduras.

History

Columbus visited the east coast of Central America in 1502, passing along the shores of Honduras and Costa Rica. In 1523 Cortez sent one of his lieutenants to conquer this region, which he did in two years' time. The whole territory belonged to Spain from that time until 1823, when it became a republic. In 1833 this republic was dissolved, and the five extant republics were formed. The only European possession is that of British Honduras.

**North
America**

The continent of North America was first discovered by John Cabot and his son Sebastian in 1497. Various voyages were made from Europe, the principal ones being by Gaspar de Cortereal, a Portuguese sailor, who made two voyages to the coast of Labrador; Ponce de Leon, who discovered Florida in 1512; Verrazzano, a Florentine sailor, who explored more than 2,000 miles of the eastern coast; Jacques Cartier, who explored Newfoundland and descended the St. Lawrence; Cortez, who discovered and conquered Mexico. The first English settlers in what is now the United States came in 1607, locating in Jamestown, Virginia. From time to time colonies came from England, Holland, and France, and made settlements along the eastern coast, from Florida

to Quebec. At times expeditions were made inland, and in the course of 150 years settlements were made on the Great Lakes and in the Mississippi Valley. By 1776 the English owned most all of the settlements except those of Quebec and Florida. In that year the English colonies declared their independence of the mother country. In 1821 Mexico became independent of Spain, forming a republic. The remainder of North America, except the peninsula of Alaska, which belongs to the United States, and Greenland, which is a Danish possession, belongs to Great Britain.

DIVISION VI
AMERICA



THE HISTORY OF BRAZIL

[*Authorities:* Agassiz, *Journey in Brazil* (8, London, 1868); Bates, *South America* (London, 1882); *Constitution des Etats-Unis du Brésil* (Paris, 1891); Dent, *A Year in Brazil* (London, 1886); Ford, *Tropical America* (8, 1893); Callenga, *South America* (London, 1880); Hartt, *Geology and Physical Geography of Brazil* (Boston, 1870); Orton, *The Andes and the Amazon; or, Across the Continent of South America* (8, New York, 1876); Vincent, *Round and About South America* (New York, 1890); *The Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



Spanish
Dis-
covery

Portu-
guese
Explora-
tion

BRAZIL was discovered in 1499 by Vincent Yanez Pincon, a companion of Columbus. He descried the land near Cape St. Augustine, and sailed along the coast as far as the River Amazon, whence he proceeded to the mouth of the Orinoco. He made no settlement, but took possession of the country in the name of the Spanish government, and carried home, as specimens of its natural production, some drugs, gems, and Brazil-wood. Next year the Portuguese commander, Pedro Alvarez Cabral, appointed by his monarch to follow the course of Vasco de Gama in the East, was driven by adverse winds so far from his track that he reached the Brazilian coast, April 24, and anchored in Porto Seguro (16° S. lat.) on Good Friday. On Easter day an altar was erected, mass celebrated in the presence of the natives, the country declared an appanage of Portugal, and a stone cross erected in commemoration of the event. Cabral despatched a small vessel to Lisbon to announce his discovery, and, without forming any settlement, proceeded to India on the 3d of May. On the arrival of the news in Portugal, Emmanuel invited Amerigo Vespucci to enter his service, and despatched him with three vessels to explore the country. This navigator's first voyage was unsuccessful; but in a second he discovered a safe port, the site of which is not accurately known, to which he gave the

name of All-Saints. He remained there five months, and maintained a friendly intercourse with the natives. Some of the party traveled forty leagues into the interior. Vespucci erected a small fort, and leaving twelve men, with guns and provisions, to garrison it, embarked for Portugal, having loaded his two ships with Brazil-wood, monkeys, and parrots.

The poor and barbarous tribes of Brazil, and their country, the mineral riches of which were not immediately discovered, offered but few attractions to a government into the coffers of which the wealth of India and Africa was flowing. Vespucci's settlement was neglected. For nearly thirty years the kings of Portugal paid no further attention to their newly acquired territory than what consisted in combating the attempts of the Spaniards to occupy it, and dispersing the private adventurers from France, who sought its shores for the purposes of commerce. The colonization of Brazil was prosecuted, however, by subjects of the Portuguese monarchy, who traded thither chiefly for Brazil-wood. The government also sought to make criminals of some use to the state, by placing them in a situation where they could do little harm to society, and might help to uphold the dominion of their nation.

The first attempt on the part of the Portuguese monarch to introduce an organized government into his dominions was made by Joan III. He adopted a plan which had been found to succeed well in Madeira and the Azores, — dividing the country into hereditary captaincies, and granting them to such persons as were willing to undertake their settlement, with unlimited powers of jurisdiction, both civil and criminal. Each captaincy extended along fifty leagues of coast. The boundaries in the interior were undefined. The first settlement made under this new system was that of S. Vincente Piratininga, in the present province of S. Paulo. Martin Affonso de Sousa, having obtained a grant, fitted out a considerable armament, and proceeded to explore the country in person. He began to survey the coast about Rio de Janeiro, to which he gave that name, because he discovered it on the first of January, 1531. He proceeded south as far as La Plata, naming the places he surveyed on the way from the days on which the respective discoveries were made. He fixed upon an island, in $24\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ south latitude, called by the natives Guaibe, for his settlement. The Goagnazes, or prevailing tribe of Indians in that neighbor-

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

BRAZIL

Coloniza-
tionFirst
Organ-
ized
Govern-
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and
Explora-
tions

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BRAZIL

Treaty
 with
 Natives

hood, as soon as they discovered the intentions of the newcomers to fix themselves permanently there, collected for the purpose of expelling them. Fortunately, however, a shipwrecked Portuguese, who had lived many years under the protection of the principal chief, was successful in concluding a treaty of perpetual alliance between his countrymen and the natives. Finding the spot chosen for the new town inconvenient, the colonists removed to the adjoining island of St. Vincente, from which the captaincy derived its name. Cattle and the sugar cane were at an early period introduced from Madiera, and here the other captaincies supplied themselves with both.

Pero Lopes de Sousa received the grant of a captaincy, and set sail from Portugal at the same time as his brother, the founder of S. Vincente. He chose to have his fifty leagues in two allotments. That to which he gave the name of S. Amaro adjoined S. Vincente, the two towns being only three leagues apart. The other division lay much nearer to the line between Paraiba and Pernambuco. He experienced considerable difficulty in founding this second colony, from the strenuous opposition of a neighboring tribe, the Petigtares; but at length he succeeded in clearing his lands of them; and not long afterward he perished by shipwreck.

Fortune
 Sunk in
 Coloniza-
 tion

Rio de Janeiro was not settled till a later period; and for a considerable time the nearest captaincy to S. Amaro, sailing along the coast northward, was that of Espiritu Santo. It was founded by Vasco Fernandes Coutinho, who, having acquired a large fortune in India, sunk it in this scheme of colonization. He carried with him no less than sixty fidalgos. They named their town by anticipation, Our Lady of the Victory; but it cost them some hard fighting with the Goagnazes to justify the title.

Pedro de Campo Tourinho, a nobleman and excellent navigator, received a grant of the adjoining captaincy of Porto Seguro. This, it will be remembered, is the spot where Cabral first took possession of Brazil. The Tupinoquins at first offered some opposition; but having made peace they observed it faithfully, notwithstanding that the oppression of the Portuguese obliged them to forsake the country. Sugar-works were established, and considerable quantities of the produce exported to the mother country.

Jorge de Figueiredo, Escrivam da Fazenda, was the first donatory of the captaincy of Ilheos, 140 miles south of Bahia. His

office preventing him from taking possession in person, he deputed the task to Francisco Romeiro, a Castilian. The Tupinoquins, the most tractable of the Brazilian tribes, made peace with the settlers, and the colony was founded without a struggle.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BRAZIL

The coast from the Rio S. Francisco to Bahia was granted to Francisco Perira Coutinho; the bay itself, with all its creeks, was afterward added to the grant. When Coutinho formed his establishment, where Villa Velha now stands, he found a Portuguese noble living in the neighborhood, who, having been shipwrecked, had, by means of his firearms, raised himself to the rank of chief among the natives. He was surrounded by a patriarchal establishment of wives and children; and to him most of the distinguished families of Bahia still trace their lineage. The regard entertained by the natives for Caramaru (signifying "man of fire") induced them to extend a hospitable welcome to his countrymen, and for a time everything went on well. Coutinho had, however, learned in India to be an oppressor, and the Tupinasbas were the fiercest and most powerful of the native tribes. The Portuguese were obliged to abandon their settlement; but several of them returned at a later period, along with Caramaru, and thus a European community was established in the district.

A Portu-
 guese
 Chief
 among
 Indians

Some time before the period at which these captaincies were established, a factory had been planted at Pernambuco. A ship from Marseilles took it, and left seventy men in it as a garrison; but being captured on her return, and carried into Lisbon, immediate measures were taken for reoccupying the place. The captaincy of Pernambuco was granted to Don Duarte Coelho Pereira as the reward of his services in India. It extended along the coast from the Rio S. Francisco, northward to the Rio de Juraza. Duarte sailed with his wife and children, and many of his kinsmen, to take possession of his new colony, and landed in the port of Pernambuco. To the town which was there founded he gave the name of Olinda. The Cabetes, who possessed the soil, were fierce and pertinacious; and, assisted by the French, who traded to that coast, Duarte had to gain by inches what was granted him by leagues. The Portuguese managed, however, to beat off their enemies; and, having entered into an alliance with the Tobayanes, followed up their success.

French
 Traders
 Assist
 Natives

Attempts were made about this time to establish two other cap-

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BRAZIL

taincies, but without success. Pedro de Goes obtained a grant of the captaincy of Paraiba, between those of S. Vincente and Espirito Santo; but his means were too feeble to enable him to make head against the aborigines, and the colony was broken up after a painful struggle of seven years. Joan de Barros, the historian, obtained the captaincy of Maranhao. For the sake of increasing his capital, he divided his grant with Fernan Alvares de Andrada and Aires da Cunha. They projected a scheme of conquest and colonization upon a large scale. Nine hundred men, of whom one hundred and thirteen were horsemen, embarked in ten ships, under the command of Aires de Cunha. But the vessels were wrecked upon some shoals about one hundred leagues to the south of Maranhao; the few survivors, after suffering immense hardships, escaped to the nearest settlements, and the undertaking was abandoned.

Brazil
 the first
 Agricultural
 Colony
 in
 America

By these adventurers the whole line of Brazilian coast, from the mouth of La Plata to the mouth of the Amazon, had become studded at intervals with Portuguese settlements, in all of which law and justice were administered, however inadequately. It is worthy of observation, that Brazil was the first colony founded in America upon an agricultural principle, for until then the precious metals were the exclusive attraction. Sufficient capital was attracted between the year 1531 (in which De Sousa founded the first captaincy) and the year 1548 to render these colonies an object of importance to the mother country. Their organization, however, in regard to their means of defense against both external aggression and internal violence, was extremely defective. Their territories were surrounded and partly occupied by large tribes of savages. Behind them the Spaniards, who had an establishment at Asuncion, had penetrated almost to the sources of the waters of Paraguay, and had succeeded in establishing communication with Peru. Orellana, on the other hand, setting out from Peru, had crossed the mountains and sailed down the Amazon. Nor had the French abandoned their hopes of effecting an establishment on the coast.

Effort to
 Centralize
 Power

The obvious remedy for these evils was to concentrate the executive power, to render the petty chiefs amenable to one tribunal, and to confide the management of the defensive force to one hand. In order to do this the powers of the several captains were revoked,

while their property in their grants was reserved to them. A governor-general was appointed, with full powers, civil and criminal. The judicial and financial functions in each province were vested in the Ouvidor, whose authority in the college of finance was second only to that of the governor. Every colonist was enrolled either in the *Milicias* or *Ordenanzas*. The former were obliged to serve beyond the boundaries of the province, the latter only at home. The chief cities received municipal constitutions, as in Portugal. Thome de Sousa was the first person nominated to the important post of governor-general. He was instructed to build a strong city in Bahia and to establish there the seat of his government. In pursuance of his commission he arrived at Bahia in April, 1549, with a fleet of six vessels, on board of which were three hundred and twenty persons in the king's pay, four hundred convicts, and three hundred free colonists. Care had been taken for the spiritual wants by associating six Jesuits.

Old Caramaru, who still survived, rendered the governor essential service by gaining for his countrymen the good will of the natives. The new city was established where Bahia still stands. Within four months one hundred houses were built, and surrounded by a mud wall. Sugar plantations were laid out in the vicinity. During the four years of Sousa's government there were sent out at different times supplies of all kinds, female orphans of noble families, who were given in marriage to the officers, and portioned from the royal estates, and orphan boys to be educated by the Jesuits. The capital rose rapidly in importance, and the captaincies learned to regard it as a common head and center of wealth. Meanwhile the Jesuits undertook the moral and religious culture of the natives, and of the scarcely less savage colonists. Strong opposition was at first experienced from the gross ignorance of the Indians, and the depravity of the Portuguese, fostered by the licentious encouragement of some abandoned priests who had found their way to Brazil. Over these persons the Jesuits had no authority; and it was not until the arrival of the first bishop of Brazil in 1552, that anything like an efficient check was imposed upon them. Next year Sousa was succeeded by Duarte da Costa, who brought with him a re-enforcement of Jesuits, at the head of which was Luis de Gran, appointed, with Nobrega the chief of the first mission, joint provincial of Brazil.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BRAZIL

A Colony
 of Free
 Men,
 Convicts,
 and
 Jesuits

Opposi-
 tion to
 Moral
 Restraint

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 AMERICA
 BRAZIL

Nobrega's first act was one which has exercised the most beneficial influence over the social system of Brazil; namely, the establishment of a college on the then unreclaimed plains of Piratininga. It was named S. Paulo, and has been at once the source whence knowledge and civilization have been diffused through Brazil, and the nucleus of a colony of its manliest and hardest citizens, which sent out successive swarms of hardy adventurers to people the interior. The good intentions of the Jesuits were in part frustrated by the opposition of Duarte the governor; and it was not until 1558, when Mem de Sa was sent out to supersede him, that their projects were allowed full scope.

Traitorous Persecution of Huguenot Colonists

Rio de Janeiro was first occupied by French settlers. Nicholas Durand de Villegagnon, a bold and skilful seaman, having visited Brazil, saw at once the advantages which might accrue to his country from a settlement there. In order to secure the interest of Coligny, he gave out that his projected colony was intended to serve as a place of refuge for the persecuted Huguenots. Under the patronage of that admiral, he arrived at Rio de Janeiro in 1558, with a train of numerous and respectable colonists. As soon, however, as he thought his power secure, he threw off the mask, and began to harass and oppress the Huguenots by every means he could devise. Many of them were forced by his tyranny to return to France; and ten thousand Protestants, ready to embark for the new colony, were deterred by their representations. Villegagnon, finding his force much diminished in consequence of his treachery, sailed for France in quest of recruits; and during his absence the Portuguese governor, by order of his court, attacked and dispersed the settlement. For some years the French kept up a kind of bush warfare; but in 1567 the Portuguese succeeded in establishing a settlement at Rio.

Mem de Sa continued to hold the reins of government in Brazil upon terms of the best understanding with the clergy, and to the great advantage of the colonies, for fourteen years. On the expiration of his power, which was nearly contemporary with that of his life, an attempt was made to divide Brazil into two governments; but this having failed, the territory was reunited in 1578, the year in which Diego Laurencio da Veiga was appointed governor. At this time the colonies, although not yet independent of supplies from the mother country, were in a flourishing condi-

tion; but the usurpation of the crown of Portugal by Philip II changed the aspect of affairs. Brazil, believed to be inferior to the Spanish possessions in mines, was consequently abandoned in comparative neglect for the period intervening between 1578 and 1640, during which it contained an appanage of Spain.

No sooner had Brazil passed under the Spanish crown, than English adventurers directed their hostile enterprises against its shores. In 1586 Witherington plundered Bahia; in 1591 Cavendish burned S. Vincente; in 1595 Lancaster took Olinda. These exploits, however, were transient in their effects. In 1612 the French attempted to found a permanent colony in the island of Marajo, where they succeeded in maintaining themselves till 1618. This attempt led to the erection of Maranhao and Para into a separate state. But it was on the part of the Dutch that the most skilful and pertinacious efforts were made for securing a footing in Brazil; and they alone of all the rivals of the Portuguese have left traces of their presence in the national spirit and institutions of Brazil.

The success of the Dutch East India Company led to the establishment of a similar one for the West Indies, to which a monopoly of the trade to America and Africa was granted. This body despatched in 1624 a fleet against Bahia. The town yielded almost without a struggle. The fleet soon after sailed, a squadron being detached against Angola, with the intention of taking possession of that colony, in order to secure a supply of slaves. The Portuguese, in the meanwhile, began to collect for the purpose of expelling the permanent intruders, and the hearty co-operation of all the natives against the invaders having been obtained through the descendants of Caramaru, the Dutch were obliged to capitulate in May, 1625. The honors bestowed upon the Indian chiefs for their assistance in this war broke down in a great measure the barrier between the two races; and there is at this day a greater admixture of their blood among the better classes in Bahia than is to be found elsewhere in Brazil.

In 1630 the Dutch attempted again to effect a settlement; and Olinda yielded after a feeble resistance. They were unable, however, to extend their power beyond the limits of the town, until the arrival of Count Maurice of Nassau, in 1630. His first step was to introduce a regular government among his countrymen; his

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AMERICA

BRAZIL

Colony
Abandoned
and
Appropriated
by
Spain

Dutch
Invasion

Resisted
by Combined
Forces
of the
Natives
and
Portuguese

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BRAZIL

African
Slavery
Intro-
duced

second, to send to the African coast one of his officers, who took possession of a Portuguese settlement, and thus secured a supply of slaves. In the course of four years, the limited period of his government, he succeeded in confirming the Dutch supremacy along the coast of Brazil from the mouth of the San Francisco to Maranhao. He promoted the amalgamation of the different races, and sought to conciliate the Portuguese by the confidence he reposed in them. His object was to found a great empire; but this was a project at variance with the wishes of his employers — an association of merchants, who were dissatisfied because the wealth which they expected to see flowing into their coffers was expended in promoting the permanent interests of a distant country. Count Maurice was recalled in 1644. His successors possessed neither his political nor his military talents, and had to contend with more energetic enemies.

Decline
of
Spanish
Power

In 1640 the revolution which placed the house of Braganza on the throne of Portugal restored Brazil to masters more inclined to promote its interests and assert its possession than the Spaniards. It was indeed high time that some exertion should be made. The northern provinces had fallen into the power of Holland; the southern, peopled in a great measure by the hardy descendants of the successive colonists who had issued on all sides from the central establishment of San Paulo, had learned from their habits of unaided and successful enterprise to court independence. They had ascended the waters of the Paraguay to their sources. They had extended their limits southward till they reached the Spanish settlements on La Plata. They had reduced to slavery numerous tribes of the natives. They were rich in cattle, and had commenced the discovery of the mines. When, therefore, the inhabitants of San Paulo saw themselves about to be transferred, as a dependency of Portugal, from one master to another, they conceived the idea of erecting their country into an independent state. Their attempt, however, was frustrated by Amador Bueno, the person whom they had selected for their king. When the people shouted, “Long live King Amador,” he cried out, “Long live Joan IV,” and took refuge in a convent. The multitude, left without a leader, acquiesced, and this important province was secured to the house of Braganza.

Abortive
Attempt
to Gain
Inde-
pendence

Rio and Santos, although both evinced a desire for independence,

followed the example of the Paulistas. Bahia, as capital of the Brazilian states, felt that its ascendancy depended upon the union with Portugal. The government, thus left in quiet possession of the rest of Brazil, had time to concentrate its attention upon the Dutch conquests. The crown of Portugal was, however, much too weak to adopt energetic measures. The tyranny of the successors of Nassau, by alienating the minds of the Portuguese and natives, drove them to revolt before any steps were taken in the mother country for the reconquest of its colonies. Joan Fernandes Vieyra, a native of Madeira, organized the insurrection which broke out in 1645. This insurrection gave birth to one of those wars in which a whole nation, destitute of pecuniary resources, military organization, and skilful leaders, is opposed to a handful of soldiers advantageously posted and well officered. But brute force is unable to contend with scientific valor. Vieyra, who had the sense to see this, repaired to the court of Portugal, and discovering the weakness and poverty of the executive, suggested the establishment of a company similar to that which in Holland had proved so successful. His plan, notwithstanding the opposition of the priests, was approved of, and in 1649 the Brazil Company of Portugal sent out its first fleet. After a most sanguinary war, Vieyra was enabled in 1654 to present the keys of Olinda to the royal commander, and to restore to his monarch the undivided empire of Brazil. After this, except some inroads on the frontiers, the only foreign invasion which Brazil had to suffer was from France. In 1710 a squadron, commanded by Duclerc, disembarked 1,000 men, and attacked Rio de Janeiro. After having lost half of his men in a battle, Duclerc and all his surviving companions were made prisoners. The governor treated them cruelly. A new squadron with 6,000 troops was entrusted to the famous admiral, Duguay Trouin, to revenge this injury. They arrived at Rio on September 12, 1711. After four days of hard fighting the town was taken. The governor retreated to a position outside, and was only awaiting re-enforcements from Minas to retake it; but Duguay Trouin threatening to burn it, he was obliged on the 10th of October to sign a capitulation, and to pay to the French admiral 610,000 crusados, five hundred cases of sugar, and provisions for the return of the fleet to Europe. Duguay Trouin departed to Bahia to obtain fresh spoils; but having lost in a storm two of his

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Unsuccessful
Insurrection

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best ships, with an important part of the money received, he renounced this plan, and returned directly to France.

After this the Portuguese governed undisturbed their colony. The approach of foreign traders was prohibited, while the regalities reserved by the crown, drained the country of a great proportion of its wealth.

Interior
 Excursions for
 Slaves
 and
 Metals

The important part which the inhabitants of San Paulo have played in the history of Brazil has already been adverted to. The establishment of the Jesuit college had attracted settlers to its neighborhood, and frequent marriages had taken place between the Indians of the district and the colonists. A hardy and enterprising race of men had sprung from this mixture, who, first searching whether their new country were rich in metals, soon began adventurous raids into the interior, making excursions also against the remote Indian tribes, with a view to obtaining slaves, and from the year 1629 onward, repeatedly attacking the Indian reductions of the Jesuits in Paraguay, although both provinces were then nominally subject to the crown of Spain. Other bands penetrated into Minas and still farther north and westward, discovering mines there, and in Goyaz and Cuyaba. New colonies were thus formed round those districts in which gold had been found, and in the beginning of the eighteenth century five principal settlements in Minas Geraes had been elevated by royal charter to the privileges of towns. In 1720, this district was separated from San Paula, to which it had previously been dependent. As early as 1618 a code of laws for the regulation of the mining industry had been drawn up by Philip III, the executive and judicial functions in the mining districts being vested in a *provedor*, and the fiscal in a treasurer, who received the royal fifths and superintended the weighing of all the gold, rendering a yearly account of all discoveries and produce. For many years, however, these laws were little more than a dead letter. The same infatuated passion for mining speculation which had characterized the Spanish settlers in South America, now began to actuate the Portuguese; laborers and capital were drained off to the mining districts, and Brazil, which had hitherto in great measure supplied Europe with sugar, sank before the competition of the English and French. A new source of wealth was now opened up; some adventurers from Villa do Principe, in Minas, going north to the Serio Frio, made the

Laws
 Relating
 to Mining

Dis-
 covery of
 Dia-
 monds

discovery of diamonds about the year 1710, but it was not till 1730 that the discovery was for the first time announced to the government, which immediately declared them regalia. While the population of Brazil continued to increase, the moral and intellectual culture of its inhabitants was left in great measure to chance; they grew up with those robust and healthy sentiments which are engendered by the absence of false teachers, but with a repugnance to legal ordinances, and encouraged in their ascendancy over the Indians to habits of violence and oppression. The Jesuits, from the first moment of their landing in Brazil, had constituted themselves the protectors of the natives, and though strenuously opposed by the colonists and ordinary clergy, had gathered the Indians together in many *aldeas*, over which officials of their order exercised spiritual and temporal authority. A more efficacious stop, however, was put to the persecution of the Indians by the importation of large numbers of negroes from the Portuguese possessions in Africa, these being found more active and serviceable than the native tribes.

The Portuguese government, under the administration of Carvalho, afterward marquis of Pombal, attempted to extend to Brazil the bold spirit of innovation which directed all his efforts. The proud minister had been resisted in his plans of reform at home by the Jesuits, and, determining to attack the power of the order, first deprived them of all temporal power in the states of Maranhao and Para. These ordinances soon spread to the whole of Brazil, and a pretext being found in the suspicion of Jesuit influence in some partial revolts of the Indian troops on the Rio Negro, the order was expelled from Brazil, under circumstances of great severity, in 1760. The Brazilian Company, founded by Vieyra, which so materially contributed to preserve its South American possessions for Portugal, had been abolished in 1721, by Joan V; but such an instrument being well suited to the bold spirit of Pombal, he established a chartered company again in 1755, to trade exclusively with Maranhao and Para; and in 1759, in spite of the remonstrance of the British Factory at Lisbon, formed another company for Parabai and Pernambuco. Pombal's arrangements extended also to the interior of the country, where he extinguished at once the now indefinite and oppressive claims of the original donatories of the captaincies, and strengthened and enforced the regulations

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BRAZIL

African
Negroes
Imported
in Large
Numbers

Expul-
sion
of the
Jesuits

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Pombal's
Measures Con-
sidered

of the mining districts. The policy of many of Pombal's measures is more than questionable; but his admission of all races to equal rights in the eye of the law, his abolition of feudal privileges, and the firmer organization of the powers of the land which he introduced, powerfully co-operated toward the development of the capabilities of Brazil. Yet, on the death of his king and patron, in 1877, when court intrigue forced him in from his high station, he, who had done so much for his country's institutions, was reviled on all hands.

Leader
of a
Projected
Revolt
Hanged

The most important feature in the history of Brazil during the first thirty years following the retirement of Pombal, was the conspiracy of Minas, in 1789. The successful issue of the recent revolution of the English colonies in North America had filled the minds of some of the more educated youth of that province; and in imitation, a project to throw off the Portuguese yoke was formed,—a cavalry officer, Silva Xavier, nicknamed "Tira-dentes" (tooth-drawer), being the chief conspirator. But the plot being discovered during their inactivity, the conspirators were banished to Africa, and Tira-dentes, the leader, was hanged. Thenceforward affairs went on prosperously; the mining districts continued to be enlarged; the trading companies of the littoral provinces were abolished, but the impulse they had given to agriculture remained.

Brazil
Becomes
the
Mother
Country's
Seat
of Gov-
ernment

Removed from all communication with the rest of the world except through the mother country, Brazil remained unaffected by the first years of the great revolutionary war in Europe. Indirectly, however, the fate of this isolated country was decided by the consequences of the French Revolution. Brazil is the only instance of a colony becoming the seat of the government of its own mother country, and this was the work of Napoleon. When he resolved upon the invasion and conquest of Portugal, the Prince Regent, afterward Dom Joan VI, having no means of resistance, decided to take refuge in Brazil. He created a regency in Lisbon, and departed for Brazil on November 29, 1807, accompanied by the Queen Donna Maria I, the royal family, all the great officers of state, a large part of the nobility, and numerous retainers. They arrived at Bahia on January 21, 1808, and were received with enthusiasm. The regent was requested to establish there the seat of his government, but a more secure asylum presented itself

in Rio de Janeiro, where the royal fugitives arrived on the 7th of March. Before leaving Bahia Don Joan took the first step to emancipate Brazil, opening its ports to foreign commerce, and permitting the export of all Brazilian produce under any flag, the royal monopolies of diamonds and brazil-wood excepted. Once established in Rio de Janeiro, the government of the regent was directed to the creation of an administrative machinery for the dominions that remained to him as they existed in Portugal. Besides the ministry which had come with the regent, the council of state, and the departments of the four ministries of home, finances, war, and marine then existing, there were created in the course of one year a supreme court of justice, a board of patronage and administration of the property of the church and military orders, an inferior court of appeal, the court of exchequer and royal treasury, the royal mint, bank of Brazil, royal printing-office, powder-mills on a large scale, and a supreme military court. The maintenance of the court, and the salaries of so large a number of high officials, entailed the imposition of new taxes to meet these expenses. Notwithstanding this the expenses continued to augment, and the government had recourse to the reprehensible measure of altering the money standard, and the whole monetary system was soon thrown into the greatest confusion, a state of things from which the country suffers even at the present day. The bank, in addition to its private functions, farmed many of the regalia, and was in the practise of advancing large sums to the state, transactions which gave rise to extensive corruption and terminated some years later in the breaking of the bank.

Thus the government of the prince regent began its career in the new world with dangerous errors in the financial system; yet the increased activity which a multitude of new customers, and the increase of circulating medium gave to the trade of Rio, added a new stimulus to the industry of the whole nation. Numbers of English artisans and shipbuilders, Swedish iron-founders, German engineers, and French manufacturers sought fortunes in the new country; and diffused industry by their example.

In the beginning of 1809, in retaliation of the occupation of Portugal, an expedition was sent from Para to the French colony of Guiana, and after some fighting, this part of Guiana was incorporated with Brazil. This conquest was, however, of short dura-

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BRAZIL
 Ports
 Opened
 to Com-
 merce

Money
 Standard
 Changed

Arrival
 of
 Skilled
 European
 Laborers

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 BRAZIL

tion; for, by the Treaty of Vienna in 1815, the colony was restored to France. Its occupation contributed to the improvement of agriculture in Brazil; it had been the policy of Portugal up to this time to separate the productions of its colonies, to reserve sugar for Brazil, and spices to the East Indies, and to prohibit the cultivation of these in the African possessions. Now, however, many plants were imported not only from Guiana but from India and Africa, cultivated in the Royal Botanic Garden, and thence distributed. The same principle which dictated the conquest of French Guiana originated attempts to seize the Spanish colonies of Monte Video and Buenos Ayres, Portugal being also at war with Spain. The chiefs of these colonies were invited to place them under the protection of the Portuguese crown, but these, at first affecting loyalty to Spain, declined the offer, then threw off the mask, and declared themselves independent, and the Spanish governor, Elio, was afterward defeated by Artigas, the leader of the independents.

Monte
Video
Taken

Colonial
Government
Anni-
hilated

Becomes
the Head
of the
Portu-
guese
Govern-
ment

The inroads made on the frontiers of Rio Grande and San Paulo decided the court of Rio to take possession of Monte Video; a force of 5,000 troops was sent thither from Portugal, together with a Brazilian corps; and the irregulars of Artigas, unable to withstand disciplined troops, were forced, after a total defeat, to take refuge beyond the River Uruguay. The Portuguese took possession of the city of Monte Video in January, 1817, and the territory of Missiones was afterward occupied. The importance which Brazil was acquiring decided the regent to give it the title of kingdom, and by decree of January 16, 1815, the Portuguese sovereignty thenceforward took the title of the United Kingdom of Portugal, Brazil, and Algarves. Thus the old colonial government disappeared even in name. In March, 1816, the Queen Donna Maria I died, and the prince regent became king under the title of Dom Joan VI.

Although Brazil had now become in fact the head of its own mother country, the government was not in the hands of Brazilians, but of the Portuguese, who had followed the court. The discontent arising among Brazilians from this cause was heightened by a decree assigning a heavy tax on the chief Brazilian custom houses, to be in operation for forty years, for the benefit of the Portuguese noblemen who had suffered during the war with France.

The amiable character of the king preserved his own popularity, but the government was ignorant and profligate, justice was ill-administered, negligence and disorder reigned in all its departments. Nor was the discontent less in Portugal on account of its anomalous position. These causes and the fermentation of liberal principles produced by the French Revolution originated a conspiracy in Lisbon in 1817, which was, however, discovered in time to prevent its success. A similar plot and rebellion took place in the province of Pernambuco, where the inhabitants of the important commercial city of Recife were jealous of Rio and the sacrifices they were compelled to make for the support of the luxurious court there. Another conspiracy to establish a republican government was promptly smothered in Bahia, and the outbreak in Pernambuco was put down after a republic had been formed there for ninety days. Still the progress of the republican spirit in Brazil caused Dom Joan to send to Portugal for bodies of picked troops, which were stationed throughout the provincial capitals.

In Portugal the popular discontent produced the revolution of 1820, when representative government was proclaimed, the Spanish constitution of 1812 being provisionally adopted. In Rio, the Portuguese troops with which the king had surrounded himself as a defense against the liberal spirit of the Brazilians, took up arms on February 26, 1821, to force him to accept the system proclaimed in Portugal. The prince Dom Pedro, heir to the crown, who now for the first time took part in public affairs, actively exerted himself as a negotiator between the king and the troops, who were joined by bodies of the people. After attempting a compromise the king finally submitted, took the oath, and named a new ministry. The idea of free government filled the people with enthusiasm, and the principles of a representative legislature were freely adopted, the first care being for the election of deputies to the Cortes of Lisbon to take part in framing the new constitution. As the king could not abandon Portugal to itself, he determined at first to send the prince thither as regent, but Dom Pedro had acquired such popularity by his conduct in the revolution, and had exhibited such a thirst for glory, that the king feared to trust his adventurous spirit in Europe, and decided to go himself. The Brazilian deputies on arriving in Lisbon expressed dissatisfaction with the Cortes for having begun the framing of the constitution

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BRAZIL

Discon-
tent of
the
Brazil-
iansThe Heir
Dom
Pedro a
Media-
torThe
King
Returns
to Portu-
gal

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BRAZIL

Dom
 Pedro
 Ordered
 to
 Europe

Inde-
 pendence
 Pro-
 claimed

Portu-
 guese
 Squadron
 Defeated
 and Com-
 pelled to
 Return
 Home

before their arrival, for Brazil could not be treated as a secondary part of the monarchy.

Sharp discussions and angry words passed between the Brazilian and Portuguese deputies, the news of which excited great discontent in Brazil. An insulting decree was passed in the Cortes, ordering the prince Dom Pedro to come to Europe, which filled the Brazilians with alarm; they foresaw that without a central authority the country would fall back to its former colonial state, subject to Portugal. The provisional government of San Paulo, influenced by the brothers Andradas, began a movement for independence by asking the prince to disobey the Cortes, and remain in Brazil, and the council of Rio de Janeiro followed with a similar representation, to which the prince assented. The Portuguese troops of the capital at first assumed a coercive attitude, but were forced to give way before the ardor and military preparations of the Brazilians, and submitted to embark for Portugal. These scenes were repeated in Pernambuco, where the Portuguese, after various conflicts, were obliged to leave the country. In Bahia, however, as well as in Maranhao and Para, the Portuguese prevailed. In Rio the agitation for independence continued. The two brothers Andradas were called to the ministry; and the municipal council conferred upon the prince regent the title of Perpetual Defender of Brazil. With great activity he set off to the central provinces of Minas and San Paulo to suppress disaffected movements and direct the revolution. In San Paulo, on the 7th of September, 1822, he proclaimed the independence of Brazil. On his return to Rio de Janeiro on the 12th of October he was proclaimed constitutional emperor with great enthusiasm.

The Cortes at Lisbon chose Bahia as a center for resisting the independence, and large forces were sent thither. But the city was vigorously besieged by the Brazilians by land, and finally the Portuguese were obliged to re-embark on July 2, 1823. A Brazilian squadron, under command of Lord Cochrane, attacked the Portuguese vessels, embarrassed with troops, and took several of them. Taylor, another Englishman in Brazilian service, followed the vessels across the Atlantic, and even captured some of the ships in sight of the land of Portugal. The troops in Monte Video also embarked for Portugal, and the Banda Oriental remained a part of Brazil with the title of the Provincia Cisplatina. Before

the end of 1823 the authority of the new emperor and the independence of Brazil were undisputed throughout the whole country.

Republican movements now began to spread, to suppress which the authorities made use of the Portuguese remaining in the country; and the disposition of the emperor to consider these as his firmest supporters much influenced the course of his government and his future destiny. The two Andradas, who imagined they could govern the young emperor as a sovereign of their own creation, encountered great opposition in the constitutional assembly, which had been opened in Rio in May, 1823, to discuss the project of a new constitution. In July the emperor resolved to dismiss them and form a new ministry, but against this the brothers raised a violent opposition. In November the emperor put an end to the angry debates which ensued in the assembly by dissolving it, exiling the Andradas to France, and convoking a new assembly to deliberate on a proposed constitution more liberal than the former project. The proclamation of a republic in the provinces of Pernambuco and Ceará, with the rebellion of the Cisplatina province, favored by Buenos Ayres and its ultimate loss to Brazil, were the result of the *coup d'état* of November, 1823. The Brazilians were universally discontented,—on one side fearing absolutism if they supported the emperor, on the other anarchy if he fell. Knowing the danger of an undefined position, the emperor caused the councils to dispense with their deliberations, and adopt as the constitution of the empire, the project framed by the council of state. Accordingly, on March 25, 1824, the emperor swore to the constitution with great solemnity and public rejoicings. By this stroke of policy he saved himself and Brazil. Negotiations were opened in London between the Brazilian and Portuguese plenipotentiaries; treating for the recognition of the independence of Brazil; and on the 25th of August, 1825, a treaty was signed by which the Portuguese king, Dom Joan VI, assumed the title of Emperor of Brazil, and immediately abdicated in favor of his son, acknowledging Brazil as an independent empire, but the treaty obliged Brazil to take upon herself the Portuguese debt, amounting to nearly \$10,000,000.

The rebellion of the Banda Oriental was followed by a declaration of war with Buenos Ayres which had supported it, and operations by sea and land were conducted against that republic in a

DIVISION VI
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 BRAZIL

A New
 Ministry
 Proposed

Constitu-
 tion
 Adopted

Portugal
 Acknowl-
 edges
 Brazilian
 Inde-
 pendence

DIVISION VI

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BRAZIL

feeble way. Meanwhile the well-deserved popularity of the emperor began to decline. He had given himself up to the influence of the Portuguese; the most popular men who had worked for the independence were banished; and a continual change of ministry showed a disposition on the part of the sovereign to prosecute obstinately measures of which his advisers disapproved. His popularity was regained, however, to some extent, when, on the death of his father, he was unanimously acknowledged king of Portugal, and especially when he abdicated that crown in favor of his daughter, Donna Maria; but his line of policy was not altered, and commercial treaties entered into with European states conceding them favors, which were popularly considered to be injurious to Brazilian trade, met with bitter censure.

Disas-
trous
Conflict
with Ar-
gentine

During the year 1827 the public debt was consolidated, and a department was created for the application of a sinking fund. The year 1828 was a calamitous one for Brazil. It began with the defeat of the Brazilian army by the Argentine forces, and this entirely through the incapacity of the commander-in-chief; and misunderstandings, afterward compensated by humbling money-payments on the part of Brazil, arose with the United States, France, and England, on account of merchant vessels captured by the Brazilian squadron blockading Buenos Ayres. Financial embarrassments increased to an alarming extent; the emperor was compelled by the British government to make peace with Buenos Ayres and to renounce the Banda Oriental; and to fill the sum of disasters Don Miguel had treacherously usurped the crown of Portugal.

Popular
Dis-
content

It was under these unlucky auspices that the elections of new deputies took place in 1829. As was expected, the result was the election everywhere of ultra-liberals opposed to the emperor, and in the succeeding year people everywhere exhibited their disaffection. During the session of 1830 the chambers adopted a criminal code in which punishment by death for political offenses was abolished. It was openly suggested in the journals to reform the constitution by turning Brazil into independent federal provinces, governed by authorities popularly elected, as in the United States. Alarmed at length at the ground gained by this idea in the provinces, the emperor set off to Minas to stir up the former enthusiasm in his favor from recollections of the independence, but was

coldly received. On his return to Rio in March, 1831, scenes of disorder occurred, and great agitation among the Liberal party. Imagining himself sure of a brilliant destiny in Europe if he lost his Brazilian crown, the emperor attempted to risk a decisive attack against the Liberals, and to form a new ministry composed of men favorable to absolutism. This step caused excited public meetings in the capital, which were joined in by the troops, and deputations went to ask the emperor to dismiss the unpopular ministry. He replied by dissolving the ministry without naming another, and by abdicating the crown in favor of the heir apparent, then only five years of age. Dom Pedro immediately embarked in an English ship, leaving the new emperor, Dom Pedro II, and the princesses Januaria, Francisca, and Paula. The subsequent career of this unfortunate prince belongs to the history of Portugal.

DIVISION V
 AMERICA
 BRAZIL

The
 Emperor
 Abdi-
 cates

A provisional and afterward a permanent regency, composed of three members, was now formed in Brazil, but scenes of disorder followed, and discussions and struggles between the republican party and the government, and a reactionary third party in favor of the restoration of Dom Pedro, occupied the succeeding years. In 1834 a reform which was well received consisted in the alteration of the regency, from that of three members elected by the legislative chambers, to one regent chosen by the whole of the electors in the same manner as the deputies; and the councils of the provinces were replaced by legislative provincial assemblies. Virtually, this was a republican government like that of the United States, for no difference existed in the mode of election of the regent from that of a president. The ex-minister Feijoo was chosen for this office. With the exception of Para and Rio Grande the provinces were at peace, but these were in open rebellion; the former was reduced to obedience, but the latter refused to yield, and though the imperial troops occupied the town, the country was ravaged by its warlike inhabitants. The regent was now accused of conniving at this rebellion, and the opposition of the Chamber of Deputies became so violent as to necessitate his resignation. Araujo Lima, minister of the home department, who strove to give his government the character of a monarchical reaction against the principles of democracy, was chosen by a large majority in his stead. The experiment of republican govern-

A
 Regency
 Formed

The
 People
 Dissatis-
 fied

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BRAZIL

ment had proved so discreditable, and had so wearied the country of cabals, that men hitherto known for their sympathy with democratic principles became more monarchical than the regent himself; and under this influence a movement to give the regency into the hands of the Princess Donna Januaria, now in her eighteenth year, was set on foot. It was soon perceived, however, that if the empire could be governed by a princess of eighteen it could be managed better by the emperor himself, who was then fourteen.

Dom
 Pedro II
 Takes
 the
 Throne

A bill was accordingly presented to the legislature dispensing with the age of the emperor, and declaring his majority, which after a noisy discussion was carried. The majority of the Emperor Dom Pedro II was proclaimed on July 23, 1840. Several ministries, in which various parties predominated for a time, now governed the country till 1848, during which period the rebellious province of Rio Grande was pacified, more by negotiation than force of arms. In 1848 hostilities were roused with the British government through the neglect shown by the Brazilians in putting in force a treaty for the abolition of the slave-trade, which had been concluded as far back as 1826; on the other hand the governor of Buenos Ayres, General Rosas, was endeavoring to stir up revolution again in Rio Grande. The appearance of yellow fever in 1849, until then unknown in Brazil, was attributed to the importation of slaves. Public opinion declared against the traffic; severe laws were passed against it, and were so firmly enforced that in 1853 not a single disembarkation took place. The ministry of the Visconde de Olinda in 1849 entered into alliances with the governors of Monte Video, Paraguay, and the states of Entre Rios and Corrientes, for the purpose of maintaining the integrity of the republics of Uruguay and Paraguay, which Rosas intended to reunite to Buenos Ayres, and the troops of Rosas which besieged Monte Video were forced to capitulate. Rosas then declared war formally against Brazil. An army of Correntine, Uruguayan, and Brazilian troops, under General Urquiza, assisted by a Brazilian naval squadron, advanced on Buenos Ayres, completely routed the forces of Rosas, and crushed forever the power of that dictator. From 1844 Brazil was free from intestine commotions, and had resumed its activity. Public works and education were advanced, and the finances rose to a degree of prosperity previously unknown.

Laws
 against
 Slavery

Pros-
 perity

In 1855 the emperor of Brazil sent a squadron of eleven men-of-war and as many transports up the Parana to adjust several questions pending between the empire and the republic of Paraguay, the most important of which was that of the right of way by the Paraguay River to the interior Brazilian province of Matto Grosso. This right had been in dispute for several years. The expedition was not permitted to ascend the river Paraguay, and returned completely foiled in its main purpose. Though the discord resulting between the states on account of this failure was subsequently allayed for a time by a treaty granting to Brazil the right to navigate the river, every obstacle was thrown in the way by the Paraguayan government, and indignities of all kinds were offered not only to Brazil but to the representatives of the Argentine and the United States. In 1864 the ambitious dictator of Paraguay, Francisco Solano Lopez, without previous declaration of war, captured a Brazilian vessel in the Paraguay, and rapidly followed up this outrage by an armed invasion of the provinces of Matto Grosso and Rio Grande in Brazil, and that of Corrientes in the Argentine Republic. A triple alliance of the invaded states with Uruguay ensued, and the tide of war was soon turned from being an offensive one on the part of Paraguay to a defensive struggle within that republic against the superior number of the allies. So strong was the natural position of Paraguay, however, and so complete the subjection of its inhabitants to the will of the dictator, that it was not until the year 1870, after the republic had been completely drained of its manhood and resources, that the long war was terminated by the capture and death of Lopez with his last handful of men by the pursuing Brazilians. From its duration and frequent battles and sieges this war involved an immense sacrifice of life to Brazil, the army in the field having been constantly maintained at between 20,000 and 30,000 men, and the expenditure in maintaining it was very great, having been calculated at upward of two hundred and fifty million dollars. Large deficits in the financial budgets of the state resulted, involving increased taxation and the contracting of loans from foreign countries.

Notwithstanding this, the sources of public wealth in Brazil were unaffected, and commerce continued steadily to increase. A grand social reform was effected in the law passed in September, 1871, which enacted that from that date every child born of slave par-

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BRAZIL

War
 with
 Paraguay

Cost
 of the
 War

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BRAZIL

Emanci-
 pation
 of the
 Slaves

Internal
 Improve-
 ments

ents should be free, and also declared all the slaves belonging to the state or to the imperial household free from that time. The same law provided an emancipation fund, to be annually applied to the ransom of a certain number of slaves owned by private individuals. From that time on the emancipation of slaves progressed rapidly, the work having been promoted largely by the slave owners and by private philanthropy. It is estimated that after the cessation of the importing of slaves in 1853, and especially after the enactment of 1871, not less than a million of slaves obtained their freedom. From the extremely rapid progress of this movement difficulties have been experienced in a considerable degree in procuring a sufficient supply of labor for the Brazilian plantations; but the general effect of the law was to give new directions to the employment of capital, and the construction of railroads and telegraphs, and the improvement of internal communication by roads and rivers have been largely promoted. Attention has also been strongly directed toward the further development of the provinces by the increase of European immigration. Enterprises of all kinds have multiplied, and public instruction has received a vigorous impulse.

Dom Pedro II was a man of great aspirations for his country, and of liberal impulses, one of his first and most important political reforms being the abolition of slavery within his dominions. He accomplished that result in March, 1888, but as it was done without compensation to the slave holders the opposition of a powerful aristocratic party was engendered. This party was not particularly troublesome during the earlier years of Dom Pedro II's reign, but when his advancing years gave evidence of the decline of his physical powers, it became very arrogant. The probable successor to the emperor was his daughter Isabella, Countess d' Eu, who was unpopular with the republicans of Brazil. Another cause of opposition to the imperial government was the lack of confidence which it showed toward the army; the clerical influence at court, which had of late years grown quite marked, and was constantly on the increase, also aroused considerable antipathy among the masses. All of these causes combined to bring about the peaceful and bloodless revolution at Rio Janeiro on November 15, 1889, when Dom Pedro II was deposed and a republic proclaimed. The army took immediate control and organized a pro-

Dom
 Pedro II
 Deposed

visional government, under the leadership of Señor da Fonseca as president. The situation was peaceful, the imperial machinery of internal government* was not disturbed, and about the only violence shown was the arrest of the deposed emperor's ministers. Dom Pedro II was ordered to leave the country, and he accordingly sailed from Brazil for Portugal in November of 1889.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BRAZIL
 Ordered
 to Leave
 the
 Country

On November 23, 1891, Fonseca resigned, and Vice-President Peixoto took his place. Owing to military interference in internal affairs, there was a rising in Rio Grande do Sul, and a naval revolt in the Bay of Rio Janeiro. The former rising terminated in August, 1895, and the naval revolt in March of 1894.

* According to the constitution adopted by the National Congress in February, 1891, the Brazilian nation is constituted as the United States of Brazil, each of the old provinces forms a state, administered at its own expense, without interference from the federal government, save for defense, for the maintenance of order, and for the execution of the federal laws. Fiscal arrangements belong to the Union; but export business is the property of the various states. The legislative authority is exercised by the National Congress with the sanction of the president of the republic. The congress consists of the chamber of deputies and a senate, which meets annually and sits four months. Deputies and senators are paid, and neither can be ministers of state and retain at the same time their seats in congress. Deputies must have been Brazilian citizens for four years, senators must be over thirty-five years of age, and must have been citizens for six years. The executive authority is exercised by the president of the republic. His term of office is four years, and he is not eligible for the succeeding term. The president and vice-president are elected by the people directly, by an absolute majority of votes.

Constitu-
 tion and
 Govern-
 ment



THE HISTORY OF VENEZUELA

[*Authorities: The Statesman's Year-Book for 1899; Dr. W. Sievers' Venezuela (Hamburg, 1888), and his admirable monograph Die Cordillere Von Merida (Vienna, 1888), which describes also the northern ranges; also Codazzi, Resumen de la Geografia de Venezuela (Paris, 1841); Sachs, Aus den Llanos (Leip. 1878); Cazeneuve and Harani, Les Etats-Unis de Venezuela (Paris, 1888); Tejera's Venezuela Pintoresca (Madrid, 2 vols., 1877), his history (1875), and other histories by Baralt and Urbaneja (to 1831; Caracas, 1865) and Oviedo y Banor (the conquest and settlement; 2 vols., Madrid, 1885). Cf. also, for a special division, Von Langegg's El Dorado (Leip., 1888). There are no English works so valuable as some of the consular reports.*]



VENEZUELA is a northern republic of South America, between the Caribbean Sea, Colombia, Brazil, and British Guiana, now known as the United States of Venezuela.* In 1891 the frontier dispute with Colombia was decided by the arbiter, Spain, in Colombia's favor, and the southwestern boundary is now formed by the rivers Arauca, Orinoco, Atabopo, and Negro, while the whole peninsula of Goajira, and the town and territory of San Faustino (on the Santander border) belong to Colombia.

Boundaries

Discovery

Columbus on his third voyage discovered the Paria coast on July 31, 1498. The next year the whole Venezuelan coast was skirted by Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci, and the name "Little Venice" was given to an Indian village built on piles (as still is common) on the shores of Lake Maracaybo; this is the origin of Venezuela, the name now of the whole country. In 1527 the territory of Coro

Constitution and Government

* The republic of Venezuela was formed in 1830, by secession from the other members of the Free State founded by Simon Bolivar within the limits of the Spanish colony of New Granada. The charter of fundamental laws actually in force, dating from 1830, and reproclaimed, with alterations, on March 28, 1864, and April, 1881, is designed on the model of the constitution of the United States of America, but with considerably more independence secured to provincial and local government. At the head of the central executive government is the president, elected for the term of two years, exercising his functions through six ministers, and a federal council of nineteen members. The federal

was pledged by Charles V to the Welsers of Augsburg, whose governors and adventurers had eyes and thoughts only for gold and the fabled Eldorado. In 1558 the crown resumed possession; Caracas was founded in 1567, and in 1578 became the seat of government; the conquistadores penetrated inland in all directions, and settlements were made in many parts. During the seventeenth century the attentions of the crown were limited to extracting as

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 VENEZUELA



RAILROAD TERMINUS AT LA GUAYRA

much revenue from the colony as possible, while the people entered earnestly on agriculture and stockraising, and the various religious orders arrived and partitioned out the territory among themselves.

council is appointed by the congress every two years; the council from its own members chooses a president, who is also president of the republic. Neither the president nor members of the federal council can be re-elected for the following period. The president has no veto power. The legislation for the whole republic is vested in a congress of two houses, called the senate (three senators for each of the eight states and the federal district), and the house of representatives (one to every 35,000 of population). The senators are elected for four years by the legislature of each state, and the representatives for a like period by popular, direct, and public election. The congresses of states are elected

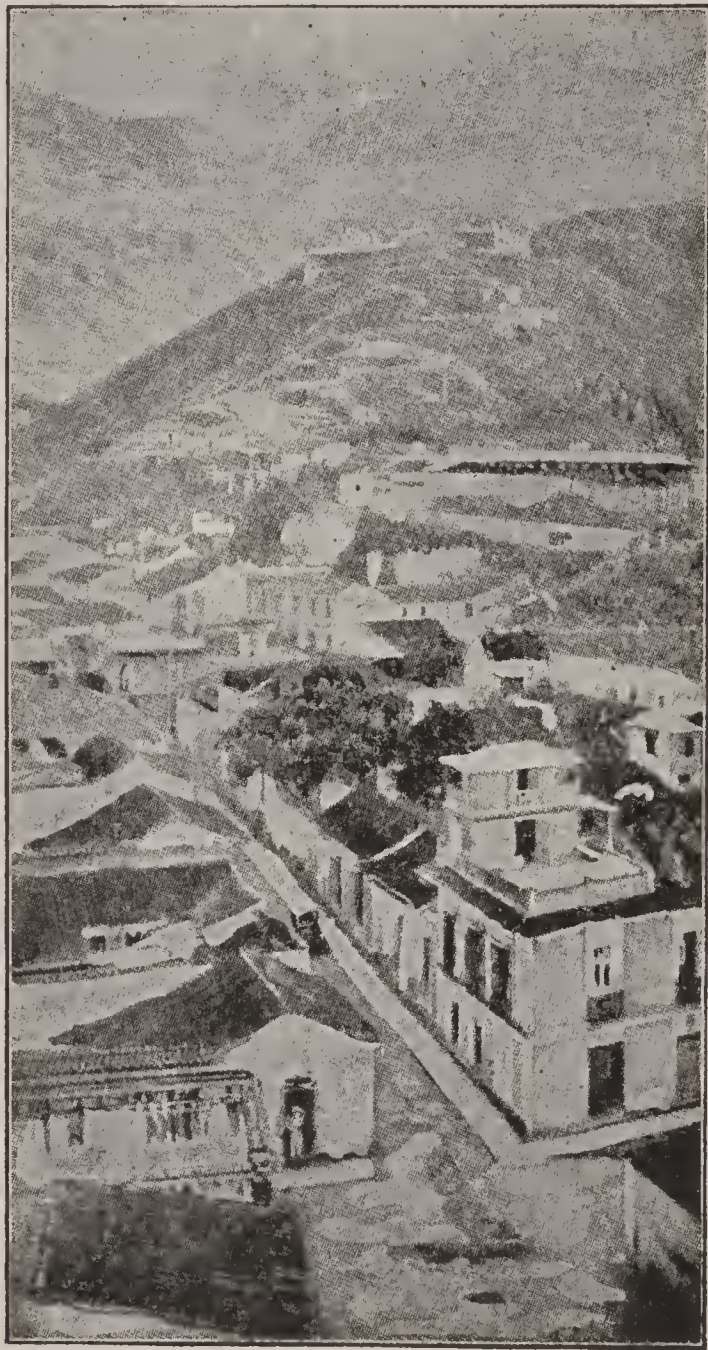
DIVISION VI

AMERICA

VENEZUELA

Revolt
and
Inde-
pendence

But the next century saw the beginning of troubles. The government insisted on all trade being carried on with Spain alone, and ultimately with only one city — first Seville, then, till 1778, Cadiz. Legitimate commerce dwindled away, and smuggling by the Dutch and English alone interfered to keep down the



LA GUAYRA

enormous prices of European goods. Only Spanish-born officials are appointed, and a hatred grew up between them, and the Creoles, which bore fruit in open violence. The first revolt occurred in 1749; other outbreaks kept the land in a ferment, until in 1810 the revolution began which ended in the independence of the country, and the withdrawal of the royal forces in 1821. Venezuela was united with Colombia and Ecuador; but these states soon fell away, and Venezuela was left to enjoy some years of comparative rest until 1847. Then followed twenty-three years of struggle between the "Yellows" and "Blues," or Liberals and Conservatives, 1866-70 being terrible for the bloody *guerra de cinco años*,

Destruc-
tive
War

which left the llanos ruined for years and the country's credit destroyed.

From 1870 to 1877 the "Illustrious American," General Guzman Blanco, was first dictator and then president, and did much to rescue the country from its embarrassments, resuming the service of the foreign debt, and patching up a quarrel with the Netherlands

by universal suffrage. There are twenty-four senators and fifty-two representatives. A revised constitution has been presented, June, 1891, by the two chambers to the legislative assemblies of the states for their consideration.

that had arisen over the old habit of smuggling. Again he held the reins of power in 1878–84 and in 1886–87; but actually he was dictator from 1870 to 1889, other presidents being merely figure-heads appointed by himself. In the latter year, however, the new president, Rojas Paul, broke with his patron, then residing in Paris as envoy and minister to all the European Powers; and rumors of corrupt contracts and the bribed surrender of Venezuelan claims raised such indignation against Blanco as drove his friends from office and elected another hostile president, Dr. Palacio, in the autumn. But love of office is perhaps more strongly developed in Venezuela than in any other land, and the dispossessed officials were eager for a return to power. Palacio, who entered on office a penniless lawyer, and proceeded industriously to enrich himself, played into their hands; public sentiment swung round to Blanco's party again; and in 1892, when Palacio, discounting the passage of a bill proposed by himself to extend the presidential term to four years, declined to resign, civil war broke out. The insurgents were victorious; but a great part of the republic was meanwhile reduced to a state of anarchy, and matters were further complicated by an unemployed general in August forming an independent league of five western states and proclaiming himself dictator.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 VENEZUELA

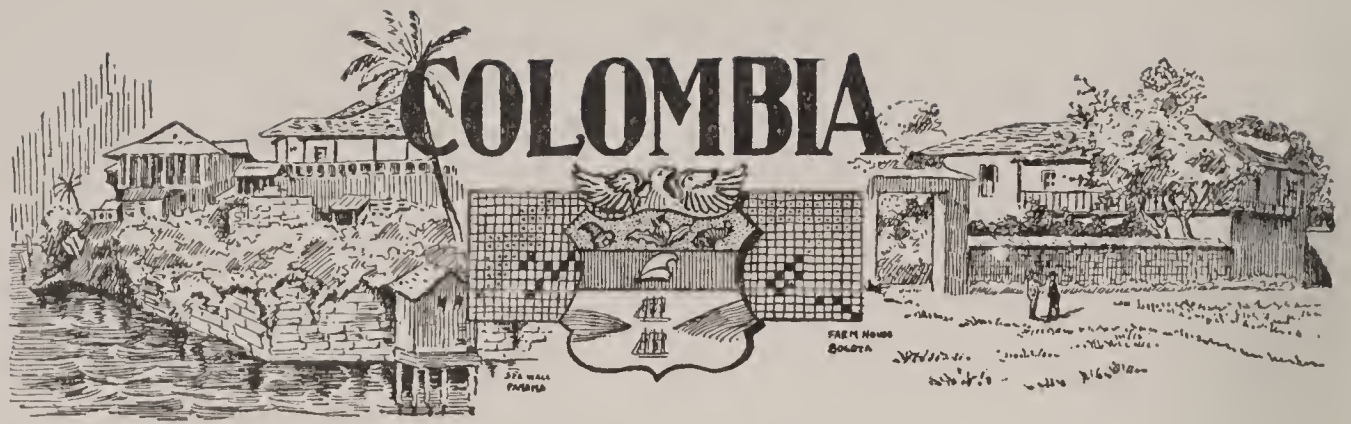
Love of
 Office

In 1885 a long standing dispute between Great Britain and the South American republic came to a crisis. The point in question was the boundary line between the territory of the two countries. For a detailed account of the controversy, consult Vol. IX, pp. 1638–54. Since the writing of that account, however, the following events have taken place: Lord Herschell, formerly Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain, and Justice Collins were appointed by the British government on the board of arbitration; the American representatives are Chief Justice Fuller and Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court; the fifth member, who will preside over the body, is Professor Martens of the University of St. Petersburg; the council for Venezuela are ex-President Benjamin Harrison and other distinguished American jurists.

Dispute
 with
 Great
 Britain

Arbitra-
 tion Com-
 mittee

March 1, 1899, Lord Herschell died while at Washington, D. C., and his place was immediately filled by the appointment of Lord Russell, of Killowen, Lord Chief Justice of England—formerly the great barrister and attorney-general. The board will meet at Paris in the latter part of May, 1899.



THE HISTORY OF COLOMBIA

[*Authorities:* See E. Reclus *Voyage à la Sierra-Nevada de Sainte-Marthe* (Paris, 1861); Colonel F. Hall, *Colombia* (Philadelphia, 1871); Esguerra, *Diccionario Geográfico de Colombia* (Bogotá, 1879); Pereira, *Les Etats-Unis de Colombie* (Paris, 1883); Perez, *Geografía General* (Bogotá, 1883); Etienne, *Nouvelle Grenade* (Geneva, 1887); Dr. W. Sievers, *Reise in der Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta* (Liep., 1887); and the same author's *Cordillere von Mérida* (Vienna, 1888) contains some notes on eastern Santander. See also the *Descripcion* published by the Colombian government in 1887, with the supplement on the trade with Spain, published at Barcelona in 1888; F. Bianconi's *Notice Descriptive et Carte Commerciale* (Paris, 1888); and *The Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



Explora-
tions by
Colum-
bus

Colony
Suffers
from
Spanish
Greed

COLOMBIA, is a republic occupying the northwest corner of the South American continent, and including also the Isthmus of Panama. The northern coasts of Colombia were visited by Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci in 1499, and afterward by Bastidas; in 1502 Columbus explored part of the country, and endeavored to found on the Isthmus of Panama the first Spanish colony on the American mainland. In 1513 Balboa discovered the Pacific, and Pizarro and Almagro sailed along the western coast of Colombia on their way to Peru in 1526. Ten years later Jimenez de Quesada broke the power of the Muyscan empire, and the Neuvo Reino de Granada was formed. As the country was opened up, the Indians sank, in spite of legislation designed for their protection, to the condition of serfs, and the policy of the crown, aided by the Inquisition,* which was introduced in 1571, put an end to the democratic institutions of the early settlers. The region was administered by the council of the Indies; nearly all posts were sold to Spanish speculators, who recouped themselves at the expense of the colonists; and even the commerce of the new possessions was granted as a monopoly to the merchants of Seville. The country formed a presidency

* See Vol. III, p. 1189.

(except during the years 1718-24) from 1564 to 1739, a period memorable for the disastrous descents of Drake, Morgan, Dampier, and others on the coast towns; it was then raised to a viceroyalty, which lasted until the war of independence.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 COLOMBIA

On July 20, 1810, the colony shook off the yoke of the mother-country, and entered upon the long struggle which ended in the election of Bolivar* to the presidency of the republic of Colombia, a term which, like the viceroyalty, embraced all that now belongs to Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador. Independently of the singular difficulties of communication, and of the resulting absence of anything like natural unity, this unwieldy state contained from the beginning the germs of its own dissolution in the national character of its inhabitants. So long as union was necessary to meet external dangers, it maintained an imposing attitude in the eyes of the world; but gradually sectional interests and political jealousies did their work, and in 1831 the ill-assorted elements of the confederation were separated forever.

**Euro-
 pean
 Domi-
 nancy
 Thrown
 Off**

What is now Colombia was then formed under the title of the Republic of New Granada; but in 1861 a fresh civil war led to the establishment of the United States of Colombia. In 1863 a constitution was adopted, based on that of the United States of America, with a president elected for two years; but this proved altogether unsuited to the Colombians, and, after twenty years' trial, brought about the revolution of 1884-85. In 1886 a new constitution† was adopted for the new republic of Colombia, placing the central authority in the strengthened hands of the federal government, and reducing the nine former self-governing states of Antioquia, Bolivar, Boyaca, Cauca, Cundinamarca, Magdalena, Panama, Santander, and Tolima to subordinate departments, which still, however, retain the management of their own finances.

**Civil
 War**

**Constitu-
 tion
 Changed**

* See Vol. IV, p. 1807.

† The executive authority is vested in a president, whose term is extended to six years, assisted by a vice-president, seven ministers, and a council of state; and the legislative power rests with a senate and house of representatives. Capital punishment has been again established, and the members of the supreme court of justice are made immovable. The strength of the army is fixed at 6,500 in time of peace, but in case of war the executive can raise this as circumstances may require.

**Govern-
 ment**



THE HISTORY OF GUIANA

[*Authorities*: British Guiana: R. H. Schomburgk, *Description of British Guiana* (1840), *Reizen in Guiana, 1835-39* (1841), Richard Schomburgk, *Reizen in Britisch-Guiana, 1840-44* (1848). Of Dutch Guiana: Palgrave, *Dutch Gu.* (1876); and Kappler, *Surinam* (1887). Of French Guiana, Rambaud, *La France Coloniale* (1886); Lanessan, *L'Expansion Coloniale de la France* (1886). *Annals of Guiana* (1888), by Redway and Watt; *Kaart van Guiana*, by W. L. Loth (Amsterdam, 1889); *Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



GUIANA originally included all the region lying between the Orinoco and the Amazon rivers, but the sections joining Venezuela and Brazil, and formerly known by their names, have been incorporated in those states, so that we now only consider the British, Dutch, and French dependencies. The three countries abut upon the Atlantic, in the order named.

The first Europeans to explore the coast of Guiana were Spaniards, in 1499-1500. Several attempts were made to found colonies in this region by adventurers from different European nations in the latter part of the sixteenth and the early part of the seventeenth centuries. To this period belong Raleigh's and the other expeditions which visited this part of South America in search of the fabulous gold city, El Dorado. The first successful colonization seems to have been made by the Dutch, on the Essequibo, shortly before 1613. The English were established in Surinam in 1650, and the French on the Kourou and Oyapock in 1664. Two years later the English seized both French and Dutch Guiana, but restored them in 1667, and at the same time handed over Surinam to the Netherlands in exchange for New Amsterdam—*i. e.*, New York. The French renewed their attempt to settle at Cayenne in 1674, and with success; that part of Guiana has been in their hands ever since. Except for two short periods the settlements on the Essequibo,

Early
Explora-
tions

Coloniza-
tion

Demerara and Berbice, and in Surinam, were held by the Dutch down to 1803, when they were again taken by the English, who, at the peace of 1814, restored the last named, but retained the others. Berbice was at first administered as a distinct colony, but in 1831 it was incorporated with the rest of British Guiana.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 GUIANA

In 1895 a boundary dispute occurred between British Guiana and Venezuela. In the United States there was a popular feeling that Great Britain was aiming to secure control of the mouth of the Orinoco by force without any legal claim. Feeling ran high regarding the matter, resulting in the early part of 1896 in President Cleveland's sending a message to Congress, in which he asserted anew the resolution of the United States to prevent any violation of the Monroe Doctrine. In November the matter was referred to an arbitration board consisting of two representatives of Great Britain, two of the United States, and a fifth to be selected by the king of Sweden.

Boundary
 Dispute

See "History of Venezuela."



THE HISTORY OF ECUADOR

[*Authorities* : Velasco, *Historia del Reino de Quito* (Quito, 1789; French by Ternaux-Compans, Paris, 1840); Humboldt, *Voyage aux Régions équinoxiales*, especially the "Vues des Cordillères"; Villavicencio, *Geografía de la República del Ecuador* (New York, 1858); Hassaurek, *Four Years among Spanish Americans* (London, 1868); Kolberg, *Nach Ecuador* (3d ed. Freiburg, 1885); Stübel, *Skizzen aus Ecuador* (Berlin, 1886) Simson *Travels in the Wilds of Ecuador* (London, 1887); Mr. Edward Whymper's paper in the *Proc. Roy. Geo. Soc.* (1881); Colonel Church's Report, and a paper in *Peterman's Mitteilungen* (1884); and the Report of the Minister of the Interior (Quito, 1888).]



Indefiniteness
of Limits

ECUADOR is a republic of South America, and is traversed by the equator, from which it takes its name. It is bounded on the west by the Pacific, and is inserted like a wedge between Colombia and Peru. Its only certain limits are those defined by the ocean, where it has a seaboard of about 400 miles. Most of the frontier east of the Andes has never been determined. In 1832, however, Colombia's claims to the plateau of Pasto were recognized, and since 1876 the same state has held the river Putumayo; the whole of the Marañon valley is occupied by Peru, and the actual possessions of Ecuador are now separated from those of Colombia on the northeast by the rivers Coca and Napo, while the little river Masan, a tributary of the Napo, is regarded as the Peruvian frontier.

Ancient
History

The territory of the present republic of Ecuador, when first it becomes dimly visible in the gray dawn of American history, appears to be inhabited by upward of fifty independent tribes, among which the Quitus seem to hold the most important position. About 280, A. D., a foreign tribe is said to have forced their way inland up the valley of the Esmeraldas; and the kingdom which they founded at Quito lasted for about 1,200 years, and was gradually extended, both by war and alliance, over many of the neighboring dominions. In 1460, during the reign of the four-

teenth Caran Shyri, or king of the Cara nation, Hualcopo Duchisela, the conquest of Quito was undertaken by Tupao Yupanqui, the inca of Peru; and his ambitious schemes were, not long after his death, successfully carried out by his son Huaina-Capac, who inflicted a decisive defeat on the Quitonians in the battle of Hantuntaqui, and secured his position by marrying Pacha, the daughter of the late Shyri. By his will the conqueror left the kingdom of Quito to Atahualpa as master both of Quito and Cuzco. The fortunate monarch, however, had not long to enjoy his success; for Pizarro and his Spaniards were already at the door, and by 1533 the fate of the country was sealed. As soon as the confusions and rivalries of the first occupation were suppressed, the recent kingdom of Quito was made a presidency of the Spanish viceroyalty of Peru, and no change of importance took place till 1710. In that year it was attached to the viceroyalty of Santa Fé; but it was restored to Peru in 1722. When, toward the close of the century, the desire for independence began to manifest itself throughout the Spanish colonies of South America, Quito did not remain altogether indifferent. The Quitonian doctor, Eugenio Espejo, and his fellow citizen, Don Juan Pio Montufar, entered into hearty co-operation with Narino and Zea, the leaders of the revolutionary movement at Santa Fé; and it was at Espejo's suggestion that the political association called the Escuela de Concordia was instituted at Quito. It was not till 1809, however, that the Quitonians made a real attempt to throw off the Spanish yoke; and both on that occasion and in 1812 the royal general succeeded in crushing the insurrection. In 1820 the people of Guayaquil took up the cry of liberty; and in spite of several defeats they continued the conquest, till at length, under Antonio José de Sucre, who had been sent to their assistance by Bolivar, and re-enforced by a Peruvian contingent under Anfrés de Santa Cruz, they gained a complete victory on May 22, 1822, in a battle fought on the side of Mount Pichincha, at a height of 10,200 feet above the sea. Two days after, the Spanish president of Quito, Don Melchor de Aymeric, capitulated, and the independence of the country was secured. A political union was at once effected with New Granada and Venezuela on the basis of the republican constitution instituted at Cucuta in July, 1821, the triple confederation taking the name of Colombia.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 ECUADOR

Native
 Govern-
 ment
 Con-
 quered by
 Pizarro

Desire for
 Inde-
 pendence

The
 Spanish
 Defeated

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

ECUADOR

An Independent
Republic
Pro-
claimed

Peace
with
Spain

A disagreement with Peru in 1828 resulted in the invasion of Ecuador and the temporary occupation of Cuenca and Guayaquil by Peruvian forces; but peace was restored in the following year after the Ecuadorian victory at Tarqui. In the early part of 1830 a separation was effected from the Colombian federation, and the country was proclaimed an independent republic. General Juan Jose Flores was the first president, and in spite of many difficulties, both domestic and foreign, he managed to maintain a powerful position in the state for about fifteen years. Succeeded in 1835 by Vicente Rocafuerte, he regained the presidency in 1839, and was elected for the third time in 1843; but shortly afterward he accepted the title of generalissimo and a sum of 20,000 pesos, and left the country to his rivals. One of the most important measures of his second presidency was the making of peace with Spain.

Roca, who next attained to power, effected a temporary settlement with Colombia, concluded a convention with England against the slave-trade, and made a commercial treaty with Belgium. Diego Noboa, elected in 1850 after a period of great confusion, recalled the Jesuits, produced a rupture with New Granada by receiving conservative refugees, and thus brought about his own deposition and exile. The democratic Urbina now became practically dictator, and as the attempt of Flores to reinstate Noboa proved a total failure, he was quickly succeeded in 1856 by General Francisco Robles, who, among other progressive measures, secured the adoption of the French system of coinage, weights, and measures. He abdicated in 1859 and left the country, after refusing to ratify the treaty with Peru.

General
Unrest

Retro-
grade Re-
ligious
and Edu-
cational
Measures

Dr. Gabriel Garcia Moreno, professor of chemistry, the recognized leader of the Conservative party at Quito, was ultimately elected by the national convention of 1861. Distrust in his policy, however, was excited by the publication of some of his private correspondence, in which he spoke favorably of a French protectorate, and the army which he sent under Flores to resist the encroachments of Mosquera, the president of New Granada, was completely routed. His first resignation in 1864 was refused; but the despotic acts by which he sought to establish a dictatorship only embittered his opponents, and in September, 1865, he retired from office. While he had endeavored to develop the material resources of the country, he had at the same time introduced retrograde measures

in regard to religion and education. The principal event in the short presidency of his successor Geronimo Carrion (May, 1865, to November, 1867) was the alliance with Chile and Peru against Spain, and the banishment of all Spanish subjects. Several important changes were made by congress in the period between his resignation and the election of Xavier Espinosa, January, 1868; the power of the president to imprison persons regarded as dangerous to public order was annulled; and the immediate naturalization of Bolivians, Chileans, Peruvians, and Colombians was authorized. Espinosa had hardly entered on his office when, in August, 1868, the country was visited by an earthquake, in which thirty thousand people are said to have perished throughout South America. The public buildings of Quito were laid in ruins; and Ibarra, Otavalo, Cotacachi, and several other towns were completely destroyed. Next year a revolution at Quito, under Moreno, brought Espinosa's presidency to a close; and though the national convention appointed Carvajal to the vacant office, Moreno succeeded in securing his own election in 1870 for a term of six years. His policy had undergone no alteration since 1865: the same persistent endeavor was made to establish a religious despotism, in which the supremacy of the president should be subordinate only to the higher supremacy of the clergy. The tyranny, however, came to a sudden end in August 14, 1875, when the president was assassinated in Quito, by three of his private enemies. The consequent election resulted in the appointment of Dr. Borrero who, in his address to congress, December, 1876, promised "to maintain, during the tenure of the responsible office to which he had never aspired, full political liberty and the freedom of the press."* An insurrection headed by Veintemilla, the military commandant of Guayaquil, had already broken out; and on December 14 the government forces under Aparicio were completely routed at Galte.

Owing to political complications a revolution was commenced in April of 1895 which, in September of the same year, resulted in the overthrow of the government. General Alfaro, the rebel leader, was chosen president of the republic.

* Under its last constitution the executive is vested in a president, elected for four years, with a vice-president, a cabinet of four ministers, and a council of state; the legislative power is entrusted to a senate and house of representatives. The state forms three military districts, containing seventeen provinces, which are administered by governors, and subdivided into cantons.

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

ECUADOR

Terrible
Earth-
quakeAssassi-
nation
of the
PresidentGovern-
ment



THE HISTORY OF PERU

[*Authorities:* For the history of the Incas and their civilization, see the works of Cieza de Leon, Molina, Balboa, Garcilasso de la Vega, and Acosta; also Rivero's *Antigüedades Peruanas* (with Von Tschudi, Vien., 1851), of which an English translation appeared afterward at New York; and the histories of Robertson, Lorente, Prescott, Helps, and the travels of D'Orbigny, Squier, Wiener, and Reiss, and Stübel. For the Conquest, see, besides Robertson, Prescott, and Helps, the narrative of Xeres, Pizarro's secretary (Eng. trans. Hakluyt Soc.), and the writings of Herrera, Gomara, Zarate, Pedro, Pizarro, and Fernandez. For the period of the viceroys, see Figueroa's *Life of the Marquis of Cañete*, the *Chronicle of Calancha*, and the *Memorias de los Vireyes*; also the more recent works of Don Ricardo Palmas, published at Lima, and Saldamando's *History of the Jesuits in Peru*. For the war with Chile, narratives from the Chilean point of view by Barros Arana and Mackenna, and from the Peruvian by Raz Soldan, and Markham's *History of the War between Peru and Chile* (1883). For the geography, the *Geografía del Peru*, by Paz Soldan, and the 3 vols. on Peru by Raimondi are important works. See also *The Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



PERU, in different periods, has included areas of territory of varying extent. The empire of the Incas and the Spanish viceroyalty were not continuous with the modern republic nor with each other. In writing the history of Peru, therefore, it is necessary to refer to events which took place beyond the existing limits of the country.

The republic of Peru is situated between the equator and the Tropic of Capricorn. It has an area of about 280,000 square miles. The length along the coast is 1,240 miles.

Ancient Ruins

Cyclopean ruins of vast edifices, apparently never completed, exist at Tiahuanaco, near the southern shore of Lake Titicaca. Remains of a similar character are found at Huaraz in the north of Peru, and at Cuzco, Ollantay-tambo, and Huinaque between Huaraz and Tiahuanaco. These works appear to have been erected by powerful sovereigns with unlimited command of labor, possibly with the object of giving employment to subjugated people, while

feeding the vanity or pleasing the taste of the conqueror. Their unfinished state seems to indicate the break-up of the government which conceived them, and which must have held sway over the whole of Peru, and the occurrence of Aymara words, especially in the names of places over the whole area, points to an Aymara origin for this lost and prehistoric empire. It is certain that for ages afterward the country was again broken up into many separate nations and tribes. Then the most civilized and the most powerful people, the Incas of Cuzco, and the Vilcamayu, began slowly to build up and cement together a later and more civilized empire. This great work, which probably occupied five centuries, was just completed when the Spaniards discovered Peru. The history of Inca civilization is yet to be written. Our knowledge even of the Spanish writers who collected information at the time of conquest is still very incomplete. Much that is essential for a correct appreciation of this interesting subject is still unedited and in manuscript. But, to comprehend it, a knowledge is also necessary of the people, of their country and languages. Without such qualifications for the task, the numerous traditions, customs, and beliefs can not be understood nor assigned to the particular epochs and nationalities to which each belonged. With our existing imperfect knowledge the subject can not be adequately treated without a detailed and critical examination of conflicting evidence, which would be foreign to the purpose of the present article.

The great Inca, Huayna Capac, died in 1527, the year when Pizarro first appeared on the coast. His consolidated empire extended from the river Ancasmayu north to Quito to the river Maule in the south of Chile. The Incas had an elaborate system of state-worship, with a ritual, and frequently recurring festivals. History and tradition were preserved by the bards, and dramas were enacted before the sovereign and his court. Roads with posthouses at intervals were made over the wildest mountain ranges and the bleakest deserts for hundreds of miles. A well-considered system of land-tenure and of colonization provided for the wants of all classes of the people. The administrative details of government were minutely and carefully organized, and accurate statistics were kept by means of the "quipus" or system of knots. The edifices displayed marvelous building skill, and their workmanship is unsurpassed. The world has nothing to show, in the way

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Their
Unfin-
ished
Condition

Incom-
pleteness
of Inca
History

Ancient
Empire

Skill of
Original
Inhabit-
ants

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of stone-cutting and fitting, to equal the skill and accuracy displayed in the Inca structures of Cuzco. As workers in metals and as potters they displayed infinite variety of design, though not of a high order, while as cultivators and engineers they in all respects excelled their European conquerors.

First
 Visit of
 Pizarro

The story of the conquest has been told by Prescott and Helps, who give ample references to original authorities; it will be sufficient here to enumerate the dates of the leading events. On the 10th of March, 1526, the contract for the conquest of Peru was signed by Almagro and Luque, Gaspar de Espinosa supplying the funds. In 1527 Francisco Pizarro, after enduring fearful hardships, first reached the coast of Peru at Tumbez. In the following year he went to Spain, and on the 26th of July, 1529, the capitulation with the crown for the conquest of Peru was executed. Pizarro sailed from San Lucar with his brothers in January, 1530, and landed at Tumbez in 1532. The civil war between Huascar and Atahualpa, the sons of Huayna Capac, had been fought out in the meanwhile, and the victorious Atahualpa was at Caxamarca on his way from Quito to Cuzco. On November 15, 1532, Francisco Pizarro with his little army entered Caxamarca, and in February, 1533, his colleague Almagro arrived with re-enforcements. The murder of the Inca Atahualpa was perpetrated on August 29, 1533, and on November 15 Pizarro entered Cuzco. He allowed the rightful heir to the empire, Manco, the legitimate son of Huayna Capac, to be solemnly crowned on March 24, 1534. Almagro then undertook an expedition to Chile, and Pizarro founded the city of Lima on January 18, 1535. In the following year the Incas made a brave attempt to expel the invaders, and closely besieged the Spaniards in Cuzco, during February and March. But Almagro, returning from Chile, raised the siege on the 18th of April, 1537. Immediately afterward the dispute arose between the Pizarros and Almagro as to the limits of their respective jurisdictions. An interview took place at Mala, on the sea-coast, on November 13, 1537, which led to no result, and Almagro was finally defeated in the battle of Las Salinas near Cuzco on April 26, 1538. His execution followed. His adherents recognized his young half-caste son, a gallant and noble youth generally known as Almagro the Lad, as his successor. Bitterly discontented, they conspired at Lima and assassinated Pizarro on the

Lima
 Founded

Pizarro
 Assassinated

26th of June, 1541. Meanwhile Vaca de Castro had been sent out by the emperor, and on hearing of the murder of Pizarro he assumed the title of governor of Peru. On September 16, 1542, he defeated the army of Almagro the Lad in the battle of Chupas near Guamanga. The ill-fated boy was beheaded at Cuzco.

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Charles V enacted the code known as the "New Laws" in 1541. "Encomiendas," or grants of estates on which the inhabitants were bound to pay tribute and give personal service to the grantee, were to pass to the crown on the death of the actual holder; a fixed sum was to be assessed as tribute; and forced personal service was forbidden. Blasco Nunez de Vela was sent out, as first viceroy of Peru, to enforce the "New Laws." Their promulgation aroused a storm among the conquerors. Gonzalo Pizarro rose in rebellion, and entered Lima October 28, 1544. The viceroy fled to Quito, but was followed, defeated, and killed at the battle of Anaquito on January 18, 1546. The "New Laws" were weakly revoked, and Pedro de la Gasca, as first president of the *Audiencia* (court of justice) of Peru, was sent out to restore order. He arrived in 1547, and on April 8, 1548, he routed the followers of Gonzalo Pizarro on the plain of Xaquixaguana near Cuzco. Gonzalo was executed on the field. La Gasca made a redistribution of "encomiendas" to the loyal conquerors, which caused great discontent, and left Peru before his scheme was made public in January, 1550. On the 23d of September, 1551, Don Antonio de Mendoza arrived as second viceroy, but died at Lima in the following July. The country was then ruled by the judges of the *Audiencia*, and a formidable insurrection broke out, headed by Francisco Hernandez Giron, with the object of maintaining the right of the conquerors to exact forced service from the Indians. In May, 1544, Giron defeated the army judges at Chuquina, but he was hopelessly routed at Pucara on October 11, 1554, captured and on the 7th of December executed at Lima.

Spanish
 Laws
 Resisted

Right to
 Indian
 Slavery
 Claimed

Don Andres Hurtado de Mendoza, marquis of Canete, entered Lima as third viceroy of Peru on the 6th of July, 1555, and ruled with an iron hand for six years. He at length brought the turbulent conquerors to their knees. All the leaders in former disturbances were put on board a ship at Callao and sent to Spain. Corregidores, or governors of district, were ordered to try summarily and execute every turbulent person within their jurisdiction. All

Turbu-
 lent
 Leaders
 Sent to
 Spain

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unemployed persons were sent on distant expeditions, and moderate "encomiendas" were granted to a few deserving officers. The previous anarchy was thus completely stamped out. At the same time the viceroy wisely came to an agreement with Sayri Tupac, the son and successor of the Inca Manco, and granted him a pension. He took great care to supply the natives with priests of good conduct, and promoted measures for the establishment of schools and the foundation of towns in the different provinces. The cultivation of wheat, vines, and olives, and European domestic animals were introduced. The next viceroy was Conde de Nieva (1561-64). His successor, the licentiate Lope Garcia de Castro, who only had the title of governor, ruled from 1564 to 1569. From this time there was a succession of viceroys until 1824. The viceroys were chief magistrates, but they were not supreme. In legal matters they had to consult the Audencia of Judges, in finance the Tribunal de Cuentas, in other branches of administration the Juntas de Gobierno and de Guerra.

Last
 of the
 Incas
 Cruelly
 Beheaded

Don Francisco de Toledo, the second son of the count of Oropesa, entered Lima as viceroy November 26, 1569. Fearing that the little court of the Inca Tupac Amaru (who had succeeded his brother Sayri Tupac) might become a formidable focus of rebellion, he sent troops to seize the young prince, and unjustly beheaded the last of the Incas in the Square of Cuzco in the year 1571. After a minute personal inspection of every province in Peru, he, with the experienced aid of the learned Polo de Ondegardo and the Judge Matienza, established the system under which the native population of Peru was ruled for the two succeeding centuries; and future viceroys referred to him as the great master of statesmanship who was their guide, and to his ordinances as their acknowledged text-book. His Libro de Tasos fixed the tribute to be paid by the Indians, exempting all men under eighteen and over fifty. He found it necessary, in order to secure efficient government, to revert in some measure to the system of the Incas. The people were to be directly governed by their native chiefs, whose duty was to collect the tribute and exercise magisterial functions. The chiefs, or "curacas," had subordinate native officials under them called "pichca-pachacas" over 500 men, and "pachacas" over 100 men. The office of curaca (or "cacique") was made hereditary, and its possessor enjoyed several privileges. Many curacas were descended

from the imperial family of the Incas, or from great nobles of the Incarial court. In addition to the tribute, which was in accordance with native usage, there was the "mita" or forced labor, in mines, farms, and manufactories. Toledo enacted that one seventh of the male population of a village should be subject to conscription for this service, but they were to be paid, and were not to be taken from beyond a specified distance from their homes.

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In their legislation the Spanish kings and viceroys showed a desire to protect the people from tyranny, but they were unable to prevent the rapacity and lawlessness of distant officials. The country was depopulated by illegal methods of enforcing the mita, and an air of sadness and desolation spread over the land. Toledo was succeeded in 1581 by Don Martin Henriquez, who died at Lima two years afterward. The subsequent history of the viceroyalty is well worthy of detailed attention of history in all countries possessing a colonial empire. The Spanish colonies suffered from the strict system of monopoly and protection, which was only slightly relaxed by the later Bourbon kings, and from the arbitrary proceedings of the Inquisition.* Between 1581 and 1776 as many as fifty-nine heretics were burned at Lima, and there were twenty-nine "autos," but the Inquisition affected Europeans rather than natives, for the Indians, as catechumens, were exempted from its terrors. The curacas sorrowfully watched the gradual extinction of their people by the operation of the mita, protesting from time to time against the exactions and cruelty of the Spaniards.

Lawless-
 ness and
 Oppres-
 sion

Protests
 against
 Spanish
 Cruelty

At length a descendant of the Incas, who assumed the name of Tupac Amaru, rose in rebellion in 1780. The insurrection lasted until July, 1783, and the cruel executions which followed its suppression failed to daunt the people. The death of Tupac Amaru shook the power of Spain and made it totter to its fall. From that time, both Indians and Peruvians of Spanish descent began to think for themselves, and to entertain ideas of liberty and progress. Tupac Amaru was followed by Dr. Pedro Jose Chavez de la Rosa, the Spanish bishop of Are-Quipa, and Dr. Toribio Rodriguez de Mendoza, rector of the university of San Carlos at Lima, whose pupils, among whom were the future republican statesmen, Drs. Luna Pizarro and Vijil, became ardent advocates of reform.

Ideas of
 Liberty

* Vol. III, p. 1189.

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Spanish Executions

When, on August 3, 1814, Mateo Garcia Pumacagua, a Peruvian chief, raised the cry of independence at Cuzco, he was joined by many Peruvians of Spanish descent, but was defeated in the battle of Umachiri (March 12, 1815), taken, and executed. At the same time the youthful and enthusiastic poet Melgar suffered death in the cause of his country.

Independence Proclaimed

First President Elected

Peru was the center of Spanish power, and the viceroy had his military strength concentrated at Lima. Consequently the more distant provinces, such as Chile and Buenos Ayres, were able to throw off the yoke first. But the destruction of the viceroy's power was essential to their continued independent existence. The conquest of the Peruvian coast must always depend on the command of the sea. A fleet of armed ships was fitted out at Valparaiso in Chile, under the command of Lord Cochrane and officered by Englishmen. It convoyed an army of Argentine troops, with some Chileans, under the command of the Argentine general, San Martin, which landed on the coast of Peru in September, 1820. San Martin was enthusiastically received, and the independence of Peru was proclaimed at Lima on his entrance, after the viceroy had withdrawn (July 28, 1821). On September 20, 1822, San Martin resigned the protectorate, with which he had been invested, saying that the "presence of a fortunate soldier is dangerous to a newly constituted state," and on the same day the first congress of Peru became the sovereign power of the state. After a short period of government by a committee of three, the congress elected Don Jose de la Riva Agüero to be first president of Peru on the 26th of February, 1823. He displayed great energy and capacity as an administrator, but the aid of the Colombians under Bolivar* was sought, and the native ruler was unwisely deposed. Bolivar arrived at Lima on the 1st of September, 1823, and began to organize an army to attack the Spanish viceroy in the interior. On August 6, 1824, the cavalry action of Junin was fought with the Spanish general Canterac, near the shores of the lake of Chinchaycocha. It was won by a gallant charge of the Peruvians under Colonel Suarez at the critical moment. Soon afterward Bolivar left the army to proceed to the coast, and the final battle of Ayacucho (December 9, 1824), with the viceroy and whole Spanish power, was fought by his second in command, General Sucre.

*See Vol. IV, p. 1807

The Spaniards were completely defeated. The viceroy and all his officers were taken prisoners, and Spanish power in Peru came to an end.

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General Bolivar showed that he was actuated by personal ambition; he intrigued to impose a constitution on Peru, with himself as president for life. He failed, and left the country on September 3, 1826, followed by all the Colombian troops in March, 1827. General Lamar, who commanded the Peruvians at Ayacucho, was elected president of Peru on the 24th of August, 1827, but was deposed, after waging a brief but disastrous war with Colombia, on June 7, 1829. General Gamarra, who had been in Spanish service, and was chief of the staff in the patriot army at Ayacucho, was elected third president on the 31st of August, 1829.

Bolivar's
 Intrigues

For fifteen years, from 1829 to 1844, Peru was painfully feeling her way to a right use of independence. The officers who fought at Ayacucho, and to whom the country felt natural gratitude, were all-powerful, and they had not learned to settle political differences in any other way than by the sword. From 1837 to 1839 there was a lawless and unprincipled intervention on the part of Chile which increased the confusion. Three men, during that period of probation, won a prominent place in their country's history, Generals Gamarra, Salaverry, and Santa Cruz. Gamarra, born at Cuzco in 1785, never accommodated himself to constitutional usages; too often he made his own will the law; but he attached to himself many loyal and devoted friends, and, with his faults, which were mainly faults of ignorance, he loved his country and sought its welfare according to his lights.

Political
 Confu-
 sion

Salaverry was a very different character. Born at Lima, in 1806, of pure Basque descent, he joined the patriot army before he was fifteen, and displayed his audacious valor in many a hard-fought battle. Feeling strongly the necessity that Peru had for repose, and the guilt of civil dissension, he wrote patriotic poems which became very popular. Yet he, too, could only see a remedy in violence. He seized the supreme power, and perished by an iniquitous sentence on the 18th of February, 1836. Andres Santa Cruz was an Indian statesman. His mother was a lady of high rank, of the family of the Incas, and he was very proud of his descent. Unsuccessful as a general in the field, he nevertheless possessed remarkable administrative ability, and for nearly three

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Three
 Constitu-
 tions

Troops
 Illegally
 Disperse
 Congress

Improve-
 ments

years (1836–1839) realized his lifelong dream of a Peru-Bolivian confederation. But Peruvian history is not confined to the hostilities of these military rulers. Three constitutions were framed, in 1828, 1833, and 1839. There were lawyers, statesmen, and orators who could defend the rights and liberties of the people. On November 7, 1832, Dr. Vijil, the deputy for Tacna, rose in his place in congress, and denounced the unconstitutional acts of President Gamarra in a memorable speech of great eloquence. Nor should a much humbler name ever be omitted in writing the history of republican Peru. Juan Rios, a private soldier, was sentry at the door of congress when Gamarra illegally sent his troops to disperse the members. He defended his post against two companies, and fell mortally wounded.

In 1844 General Ramon Castilla restored peace to Peru, and was elected constitutional president on April 20, 1845. Ten years of peace and increasing prosperity followed. In 1849 the regular payment of the interest of the public debt was commenced, steam communication was established along the Pacific coast, and a railroad was made from Lima to Callao. After a regular term of office of six years of peace and moral and material progress, Castilla resigned, and General Echinique was elected president. But the proceedings of Echinique's government in connection with consolidation of the internal debt was disapproved by the nation, and, after hostilities which lasted for six months, Castilla returned to power in January, 1855. From December, 1856, to March, 1858, he had to contend with and subdue a local insurrection headed by General Vivanco, but, with these two exceptions, there was peace in Peru from 1844 to 1879. The existing constitution was framed in 1856, and revised by a commission in 1860.* By its provisions slavery and the Indian tribute were abolished; the president is elected for four years, and there are two vice-presidents.

Govern-
 ment

* The congress consists of a senate and chamber of deputies. The senators are elected by departments and the deputies by the people, every 30,000 inhabitants having a representative. When congress is not sitting, there is a permanent commission of the legislature, elected at the end of each session, and consisting of seven senators and eight deputies. The chamber of deputies may accuse the president of infractions of the constitution, and the senate passes judgment. The president appoints the prefects of departments and subprefects of provinces; the prefects nominate the governors of the districts. In each province there is a judge; a superior court of justice sits at the capital of each department; and there is an appeal to the supreme court at Lima.

Castilla retired at the end of his term of office in 1862, and he died in 1868. On August 2, 1868, Colonel Balta was elected president. Before his time the public debt had been moderate, amounting to \$22,455,210, and the interest had been regularly paid since 1849. But Balta's government increased it to \$245,000,000, the payment of the interest of which from the ordinary revenues was simply impossible. The creditors, as security, had the whole of the guano and nitrate deposits assigned to them. With the vast sum thus raised President Balta commenced the execution of public works, principally railroads on a gigantic scale. His period of office was signalized by the opening of an international exhibition at Lima. He was succeeded (August 2, 1872) by Don Manuel Prado, an honest and enlightened statesman, who did all in his power to retrieve the country from the financial difficulty into which it had been brought by the reckless policy of his predecessor, but the conditions were not capable of solution. He regulated the Chinese immigration to the coast-valleys, which, from 1860 to 1872, had amounted to 58,606. He paid great attention to statistics, promoted the advance of education, and encouraged literature. He was the best president Peru has ever known, and his death in 1878 was a public calamity. On August 2, 1876, General Prado was elected, and he saw the commencement of that calamity which later overwhelmed his country.

On April 5, 1879, the republic of Chile declared war upon Peru, the alleged pretext being that Peru had made an offensive treaty, directed against Chile, with Bolivia, a country with which Chile had a dispute; but the publication of the text of this treaty made known the fact that it was strictly defensive, and contained no just cause of war. The true object of Chile was the conquest of the rich Peruvian province of Tarapaca, the appropriation of its valuable guano and nitrate deposits, and the spoliation of the rest of the Peruvian coast.

After the capture of the "Huascar" off Point Angamos on October 8, 1879, by two Chilean ironclads and four other vessels, the Peruvian coast was at the mercy of the invaders, and Tarapaca, surrounded by trackless deserts, yet open to the sea, though bravely defended for some time by the Peruvian army, fell into the hands of the enemy after the hotly contested battle of Tarapaca, on November 17, 1879.

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PERU

In-
creased
Public
Debt

Chinese
Immigra-
tion Re-
strained

Chile
Declares
a War
of Spolia-
tion

Peru at
Invaders'
Mercy

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Lima
TakenCessions
Made to
ChileRevolu-
tion

Chile then landed an army farther north, and on the 26th of May, 1880, the battle of Tacna was fought, followed by the capture of the port of Arica on June 7. In these combats the Peruvians lost one hundred and forty-seven officers alone. The possession of the sea enabled the Chilean ships to desolate the whole coast; and, the Peruvian army having been almost annihilated, only a force of volunteers and raw recruits could be assembled for the defense of the capital. After the two desperately contested battles of Chorrillos and Miraflores on the 13th and 15th of January, 1881, Lima was entered on the 17th, and was not evacuated by the invaders until October 22, 1883. During that period General Caceres, the hero of the defense, carried on a gallant but unequal struggle in the sierra. At last a provisional government, under General Iglesias, signed a treaty with the Chileans on October 20, 1883, by which the province of Tarapaca was ceded to the conquerors. Tacna and Arica were to be occupied by the Chileans for ten years, and then a vote by plebiscitum was to decide whether they were to belong to Peru or Chile; and there were clauses respecting the sales of guano; while all rights to the nitrate deposits, which were hypothecated to the creditors of Peru, the Chilean conquerors appropriated. This most disastrous war brought ruin and misery on the country, and threw Peru back for many years. The country contains the elements of recovery, but it will be a work of time. From May, 1895, until March, 1896, Peru was the scene of a revolution. The insurgents dissatisfied with the existing government carried on a more or less successful campaign, and in the end gained possession of Lima. The capture of the capital city brought the governmental party to terms, and with the aid of foreign intervention a new government was introduced. The present president is Señor Nicolas de Pierola.



THE HISTORY OF BOLIVIA

[*Authorities:* Bonelli, *Travels in Bolivia* (2 Vols. London, 1854); *Handbook of Bolivia*, Bulletin No. 55 of the Bureau of American Republics (Washington, 1892); Ford, *Tropical America*, 8 (London, 1893); Moreno, *Nociones de geografia de Bolivia* (Sucre, 1865); Rück, *Guia General de Bolivia* (Sucre, 1865); Weddell, *Voyage dans le Nord de la Bolivie* (Paris, 1853); Wiener, *Pérou et Bolivie* (Paris, 1880); and *The Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



BOLIVIA is a republic in the west central part of South America, formed in 1825, deriving its name from Bolivar.* The early history of that part of the empire of the Incas which now forms the Republic of Bolivia is so intimately connected with that of Peru, that the consideration of it is made under that chapter. This chapter is concerned chiefly with that period of its history which is more recent, and which has so materially influenced its present condition.

* Simon Bolivar (named *El Libertador* for having rescued South America from the Spanish yoke) was born in Caracas, in what is now Venezuela, July 24, 1783, and was descended from a noble and wealthy family. He studied law at Madrid, and visited several other capitals, witnessing in Paris the closing scenes of the Revolution. In 1801 he returned to Caracas, but on the death of his young wife he came to Europe again in 1804, and in 1809 visited the United States, from which he returned with the determination to free his country from foreign despotism. Arriving in Venezuela, he at once associated himself with the patriots there; and after the insurrection at Caracas in 1810, he was sent to London with a view to interest the British cabinet in their aims. The British government, however, declaring its neutrality, Bolivar speedily returned. On the declaration of independence by Venezuela on July 5, 1811, war was commenced by the Spaniards, and Bolivar fought under General Miranda in several successful engagements. The royalists having again obtained possession of Venezuela, Bolivar had to flee to Curacao; but in September, 1812, he joined the insurgents in New Granada, and driving the Spaniards back beyond the Magdalena, recrossed the frontier with a force of five hundred men, and proclaimed a war to the death. His army increased with each victory; and on August 4, 1813, he entered Caracas as a conqueror, and proclaimed himself dictator of western Venezuela. Fortune soon deserted the patriots, however; in June, 1814 they were routed

Bolivar

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

BOLIVIA

Tyranny
Toward
Peru-
vians

The Peruvians, ever since the conquest of their country by the Spaniards in the sixteenth century, have been subjected to a system of tyranny and oppression which has few parallels in the history of the universe. They were treated little better than beasts of burden. By their toil the gold and silver were obtained from the mines, the lands were cultivated, the flocks and herds were attended to, and all the domestic and menial offices

at Cura, and fifteen hundred slain. Bolivar was compelled to retire to Cartagena, and, after some further service in New Granada, to Kingston in Jamaica, where an assassin, hired by the Spaniards, tracked his steps, but by mistake murdered his secretary.

Having visited Haiti, and assembled there the insurgent refugees (1816), Bolivar twice landed in Venezuela; he was finally compelled to flee to Barcelona, and there formed a provisional government. The following two years were marked by a series of conflicts in which the scattered parties of patriots were most frequently beaten. In 1819 a congress was opened at Angostura, and Bolivar was confirmed in the supreme power. Having conducted his army over the almost impassable Cordilleras to New Granada, he achieved the victories of Tunja and Boyaca, and soon afterward declared New Granada united with Venezuela as a republic, under the name of Colombia. Nevertheless, although Bolivar had a force at least twice as large as Morillo, the dissensions of the patriots prevented any concerted action, and it was only in June, 1821, that the victory of Carabobo virtually ended the war in Venezuela; while it was not till July, 1824, that the royalist troops were finally driven out of the country. The constitution of Colombia was adopted on August 30, 1821, and Bolivar was chosen president.

In 1822 Bolivar added Ecuador to the republic, and was summoned to help the Peruvians. Bolivar was named dictator of Peru, from which possession also the Spaniards were driven, after more than two years' fighting. In 1825 Bolivar visited Upper Peru, the name of which was changed in his honor to Bolivia. A constitution prepared by him in 1826, at the request of the Bolivians, excited dissatisfaction and even alarm, chiefly on account of its proposal to entrust the executive power to a president for life, without responsibility, and with power to name his successor. In September he entrusted the government of Peru to a council appointed by himself, and returned to quell a disturbance in Venezuela. His personal influence prevailed, and he was re-elected president, in spite of his expressed unwillingness; but meantime in Peru his famous code had been renounced, and the Colombian troops had been expelled from Bolivia. His assumption of supreme power in August, 1828, roused the apprehension of the Republicans; the dread of a second Napoleon led to a conspiracy against his life; and in November, 1829, Venezuela separated itself from Colombia. In consequence, Bolivar laid down his authority in April, 1830, when the congress of Bogota, now largely made up of his enemies, voted him a pension of three thousand dollars, on condition of his residing abroad. He died at San Pedro, near Santa Marta, December 17, 1830.

The
Wash-
ington of
South
America

Bolivar has been described as the Washington of South America. The difficulties of the war of liberation compelled him to assume a dictator's power, but there is no proof that he was ever insincere in his devotion to liberty; and in the service of his country he not only gained no wealth, but freely spent his own large fortune. In 1842 his remains were removed with great pomp to Caracas, where a monument has been erected to his memory; statues have been raised to him at Bogota, Lima, and New York; and the Liberator's centenary was celebrated at Caracas with great enthusiasm in 1883, when sixteen foreign states were represented at the various functions, which extended over forty days.

performed. Yet the fruits of their labor, especially that of mining, which was attended with numerous privations, and often with great loss of life, were altogether devoted to enriching their oppressors.

One of their principal grievances was the mita, a compulsory kind of personal labor, either in the working of the mines or in the cultivation of the fields, exacted from the Indians generally for the space of one year. The pro-

prietors of mines and land to be worked or cultivated were privileged to claim as their undoubted right the personal services of the Indian population of the district surrounding that in which their property was situated. By the regulations of the mita a proportional number of the Indians of the district were annually chosen by lot for the purposes required; and some idea may be formed of the effects of such a regulation from the fact that 1,400 mines were registered in Peru alone, and that every mine which remained unworked a year and a day became the property of the first claimant. So much was the

labor of the mines dreaded by those persons on whom the lot fell, that they considered it as equivalent to a sentence of death, and made all their arrangements accordingly, carrying with them their wives and families to their new and dreaded place of abode. An estimate may be formed of the extent of this evil from 12,000 Indians having been annually required by the mita of Potosi alone; and it is calculated that in the mines of Peru no less than 8,285,000 Indians have perished in this manner. Besides the mita for the service of the mines, the Indians were also compelled to labor for their superiors on their estates and grazing farms, and in their manufactories.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BOLIVIA

The
 Mita



STATUE OF SIMON BOLIVAR

Slavery
 in Peruvian
 Mines

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

BOLIVIA

Iniquitous
Marriage
Law

The tribute exacted by the government from every Indian between the age of eighteen and fifty-five was a capitation tax of eight dollars. This was levied with the greatest rigor, and the official persons charged with its collection frequently committed great injustice in doing so,—obliging the Indians to commence these payments at fifteen, and continue them until seventy years of age, and putting the amount of tribute for the years before and after the legal period into their own pockets. In proof of the extent to which this evil was carried, and of the rapacity of the Spanish government, it may be stated that a law was enacted for the express purpose of augmenting the number of people liable to pay tribute. By it the Indians were obliged to marry, the men at the age of fifteen, the women at thirteen. The governor of each province was responsible to the government for the amount of the tribute, which was regulated by a census of the tributary Indians, taken every seven years; and in this many frauds were practised, the actual number being often underrated.

Systematic
Extortion

Besides all this, the Peruvian Indians were long subjected to another system of extortion no less grievous and unjust,—the law of *repartamiento*. This was originally established with the best intentions,—the governors or corregidores of the districts being entrusted with the charge of supplying the inhabitants under their care with such articles as they might require at a fair and equitable price. But the law, which had so plausible an origin, was shamefully abused; and it was made compulsory on the Indian population to purchase worthless articles at an extravagant price.

The constant and extensive operation of these demoralizing practices, although more immediately affecting the aboriginal population, could not fail to produce the most pernicious effects on the Creoles or descendants of the Spaniards; but, in addition to these causes of debasement, the latter were subjected to numerous oppressive laws, all tending to paralyze their advancement.

Agriculture and
Manufacture
Prohibited

The raising of those vegetable products which form the principal objects of culture in Spain, as articles of commerce, was strictly prohibited to the South Americans, however favorable the soil and climate of their native country might be for the production of them. No kind of manufacture of cloth or articles of clothing was permitted which could interfere with the commerce of old Spain, excepting only the coarse fabrics manufactured and worn by the

Indians. Even the valuable mines of mercury and iron found in South America were, in a great measure, hermetically sealed by prohibitory decrees, lest they might interfere with the traffic carried on by Spain in these articles. And, not only was the commerce of South America confined entirely to Spain, and prohibited with other nations, under the severest penalties, but the colonies were not permitted to have any commerce with each other.

The grievances under which they suffered at length exceeded even the powers of endurance possessed by the pacific Indians, and gave rise to the insurrection of 1780–81, led by the Inca Tupac Amaru, who spread fire and sword against everything Spanish from Cuzco to Jujay; twice the city of La Paz was besieged by a force of 20,000 Indians; and in the battle before that town Tupac Amaru was made prisoner, and put to death in the most barbarous manner by the Spaniards. The insurrection was finally put down in 1782, and with it ended the last power of the Incas. The aboriginal population, having failed in their arduous undertaking, after the destruction of great numbers of their nation, and finding their chains now riveted with double force, never again recovered their wonted energies. This accounts for the comparative indifference with which they viewed the rise and progress of the war of independence.

From the causes already stated, the war of independence was principally carried on, as regards Bolivia, by the resources of, and in concert with, the neighboring provinces of the Rio de la Plata and Peru, all of which had equal cause to avenge themselves on their oppressors, but were placed in circumstances somewhat more fortunate for accomplishing their purpose. When the patriots of Buenos Ayres had succeeded in liberating from the dominion of Spain the interior provinces of the Rio de la Plata, they turned their arms against their enemies who held Upper Peru. An almost uninterrupted warfare followed, from July, 1809, till August, 1825, with alternate successes on the side of the Spanish, or royalist, and the South American, or patriotic forces,—the scene of action lying chiefly between the Argentine provinces of Salta and Jujay and the shores of Lake Titicaca. The first movement of the war was the successful invasion of Upper Peru by the army of Buenos Ayres, under General Balcarce, which, after twice defeating the Spanish troops, was able to celebrate the first anniversary of independence near Lake Titicaca, in May, 1811.

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

BOLIVIA

Revolt

War
with
Spain

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BOLIVIA

Guerrilla
 Warfare

Soon, however, the patriot army, owing to the dissolute conduct and negligence of its leaders, became disorganized, and was attacked and defeated, in June, 1811, by the Spanish army under General Goyeneche, and driven back into Jujay. Four years of warfare, in which victory was alternately with the Spaniards and the patriots, was terminated in 1815 by the total rout of the latter in a battle which took place between Potosi and Oruro. To this succeeded a revolt of the Indians of the southern provinces of Peru, and the object being the independence of the whole country, it was joined by numerous creoles. This insurrection was, however, speedily put down by the royalists. In 1816 the Spanish general, Laserna, having been appointed commander-in-chief of Upper Peru, made an attempt to invade the Argentine provinces, intending to march on Buenos Ayres, but he was completely foiled in this by the activity of the irregular gaucho troops of Salta and Jujay, and was forced to retire. During this time and in the six succeeding years a guerrilla warfare was maintained by the patriots of Upper Peru, who had taken refuge in the mountains, chiefly of the province of Yungas, and who frequently harassed the royalist troops.

In June, 1823, the expedition of General Santa Cruz, prepared with great zeal and activity at Lima, marched in two divisions upon Upper Peru, and in the following months of July and August the whole country between La Paz and Oruro was occupied by his forces; but later, the indecision and want of judgment displayed by Santa Cruz allowed a retreat to be made before a smaller royalist army, and a severe storm converted their retreat into a precipitate flight, only a remnant of the expedition again reaching Lima. In 1824, after the great battle of Ayacucho, in Lower Peru, General Sucre, whose valor had contributed so much to the patriot success of that day, marched with a part of the victorious army into Upper Peru. On the news of the victory a universal rising of the patriots took place, and before Sucre had reached Oruro and Puno, in February, 1825, La Paz was already in their possession, and the royalist garrisons of several towns had gone over to their side. The Spanish general Olaneta, with a diminished army of two thousand men, was confined to the province of Potosi, where he held out till March, 1825, when he was mortally wounded in an action with some of his own revolted troops.

General Sucre was now invested with the supreme command in Upper Peru, until the requisite measures could be taken to establish in that country a regular and constitutional government. Deputies from the various provinces to the number of fifty-four were assembled at Chuquisaca, the capital, to decide upon the question proposed to them on the part of the government of the Argentine provinces, whether they would or would not remain separate from that country. In August, 1825, they decided this question, declaring it to be the national will that Upper Peru should in future constitute a distinct and independent nation. This assembly continued their session, although the primary object of their meeting had thus been accomplished, and afterward gave the name of Bolivia to the country,—issuing at the same time a formal declaration of independence.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BOLIVIA

Declara-
 tion of
 Inde-
 pendence

The first general assembly of deputies of Bolivia dissolved itself on October 6, 1825, and a new congress was summoned and formally installed at Chuquisaca on May 25, 1826, to take into consideration the constitution prepared by Bolivar for the new republic. A favorable report was made to that body by a committee appointed to examine it, on which it was approved by the congress, and declared to be the constitution of the republic; and as such it was sworn to by the people. General Sucre was chosen president for life, according to the constitution, but only accepted the appointment for the space of two years, and on the express condition that 2,000 Colombian troops should be permitted to remain with him.

The independence of the country, so dearly bought, did not, however, secure for it a peaceful future. Repeated risings occurred, till in the end of 1827 General Sucre and his Colombian troops were driven from La Paz. A new congress was formed at Chuquisaca in April, 1828, which modified the constitution given by Bolivar, and chose Marshal Santa Cruz for president; but only a year later a revolution, led by General Blanco, threw the country into disorder, and for a time overturned the government. Quiet being again restored in 1831, Santa Cruz promulgated the code of laws which bore his name, and brought the financial affairs of the country into some order; he also concluded a treaty of commerce with Peru, and for several years Bolivia remained in peace. In 1835, when a struggle for the chief power had made two factions

Period
 of Revo-
 lutions

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BOLIVIA

Chile
 Prevents
 Invasion
 of Peru

in the neighboring republic of Peru, Santa Cruz was induced to take a part in the contest; he marched into that country, and after defeating General Gamarra, the leader of one of the opposing parties, completed the pacification of Peru in the spring of 1836, named himself its protector, and had in view a confederation of the two countries. At this juncture the government of Chile interfered actively, and espousing the cause of Gamarra, sent troops into Peru. Three years of fighting ensued, till in a battle at Jungay in June, 1839, Santa Cruz was defeated and exiled, Gamarra became president of Peru, and General Velasco provisional chief in Bolivia. The Santa Cruz party, however, remained strong in Bolivia, and soon revolted successfully against the new head of the government, ultimately installing General Ballivan in power.

Ballivan remained in the presidency till 1848, when he retired to Valparaiso, and in the end of that year Belzu, after leading a successful military revolution, took the chief power, and during his presidency endeavored to promote agriculture, industry, and trade. General Jorge Cordova succeeded him, but had not been long in office when a new revolt, in September, 1857, originating with the garrison of Oruro, spread over the land, and compelled him to quit the country. His place was taken by Dr. Jose Maria Linares, the originator of the revolution, who, taking into his hands all the powers of government, and acting with the greatest severity, caused himself to be proclaimed dictator in March, 1858. Fresh disturbances led to the deposition of Linares in 1861, when Dr. Maria de Acha was chosen president. In 1862 a treaty of peace and commerce with the United States of North America was ratified, and in the following year a similar treaty was concluded with Belgium; but new causes of disagreement with Chile had arisen in the discovery of rich beds of guano on the eastern coast-land of the desert of Atacama, which threatened warfare, and were only set at rest by the treaty of August, 1866, in which the twenty-fourth parallel of latitude was adopted as the boundary between the two republics. A new military revolution, led by Maria Melgarejo, broke out in 1865, and in February of that year the troops of President Acha were defeated in a battle near Potosi, when Melgarejo took the dominion of the country. After defeating two revolutions in 1865 and 1866, the new president declared a political amnesty, and in 1869, he became dictator till 1871.

Treaty
 with
 United
 States

In 1879 Chile laid claim to the rich Bolivian nitrate region, and to enforce her demands declared war. Peru came to the help of Bolivia, but the Chileans were successful against the allied forces. Bolivia was forced to cede to Chile the sea-bordering province of Atacama and to pay an indemnity. In this manner cut off from external trade Bolivia made rapid internal development, and soon was in a better financial condition than her more successful rival republics.* In 1888 Don Aniceto Arce was elected president, and in the same year there was an uprising of some 8,000 Indians in the territory south of La Paz.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 BOLIVIA
 War
 Declared

In 1890 a prominent Bolivian soldier, General Comacho, who had become dissatisfied with the existing government, led a number of political uprisings which were promptly suppressed. In return for Bolivia's prompt recognition of the belligerent rights of the successful congressional party of Chile a commercial treaty was negotiated in 1891 whereby Bolivian imports entered Chilean ports "duty free." The elections of 1892 were so ardently contested and resulted in so much rioting that General Comacho, the defeated candidate, was banished. By the terms of a treaty concluded with Chile in February, 1893, Bolivia gained a port on the Pacific Ocean, and assistance in the equipping and officering of her army; in return Bolivia severed all political connection with Peru, and became subservient to Chile in both political and commercial matters. Under the presidency of Severo Fernandez Alonso the republic entered into a compact (May, 1896) with Chile, providing for the arbitration of all future misunderstandings arising between the two governments.

Unsuccessful
 Candidate Ban-
 ished

Treaty
 with
 Chile

* The constitution of the republic of Bolivia bears date of October 28, 1880. By its provisions the executive power is vested in a president, elected for a term of four years by direct popular vote, and not eligible for re-election at the expiration of his term of office. The legislative authority rests with a congress of two chambers, called the Senate, and the Chamber of Deputies. Suffrage is possessed by all who can read and write. There are eighteen senators elected for six years, and sixty-four deputies elected for four years. There are two vice-presidents, and a ministry divided into five departments—Foreign Relations and Worship, Finance and Industry, Government and Colonization, Justice and Public Instruction, and War. The supreme political, administrative, and military authority in each department is vested in a prefect. The republic is divided into nine departments, fifty-two provinces, and three hundred and seventy-four cantons, administered respectively by prefects, sub-prefects, and corregidors. The capital of each province has its municipal council.

Constitu-
 tion and
 Govern-
 ment



THE HISTORY OF PARAGUAY

[*Authorities:* See Histories of Paraguay by Demersay (Paris, 1865) and Washburn (Boston, 1870); Daire, *Letters from Paraguay* (1805); Robertson, *Francia's Reign of Terror* (1840); Du Graty, *La République du Paraguay* (Brussels, 1861); Burton *Battle-fields of Paraguay* (1869); Martinez, *El Paraguay* (Asuncion, 1885); Knight, *Cruise of the Falcon* (1887); Criado (trans. by Winsweiler), *La République du Paraguay* (Bordeaux, 1889); La Dardye, *Le Paraguay* (Paris, 1889); Vincent, *Around and About South America* (1890); and *The Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



PARAGUAY, an inland republic of South America, is divided into two distinct portions by the Paraguay River. Eastern Paraguay, or Paraguay proper, is a well-defined territory, nearly in the shape of a parallelogram. Western Paraguay, or the Chaco, is a quadrilateral, of which one side is formed by the river Paraguay between the mouth of the Pilcomayo, and that of the Rio Negro. On the west the only definition of a boundary is a line of separation between the Chaco and Bolivia, which has never yet been geographically determined.

First
Colony

The history of Paraguay is highly interesting. It was discovered by Juan Diaz de Solis in 1515, and further explored by Diego Garcia in 1525, and by Sebastian Cabot in 1526; but the first colony was settled in 1535 by Pedro de Mendoza, who founded the city of Asuncion, and established Paraguay as a province of the viceroyalty of Peru. The warlike native tribe of the Guaranis, however, a people who possessed a certain degree of civilization, and professed a dualistic religion, long successfully resisted the Spanish arms, and refused to receive either the religion or the social usages of the invaders. In the latter half of the sixteenth century the Jesuit missionaries were sent to the aid of the first preachers of Christianity in Paraguay; but for a long time they were almost entirely unsuccessful, the effect of their preaching being in a great

degree marred by the profligate and cruel conduct of the Spanish adventurers, who formed the staple of the early colonial population.

In the seventeenth century the home government consented to place in the Jesuits' hands the entire administration, civil as well as religious, of the province, which, from its not possessing any of the precious metals, was of little value as a source of revenue; and, in order to guard the natives against the evil influences of the bad example of European Christians, gave to the Jesuits the right to exclude all other Europeans from the colony. From this time forward the progress of civilization as well as of Christianity was rapid. On the expulsion of the Jesuits from Paraguay in 1768, the history of which is involved in much controversy, the province was again made subject to the Spanish viceroys. For a time the fruits of the older civilization maintained themselves; but as the ancient organization fell to the ground, a great part of the work of so many years was undone, and by degrees much of the old barbarism returned.

In 1776 Paraguay was transferred to the newly formed viceroyalty of Rio de La Plata; and in 1810 it joined with the other states in declaring its independence of the mother-kingdom of Spain. Owing to its isolated position, it was the earliest of them all to establish completely its independence. In 1814 Dr. Francia, originally a lawyer, and the secretary of the first revolutionary junta, was proclaimed dictator for three years; and in 1817 his term of office was made perpetual. He continued to hold it till his death in 1840, when anarchy ensued for two years; but in 1842 a national congress elected Don Mariano R. Alonzo and Don Carlos Antonia Lopez, a nephew of the dictator, joint consuls of the republic. In 1844 a new constitution was proclaimed, and Don Carlos was elected sole president, with dictatorial power, which he exercised till his death in 1862, when he was succeeded by his son, Don Francisco Salano Lopez, whose name has become notorious in connection with the tragic struggle of 1865-70, in which the Paraguayans made a heroic but unavailing fight against the combined forces of Brazil, the Argentine Confederation, and Uruguay. The war was brought to a close by the defeat and death of Lopez at the battle of Aquidaban, March 1, 1870. The results of the war may be read in the returns of the population — (1857) 1,337,439; (1873) 221,079, including only 28,746 men, and 106,254 women over fif-

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 PARAGUAY

Jesuitical
 Control

Inde-
 pendence
 Declared

Results
 of War

DIVISION VI
AMERICA
PARAGUAY

teen years of age. The sexes are now, however, again nearly equally balanced.

Paraguay has had its share of the general emigration of recent years from Europe to South America; and in every way the country has made considerable progress. In June, 1870, a congress voted a new constitution, which was proclaimed on November 25. It is modeled on that of the Argentine Confederation, the legislative authority being vested in a congress of two houses, and the executive in a president, elected for four years.



WATER CARRIER



THE HISTORY OF URUGUAY

[*Authorities* : *The Statesman's Year-Book* (for 1899); *Mulhall's Handbook of the River Plate*, and *Levey's Handy Guide to the River Plate* (2d ed. 1890); *Diaz, Notice Historique* (Paris, 1878); *Van Bruyssel, La République Orientale de l' Uruguay* (Brussels, 1889); also histories by F. Banza (Spanish period; Monte Video, 1880) and De Maria (ib. 1864). *The Purple Land that England Lost*, by W. H. Hudson (1885), is readable, and gives a picture of the country in the period after Rosas.]



URUGUAY is the smallest of the South American republics, although its area—72,110 square miles—exceeds that of the New England states and Maryland together. It is officially known as the República Oriental del Uruguay formerly known as the Banda Oriental, or Eastern Bank, that is, of the Uruguay. Its general outline is that of a pear, the sides marked by the Uruguay River and the rivers and chain of hills which, with the Lagoa Mirim, form the boundary line with Brazil. The Atlantic washes its shores for one hundred and twenty miles, the La Plata and Uruguay for nearly six hundred miles.

Outline

The history of the Plata states is woven of the same materials, mostly in the same colors and patterns, and largely in one piece. Uruguay is mainly distinguished as a bone of contention in its earliest years between the Portuguese and Spaniards, and afterward between Brazil and Argentina. The Portuguese founded the town of Colonia, opposite Buenos Ayres, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, when the king of Spain, to protect the trade of Peru, had limited the Buenos Ayres exports to 16,000 bushels of wheat, and 25 tons each of salted beef and of tallow; and by this means much contraband trade was drawn off to Brazil, until 1724 the governor of Buenos Ayres founded Monte Video to checkmate the Portuguese colonists. This city was carried by

Monte
Video
Founded

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 URUGUAY

Inde-
 pendence
 Recog-
 nized

Misgov-
 ernment

assault by General Whitelocke in 1807, but evacuated after his defeat at Buenos Ayres; and, during the years of revolt from the mother country, the royal forces held it until 1814, in which year Uruguay was recognized by the congress of Tucuman as independent. Brazil, however, had at once after the Spanish evacuation seized on Monte Video, and occupied the country as the Cisplatine Province until 1825. Then Argentina, resenting this occupation, laid claim to the territory, and in the war which followed, aided by the Uruguayans, defeated both the Brazilian army and navy, till in 1828 the two powers agreed to guarantee the independence of the little republic. But its proximity to Buenos Ayres made it too easy and popular a refuge from the tyranny of the dictator Rosas, and drew down upon it his vengeance. In the long wars which followed 1839, the chief event is the more than eight years' siege desperately but successfully endured by Monte Video, to whose aid came Garibaldi. Rosas fled in 1852, and in the next eight years Uruguay enjoyed eight changes of governors. Then Brazil intervened and placed General Flores at the head of affairs; and from 1864 to 1870 the republic joined with Brazil and Argentina in the disastrous war against Paraguay, Flores being assassinated in 1868. For nearly twenty years the republic was misgoverned by a succession of political gangs who shamelessly plundered it during their more or less brief periods of power.*

On the assassination of Señor Idiarte Borda, August 25, 1897, Señor Juan L. Cuestas, formerly vice-president, assumed the duties of president, being duly elected March 1, 1899.

Constitu-
 tion and
 Govern-
 ment

* The constitution of the republic was sworn July 18, 1830. By its terms the legislative power is vested in a parliament composed of two houses, the senate, and the chamber of representatives, which meet in annual session, extending from February 15 to July 15. In the interval of the session, a permanent committee of two senators and five members of the lower house assume the legislative power, as well as the general control of the administration. The representatives are chosen for three years, in the proportion of one to every three thousand male adults who can read and write. The senators are chosen by an electoral college whose members are directly elected by the people. There is one senator for each department, chosen for six years, one third retiring every two years. The executive is given by the constitution to the president of the republic, elected for a term of four years.



THE HISTORY OF CHILE

[*Authorities:* See Sir Horace Rumbold, *Le Chili* (Paris, 1877); Robiano, *Chili* (Paris, 1882); Ochsenius, *Chile, Land und Leute* (Leip., 1884); Boyd, *Chile and the Chileans during the War* (1881); Clements R. Markham, *The War between Chile and Peru* (1883); Lord Cochrane, *Concerning Chile*, in the *Fortnightly Review* (1884); the *Historia General* by Arana (Valparaiso, 4 vols., 1863), and that by Rosales (1878); also *The Statesman's Year Book* (1899).]



CHILE, one of the republics of South America, is situated on the west coast, and consists of a long strip of territory lying between the summit of the Andes and the Pacific Ocean, extending from about the eighteenth parallel of south latitude to the southern extremity of Tierra del Fuego. By recent treaties the territory of Chile has been considerably extended. After the war with Bolivia and Peru (1879-81), Chile acquired the coast between 23 and 25 degrees south claimed by Bolivia, and annexed the Peruvian province of Tarapaca. In the south the disputed claims of Chile and Argentina to Patagonia were settled by Chile taking all territory and islands south of the 52d parallel and west of 68° 30' W. This included the larger portion of Tierra del Fuego. The Strait of Magellan is by treaty considered neutral.

The name Chile is supposed to be derived from an ancient Peruvian word signifying "snow." The northern portion, as far as the river Maule, formed part of the dominions of the Incas of Peru. The southern was held by the valiant Araucanians, the only aboriginal race which was not subdued by the Spaniards, and which, until a few years ago, maintained their independence against the Chileans.*

Location
and
Extent

* The constitution of Chile is republican and based upon that of the United States. Every citizen is entitled to a vote who can read and write, and prove that he earns \$150 or upwards a year, and is twenty-one years of age if married, or twenty-five if single. The president is appointed by a body of electors chosen by the people. His term of office is five years, and his salary \$18,000 per annum. The cabinet consists of six ministers; viz.,

Constitu-
tion and
Govern-
ment

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

CHILE

Landing
of Magel-
lan

The first European to land in Chile was the Portuguese discoverer Magellan, after his famous voyage through the strait which now bears his name. He landed at Chile in 1520. After the conquest of Peru by Pizarro, an expedition was made to Chile from that country overland under the leadership of Diego de Almagro in 1535. The expedition penetrated as far as the Rio Clano, but returned unsuccessful. Another was sent under command of Pedro Valdivia in 1540, which succeeded in annexing the territory as far as the river Maipu. Santiago, the capital, was founded by Valdivia in 1542. During the colonial period the governors of Chile were appointed by the viceroys of Peru. In 1810 a revolt against the Spanish power broke out, in which Don Bernardo O'Higgins, son of one of the last viceroys of Peru, but a native of Chile, played a conspicuous part, and finally became the first dictator of the new republic. The conflict between the Spanish troops and the republican army continued until 1826, when peace was definitely settled, and Chile left to govern itself.

Inde-
pendence
Gained

The first constitutional president was General Blanco Encalada. The government was unsettled until 1847. A revolution broke out in 1851, but since then there has been no serious attempt to overturn the government by force of arms. In 1864 Chile gave Peru very valuable support in her war with Spain. Valparaiso was bombarded by the Spaniards in 1866. In 1879 Chile declared war against Bolivia, and immediately thereafter against Peru, with which Bolivia was allied. For a time the Peruvian fleet kept the Chileans in check, but in August, 1879, the Peruvian ironclad Huascar, was captured by the Chilean men-of-war, Cochrane and Blanco Escalada, both armor-plated. After this event the success of the Chileans was uninterrupted. Peruvian towns were bombarded, and their other war-ships captured. Finally Lima was

War
with
Peru

of Finance, the Interior, Foreign Affairs, War, Commerce and Public Works, and of Justice, Public Worship, and Instruction. The Council of State consists of five members nominated by the president, and six appointed by congress. The legislature is composed of two chambers; viz., the Deputies, about 100 in number, being in proportion of one to 20,000 inhabitants; and the Senate, numbering one to every five deputies. Deputies must have an income of at least \$500, and senators of \$2,000. The elections are conducted with considerable fairness, but as a majority of the representatives chosen have come from the ranks of a few leading families, Chile has been well described as "an aristocratic republic." This state of affairs, however, has brought excellent results, as the Chilean government has long had a deservedly high reputation for ability and integrity.

taken by storm, June 21, 1881. The Chileans occupied Lima and Callao until October 30, 1883, when a treaty of peace was signed. By this a portion of Peruvian territory was ceded to Chile.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 CHILE

During the year 1891 a very bloody civil war was waged between the congress of that republic and President José Manuel Balmaceda, a dictator whose arbitrary and despotic rule had at last caused his people to revolt. The Chilean congress, and the people were trying to displace the one-man form of government and reassert popular rights in its place. Nearly four fifths of the total people were on the side of the congress, while a large portion of the army supported the president. The navy was from the first in the hands of the revolutionists. At the beginning of the war, the cities of Santiago and Valparaiso, the capital and chief port of the republic, were held by Balmaceda while the congressional forces controlled the country both to the north and the south. In this stretch of country lay the rich nitrate deposits, and the revolted used the cash derived from the sale of the nitrate in the purchase of arms and ammunition. Balmaceda seized the silver in the national treasury at Santiago, and was thus enabled to pay the European contractors who had furnished him with supplies.

Civil
 War

From the 5th of January, when the congress issued its proclamation against the president, until the fall of Santiago on August 30th, there was a series of battles the major part of which were won by the insurgents. Among the more important of these conflicts were the capture by the congressional fleet of Iquique, February 6, 1891, in which more than two hundred women and children were killed and the business part of the city burned, the recapture of Pisagua by the Balmacedist troops later in the month, a meeting which caused the death of one hundred congressional soldiers of which number eighteen officers were shot in cold blood. April 18, 1891, was the date of a decisive naval engagement off Valparaiso during which an armed tug belonging to the Balmacedist party was blown up, and her crew drowned. The *Itata*, a congressional transport which had been seized at San Diego, California, on the charge of violating the neutrality laws which the United States had laid down early in the year, escaped the diligence of the officials at that port and put to sea May, 1891. She was pursued by the United States cruiser *Charleston* and finally surrendered to the United States consul at Iquique, June, 1891.

Massacre
 of
 Women
 and
 Children

The
 "Itata"
 Incident

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

CHILE

The
President
SuicidesAmerican
Sailors
Killed

From the 20th to the 28th of August there was a week of fierce fighting in the neighborhood of Valparaiso. The congressional force of eight thousand men under the veteran General Canto was armed with modern rifles, and so were enabled to hold their own against the army of the president, whose troops outnumbered the besiegers two to one, but were not supplied with as new and effective means of fighting. The losses on both sides were heavy, but the rebels were victorious in the end, and on the 28th of August entered the city. This proved the fall of the dictator's power, his army was disorganized, his ablest generals killed, and his capital city in the hands of the enemy. The Balmacedist refugees found safety on the German and American war-ships which were lying in the harbor while Balmaceda himself attempted to cross the Andes into the Argentine Republic, but was prevented from so doing, and in despair committed suicide in Santiago, September 20, 1891. A great deal of hostility was shown at about this time to the representatives of the United States by the victorious party. The common belief and report was that the Americans in Chile had secretly given aid to the Balmacedists, and this belief was strengthened by the American minister's action in making the American legation in Santiago a place of safety for the refugees of the defeated party. On October 16, 1891, the trouble culminated in a riot at Valparaiso in which two of a party of American sailors were killed. After several months negotiations, during which at one time the Chileans assumed a very warlike aspect, the dispute was settled and Chile paid an indemnity to the families of the victims of the mob (January, 1892). In the elections following the close of the war both the senate and chamber of deputies had strong liberal majorities. June 11, 1896, Señor Errazuriz was elected president of the republic.



Argentine Republic

THE HISTORY OF ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

[*Authorities:* See Mulhall, *Handbook of the River La Plata* (1884); M. F. Paz Soldan, *Geografia Argentina* (1885); Lady F. Dixie, *Across Patagonia* (1880); G. Bove, *Patagonia Terra del Fuoco* (1893); and the recent British and American *Consular Reports*, some of which are full of important and interesting information, also the *Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



ARGENTINE REPUBLIC occupies the southern taper of South America except the small Chilean strip on the Pacific coast. The total area comprises about 1,125,000 square miles, arranged in four great natural divisions: (1) the Andine region; (2) the Pampas; (3) the Argentine Mesopotamia; between the rivers Parana and Uruguay; and (4) Patagonia, including the eastern half of Terra del Fuego.

The first Europeans who visited the River La Plata were a party of Spanish explorers in search of a southwest passage to the East Indies. Their leader, Juan de Solis, landed, in 1516, with a few attendants, on the north coast between Maldonado and Monte Video, where, according to Southey, they were treacherously killed, and then cooked and eaten by the Charrua Indians in sight of their companions on board the vessels. The survivors at once abandoned the country and returned to Spain, reporting the discovery of a fresh-water sea. In 1519 Magellan, in the service of the king of Portugal, entered this fresh-water sea, or Mar Dulco, as it was then called, but finding no passage to the west, he left it without landing, and then achieved his famous voyage to the East Indies, passing through the strait which bears his name in 1520. After this, Sebastian Cabot, already a renowned navigator, who, in the service of Henry VII of England, had attempted to find a north-west passage to the East Indies, entered the service of Charles I of Spain, and sailed in command of an expedition fitted out for

Explorers
Killed by
Canni-
bals

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

ARGENTINE
REPUBLICA Colony
Estab-
lished

the purpose of colonizing the discoveries of Magellan in the East Indies. He, however, entered the River La Plata in 1527, and anchored off the present site of the City of Buenos Ayres. He then ascended the Paraná, and established a settlement, named San Espirito, among the Timbu Indians in Santa Fé; and he succeeded in bringing that tribe of Indians to friendly terms with the colony. He continued the ascent of the Paraná as far as the cataracts in Misiones, and afterward explored the Paraguay, from which he entered the Vermejo, where his party suffered severely in a savage fight with the Agaces, or Paragua Indians. Of this tribe a subdued remnant now lives on the delta of the Pilcomayo, opposite Asuncion, amalgamating neither with the Spaniards nor with the wild Guaycurus of the surrounding parts of the Chaco. The profusion of silver ornaments worn by these Indians, as well as by the Timbos and Guaranis, led him to give the name of *Rio de la Plata*, or Silver River, to the splendid stream which he had thus far explored. This name is now applied only to the estuary below the junction of the Paraná and Uruguay. One of Cabot's lieutenants, detached on a separate exploring expedition up the Uruguay, was killed, together with a great part of his crew, by the Charrua Indians. And subsequently at San Espirito, an attempt of the chief of the Timbus to obtain possession of one of the Spanish ladies in the settlement led to a treacherous massacre of the garrison. Before this latter occurrence, Diego Garcia arrived in the river with an expedition fitted out in Spain, for the purpose of continuing the explorations commenced by De Solis; and Cabot returned to Spain, where he applied to Charles I for the means of opening communication with Peru by way of the Vermejo. But the resources of the king were absorbed in his struggle as emperor (under the name of Charles V) with Francis I of France, so that he was obliged to leave the enterprise of South American discoveries to his wealthy nobles.

Cabot's
Explora-
tions

In August, 1534, Mendoza left Cabot for the River La Plata at the head of the largest and wealthiest expedition that had ever left Europe for the New World. In January, 1535, he entered the River La Plata, where he followed the northern shore to San Gabriel, and then crossing the river, he landed on the Pampas. The name of Buenos Ayres was given the country by Del Campo, who first stepped ashore where the city of that name now stands,

and where, on February 2, the settlement of Santa Maria de Buenos Ayres was founded; the smaller vessels having been safely harbored in the Riachuelo, half a league south of the settlement. Mendoza's captains then explored the country between Paraguay and Peru, in which latter county Pizarro had, in 1535, founded the city of Lima. Of one of these expeditions, consisting of two hundred men, who left Paraguay in February, 1537, and who are said to have reached the southeast districts of Peru, under Ayolas, every man was killed by the Paragua Indians in the northern part of the Chaco while the expedition was returning laden with plunder. Ayolas had, on his way up the river, built and garrisoned a fort named Corpus Christi among the Timbus in Santa Fé, near the deserted settlement of San Espiritu; and in Paraguay, after three days' fighting with the Guarani Indians, as narrated by Du Graty, he had, on August 15, 1536, established a settlement where the city of Asuncion now stands. In the meantime the settlement of Buenos Ayres was attacked and burned by the Indians; and after terrible sufferings from famine as well as attacks of the Indians, jaguars, and pumas, the Spaniards abandoned the place on the arrival from Spain of a fresh expedition, in company with which they ascended the river, first to Corpus Christi, and then to Asuncion, where, in 1538, Irala was elected captain-general.

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 AMERICA
 ARGENTINE
 REPUBLIC

Indian
 Massacre
 of Plun-
 dering
 Explorers

In 1542 Buenos Ayres was re-established by an expedition sent out from Spain for the purpose under Cabeza de Vaca. This able leader landed at Santa Catherina, in Brazil, and marched overland to Asuncion, from which he sent vessels to join the new expedition at Buenos Ayres, reaching that place, according to Southey, just in time to save the newcomers from extermination by the Indians. Here the Spaniards again found themselves unable to withstand the incessant attacks of the savages, and the place was a second time abandoned on the 3d of February, 1543. At Asuncion the Spaniards were more successful in establishing themselves among the Guarani Indians, who, after much severe fighting, finding themselves unable to vanquish the Spaniards, made alliance with them, both offensive and defensive, and also intermarried with them. The events which transpired at Asuncion belong, however, to the history of Paraguay.

Indian
 Conflicts

In 1573 Garay, at the head of an expedition despatched from

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 AMERICA
 ARGENTINE
 REPUBLIC

Buenos
 Ayres
 Estab-
 lished

Asuncion, founded the city of Santa Fé near the abandoned settlement of San Espiritu and Corpus Christi. The expulsion of the Spaniards from the latter place had, according to the *Historia Argentina*, resulted from a wanton attack made by them on the Caracaca Indians, slaughtering the men, and taking the women captive,—a mode of procedure which all Pampa Indians adopted, and have ever since acted on. It is unfortunate, both for the Indians and for the Spaniards, that the bold *conquistadores* were not always under the guidance of such high-principled men as Cabot and Cabeza de Vaca. In 1580, when the new colony had been firmly established, Garay proceeded southward and made the third attempt to establish Buenos Ayres, under the name “*Cuidad de la Santissima Trinidad, Puerto de Santa Maria de Buenos Ayres;*” and notwithstanding the determined hostility of the Querandi Indians, who were encouraged by the success of their two preceding wars, the Spaniards succeeded in holding the place. The settlement prospered, and the cattle and horses brought from Europe multiplied and spread over the plains of the Pampas.

While the Spaniards of the River La Plata were thus engaged, Pizarro had effected the conquest of Peru; and his lieutenant, Almagro, had extended the conquest to the south of Chile, from which, in 1559, Hurtado de Mendoza crossed the Andes, and, having defeated the Araucanian Indians, founded the city of Mendoza. It is interesting to observe that up to the present day the giant chain of the Andes has been a less defective barrier to trade than the rich plains of the Pampas. In 1550 the Spaniards from Peru entered the northwestern provinces by way of Catamarca, and founded the city of Tucuman in 1565, and that of Cordova in 1573. It was only in 1873, just three hundred years after the cities were founded, that the boundary between the jurisdiction of Cordova and that of Santa Fé was determined by the intervention of the national government. In 1620 Buenos Ayres was separated from the authority of the government established at Asuncion, and was made the seat of the government extending over Mendoza, Santa Fé, Entre Rios, and Corrientes, but at the same time remained, like the government at Asuncion and that of Tucuman, which latter included Cordova, subject to the authority of the viceroyalty of Peru.

After the vast expenditure of blood and treasure which was incurred by the Spaniards in establishing themselves on the River La Plata, as just described, the restrictive legislation of the home government became a more effective hindrance to the development of its resources and the spread of civilization over the country than the hostility of the Indian tribes. Cabot had urged the feasibility of opening an easier channel for trade with the interior of Peru through the River La Plata and its tributaries than that by way of the West Indies and Panama; and, now that his views seemed about to succeed, the interests of the trade, which had in the meantime been established by the northern route, combined to crush the threatened development of that of the River La Plata. Spanish legislation endeavored to exclude all European nations except Spain from the trade by way of the West Indies, and to prevent any trade from being transacted by way of the River La Plata, thus enacting most flagrant injustice toward the people it had encouraged to settle in the latter country.

The hardy pioneers of European civilization in these regions so far overcame the pernicious influences which acted upon Spanish legislation, that in 1602 they obtained permission to export two ship-loads of produce a year. But, to prevent internal trade with Peru, a custom-house was established at Cordova, to levy a duty of fifty per cent. on everything in transfer to or from the River La Plata. In 1665 a relaxation of this system was brought about by the continued remonstrances of the people; and in 1774 free trade was permitted between several of the American posts. In 1786, with a view to better maintaining the country against the encroachments of the Portuguese in their colonies in Brazil, Buenos Ayres was decreed the capital of a viceroyalty, with jurisdiction over the territories of the present republics of Bolivia, Paraguay, Uruguay, and the Argentine Confederation. All this country was then opened to Spanish trade, even with Peru, and the development of its resources, so long thwarted, was allowed comparatively free play. From this time a succession of viceroys exercised jurisdiction over the whole of these territories. Velasco, however, was made governor of the semi-civilized Indians in the Jesuit settlements of Misiones on the Rivers Paraná and Uruguay, subject only to the direct authority of the home government; and in 1806 he became governor of the province of Paraguay, under the

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 ARGENTINE
 REPUBLIC
 Civilization Re-
 stricted
 by Home
 Govern-
 ment

Custom-
 house
 Estab-
 lished

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ARGENTINE
REPUBLICBritish
InvasionFailure
of
English
Invasion

authority of viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, and these offices he still held when the independence of the country was declared.

The authority of the viceroys was interrupted in the lower part of the River La Plata during the wars between England and Spain. On the 27th of June, 1806, General Beresford landed with a body of troops from a British fleet under command of Sir Home Popham, and obtained possession of the City of Buenos Ayres. The viceroy, Sobremonte, retired to Cordova, where Liniers collected an army from all parts of the country, with which, on August 12, he assaulted the city, and Beresford with his troops surrendered. In the meantime Sir Home Popham had taken Maldonado; and in February, 1807, Sir Samuel Auchmuty stormed and took Monte Video. In May, 1808, General Whitelock, with 8,000 men, endeavored to regain possession of Buenos Ayres; but the inhabitants had made great preparations for resistance, and so all the houses were at that time built with their windows opening on the streets, protected with strong iron railings like prison bars, and with flat roofs, each one was of itself a fortress; so that after suffering terrible slaughter in the long straight streets of the city, the invading army capitulated, agreeing to abandon both banks of the River La Plata within two months. Whitelock was brought before a court martial appointed to inquire into the cause of the failure of the enterprise entrusted to him; the indignation excited against him in England in consequence of his want of success, was as great as that excited on the River La Plata against the viceroy, Sobremonte, in consequence of the first success of the English.

The events which we have narrated tended to give self-confidence to the people of Buenos Ayres, who, on applying to the home government for assistance against the English, had been told that they must protect themselves. But the disturbances which ultimately led to the separation of the country from Spain were initiated by the refusal of the Argentines to acknowledge the Napoleonic dynasty established at Madrid. Liniers, who was viceroy on the arrival of the news of the crowning of Joseph Bonaparte as king of Spain, was deposed by the adherents of Ferdinand VII; and on the 19th of July, 1809, Cisneros became viceroy in the name of Ferdinand. In compliance with the urgent appeals of the people, he opened the trade of the country to foreign nations, and on May 25, 1810, a council was formed, with his consent, under

the title of the Provisional Government of the Provinces of the Rio de la Plata. This has since been regarded as the commencement of the era of the political independence of the country. Of this council Mariano Morino, the secretary, was the most prominent member, and the people of the city of Buenos Ayres were for some time its only effective supporters. An attempt of the Spanish party to make Cisneros president of the council failed, and he retired to Monte Video.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 ARGENTINE
 REPUBLIC
 Beginning of
 Independence

On the 31st of January, 1813, a congress was assembled at Buenos Ayres; and Posadas was elected dictator of the republic. Monte Video still supported the cause of Spain, but was besieged by the revolutionary army of Buenos Ayres, and capitulated in 1814. A sanguinary struggle between the party of independence and the adherents of Spain spread over all the country of the River La Plata; but on March 25, 1816, a new congress of deputies elected by the people was assembled at Tucuman, where Payridon was declared president of the republic; and on the 9th of July the separation of the country from Spain was formally declared, and a state of comparative order was re-established. Buenos Ayres was then declared the seat of the government. The whole of the viceroyalty, however, did not acknowledge this government. Bolivia, Paraguay, and Uruguay established themselves each as a separate republic, after passing through scenes of disorder, while the city of Buenos Ayres was itself the scene of sanguinary disturbances.

Spanish
 Supremacy
 Disowned

From this time, however, the struggle for independence became, as regards the Argentine Republic, more of a foreign than a domestic war. The combined forces of Buenos Ayres and Chile defeated the Spaniards at Chacabuco in 1817, and at Maypu in 1818; and from Chile the victorious General San Martin led his troops into Peru, where, on the 9th of July, 1821, he made a triumphal entry into the city of Lima, which had been the greatest stronghold of the Spanish power, having been from the time of its foundation by Pizarro, the seat of government of the viceroyalty of Peru. A general congress was assembled at Buenos Ayres on the 1st of March, 1822, in the presence of ambassadors from all the liberated states, and a general amnesty was decreed, although the war was not ended until December 9, 1824, when the republican forces gained the final victory of Ayacucho, in the Peruvian districts of the Amazon. The Spanish government did not, however, formally

War
 Ended

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ARGENTINE
REPUBLICInde-
pendence
Acknowl-
edged by
Britain

acknowledge the independence of the country until the year 1842. On the 23d of January, 1825, a national constitution was decreed for the federal states which formed the present Argentine Republic; and on February 2 of the same year, Sir Woodbine Parish, acting under instructions of Mr. Canning, signed a commercial treaty in Buenos Ayres, by which the British government acknowledged the independence of the country. For details of the history of the country up to the time of independence the reader is referred to the work of Sir Woodbine Parish, and to the *Historia Argentina*, published in Buenos Ayres. These works have been followed in this short narrative, except when otherwise stated, or in unquestionable matters to which they do not allude.

While the events already described were in progress, Buenos Ayres was involved in a war with Brazil, in consequence of the government of the country having, in 1817, taken possession of the Banda Oriental,* which, under the rule of Artigus, had become a scene of anarchy. Buenos Ayres, unassisted by the northern provinces, waged war with Brazil for the possession of the Banda Oriental, until, in the year 1827, by the mediation of England, that country was made independent of both powers. The origin and progress of that war are more connected with the history of the Oriental than with that of the Argentine Republic. Under the new régime, inaugurated as above described, in 1825, Rivadavia, who was elected president, endeavored to establish a strong central government; and his party obtained the name of Unitarians in contradistinction to their opponents the Federals, who endeavored to keep each state or province as independent as possible of the national government.

Political
Parties
and their
Leaders

At the expiration of Rivadavia's term of office, his opponents triumphed in the election of Vincente Lopez as president; and he was followed in 1827 by Dorrego, another representative of the Federal party. The Unitarians, under the leadership of General Lavalle and his troops, relieved from the war in the Banda Oriental, rebelled against the administration, and in 1828, they defeated the Federals, under Dorrego and General Rosas, in a battle in which Dorrego was taken prisoner and afterward shot. General Rosas then became chief of the Federal party. In 1829 he defeated Lavalle; and obtaining from congress, during a "reign

* The common name in that region for the territory now comprehended in Uruguay.

of terror," such extraordinary powers as enabled him to rule as dictator, he became as hostile to many members of the Federal party as to the Unitarians. In 1838, a dispute between Rosas and the French government led to the blockade of the port of Buenos Ayres by the French fleet; and, encouraged by this occurrence, Lavalle, in 1839, returned to the country to rally the Unitarian party. In 1840 he invaded the province of Buenos Ayres at the head of troops raised chiefly in the province of Entre Rios; but he was routed by the Federal army under General Pacheco, and was chased as far as the city of Jujuy, where he was overtaken and shot by troops under the command of Oribe. The rule of Rosas was now one of terror and almost incessant bloodshed in Buenos Ayres, while his partizans, General Oribe and Colonel Mazza, endeavored to exterminate the Unitarians throughout the province. This scene of slaughter was extended to the Banda Oriental by the attempt of Oribe, with the support of Rosas, and of Urquiza, governor of Entre Rios, to establish himself as president of that republic, whose existing government was hostile to Rosas and sheltered all political refugees from the country under his despotic rule.

The siege of Monte Video by the forces of Rosas led to a joint intervention of England and France, and in 1845 the English minister plenipotentiary declared Buenos Ayres blockaded, and determined to establish direct communications with the Republic of Paraguay by ascending the Paraná, the right of navigating which was denied to foreign flags by Rosas, who had always refused to acknowledge the separation of the government of Paraguay from the authority of Buenos Ayres. At Point Obligado, just above the delta of the river, a severe fight occurred, in which the men of the combined squadrons landed and carried the batteries by storm, after Captain Hope of the *Firebrand* and his crew had succeeded in cutting a heavy iron chain which closed the river under their fire. The allied forces then proceeded to Paraguay, and proclaimed the navigation of the mighty river which forms the highway to that country free to all nations. Ineffectual attempts were made by the allies to induce the people of the River La Plata, and more especially Utquizza, to rise against the despotic rule of Rosas; and finding the accomplishment of this impracticable without an army, they raised the blockade of Buenos Ayres in 1847.

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AMERICA

ARGENTINE
REPUBLICEnglish
and
French
Inter-
ventionFree
Navigation
of
the
Paraguay
River
Pro-
claimed

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

ARGENTINE
REPUBLICA New
Constitu-
tion Pro-
claimed

Brazil, whose alliance England and France had rejected in consequence of the opposition of that country to the English policy in the suppression of the slave-trade, now came to terms with Urquiza; and the forces of Brazil, under Caxias, allied with those raised and commanded by Urquiza, invaded the province of Buenos Ayres, and routed the army of Rosas on the 3d of February, 1852 at Monte Caseros about ten miles from the city. Rosas escaped from the battle-field in disguise, and sought protection at the house of the English minister, by whom he was conveyed on board the British steamer *Locust*, leaving the city in a delirium of joy at its sudden emancipation from his tyranny. A provisional government was formed under Urquiza, and the Brazilian and Oriental troops retired. Urquiza then assembled all the provincial governors at San Nicholas, in the province of Buenos Ayres, and on the 31st of May they proclaimed a new constitution,* with Urquiza as provisional director of the Argentine nation.

This constitution gave each province two representatives in the senate or upper chamber of a congress of representatives, which was duly elected and met at Santa Fé; but the people of Buenos Ayres, considering that their political and commercial pre-eminence were not duly represented in the congress, rose in rebellion against it on September 11. Alsina then became governor of Buenos Ayres; and in the new civil war which was now inaugurated might be regarded as the representative of the city, which was his chief support, in opposition to the peasantry, who throughout the country districts were chiefly partizans of Urquiza, or of Rosas. Alsina resigned office in face of a rising of the country districts, under Colonel Lagos, in favor of a restoration of Rosas; but Pacheon, who had defeated the Unitarian General Lavalle in 1840, rallied the city party, and with the support of the most influential

Constitu-
tion and
Govern-
ment

* By the provisions of the constitution the executive power is left to a president, elected for six years by representatives of the fourteen provinces, equal to double the number of the senators and the deputies combined. The legislative authority is vested in a national congress consisting of a senate and a house of representatives. The deputies are elected for four years, but one half of the house must retire every two years. The two chambers meet annually from May 1 to September 30. A vice-president, elected in the same manner and at the same time as the president, fills the office of chairman of the senate, but otherwise has no political power. The president is commander-in-chief of the troops, and with the vice-president, must be a Roman Catholic, and an Argentine by birth. He can not be re-elected.

citizens, proclaimed the aged General Pintos provisional governor, and the influence of the leading members of the foreign community was actively exerted in his favor. The defense of the city, now besieged by Lagos, was entrusted to General Hornos; and Urquiza, having been duly elected president by the other thirteen provinces, came to terms with Lagos, and took command of the army of the besiegers; and in April, 1853, his fleet blockaded the port. In July the besiegers suddenly disappeared without awaiting an expected sally of the city forces under General Paz, now commander-in-chief. Urquiza signed, on board the British steamer *Locust*, as representative of the thirteen provinces, a treaty with Sir Charles Hotham, by which the free navigation of the rivers was confirmed. The province of Buenos Ayres then became established as an independent state, and inaugurated an era of commercial and political development, with Obligado as constitutional governor, while Paraná became the capital of the thirteen provinces under Urquiza.

Differential duties imposed by the confederation for the purpose of preventing the foreign trade of the confederated states from taking its ordinary course through Buenos Ayres caused great irritation in the latter province; but peace was, nevertheless, maintained until 1859, when Alsina again became governor of Buenos Ayres, and the numerous questions in dispute soon led to active hostilities between the government at Paraná and Buenos Ayres. The army of the latter, under General (then Colonel) Mitre, was defeated by the Confederate forces at Cepeda, in the province of Buenos Ayres, in October, 1859; and Urquiza re-entered the city, when Alsina resigned his office of governor to Ocampo, and Buenos Ayres rejoined the Confederation, of which Urquiza resigned the presidency. Derqui was then elected president of the fourteen provinces, with the seat of government at Paraná; while Urquiza became governor of Entre Rios, and Mitre governor of Buenos Ayres. Hostilities, however, recommenced in 1861, and the armies of the opposite parties, under Generals Urquiza and Mitre respectively, met at Pavon, in the province at Santa Fé. Mitre this time was victorious, and in 1862 was elected president of the Argentine confederation, of which, with the consent of the provincial legislature, the city of Buenos Ayres became provisionally the capital. Urquiza retired to the province of Entre Rios, of which

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

ARGENTINE
REPUBLIC

Estab-
lished
as an
Inde-
pendent
State

Buenos
Ayres
Becomes
the
Capital

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 ARGENTINE
 REPUBLIC

he continued to be governor. The history of these struggles is ably told by Mr. Latham, from a Buenos Aryeen point of view; and also, from the opposite side, by M. De Moussy, in his able and elaborate work dedicated to Urquiza.

Vessels
 Seized
 by
 Paraguay

In 1864 the republic of Paraguay commenced war against Brazil, and on February 5, 1865, President Lopez sent a despatch to the Argentine government, requesting permission for the passage of a Paraguayan army through the province of Corrientes. This Mitre refused, the neutrality of the country having previously been declared. On the morning of April 13 a Paraguayan fleet entered the port of Corrientes, and, without any previous warning of belligerent intentions, fired into and took possession of two vessels of the Argentine navy which were lying at anchor in the port, and also fired on the crew as they endeavored to swim ashore to escape the unexpected slaughter. In the course of the following day a detachment of Paraguayan troops took possession of the city, while the main body of an invading army marched across the province, and, crossing the Uruguay, invaded Brazil. The sudden seizure of the vessels in the port of Corrientes was the first notification of war which reached the Argentine government.

Treaty
 for
 Defense

The official declaration of war, which was dated the 29th of March, and was based on a declaration passed in congress on the 18th, did not reach the Argentine government until the 3d of May. The people of Buenos Ayres were thrown into a frenzy of indignation on the receipt of the news of the above-mentioned hostilities; and on the 1st of May a treaty was signed between the Argentine government, Brazil, and the Oriental Republic, by which these powers mutually bound themselves not to lay down their arms until they had abolished the government of Lopez, but at the same time guaranteeing the independence of Paraguay. Thus the national government established at Buenos Ayres was launched into a war which sorely tried its resources, both for the prosecution of the war itself, and for the suppression of the opponents of its policy in some districts. The war was soon carried into Paraguay; but the withdrawal of the main body of the Argentine army, under General Paunero and Arredondo, was necessitated by a rebellion in the northwest (January, 1867), where the rebels, under Saa and Videla, had obtained control of several of the provincial governments. The rebel army was not able to cope with the vet-

erans fresh from the battle-fields of Paraguay, who drove them across the Andes into Chile, where they laid down their arms.

These internal troubles made it requisite for Mitre to retire from the post of commander-in-chief of the allied forces in the field, which then devolved upon the Brazilian General Caxias. Urquiza, though nominally under the order of the national government, having, on the outbreak of the war, accepted from them the appointment of commander-in-chief of the forces of Entre Rios, virtually held the province in a state of neutrality throughout the war, which was ended by the shooting of Lopez on March 1, 1870, after the extermination of his army and a large majority of the inhabitants of the country. Urquiza, at the outbreak of the war, was the most renowned and powerful chieftain in the country, and doubt regarding the course he might take was a source of anxiety in Buenos Ayres. He had accumulated immense estates and wealth in Entre Rios; and he was doubtless actuated by an earnest desire to preserve to his province the blessings of peace and commercial prosperity in the midst of the surrounding disturbances. The hope of obtaining support from him is, however, supposed to have encouraged the rebellion of the northwestern provinces, which neutralized the reckless audacity with which the Argentine troops fought their first battle in Paraguay.

In 1868, while the war was going on, Mitre's term of office as president expired, and Sarmiento was peacefully elected in his place. The close of the Paraguayan war did not bring permanent peace to the country; for, on April 12, 1870, Urquiza was assassinated at his family residence by some well-known officers of his army, and the provincial legislature immediately elected Lopez Jordan as governor in his place. The new governor, in his address to congress on his installation, took upon himself the responsibility of the assassination, and the national government refused to acknowledge him as governor of the province, on the ground of undue influence having been brought to bear on the members of the legislature by which he had been elected. The national troops accordingly invaded the province, for the avowed purpose of affording protection for the free expression of opinion in a new election. This became the commencement of a civil war, which materially interfered with the usual prosperity of the province, but which was fortunately brought to a conclusion in the end of January,

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 ARGENTINE
 REPUBLIC

Urquiza
 Assassinated

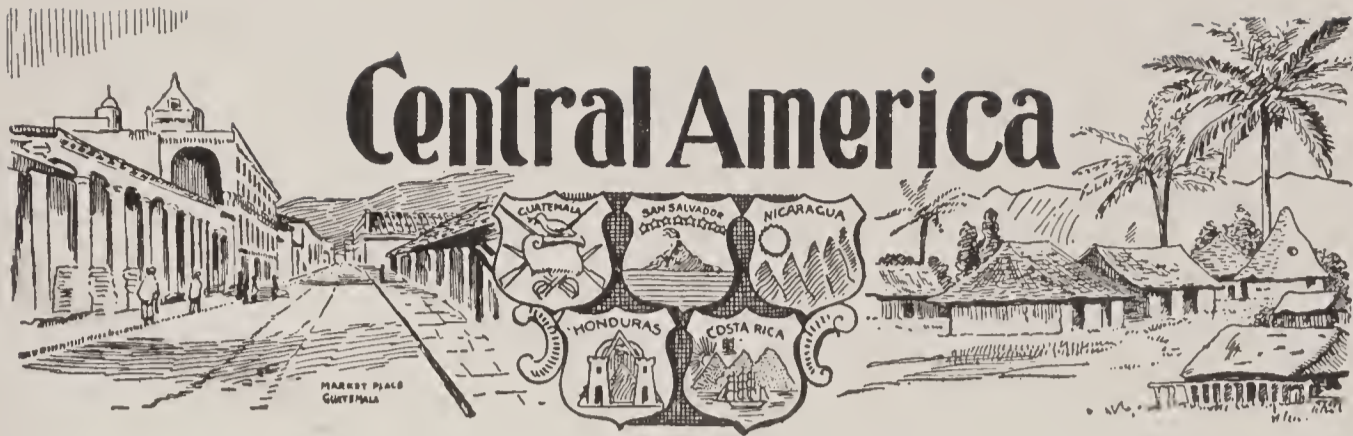
DIVISION VI 1873, by the Entre-Riano army being completely routed by the
AMERICA national troops, armed with Remington rifles, under Colonel
ARGENTINE Gainza. The Entre-Riano leader, with about forty followers,
REPUBLIC escaped across the Uruguay. Tranquillity has since that time
Peace prevailed in Entre Rios.
Restored

The prosperity of the country received a temporary check in 1874, from a brief revolution initiated when President Avellanda was declared elected. The unsuccessful party, under Brigadier-General Mitre, incensed at their defeat, asserted that the elections had been gained by corrupt and fraudulent practises, and resolved to appeal to arms to overthrow the president-elect. The revolution was declared on September 24. President Sarmiento, whose tenure of office was just expiring, took active measures to repress the revolt; and no collision of forces had taken place when the new president, Don Nicolas Avellanda, was constitutionally installed on the 12th of October. The president followed up with energy the measures of his predecessor to suppress the revolution, and his efforts were crowned with success in two decisive victories over the insurgents by the government troops; whereupon Generals Mitre and Arredondo, with their forces, surrendered at discretion, and were made prisoners (December 2). The revolution had lasted but seventy-six days. On the 17th of December a state holiday was declared, and dedicated to rejoicings on the restoration of peace. The complete and absolute crushing of this revolution has great significance, as it has brought about the dissolution of a powerful and ambitious party, whose movements might have seriously affected the onward march of the country.

**A Revo-
lution
Com-
pletely
Crushed**

**Boundary
Dispute**

A boundary dispute between Argentine and Chile led to the mutual appointing of arbitrators (June, 1898) to satisfactorily interpret the disputed treaty of April 17, 1896, and to trace the line of delineation between the two republics. Owing to the rough nature of the country no definite line was agreed upon, and in November of the same year a commission was arranged for by a protocol, by the terms of which five members were to be appointed by each government. The British government has agreed to act as arbitrator, but the commissioners have not yet been able to agree as to the question to be submitted to arbitration. Commissioners are also at work on the boundary along the Bolivian frontier.



THE HISTORY OF CENTRAL AMERICA

[*Authorities* : Brigham, *Guatemala, The Land of the Quetzal* (London, 1887); Lafriere; *De Paris a Guatemala, Notes de Voyage au Centre de l' Amerique*, (8, Paris, 1877); Marr, *Reise nach Central America* (2 vols. 8, Hamburg, 1863); Stephens, *Incidents of Travel in Central America* (New York, 1841); Squier, *Notes on Central America* (New York, 1855); and *Honduras* (London, 1878); "Soltera," *A Lady's Ride across Spanish Honduras* (London, 1884); Lombard, *The New Honduras* (New York, 1887); Bates, *Central America* (1879); Guzman, *Apuntamientos sobre la geografia fisica de la rep. del Salvador* (San Salv., 1883); Reys, *Nociones de historia del Salvador* (San Salv., 1886); Bancroft, *History of Pacific States : Central America* (1882); Bonvallius, *Nicaraguan Antiquities* (Stockholm, 1886); *Costa Rica, Nicaragua, y Panamá, en el Siglo XVI* (Madrid and Paris, 1883); *Costa Rica y Colombia* (Madrid, 1886); Calvo, *República de Costa Rica* (San José, 1887); and the *Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



CENTRAL America comprises that part of the American continent which lies between the Isthmus of Tehuantepec and the Isthmus of Panama. It includes the republics of Guatemala, Honduras, Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica, also British Honduras.

GUATEMALA.

GUATEMALA was conquered in 1524 by Alvarado, a lieutenant of Cortez. After three centuries of harsh, greedy rule, under which the viceroyalty of Guatemala composed all that is now known as Central America, independence was proclaimed September 15, 1821. In 1820 Guatemala had begun to shake off the Spanish yoke, and in 1822-23 it supported the Mexican patriot Iturbide. A confederation of the Central American states was effected in 1824, slavery was abolished, and a democratic constitution was established. On the assassination of the vice-president Flores in 1827, the San Salvadorians marched against the city of Guatemala; and though they were repulsed then, they returned in 1829, and after a severe battle established their general Morazan as

Constitu-
tion Es-
tablished

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 GUATEMALA

president. Guatemala recovered its independence, and Carrera was appointed president till 1856, a dignity which was afterward in 1854 bestowed upon him for life. His rivalry with Barrios, president of Salvador, resulted in open war in 1863. In the battle of Coatepeque the Guatemalians suffered a severe defeat, which was followed by a truce. Honduras now joined with San Salvador, and Nicaragua and Costa Rico with Guatemala.* The contest was finally settled in favor of Carrera, who besieged and



COLUMBUS MONUMENT AT THE THEATER, GUATEMALA

occupied the San Salvador capital, and made himself dominant also in Honduras and Nicaragua. During the rest of his rule, which lasted till his death in April, 1865, he continued to act in concert with the clerical party, and endeavored to maintain friendly relations with the European governments. Carrera's successor

Constitu-
 tion and
 Govern-
 ment

* The republic of Guatemala, established on March 21, 1847, after having formed, for twenty-six years, part of the Confederation of Central America, is governed under a constitution proclaimed December, 1879, and modified October, 1885, November, 1887, and October, 1889. By its terms the legislative power is vested in a National Assembly, consisting of representatives (one for every 20,000 inhabitants) chosen by universal suffrage for four years. The executive is vested in a president, elected for six years, and not eligible for the following period.

was General Cerna, who had been recommended by him for election. In the struggle between Spain and Chile, Guatemala maintained a strict neutrality. The Liberal party began to rise in influence about 1870, and in May, 1871, Cerna was deposed by Granados. The archbishop of Guatemala and the Jesuits were driven into exile as intriguers in the interests of the clerical party; and General Barrios having been chosen president in 1872, the order was declared extinct and its property confiscated. All cities except those on the frontier of Chiapas, San Salvador, and Honduras, were opened to foreign commerce. An alliance was formed with San Salvador for offense and defense. In 1876 Barrios invited representatives from the other Central American republics to meet at Guatemala to deliberate on their amalgamation; but the commission separated amid a clash of arms, and war was soon raging between Guatemala, San Salvador, and Honduras. Guatemala was enabled by her superior resources to come forth victorious from the conflict.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 GUATEMALA

Successful Warfare

HONDURAS

HONDURAS is the third largest republic of Central America. It lies between Nicaragua, San Salvador, and Guatemala, and is bounded on the north by the Bay of Honduras and the Caribbean Sea.

It was discovered by Columbus on his fourth voyage, in 1502, and derives its name from the Spanish *honduras*, "depths," in allusion, according to the common account, to the difficulty he experienced in finding anchorage on its coast. There are numerous pyramids and other remains of the ancient inhabitants. The yoke of Spain was thrown off in 1821 with the rest of Central America, and Honduras became independent on the dissolution of the confederation in 1839.*

Meaning of Name

Revolutions and frequent wars with Guatemala and Salvador attended the republic till 1876. Owing to these conflicts the finances of the country are in a bad condition. The foreign debt

* The legislative power of the republic is given to a congress of deputies in the ratio of one to 10,000 inhabitants. The executive authority rests with a president, nominated and elected by popular vote for four years. The administration is carried on by a council of ministers, to whom are entrusted the departments of the interior, public works, war, finance, public instruction, and justice.

Government

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 HONDURAS
 Foreign
 Debt

of Honduras consists of English loans of over \$16,000,000, and a French loan of \$11,000,000, or a total of over \$27,000,000. No interest has been paid since 1872, and its accumulation has reached the amount of over \$50,000,000. A revolution in the summer of 1892 still further complicated the financial conditions of the country.

On the 20th of June, 1895, a treaty between Honduras, Nicaragua, and Salvador was signed, which provided for the temporary union of the three republics under the name of the Greater Republic of Central America, pending a union of all the republics of Central America which should be accomplished if possible within three years. Guatemala and Costa Rica were not represented at the conference, but it was thought that they would soon come into the federation, which has now come to an end through the action of the *de facto* president of Salvador.

NICARAGUA

NICARAGUA is an independent state of Central America, stretching across the Isthmus from the Caribbean Sea to the Pacific Ocean, between Costa Rica on the south, and Honduras on the north.

Remains
 of
 Ancient
 Sculpture

Like the states north of it, this country was once a center of Aztec civilization. The Aztecs were preceded by another race, likewise civilized, who have left stone sculptures and monumental remains. Columbus sailed along the Mosquito Coast in 1502. Twenty years later the country was overrun by the Spaniards under Gil Gongalez D'Avila, and in 1524 the city of Grenada was founded. In 1610 Leon the democratic, a rival of the aristocratic Grenada, was founded. During the Spanish supremacy (after 1550) Nicaragua was a province of Guatemala. In 1821 it asserted its independence, and two years later joined the federation of the Central American states, a connection which lasted sixteen years. The history of the country after the separation from Spain until 1865 is a record of war and dissension, war with Costa Rica, with Guatemala, and with Great Britain (1848), which had asserted a protectorate over the Mosquito coast since 1655. This region was given up to Nicaragua in 1860. Since that time the republic has made laudable efforts to develop her resources, and to advance along the path of civilization, and she now compares most favor-

Spanish
 Rule

Present
 Condition

ably with her sister states in Central America.* On November 20, 1894, the so-called Mosquito Reserve was reincorporated with the territory of the republic by free resolution of the Indians. The new department is called *departamento de selaya*. It brings the number of provinces of Nicaragua up to thirteen, and the area up to 49,200 square miles.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 NICARAGUA

A commission was appointed July 9, 1896, for the delimitation of the boundary toward Costa Rica, with an arbitrator to decide points of disagreement. The country is of international interest now on account of the proposed canal through it from the Atlantic to the Pacific coasts. It has been suggested that the United States should acquire a title to a strip bordering the canal.

SALVADOR

SALVADOR is the smallest but by far the most thickly populated of the Central American republics. It lies between Honduras and the Pacific, being bounded on the west by Guatemala, and separated from Nicaragua on the east by the Gulf of Fonseca. It was originally called *Cuscatlan*, and was conquered after a long and obstinate contest by Pedro de Alvarado in 1525-26. In 1821 it threw off the Spanish yoke, and from 1823 to 1839 it belonged to the Central American confederacy. Since 1853 it has been an independent republic.† From 1864 till 1890 it had freedom from foreign wars, though internal quarrels were frequent. A brief war with Guatemala followed a proposed union between the five Central American states in 1890.

Location

September 15, 1896, a treaty was ratified by Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua, for the purpose of foreign affairs, by which they were constituted as the *Republica Major de Centro-America*. In November, 1898, it was announced that this confederation had collapsed. At this time General Thomas Reglado made himself dictator, demanding to be recognized as president.

Treaty for Union

* The new constitution of the republic of Nicaragua was proclaimed on July 4, 1894. It vests the legislative power in a congress of one house. The legislature is elected by universal suffrage, the term being two years, and the number of representatives forty. The executive power is with a president elected for four years.

Constitution and Government

† The constitution, proclaimed in 1864, and modified in 1880, 1883, and 1886, vests the legislative power in a congress of seventy deputies, forty-two of whom are proprietors. The election is for one year, and by universal suffrage. The executive is in the hands of a president, whose tenure of office is limited to four years.

Government

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

COSTA RICA

COSTA RICA

COSTA RICA is the most southerly of the five republics of Central America. It is divided into six provinces, and occupies the entire breadth from sea to sea between Nicaragua on the one side and Colombia on the other, with an area of 21,495 miles.

Significa-
tion of
Name

Prior to the discovery of gold, in 1823, Costa Rica was a land of poverty, owing its title of "The Rich Coast" solely to the anticipations of the first Spanish settlers.

Discovered by Columbus in 1493, and probably first settled on his fourth voyage, in 1502, Costa Rica has had much the same history as its neighbors. Its present constitution is the tenth since the declaration of independence in 1821.

There was practically no constitution from 1870 to 1882, dictatorships being the only government for that period. The legislative power is vested in a chamber of representatives—one to every eight thousand inhabitants—chosen in electoral assemblies, the members of which are returned by the suffrage of all who are able to support themselves. The members of the congress are elected for four years, one half retiring every two years. The executive authority is in the hands of a president elected every four years.

BRITISH HONDURAS

BRITISH HONDURAS, or Belize, is a British colony washed on the east by the Bay of Honduras, in the Caribbean Sea, and elsewhere surrounded by Guatemala and Mexico. It forms the southeast part of the peninsula of Yucatan, and measuring one hundred and eighty by sixty miles, has an area of 7,562 square miles. In 1881 the population was 27,452 of whom about one thousand six hundred were whites. The river Belize traverses the middle of the country.

The name Belize is probably a Spanish corruption of the name Wallis, one of the early British settlers. Those early settlers, buccaneers at starting, then logwood cutters, were frequently attacked by the Spaniards; but since 1798, when they repulsed a fleet and a land-force of two thousand men, their occupation has been formally acquiesced in. Since 1862, Honduras has been a British colony, with a lieutenant-governor, whose rank was raised in 1884 to that of governor.



THE HISTORY OF THE WEST INDIES

[*Authorities* : M. G. Lewis, *Journal of the West India Proprietor* (1834); Champlain, *Voyage to the West Indies* (1859); Bates, *Central America, West Indies, and South America* (1878; new ed., 1882); Charles Kingsley, *At Last* (1869; new ed., 1889); Eden, *The West Indies* (1881); Eves, *The West Indies* (new ed., 1891); Froude, *The English in the West Indies* (1888); Bulkeley, *The Lesser Antilles* (1890), and the *Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



THE West Indies form the great archipelago which extends in a curve from Florida in North America to the north coast of South America, separating the Atlantic Ocean from the enclosed waters of the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea. The name originated from the belief of Columbus that when he reached the Bahamas he had actually reached India by sailing westward, an accomplishment that had long been his hope and design.

Origin of Name

Four larger islands and several more or less well-defined groups are included in the West Indies. These larger islands will be considered separately in the following pages.

The lesser islands belong to the following countries : GREAT BRITAIN : Windward Islands, Leeward Islands, and Trinidad; FRANCE : Guadeloupe, St. Bartholomew, and Martinique; HOLLAND : Curaçao, Bonairs, Aruba, St. Eustatius, St. Martin, and Saba; DENMARK : Santa Cruz, St. Thomas, and St. John.

Owners of the Lesser Islands

CUBA.

(A full account of Cuba and the late Spanish-American war is given in Vols. V to X. See Index.)

THE island of Cuba is the largest and the richest of the West Indies. It was discovered by Columbus on the 28th of October, 1492, on his first voyage. It was called Juana in honor of Prince John, son of Ferdinand and Isabella; but after Ferdinand's death it

DIVISION VI received the name of Ferdinandina. Later it was designated San-
 AMERICA tiago, from the patron saint of Spain; and still later Ave Maria, in
 CUBA honor of the Virgin. Its present name is that by which it was
 known by the natives at the time of its discovery.

Early
Colonies

Cuba was twice visited by Columbus after its discovery — in April, 1494, and again in 1502. In 1511 his son, Diego Columbus, for the purpose of colonizing the island, fitted out an expedition consisting of 300 men, under Diego Velasquez, who had accompanied his father on his second voyage. Their first settlement was at Baracoa, and in 1514 they founded Santiago and Trinidad. In July, 1515, was planted a town called San Christoval de la Havana, which name was transferred in 1519 to the present capital. In 1538 Havana was reduced to ashes by a French privateer, and to prevent a similar disaster in the future a fortress was built by Fernando de Soto, which still exists. This defense, however, was not sufficient, as in 1554 the French again attacked and destroyed Havana. The rearing of cattle was the first industry of the colonists followed by the cultivation of tobacco and the sugar-cane introduced in 1580. The need of laborers to carry on this work led to the establishment of Negro slavery to take the place of the service rendered by the natives, who, being unaccustomed to such a life, were unable to survive its hardships.

Negro
Slavery

British
Occupation of
Havana

Previous to 1600 two other fortresses were built for the defense of Havana, the Morro and the Punta, which are still in existence. For about a century and a half after this period the island was kept in a state of almost perpetual fear of invasion from French, English, Dutch, or the pirates infesting the seas in that region. The walls of Havana were commenced about 1665, and in 1762 the city was taken by an English fleet and army under Lord Albermarle. The defense was exceedingly obstinate. The English bombardment began the 6th of June, but it was not till the 30th of July that Morro Castle surrendered, and on the 14th of August the city capitulated. By the Treaty of Paris, in February of the following year, Cuba was restored to the Spaniards. The administration of Las Casas, who arrived as captain-general in 1790, is represented by Spanish writers as a brilliant epoch in Cuban history.

On the deposition of the royal family of Spain by Napoleon (the news of which arrived in July, 1808) every member of the *cabildo*

took oath to preserve the island for the deposed sovereign, and declared war against Napoleon. Since that time until the recent revolution the island had been governed by a succession of governor-generals from Spain, armed with almost absolute authority. Some of these have ruled well, while the names of others are covered with infamy, the office having been frequently sought and bestowed only as a means of acquiring a fortune. The deprivation of civil, political, and religious liberty, and exclusion from all public stations, combined with a heavy taxation to maintain the standing army and navy, have resulted in a deadly hatred between the native Cubans and the mass of officials sent from Spain. This has manifested itself in frequent risings for greater privileges and freedom. Great sympathy has been shown for the Cubans by the people of the United States, President Polk even going to the length, in 1848, of proposing, through the American ambassador at Madrid, a transference of the island to the United States for a sum of \$1,000,000. A similar proposal was made ten years later in the senate,—the sum suggested being \$30,000,000,—but after debate it was withdrawn. In a debate on Cuban affairs in the cortes at Madrid in November, 1896, it was stated that during the preceding eight years Spain had sent to Cuba 145,000 soldiers, and her best officers, with but little or no result. On the other hand Cuba, under the perpetual apprehension of rebellion, has seen her trade decrease, her crops reduced, and her inhabitants deserting to the United States and the Spanish republics. Her taxes have been trebled in vain to meet the ever-increasing expenses and floating debts. During the last two decades hundreds of thousands of the best men of Spain have sacrificed their lives in a vain attempt to retain control of this beautiful island.

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

CUBA

Loyalty
to SpainDesire
for
FreedomSpanish
Sacrifices

HAITI, OR SANTO DOMINGO

HAITI, sometimes called Hispaniola, is the largest, excepting Cuba, of the West India Islands. Its history begins with its discovery by Columbus, who landed at St. Nicolas Mole, December 6, 1492, having left Cuba the day before. The island was then occupied by about two million people of a low type of humanity, who are described in Spanish history as feeble in intellect, and morally and physically defective.

Dis-
covered
by Col-
umbus

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

HAITI

Struggle
for
Liberty

About 1630 a mixed colony of French and English, who had been driven out of St. Christophers by the Spaniards, established themselves in the Island of Tortuga, where they soon grew formidable under the name of buccaneers. They at last obtained a footing on the mainland of Haiti, into which they had previously made only predatory excursions. By the Treaty of Ryswick (1667) the part of the island which they held was ceded to France. The colony, for a time unimportant, had attained a period of flourishing prosperity when the French Revolution broke out in 1789. The population was then composed of three classes,—whites, free people of color (mostly mulattoes), and slaves. The free people of color, some of whom were wealthy proprietors, demanded that the principles of the revolution should be extended to them. This was opposed by the whites, who had previously controlled all public honors, and the two classes were violently inflamed against each other when the national convention (1701) passed a decree giving to the mulattoes all the rights of French citizens. The whites adopted violent measures, and appealed to the mother country to reverse the decree. This was done, but too late to conciliate the mulattoes, who, at the time of the insurrection of the plantation slaves in 1791, took up arms, and joined the slaves in a most destructive war which raged for several years, each party seeming to try to outdo the other in acts of cruelty. In 1793 the abolition of slavery in the colony was proclaimed by French commissioners who had been sent to quell the disturbance, but French and British forces alike were unsuccessful in this.

Slavery
Abol-
ished

Finally Toussaint L'Ouverture,* the leader of the blacks, came to the aid of the French, the home government in the meantime having ratified the act of the commissioners in freeing the slaves. He was made commander-in-chief of the French army, and in

Tous-
saint
L' Ouver-
ture

* Toussaint L'Ouverture (1743-1803) was a distinguished Negro, born a slave in the island of Haiti. After the insurrection of 1791 Toussaint served in the army of the blacks, and latterly rose to be their leader. He displayed great military and political ability, and in 1796 the French government appointed him general in chief of the troops in Santo Domingo. After a severe struggle with insurrectionary movements he assumed supreme civil authority, and in 1801 was completely master of the island. He was appointed president for life of the republic of Haiti, and under his vigorous government the commerce and agriculture of the island began to revive. But Napoleon did not choose to see him independent, although professedly loyal to France, and sent a powerful expedition to subdue Toussaint, who was forced to surrender. After a vigorous resistance, he was seized and sent to France, where he died in prison.

1798 forced the British to evacuate the island. In 1801 a constitutional form of government was adopted, over which Toussaint, then master of the whole country, was to be president for life. Bonaparte, determined to reduce the colony and restore slavery, sent to Haiti 25,000 troops under General Laclerc. Under the pretense of an interview looking toward peace, the Negro chief was seized, and sent to France, where he died in prison in 1803. The blacks, infuriated by this treachery, renewed the struggle, and independence was declared in 1804. Then followed a series of strifes for the position of governor, attended by much cruelty and many revolutions.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 HAITI

French
 Treach-
 ery

The Spaniards re-established themselves in the eastern part of the island, retaining the French name modified to Santo Domingo. In 1821 Boyer, taking advantage of the dissensions there, invaded the colony from the western, or French, part of the island, over which he had already made himself master. The Spanish were driven out, and a republic was formed, and Boyer held the presidency until 1843, when he was driven from the island by a revolution.

In 1844 the people of the eastern part of the island again asserted their independence, and established the Dominican Republic, and from that date to the present time the two political divisions have been maintained. The western division was ruled by several presidents rapidly succeeding each other till in 1867 the present constitution of the Haitian Republic was adopted.*

Domini-
 can
 Republic
 Formed

In 1886 great troubles arose because of large thefts of funds from the National bank of Haiti. Imprisonments of doubtful justice followed, against which the British and American governments protested, and the prisoners were soon released. General Légitime was elected president October 22, 1888, and General Hypolyte was installed as president January 1, 1889. A conflict of authority and immediate war followed. General Hyppolyte was finally successful, but his term was marked by several incipient revolts. He died March 25, 1896. General T. Simon succeeded him, issuing, immediately on taking his seat, a proclamation of

Recent
 Revolts

* The national assembly is composed of two chambers, a senate and a house of commons. There is a special "guard of the government," numbering six hundred and fifty men, with ten generals who act as aids to the president. The latter is elected for a term of seven years. The religion of the republic is chiefly Roman Catholic. Public elementary education is free.

Govern-
 ment

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 HAITI
 Santo Domingo

amnesty to all former insurrectionists. Affairs in the Negro republic now seem to be progressing very peacefully.

The republic of Santo Domingo, in the eastern end of the island, is divided into five provinces, or states. According to the constitution of 1844, re-enforced and modified in 1865, the executive power is in the hands of a president elected for six years, and assisted by a ministry of his own appointing. The legislature is in the hands of a senate of nine members. Each state has also a legislature of its own. Many immigrants have recently arrived from Cuba, and are being urged to settle on the land.

JAMAICA

JAMAICA is an island lying about eighty miles to the southward of the eastern part of Cuba. It is the largest island of the British West Indies. Within its government are comprised the three small islands called the Caymanas. British Honduras has a lieutenant-governor under the general government of Jamaica, although it is nearly seven hundred miles distant.

PORTO RICO

PORTO RICO, or *Puerto Rico* in Spanish, lies seventy miles east of Haiti, and is a trifle less in size than Jamaica. It also was discovered by Columbus, the native name at the time being Borinquen. In 1510, Ponce de Leon founded the town of Caparra, which was soon after abandoned. It is now known as Puerto Viejo. With better success, San Juan Bautista was founded in 1511. In 1595 the capital was sacked by Drake, and in 1598 by the Duke of Cumberland. In 1615 Baldwin Heinrich lost his life in an attack on the Castello del Mono. The attempt of the English in 1678 was equally unsuccessful, and Abercromby, in 1797, had to retire after a three days' siege.

In 1820, a movement was made toward a declaration of independence by the Porto Ricans, but Spanish supremacy was completely re-established by 1823. The last traces of slavery were abolished in 1873, by the abrogation of the system of forced labor. The present conditions in the island, and the acts by which it became a dependency of the United States are considered in full in Volume X. *See Index.*

Early Colonies

Slavery Abolished

THE BAHAMA ISLANDS

DIVISION VI

—
AMERICA—
BAHAMA
ISLANDS—
Dis-
coveryDestruc-
tion of
Natives

THESE islands are a very numerous group, encircling and almost enclosing the Gulf of Mexico. One of the group, San Salvador, or Cat Island, claims historical precedence as the landing-place of Columbus on his memorable voyage. His report to Ferdinand and Isabella, after passing through these islands, was that: "This country excels all others as far as the day surpasses the night in splendor; the natives love their neighbors as themselves." But the natives were doomed to utter destruction.

The deserted islands were first visited by the English in 1629, and a settlement formed in New Providence. From that time on for a period of over 200 years their history has been a series of struggles for supremacy between the British and the rulers of Spain. The islands played an important part in the history of the Civil war in the United States, as they were the base of many successful blockade runners.



THE HISTORY OF MEXICO

[*Authorities:* David A. Wells' *Study of Mexico* (New York, 1887); also Madame Calderon de la Barca, *Life in Mexico* (1843); Brocklehurst, *Mexico To-day* (1882); Castro, *Mexico in 1882* (New York, 1882); F. A. Ober, *Travels in Mexico* (Boston, 1834) and *Mexican Resources* (1885); Mrs. F. C. Gooch, *Face to Face with the Mexicans* (1890); H. S. Bancroft's *Popular History of the Mexican People* (1888); Mora, *Mexico y sus Revoluciones* (8 vols., Paris, 1834), and *Documentos para la Historia de Mexico* (20 vols., Mexico, 1853-57); Lerdo de Tejada, *Comercio exterior de Mexico desde la Conquista hasta hoy* (Mexico, 1853); Frost, *History of Mexico* (New Orleans, 1882); Ballou's *Aztec Land* (Boston, 1890); *Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



MEXICO is a federal republic, embracing twenty-seven states, a federal district, and two territories. The states are divided artificially into four divisions: Northern, Atlantic, Pacific, and Central states. The federal district embraces the City of Mexico, the capital of the republic. The two territories are Lower California and Tepic.

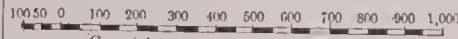
Ancient
History
and
Civiliza-
tion

The history of ancient Mexico exhibits two distinct and widely differing periods—that of the Toltecs and that of the Aztecs. Both were Nahua nations, speaking a language which survives in Mexico to this day. The eighth century is the traditional date when the Toltecs are related to have come from the north, from some undefined locality, bringing to Anahuac its oldest and its highest native civilization. Their capital they established at Tula, north of the Mexican valley. Their laws and usages stamp them as a people of mild and peaceful instincts, industrious, active, and enterprising. They cultivated the land, introduced maize and cotton, made roads, erected monuments of colossal dimensions, and built temples and cities, whose ruins in various parts of New Spain still attest their skill in architecture, and sufficiently explain why the name Toltec should have passed into a synonym for architect. They



NORTH AMERICA.

SCALE OF MILES.



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EQUATOR

knew how to fuse metals, cut and polish the hardest stones, manufacture earthenware, and weave various fabrics; and to their invention are assigned the Mexican hieroglyphics and calendar.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 MEXICO

It is related that a severe famine and pestilence all but destroyed the Toltec people in the eleventh century, and drove the survivors southward to Guatemala and Yucatan, carrying their arts of civilization with them; and near the end of the next century, after their place had been taken by the rude Chichimecs, a fresh migration brought, among other kindred nations, the Aztecs into the land. Within two centuries and a half this last people had become predominant. But their rule was, in a great degree, a reversion to savagery. They were a ferocious race, with a religion gloomy and cruel, and they grafted upon the institutions of their predecessors many fierce and sanguinary practises. Thus they produced an anomalous form of civilization which astonished the Spaniards by its mingled character of mildness and ferocity. After wandering from place to place, the Aztecs founded, about 1325, the city of Tenochtitlan, or Mexico; a hundred years later they had extended their sway beyond their plateau valley, and on the arrival of the Spaniards their empire was found to stretch from ocean to ocean.

Founding
 of Mexico
 City

Their government was an elective empire, the deceased prince being usually succeeded by a brother or nephew, who must be a tried warrior; but sometimes the successor was chosen from among the powerful nobles. The monarch wielded despotic power, save in the case of his great fuedal vassals; these exercised a very similar authority over the peasant class, below whom, again, were the slaves. Taxation appears to have been heavy in Mexico even then. The laws were severe, nearly every crime being met with capital punishment in some form; but justice was administered in open courts, the proceedings of which were perpetuated by means of picture-written records.

Early
 Govern-
 ment

Cortez landed at Vera Cruz in 1519. Fifteen years previous to this time he had sailed for Santo Domingo from Spain, and later accompanied Velazquez in his expedition to Cuba. After the island had been subdued, he came into serious disfavor with the governor, but was reconciled, and became alcalde in the capital, Santiago. The discovery by De Córdoba of Yucatan, and of New Spain (Mexico) by Grijalva, had already fired the ambitious mind of

Landing
 of Cortez

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 MEXICO

Velazquez, when Pedro de Alvarado, who had been despatched by Grijalva, arrived at Cuba; and his glowing accounts filled the governor with a fresh thirst for gain and glory. He hastened to fit out a new expedition, the command of which he gave to Cortez. Cortez sailed November 18, 1518, and one of the most romantic chapters in the history of the world began. The armament with which he entered on the conquest of a vast and civilized empire consisted, according to Bernal Diaz, of five hundred and fifty



SCENE IN VERA CRUZ, MEXICO

Cortez
 Ignores
 His
 Recall

Spaniards, two or three hundred Indians, twelve or fifteen horses, with ten brass guns and some falconets. Scarcely had he touched at Trinidad when orders from Velazquez to supersede him reached the island. These Cortez refused to obey, and thus cut himself off from all hope save in success. He landed first in Yucatan, and entered New Spain at the river of Grijalva. Proceeding inland he reached Tabasco, and here he fought his first battle with the natives. His victory gave him his invaluable interpreter, the beautiful and faithful Donna Marina. At San Juan de Ulna messengers from Montezuma, the king of Mexico, reached him, bringing rich presents, but objecting to his expressed desire for a visit to the king. Here when the faction of Velazquez within his little force began to express openly their hesitation about proceeding

farther, Cortez adroitly got his men to entreat him to change the purpose of the expedition into colonization and conquest instead of mere trade, and was thereupon formally appointed captain-general and justicia-mayor.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 MEXICO

He now founded Vera Cruz, and sent messengers to Charles V. He next united all opposing interests in that of the common safety by burning his ships behind him, and marched to Tlascala, whose warlike inhabitants, subdued after some hard fighting, became henceforward his ever faithful allies. After some delay he started on his memorable march to Mexico, attended by some thousands of his Tlascalan allies; and at Cholula a treacherous attempt, by orders of Montezuma, to entrap the Spaniards was frustrated by his sleepless vigilance. On November 8, 1519, he reached the capital, which Bernal Diaz says appeared when they first saw it like something in a dream, or like one of the enchanted castles in the book of Amadis. The city was situated on the borders of a great salt lake communicating with a fresh-water lake, and was approached by three causeways of solid masonry, one two leagues long, with wooden drawbridges at the ends. At the lowest estimate its inhabitants exceeded 300,000. Cortez had not been a week in the city before he had determined to seize the august person of the king, and hold him as a hostage; his pretext being a treacherous attack upon Vera Cruz. Montezuma was paralyzed at the heroic audacity of his proposal, and was carried to the Spanish quarters, from which he was never to return. Seventeen of the king's officers brought from Vera Cruz were burned to death in his presence, and Montezuma himself put in irons. In general, however, but little apparent restraint was put upon him, and he was allowed to go to his temple accompanied by a guard of one hundred and fifty Spaniards. At length he was constrained to submit to a public act of vassalage to Spain, and to give gold to the value of 100,000 ducats.

Invaders
 Burn
 Their
 Ships

The
 Capital
 Reached

Monte-
 zuma
 Shame-
 fully
 Abused

But Cortez was far more than an ordinary *conquistador*; he inquired about the mines and the methods of cultivation, and made wide explorations into the country; while with characteristic religious zeal he destroyed the more hideous idols, and sternly forbade human sacrifices. Meantime, however, the Mexican hatred for the conquering invaders was beginning to surmount their fear, as they began gradually to discover that they were merely mortal men

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 MEXICO
 Cortez
 Meets
 and
 Conquers
 a Spanish
 Force

in spite of the strange wonder of their horses and cannon, and, moreover, were miserably few in numbers. In the sixth month of his imprisonment, Montezuma asked Cortez to depart. The conqueror craved delay, and learned a few days after the request that eighteen ships had arrived in the bay of San Juan. These ships had been despatched by Velazquez under Pamphilo de Narvaez, who sent a favorable message to Montezuma. Cortez left Alvarado



FERNANDO CORTEZ

in command, and hastened with but a handful of men to meet Narvaez, whose force numbered eight hundred men; and at Cholula, amid a blinding storm, surprised him in an unexpected night attack in which but three of his handful of heroes fell. The defeated troops gladly embraced the cause of the conqueror.

Fourteen days after the defeat of Narvaez came the news from Alvarado that the Spaniards were besieged in their quarters in Mexico. Cortez at once collected all his men, marched to his lieutenant's relief,

and reached the city the 24th of June, 1520. He found himself face to face with a whole nation in arms under Montezuma's brother as popular leader. A general attack was soon made upon him, and not repulsed without a desperate struggle. On the third day the unhappy Montezuma appeared on a battlement with the view of pacifying his people, but was wounded by a shower of stones—an indignity which broke his heart.

Cortez burned the two great idols of the city, but this did not terrify the Mexicans, and he now saw that he must leave the city.

His dispositions were quickly made; the start was made at midnight, July 1, 1526. The first bridge was crossed safely by a pontoon which he had prepared for this purpose, but at once the lake was covered with a multitude of canoes, and so furious an attack made that it proved impossible to raise the pontoon to cross the second bridge. Soon the water was choked with a crowd of struggling horses and men, and the retreat became a confused and hopeless rout. The second and third bridgeways were both broken down, but it was at the third that the greatest loss occurred. In the horrors of that awful night were lost four hundred and fifty Spaniards, forty-six horses, his artillery, four thousand Indian allies, and most of the Mexican prisoners. At Otumba, whither the miserable handful of survivors had retreated, Cortez found himself encompassed by an innumerable host, and there was a desperate battle, in which every individual Spaniard performed prodigies of valor. The exhausted victors were kindly received by their Tlascalan allies, and Cortez at once began preparations to repair his disaster.

On December 26, 1520, Cortez reviewed his troops. He had still five hundred and fifty foot-soldiers, with forty horsemen, and eight or nine cannon. Taking with him ten thousand Tlascalans he marched to Tezcucó, and contrived to form alliances with some of the surrounding Indian tribes.

At length his brigantines, built at Tlascala, arrived, carried by a host of Tlascalans; and after a perilous expedition round the lake, and many ineffectual attempts to come to terms with the Mexicans, he began the formal siege of the city. He himself, with three hundred men, took command of the brigantines, as, in his own words, "the key of the whole war was in the ships." After defeating the Mexicans on the lakes, and destroying innumerable canoes, he made a series of simultaneous incursions along the causeways. The Mexicans fought with the fury of despair, and the triumph of the Spaniards proceeded only at the cost of the gradual destruction of the buildings in the city. Meantime, the Spaniards themselves suffered desperate hardships from the ambuscades of their sleepless enemy, and becoming impatient, they demanded a general attack, in which they suffered a severe repulse. Although famine and pestilence fought for the Spaniards,—as many as fifty thousand Mexicans dying of these during the siege,—the city had to be

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 MEXICO

**Cortez
 Defeated
 by the
 Mexicans**

**City of
 Mexico
 Taken**

DIVISION VI
AMERICA
MEXICO

destroyed before it could be taken. It fell at length, 13th of August, 1521, after a siege of seventy-five days, hardly to be surpassed in the history of the world for obstinacy and valor. Scarce any booty was obtained, the ruined houses were filled with heaps of dead, and almost the entire city had to be rebuilt.

Cortez now showed his wisdom by attempting to restore the native institutions. He rewarded his men with grants of Indians for labor and assistance in colonization. He was formally ap-



CATHEDRAL, CITY OF MEXICO

pointed governor and captain-general of New Spain, in 1522. He next sent out Alvarado on an expedition which led ultimately to the conquest of Guatemala, Sandoval to the north, and Christoval de Olid to Honduras. The last, unfaithful to his trust, rebelled, and the indefatigable Cortez at once set out on a perilous journey to subdue him; but finding his rebellious lieutenant assassinated before his arrival, he returned to New Spain (1526) to find Ponce de Leon invested with the powers of government. In May, 1528, he arrived in Spain, was received with marked honor by the king, and created Marquis del Valle de Guaxaca. He returned in July, 1530, as captain-general, but to his disappointment was not appointed also civil governor of New Spain. He was poor and

Cortez
 Visits
 Spain

broken in health, and henceforward had the continual mortification to see the government muddled by envious and incompetent men. During ten years he was constantly engaged in making new discoveries to the north of Mexico, but now "everything turned to thorns with him;" and in 1540 he returned to Spain.

Mexico was united with other American territories, in 1540, and at one time all the country from Panama to Vancouver's Island was under the name of New Spain, and governed by viceroys (fifty-seven in all) appointed by the mother country. The intolerant spirit of the Catholic clergy led to the suppression of almost every trace of the ancient Aztec nationality and civilization, while the commercial system enforced crippled the resources of the colony; for all foreign trade with any country other than Spain was prohibited on pain of death. The natives were distributed as slaves on the various plantations, though they were also Christianized and looked after by the Inquisition,* whose last *auto-da-fe* was held in Mexico as late as 1815. Mexico was regarded as simply a mine to be worked by the labor of its people for the benefit of Spain. Yet, notwithstanding these drawbacks, it ranked first among all the Spanish colonies in regard to population, material riches, and natural products. For nearly three centuries it may be said to have lain in sullen submission beneath its cruel conqueror's heel, till 1810 the discontent, which had been gaining ground against the viceregal power during the war of the mother country with Napoleon, broke into open rebellion under the leadership of a country priest named Hidalgo. After his defeat and execution in 1811 Morelos, another priest, continued the struggle till he shared the same fate in 1815; and a guerilla warfare was kept up until, in 1821, the capital was surrendered by O'Donoju (a Spaniard of Irish descent), the last of the viceroys. In the following year General Iturbide, who in 1821 had issued the plan de Iguala, providing for the independence of Mexico under a prince of the reigning house, had himself proclaimed emperor; but the guerrilla leader Guerrero, his former ally, and General Santa Anna raised the republican standard, and in 1823 he was banished to Italy with a pension. Returning the following year he was taken and shot, and the federal republic of Mexico was finally established.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 MEXICO

The
 Inquisition in
 Mexico

Provision
 for Independence

* See Vol. III, p. 1189.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 MEXICO

Texas
 Secures
 Inde-
 pendence

For more than half a century after this, till 1876, the history of Mexico is a record of nearly chronic disorder and civil war. Within that period the country had fifty-two presidents, or dictators, another emperor, and a regency; and nearly every change of administration was brought about by violence, a respectable portion of these great men being ultimately shot by some opposing faction. In 1836 Texas secured its independence, for which it had struggled for several years, and which Mexico was compelled to recognize in 1845. In that year Texas was incorporated with the United States. The war thus provoked was continued with great



HOME OF GENERAL GONZALEZ

War
 with the
 United
 States

energy by both parties until 1848, when peace was finally concluded after several bloody engagements had been fought, and the city of Mexico had been stormed and taken by the Americans under General Scott. As the result of this war Mexico was compelled to cede half a million square miles of territory to the United States. For the details of the war, *see Vol. VII, pages 784-800.*

Santa Anna was allowed to retire to Jamaica in 1848, but was recalled by a revolution in 1853, and appointed by an obedient congress, president for life, with a title of the Most Serene Highness. His harsh rule quickly produced a number of revolts, and in 1855 he was driven from the country, finally finding a refuge in

St. Thomas. On the establishment of the empire under Maximilian he was permitted to return on condition of his not interfering in political affairs; but he could not refrain from intriguing for himself and issuing the old proclamations, and so before long Bazaina sent him back to St. Thomas. Even the appointment of grand marshal of the empire could not keep him faithful, and a second conspiracy against Maximilian ended in another fight. He now vainly endeavored to obtain employment against the empire, and in 1867, after the emperor's death, tried to effect a landing at Sisal, but was captured, tried by court martial, and sentenced to death. Juarez, however, pardoned him on condition of his leaving Mexico; and the old man spent the succeeding years mainly on Staten Island, N. Y., in conspiring, cock-fighting, and card-playing, until a general amnesty in 1872 enabled him to return to his own country. There, disregarded and harmless, he died in the capital, June 20, 1876.

DIVISION VI

AMERICA

MEXICO

In 1858 Benito Juarez became president, but his claims were contested by General Iramon,—the head of the reactionary or clerical party,—and the country was plunged in civil war. Juarez was compelled to retire to Vera Cruz, where his government was recognized by the United States in 1859, and whence he issued decrees abolishing religious orders and confiscating church property. In January, 1861, he was able to enter the capital, and in March, was elected president for four years.

Civil
War

The acts of wanton aggression and flagrant injustice perpetrated on foreigners in Mexico during this period of internal disorder, in which the cortes passed an act suspending all payments to foreigners for two years, could not fail to draw upon the Mexican government the serious remonstrance of those European powers whose subjects had just cause of complaint; and the result was to bring English, French, and Spanish fleets into the Mexican Gulf for the purpose of enforcing satisfaction. In 1861 the Spaniards disembarked a force at Vera Cruz; and this step was soon followed by the arrival before that city of the allied fleet. Preparations to advance at once upon the capital alarmed the provisional government, and brought about an armistice, with a view of negotiating a treaty for the future regulation of commercial intercourse between Mexico and the great European powers. This treaty was drawn up and provisionally ratified by the different

Forced
Treaty
with
European
Powers

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 MEXICO

commanders, but not confirmed on the part of France, and consequently the French troops retained occupation of the Mexican territory after the English and Spaniards had declined to join in further hostile demonstrations. In April, 1862, the French emperor finally declared war against the government of Juarez; but the French never met with the welcome they expected from the peo-



PORFIRIO DIAZ

ple, and had ultimately to withdraw, without permanent success, in 1867.

In 1863 the French had called together an assembly of notables, which offered the crown of Mexico to Maximilian, archduke of Austria, and son of Archduke Francis Charles, and the brother of Francis Joseph I. After deliberation he solemnly accepted it, and in June, 1864, he entered Mexico. For a time all went well; but

he vainly tried to reconcile the Mexican parties. Juarez again raised the standard of independence; and soon after (1866) Louis Napoleon had to contemplate the withdrawal of his troops. In vain the Empress Charlotte, a daughter of Leopold I of Belgium, went to Europe to enlist support for her husband; her reason gave way under the continued grief and excitement brought on by disappointment. The French were almost anxious that Maximilian

should leave with their troops; but he felt bound as a man of honor to remain, and share the fate of his followers. At the head of 8,000 men he made a brave defense of Queretaro against a liberal army under Escobedo. In May, 1867, he was betrayed and tried by court martial, and on July 19 he was shot. His body was conveyed to Europe in an Austrian frigate. His death was directly due to his own fatal edict of October 3, 1865, that all Mexicans taken in arms against the empire should be shot without trial.

DIVISION VI
 AMERICA
 MEXICO
 Court
 Martial
 and
 Execu-
 tion of
 Maxi-
 milian

After the death of Maximilian, Juarez again entered the city of Mexico (July, 1867), and was elected president for four years, years disturbed by repeated revolutionary attempts. In 1871 he was re-elected, and the risings became even fiercer and more frequent; but he faced all his foes with the dogged courage of his race, and was holding his position with unwearied energy when he died, somewhat suddenly, July 18, 1872.

On the death of Juarez, the chief justice, Lerdo de Tejada, assumed the presidency, in which, after a revolution, he was succeeded in 1876 by Porfirio Diaz, one of the ablest of Mexican rulers.* At the expiration of his term of office in 1880 General Gonzales was elected president. The fact that Diaz was not re-elected was due not to any dissatisfaction with his administration, but rather the regulations laid down by the constitution which prohibited re-elections. During the administration of Gonzales the constitution was so amended as to admit of again giving Diaz the chief office of the republic, which was done in 1884. Again in 1888, in 1892, and in 1896 was this popular and capable man

Constitu-
 tion
 Amended
 to Allow
 Re-elec-
 tion of
 President

*The present constitution bears date of February 5, 1857, with subsequent modifications down to May, 1896. By its terms Mexico is declared a federative republic, divided into states, territories, and the federal district, each of which has the right to manage its own local affairs, while the whole are bound together in one body politic by fundamental and constitutional laws. The powers of government are divided into three branches, the legislative, executive, and judicial. The legislative power is vested in a congress consisting of a senate, a house of representatives; and the executive in a president. The manner of electing these officers is much the same as in the United States. Congress meets semi-annually from April 1 to May 30, and from September 16 to December 15, and a permanent committee of both houses sits during the recesses. President Diaz, first elected in 1876, is now serving his fifth term, December 1, 1896, to November 30, 1900. The judicial power, which is entirely distinct and independent of the executive, consists of the supreme court, with fifteen judges, chosen for a period of six years, civil courts, with three judges, and district courts, with thirty-two judges.

Govern-
 ment

DIVISION VI
AMERICA
MEXICO
Internal
Improvements

re-elected. During the last twenty years, Mexico has developed internally with such rapidity and substantial thoroughness as to attract the attention of the greater part of the civilized world. Railways, telegraphs, electric light and power plants, modern systems of water-works, and telephones have been spread throughout the republic. President Diaz has, during his twenty years' rule, added materially to the general welfare by conducting a firm and discreet administration. In the latter part of 1896 an insurrection among the Yaqui Indians on the border between Mexico and the United States was suppressed by Mexican and United States forces.



"BREAKNECK" STAIRS, CITY OF QUEBEC



THE HISTORY OF CANADA
INCLUDING NEWFOUNDLAND

[*Authorities:* References may be made to the Histories of Canada by Faillon (French, 2 vols. Mont. 1865), Tuttle (Boston, 1878), Garneau (French, 4 vols. Mont. 1883), Dent (Toronto, 1883), Réveilland (French, 1884), Bryce (1887), and Kingsford (8 vols. 1888 *et seq.*). See also Parkman's Works (1872-84); Grant's *Ocean to Ocean* (1873), and *Picturesque Canada* (2 vols. Toronto, 1884); Sandford Fleming, *Intercolonial Railway* (1876); *Pacific Railway* (1880); Emile Petitote, *Traditions Indiennes du Canada Nord-ouest* (Paris, 1886); Silver's *Handbook*; Clapin, *La France Transatlantique* (Paris, 1885); Lovell's *Gazetteer and History of Canada* (1887-89); *the Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



CANADA is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the west by the Pacific and Alaska, on the east by Newfoundland and the Atlantic, and on the south by the United States. It originally comprised the extensive range of territory as far west as the Mississippi, including the Great Lakes, which was ceded to Great Britain by France in 1763. Subsequently, at the termination of the war of independence in the United States, it was

Extent of Territory

limited to the region now occupied by the provinces of Ontario and Quebec, described prior to 1867 as Upper and Lower Canada. What is known as the Dominion of Canada is a confederation of the colonies of British North America, constituted in 1867 by the British North America Act of that year.*

In 1534 Jacques Cartier, a French navigator, with two small vessels of twenty tons each, landed on the shores of Gaspé (now part of the province of Quebec), and took possession of the country

Discovery

* Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick were the first to unite under the provisions of the statute. The Hudson Bay Territory was acquired from the company of that name, a portion of it formed into the province of Manitoba, the remainder designated the Northwest Territories, and both were admitted into the confederation in 1870. Part of the Northwest Territories was subsequently divided into districts as follows: In 1876, Keewatin; in 1882, Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabasca. In 1871, British Columbia, and in 1873 Prince Edward Island became parties to the Union, which now includes the whole of British North America except Newfoundland

Act of Confederation

DIVISION VI in the name of his sovereign, Francis I. In the following year he
AMERICA passed up the gulf and river, which he named the St. Lawrence,
CANADA and reached Stadaconé, the site of the present city of Quebec. Continuing his voyage, he arrived at Hochelaga, another Indian town, and gave it the name of Mont Royal, since corrupted into Montreal.

But little or nothing was done to promote the colonization of the country until 1608, when Samuel de Champlain, a French gen-



CITY OF QUEBEC (FROM LAVAL UNIVERSITY)

**Coloniza-
tion by
the
French**

tleman of maritime and military experience, and much religious enthusiasm, visited Canada with the object of extending Christianity and developing trade and commerce. He founded the city of Quebec, the name of which is said to be derived from an Indian word *kebek*, "the rock." The control of the immense region, extending eastward to Acadia (Nova Scotia), westward to Lake Superior, and down the Mississippi as far as the Gulf of Mexico, was from this time until 1763 claimed by France.

**British
Claims**

The claims of France were not, however, undisputed, as is shown by the grant of a charter in 1670, by Charles II to Prince Rupert and his company, known ever since as the Hudson Bay

Company, of the exclusive right of trading in the territory watered by streams flowing into Hudson Bay. This company gave up its exclusive right in 1869 on certain conditions, among others, a money payment of \$1,500,000, and a large grant of land. The struggle between Great Britain and France for supremacy in North America was long and bitter, but it terminated finally in 1763, by the cession to the former, under the Treaty of Paris, of Canada with all its dependencies, except the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, which were retained as fishing stations, not to be fortified or garrisoned.

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Hudson Bay, with the adjacent territory, Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, had been previously transferred to England by the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. No time was lost in attempting to adapt British institutions to the new possession; but considerable friction occurred for some years, and it was not altogether allayed by the passing in 1774 of what is known as the Quebec Act. This gave the French-Canadians the free exercise of their religion, and secured their civil rights, laws, and customs. It annexed large territories to Quebec, including that part of the United States now forming Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, which passed from Great Britain in 1783. Quebec was eventually, in 1891, divided into Upper and Lower Canada; but this did not prove satisfactory in either province, leading to conflicts between the popular and elected assemblies and the nominated or official councils, and ultimately to the rebellion in 1838.

Quebec
 Act

The two provinces were reunited in 1840, but the union was not a success, although it indirectly led to the great confederation in 1867. The inhabitants of Upper Canada consisted largely at this time of those who remained loyal to British institutions, and left the United States at the close of the war of independence, while those of Lower Canada were almost exclusively French-Canadians. The representatives from each province were equal in number. Upper Canada, however, made greater progress than Lower Canada, and agitated for an additional number of members, and claimed other concessions, but the demands were always opposed by the latter. The consequence was frequent legislative deadlocks and continued difficulties. Such was the state of things in 1864.

Rebellion

In 1770 St. John Island (renamed Prince Edward Island in

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1780), and in 1784 New Brunswick, were formed out of Nova Scotia into separate colonies. In 1858, owing to the rush for gold and the influx of population, British Columbia was made a crown colony, and in 1866 Vancouver Island was joined to it. In 1864 the maritime provinces were discussing the desirability of local confederation, and advantage of the opportunity was taken by Canada to propose a broader scheme to cover all British North America. After several conferences a basis of union was agreed upon which resulted in the formation of the Dominion.*

**Confed-
eration
Formed**

**Treaty
with the
United
States**

The question of fishery rights has been one of international interest in connection with Canada for many years. The mutual use of the Welland and other canals near the United States border also demanded the attention of both governments, and one of the earliest agreements with the United States by the Dominion after the confederation was formed, was a treaty dealing with these things, signed in 1871, and called by Canadians, the Treaty of Washington. In 1877 an award by the Halifax Fishery Commis-

**Constitu-
tion and
Govern-
ment**

* The government of Canada is federal. The provinces have local legislatures, and they also elect the federal parliament which sits at Ottawa. The executive government and authority of and over Canada is vested in the queen. The governor-general for the time being, whose emoluments are paid out of the Canadian revenue, carries on the government in the name of the queen, with the assistance of a council, known as the cabinet, consisting of the heads of the various departments, which is responsible to the House of Commons. The Dominion Parliament consists of an upper house, styled the Senate (78 members), and the House of Commons (215 members). The senators are nominated for life by the governor in council. The commons are elected every five years, unless the House be dissolved before its course has run. There is a special franchise distinct from that in force for the provincial assemblies; both are exceedingly liberal and extensive. The procedure is very much the same as in the imperial parliament at London. At the head of each of the provinces is a lieutenant-governor, appointed by the governor in council, and paid by the dominion, who is the medium of communication between the provinces and the federal government. In most of the provinces there are two houses of legislature, but in Ontario, Manitoba, and British Columbia there are only single houses. This, however, is a matter entirely within the control of the local authorities, as are also the election of members, franchise qualifications, and alteration of electoral districts; but the extreme length of the local parliaments is defined as four years. The executive in each province is responsible to the local legislature. The Northwest Territories are administered by a lieutenant-governor and a council, partly elected and partly nominated. The powers of the respective dominion and provincial parliaments, and the contributions to the revenues of the latter from the dominion treasury, are defined by the original act and amending acts. Legislation upon local matters is delegated, as a general rule, to the provinces. There is also a very perfect system of municipal government throughout the dominion. Both the counties and townships have their local councils, which regulate the taxation for roads, schools, and other purposes, so that every man directly votes for the taxes he is called upon to pay. Local taxation is very light.



M.A.B.

CHAMPLAIN STREET, CITY OF QUEBEC

sion amounting to \$5,500,000 was made to Great Britain, representing the value of the fishing privileges granted to the United States over and above the concessions made to Canada under the Washington Treaty. The ministry of 1879 adopted a higher customs tariff, called the national policy, as a measure of protection against the United States fiscal policy, and to foster native industries. The pressing need of railway connection with the great undeveloped Northwest had for some time been receiving the attention of representative men in Canada when, in 1880, a contract for the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway was signed. This contract was ratified in 1881 by parliament, and the last spike was driven, and the railway opened in 1885. The next year the first through train for the Pacific left Montreal.

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**Pacific
 Railway
 Opened**

By an order in council in 1880, England made over to the Dominion the islands of the Arctic Archipelago lying to the northward of Canada. In 1884 the boundaries between Ontario and Manitoba were defined by a decision of the judicial committee of the privy council of England; and, five years later, the imperial parliament extended and defined the boundaries of Ontario on the north, east, and west. In 1876 the Northwest Territories, which at first were placed under the jurisdiction of Manitoba, were given a separate government, consisting of a lieutenant-governor and council, with the seat of government at Regina. In 1882, the territories were divided into the four districts of Assiniboia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Athabasca, and in 1886 were given representation in the federal parliament.

**North-
 west
 Territory
 Divided**

In the organization of the territories the sensitiveness of the native half-breeds was touched, and in 1885 they rose in revolt. A provisional government was set up with one Louis Riel at its head. The rebellion was suppressed by an armed expedition from the older provinces with the loss of considerable blood and treasure, and the leader of the uprising was hanged. This hanging of Riel was bitterly resented by the French-Canadians, whose sympathies were actively with their misguided rebel countryman, and for a time there was a strained feeling between the two races and much political disaffection. Crises of this sort are unhappily not uncommon in the Quebec province where the French nationalist feeling, incited by ambitious leaders, has of recent years been a menacing development. Racial antagonism and jealousies have

**Disaffec-
 tion in
 Quebec**

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Manitoba
 School
 Question

been intensified by Romish aggression, and by the stimulus which the ultramontane church in Quebec has of late given to French ambition. This feeling has been shown in several ecclesiastical controversies, being much in evidence during the agitation all over the country on the Manitoba separate schools question, though the French hierarchy, in its attitude toward the discussion, had, in the recent election of M. Laurier, whom the church frowned upon in the contest, received a significant rebuke. Nothing more advantageous to the country could well have happened than this rebuff received by the church.

Bering
 Sea
 Arbitra-
 tion

In 1892 the legislative council of New Brunswick was wiped out of existence, and in the following year the legislative council and assembly of Prince Edward Island were merged into one body. In 1893 the court of arbitrators respecting the seal fisheries in Bering's Sea convened, and declared their award. In 1895 the unorganized and unnamed portions of the Canadian northwest were, by proclamation, given the following designations as provisional districts of the Dominion: Ungava, Franklin, Mackenzie, and Yukon.

Present
 Condi-
 tions

The progress of Canada since the confederation has been very rapid, but its varied resources are still practically undeveloped. Recent events, particularly the extension of railways and the completion of the transcontinental system, have placed the Dominion in a position of advantage which she had not previously occupied. In consequence the volume of immigration to the immense areas of fertile lands is increasing, and the agricultural, manufacturing, and mining interests are becoming more important every year.

NEWFOUNDLAND

NEWFOUNDLAND is an island lying at the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, separated from Labrador on the north by the Strait of Bell Isle. It is a British colony which has not yet become incorporated with the Dominion of Canada, although provision for such union was made by the act of confederation in 1867.

Dis-
 covery

The early history of Newfoundland is involved in obscurity. It was discovered June 24, 1497, in the reign of Henry VII, by John Cabot, and the event is noticed in the following entry in the accounts of the privy-purse expenditure: "1497, August 10, To hym

that found the New Isle, £10." It was visited in 1500 by a Portuguese navigator, and in two years from that time regular fisheries were established on its shores by the Portuguese, French, and Biscayans. Sir Humphrey Gilbert arrived in St. John's harbor, August, 1583, and formally took possession of the island in the name of Queen Elizabeth. In the return voyage the expedition was scattered by a storm, and the commander was lost. The history of the island during the seventeenth and part of the eighteenth centuries is little more than a record of rivalries and feuds between the English and French fishermen.

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NEWFOUND-
LAND

By the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) the island was ceded wholly to England, the French retaining certain privileges in connection with fishing. These reservations, again modified by the Treaty of Versailles (1783), have led to much friction between the French and the people of Newfoundland. A governor was appointed by Great Britain in 1728.*

**English
Rule**

In 1882 a contract was made for the construction of a railway from St. Johns to Hall's Bay, a distance of about two hundred and fifty miles. After eighty-five miles had been completed, the work was suspended. In 1886 the government of the colony commenced a branch line to Placentia which was completed the next year. A contract was afterward entered into with another company to complete the road to Hall's Bay by 1895. The Atlantic cables of the Anglo-American Cable Company land at Heart's Content, on the eastern side of Newfoundland, and at Placentia on the western side.

**Improve-
ments**

*The present form of government, established in 1855, consists of the governor, an executive council, or cabinet of seven members, a legislative council of fifteen members (appointed by the crown), and a general assembly of thirty-six members (elected by the people). Every man of twenty-one years of age, a British subject and two years a resident in the colony, is entitled to vote at elections.

**Govern-
ment**

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